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Dr. David Royse, Major Professor

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WORKPLACE BULLYING IN KUWAIT

DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
College of Social Work
at the University of Kentucky

By
Hamad Adel Alaslwi

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. David Royse, Professor of Social Work

Lexington, Kentucky

2017

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

WORKPLACE BULLYING IN KUWAIT

Workplace bullying (WPB) is a pervasive problem in contemporary society, inflicting detrimental repercussions upon employees, employers, and organizations alike. It affects the physical, psychological, and financial wellbeing not only of its victims, but also their families, their communities, and society as a whole.

Research into this phenomenon has evolved significantly over the past two decades. While related to the physically violent phenomenon of schoolyard bullying, WPB is primarily a psychological phenomenon, manifesting as abusive power in workplace relationships, rather than as interpersonal conflict. Bullying at work comes in many forms, has many faces, and occurs in many places. It ranges from subtle to overt acts, with subtle forms occurring more regularly. The rubric of bullying can include: harassment, mobbing, scapegoating, social exclusion, repudiation, humiliation, and/or workplace mistreatment or abuse. Corresponding to a lack of attention on bullying among adults, WPB seems to occur everywhere—from businesses and factories to colleges and hospitals.

To address this phenomenon, this study a) explored the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait and its association with employee demographics, b) evaluated the sample's views regarding professional social workers in the workplace, and c) explored the relationship between these variables and absenteeism. This non-experimental, quantitative study employed a cross-sectional survey with correlational analyses and prediction research designs.

Using the snowball sampling method via social media platforms, the researcher distributed the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) survey and a demographic questionnaire to an anonymous, non-randomized sample of employees. The target sample included any adult, volunteer participant who was working in Kuwait for at least six months before receiving the survey. From a total of 8,531 recorded surveys, 3,725 surveys with missing data and 119 surveys that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded, leaving 4,687 (53.9%) complete surveys used for the analysis.

The majority of participants were males ranging between 30-39 years old. The vast majority were Kuwaiti, married, bachelor degree graduates, employed in lower-level positions within the governmental sector, earning 800-1,399 KD monthly income. Seventy percent of targets were dissatisfied with management, compared to 50% of the general participants. Similarly, 50% of targets were dissatisfied with their daily

supervisors, compared to 35% of the general participants. Around two-thirds of both targets and general participants agreed with the importance of having a social worker or psychologist at the workplace to address WPB. The vast majority of targets were bullied by their immediate superiors (50%) or other superiors (45%).

Based on a criterion of a minimum of three negative acts monthly, the results of this study indicated a 39% prevalence rate of WPB in Kuwait. This percentage corresponded with the percentage of the targets who labeled themselves as victims. Regarding demographics, a large majority of targets reported being bullied by someone of the opposite gender. Among female targets, 92.7% were bullied by male perpetrators, and among male targets, 82.8% were bullied by female perpetrators. Females were more often reported as perpetrators, and males more often as targets. Non-Kuwaiti employees, the young, the divorced, those working in low-level positions, and those earning low income had the highest rate of exposure to WPB. Regarding prediction, those more likely to experience WPB included: females, the young, non-Kuwaiti employees, and workers in middle-level positions with low education or low income, who were dissatisfied with management, their daily supervisors, or their own jobs, and those who expressed a need for a counselor in the workplace. In terms of predicting WPB-related absenteeism, males, the divorced, and those working in lower-level positions with low income, low education, dissatisfaction with their job, or dissatisfaction with their daily supervisors were more likely to report high absenteeism.

The high rate of WPB has implications in the workplace, calling for concerted efforts to identify the elements that trigger and escalate WPB. This study was the first of its kind to measure such elements of WPB in Kuwait. By using the NAQ-R scale, the demographic questionnaire, and a modified operational definition of WPB, this study has provided a template for needed research in the Arabian Gulf region.

KEYWORDS: *Workplace Bullying, Mobbing, Organizational Culture, Management, Social Work.*

Hamad Adel Alaslawi

August 25, 2017

WORKPLACE BULLYING IN KUWAIT

By

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August 25, 2017

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife Dalal Alballoul, and to my children Adel (8 years old), Alia (6 years old), and Khalid (2 years old). Each of them was very patient and cooperative during my studies, supportive to me in a way that makes me feel shy when thinking of how I could compensate them for the tremendous time that I was not around them, unable to spend enough quality, family time with them that they deserve. I was amazed at how much they were patient and understanding of the work that I had. They helped me with their love, hugs, kisses, and enthusiastic words. Their drawings and projects always reflected happiness and love, and I kept their artwork around my desk to give me a boost to work hard and finish quickly so I could spend more time with them. When they use my desk and tools, it makes my heart fly. Although it sometimes creates chaos, I love their chaos as much as I love them. I love it when they leave loving and encouraging words and hearts on my textbooks and notes. I love it when our little chef Adel creates small meals and snacks and asks me to try them and says that I need it because I am studying. His innovation and creativity in preparing food and smoothies are amazing and delicious. I expect he will have a bright, future career in the food industry. My little princess and bigger helper Alia always takes care of her little brother and home duties; I expect she will be a very good artist. She always impresses me with her drawings and paintings that reflect love, peace, and happiness. My little child Khalid who always plays around my desk and requests to watch videos on my iPhone: when bedtime comes, he always closes my laptop and says “I’m tired and you’re tired, let’s go sleep.” I can’t resist his request, and I directly go to put him in bed. I will miss all of that.

Special thanks, gratitude and respect to my wife Dalal who, although enrolled with me in the same program, never stops supporting me in every aspect. She takes more responsibilities in addition to her studies to help me finish. She is the perfect wife, friend, mother, and sister. I would not succeed without her endless encouragement and support. I owe her a lot.

In addition, I dedicate this dissertation to my parents: my mother Ghanimah Almezal, and my father Adel Alaslwi. Many thanks to them; they deserve honorable doctorate degrees for the tremendous time and effort they spent on raising me and getting me to this point. They value education so much, and they have never stopped supporting me. The worries and thoughts they carried during my journey, wishing me to succeed and finish my studies, must have been a huge burden. I cannot thank them enough, and there are no words to express my gratitude. I hope that one day I can return at least some of their endless support.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study will be on workplace bullying (WPB) in Kuwait. This chapter will first provide a succinct overview of background information needed for the topic. Next, it will discuss present definitions of WPB, past definitions of WPB, and the historical development of the concept within the literature. Finally, it will conclude with a brief description of the purpose and locale of this study.

Introduction

The actions and effects of WPB are contemporary problems in society, causing negative impact on employees, management, quality of work, and work productivity (Carbo, 2008). The World Health Organization has called WPB *psychological violence* (World Health Organization, 2002). This phenomenon of bullying behavior has also been called "mobbing," "ganging up on someone," and "psychic terror" (Leymann, 1990b, p. 119). It affects the physical and psychological health of victims (Crawford, 2001; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Brodsky, 1976; Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003; Keashly & Harvey, 2005) and their family members (Jennifer & Ananiadou, 2003; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002; Tracy, Lutgen-Sandvik, & Alberts, 2006). Additionally, it can have economic implications for the victims (known in the literature as targets), their families, their employers, and their society (Sheehan, Barker, & Rayner, 1999).

In occupational epidemiology, Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper (2003) have defined WPB as "harassing, offending, socially excluding, or negatively affecting someone's work tasks" (p. 15). They go on to say, "in order for the label bullying to be applied to a particular activity, interaction, or process, it has to occur repeatedly and regularly (e.g., weekly) and over a period of time (e.g., about six months)" (Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper,

2003, p. 15). In another paper, Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, (2011) have defined WPB as “the systematic mistreatment of a subordinate, a colleague or a superior, which, if continued and long lasting, may cause severe social, psychological, and psychosomatic problems in the target” (p. 4).

Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, (2010), have defined WPB as “a pattern of hostile messages and abusive behaviors persistently targeted at one or more persons in work settings that can involve work obstruction, public humiliation, verbal abuse, threatening behavior, and multiple forms of intimidation” (p. 345). The Workplace Bullying Institute (WBI) has defined WPB as, “repeated, health-harming mistreatment of one or more persons (the targets) by one or more perpetrators. It is abusive conduct that is: threatening, humiliating, or intimidating, or work interference—sabotage—which prevents work from getting done, or verbal abuse.” (WBI, 2016, para. 1).

Researchers and practitioners have struggled to agree upon one, unified definition of this phenomenon (Kemp, 2014; Saunders, Huynh, & Goodman-Delahunty, 2007; Carbo, 2008); however, most definitions include common criteria that include several key elements. First, the behavior has to be recurrent over time. Second, the behavior must negatively affect the target. Third, the target must face difficulty in defending him or herself. Fourth, the perpetrator has to use his or her power to affect the target psychologically. Thus, bullying is an ongoing process of actions intentionally made to harm. It appears from the literature that bullying is sometimes difficult to identify, which makes it difficult for targets and/or bystanders to understand or to prove. Perhaps this explains why all definitions of WPB include the element of time as a criterion that makes the bullying behavior more obvious than a single act (Kemp, 2014).

Leymann (1990a, 1990b) was the first researcher to develop operational criteria to separate victims from non-victims. His definition of WPB contains two criteria: frequency, and persistence. In terms of frequency, the acts must occur at least weekly. In terms of persistence, these weekly acts must take place for a period of at least six months (Leymann, 1990a, 1990b; Samnani & Singh, 2012; Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003).

Bullying is an escalated process in which the person who exposed to bullying finds themselves in an inferior position after becoming the recipient of systematically hurtful or troubling actions (Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). These definitional requirements propose that bullying is more likely a regular and continuous phenomenon that will lead to psychological issues, rather than transient acts of aggression or violence (Fox & Stallworth, 2010).

The WBI (WBI, 2016) set several other requirements to complement the definition of WPB, in order to distinguish it from other violent behaviors, stating that WPB:

- is fueled by a bully's need to control the victim(s),
- is a choice perpetrators make in regards to the victims, timing, methods, and location,
- may comprise acts of commission (acting against victims) or omission (withholding resources from victims),
- has consequences upon the victim,
- involves observers who take the perpetrator's side, either voluntarily or by force,

- undermines organizational goals when perpetrators' personal objectives take priority over work, and,
- is comparable to domestic violence in the workplace.

What makes WPB a unique phenomenon is its features that distinguish it from any other transient attitude. These four features include: intensity, repetition, duration, and power disparity. First, bullying includes a pattern of multiple, negative behaviors, rarely being limited to one act. Although Leymann (1990b) operationalized a definition bullying requiring only one negative act, other researchers believe that targets should report at least two negative acts for an accurate measure (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). In most of the reported cases of bullying, the targets have incurred numerous types of abuse. Usually researchers have measured the number of bullying acts by counting acts of isolation, humiliation, and intimidation (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Secondly, to consider bullying as a case, these negative acts have to occur frequently, usually weekly or more often. Therefore, since the concept of bullying is generally a repetitive, negative act, the majority of researchers exclude one-time incidents as bullying cases. Third, in addition to repetition (weekly or daily), the negative acts should occur over a period of time. Usually researchers consider a six-month duration as a criterion that distinguishes bullying from other negative behaviors. Finally, power disparity between perpetrator and target is a critical element. Although recent research suggests that targets commonly attempt to resist bullying, most of the WPB definitions propose that targets ultimately feel unable to stop or avoid the bullying. Therefore, power disparity either occurs at the beginning of bullying cases, or evolves over time (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007).

In the workplace, WPB is more complex than what children in a schoolyard experience, as adult victims do not have the protection that is found at school. Also, the types of negative behaviors expand, ranging from subtle to physical.

Historical and Classical Studies of WPB

In the 1970s, a Swedish doctor, Peter-Paul Heinemann, along with a professor of psychology, Dr. Dan Olweus, established the term *bullying* for aggressive behavior occurring in schools (Vickers, 2012). Sweden became the pioneer country associated with research on both schoolyard bullying and WPB following the country's groundbreaking research on schoolyard bullying in the 1980s. Many researchers of WPB consider Heinz Leymann, a German physician and psychiatrist who founded the international anti-bullying movement, a pioneer in this field. Leymann's passion for and involvement with the study of schoolyard bullying led him to explore bullying at work when he found similar dynamics among adult patients (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Leymann published the first study of WPB in 1990(b). Only after the study did the phenomenon become known as WPB (Kemp, 2014). Leymann had also established the world's first work trauma clinic in Sweden in the 1980s and documented that traumatization can result from persistent "psychological terrorization" in the workplace (Namie, 2003a, p. 1).

In 1990, an independent British journalist named Andrea Adams brought the issue to public's attention via a series of BBC broadcasts, popularizing the term *workplace bullying* by 1992 (Adams & Crawford, 1992; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Namie, 2003a). A few years later, new Norwegian (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994) and Finland (Björkqvist, 1994) researchers became interested in the field, becoming some of

the earliest researchers conducting studies on mobbing (as it is known in Europe) and work harassment. Due to Adams' work, some scholars in the United Kingdom began studies on bullying (e.g., Hoel & Cooper, 1999; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997). After the initial Scandinavian and U.K. work, research in this field appeared in many countries, such as Australia (Sheehan & Jordan, 2003), South Africa (Marais-Steinman & Herman, 1997), Austria (Niedl, 1996), Netherlands (Hubert & van Veldhoven, 2001), Germany (Zapf, 1999), and Bangladesh (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2011), as well as others (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Many researchers consider Carrol Brodsky, a U.S. psychiatrist, to be the pioneer in this field in the United States. He published a book called *The Harassed Worker* in 1976 that contained an investigation of 1000 persons who filed workers' compensation claims in California and Nevada. This book is one of the earliest explorations of workplace harassment, but it did not get much attention from the public at the time. However, in the early 1990s, his work resurfaced and has since become valuable scholarship for current studies (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Before the 1990s, most research on workplace harassment focused on the critical issues of racial discrimination and sexual harassment (Saunders et al., 2007). However, in the early 1980s, Helen Cox, a nursing professor, began investigating verbal abuse among nurses after one of her bright students quit her job due to menacing harassment at work. Cox published her research in 1991. Around the same time, Sheehan, Sheehan, White, Leibowitz, & Baldwin (1990) researched workplace abuse amongst medical students.

Gary Namie and Ruth Namie, the founders of The Workplace Bullying & Trauma Institute (Namie, 2003a), imported the term *workplace bullying* to the U.S. in 1997. They

have been providing intervention and implementing systemic solutions for employers, as well as directing the Healthy Workplace Bill (HWB) campaign in the U.S. with law professor David Yamada, advocating for anti-bullying laws at the state and federal level. However, as of 2010, full versions of their laws had not yet been passed in any state (Namie, 2010). Only Utah, California, and Tennessee have passed partial versions of the HWB (History of the U.S., 2011), and Hawaii is the only state on record to have passed their own anti-WPB law independent of the HWB (Fitzpatrick, 2007).

Since the 1990s, interest in workplace hostility has increased in the U.S., and the literature in this area has grown remarkably in the last two decades (Hershcovis, 2011; Horton, 2016; Kemp, 2014; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Samnani & Singh, 2012), as the literature discussed in this chapter will demonstrate.

WPB versus Violence

In the past, the term *bully* typically brought up an image of a playground aggressor who used physical force or intimidation to victimize others (Ryan, 2016). However, Kemp (2014) suggested a bully is one who employs primarily psychological coercion rather than physical violence, which manifests as abusive power in workplace relationships, rather than as interpersonal conflict. Developing from this, WPB becomes a multifactorial and a multi-causal manifestation of hostile workplace behaviors (Kemp, 2014). In totality, the rubric of bullying may include: harassment, scapegoating, social exclusion, humiliation, workplace abuse, and workplace mistreatment; with no clear consensus as to whether these are separate or conceptually related constructs (Kemp, 2014).

The majority of the literature analyzes mistreatment from the target's perspective, producing an abundance of constructs, including: bullying, incivility, social undermining, mobbing, workplace aggression, emotional abuse, victimization, interpersonal conflict, and abusive supervision (Hershcovis, 2011). The WBI states that being bullied is similar to the experience of an abused spouse. The victims have no control over the time and location the perpetrators choose to harm them, which keeps the victims in constant fear, not knowing when the perpetrator will inflict the pain again. However, this ignorance leaves space for the victim to have hope, believing in the possibility of safety and peace. Abusers in both cases also keep their victims close via exploiting relationships, such as the relationship between a husband and his wife, or a boss and his or her subordinate (WBI, 2016).

On the other hand, some researchers believe that models of WPB separate from other victimization-based models in a significant way. They state that WPB ranges from subtle exploits to open aggression (Samnani & Singh, 2012; Tepper & Henle, 2011), with bullying behaviors on the subtle side of the spectrum occurring more frequently than the overt acts (Arthur, 2011; Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Regardless, researchers tend to agree that various forms of workplace mistreatment are distinct, and that the distinctives of WPB are sufficiently meaningful for treating it as a unique construct separate from other victimization-based acts (Samnani & Singh, 2012; Tepper & Henle, 2011).

Violence and aggression are usually overt and easily visible to others (Neuman & Baron, 1998). However, the WBI (WBI, 2016) believes that a single act alone does not constitute bullying. Some people might not feel the negative effects of verbal abuse, thus they avoid harm and intimidation. As a result, assessments of acts of violence need to

account for these individual differences, especially regarding the degree of sensitivity and socialization. Bullying requires both a definite act (whether verbal or physical) and a negative effect on the target (WBI, 2016). As such, if there is no impact, there is no bullying. However, one must be aware of the possibility of a delayed onset of psychological harm, such as with Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (WBI, 2016).

The Extent of WPB

WPB is a social problem that seems to be growing (Hershcovis, 2011; Fox & Stallworth, 2010; Charilaos et al., 2015; Kemp, 2014; Gullander et al., 2015). Most employees either have been the victim of bullying, or have knowledge of someone else who has been (LaVan & Martin, 2008). An exploratory study revealed that nearly 97% of U.S. employees had experienced some form of general WPB behavior over the five-year period leading up to the study (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). In a similar and concurrent study, over half of organizations with more than 1,000 employees identified at least one WPB incident in the year 2005 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006).

The WBI conducted a U.S. national survey in 2014 among 1,000 adults that used complex weighting techniques to represent the demographics of the U.S. population. The results revealed that 72% of the American public was aware that WPB happens, 27% had been bullied directly, and 21% had witnessed—thus vicariously experienced—WPB. Thus, in total, WPB had affected 48% of American workers, according to the study. If that percentage were to be extrapolated to the size of American workforce at the time of the survey, (136 million), this 48% would be equivalent to approximately 65.6 million U.S. workers, all of whom would have experienced WPB, either personally or vicariously (Namie, Christensen, & Phillips, 2014).

In the U.S. health sector, one study discovered that up to 39% of nurses in their first year of professional practice witnessed bullying, most of whom (26.4% to 31% of the entire sample) were targets themselves (Read & Laschinger, 2013). In another study, around 80% of the nurses surveyed had experienced WPB over the previous year (Stagg, Sheridan, Jones, & Speroni, 2011).

Within the educational sector, a different study surveyed participants from 175 four-year colleges and universities to measure the impact of WPB on administrative employees within American higher education. The study found that 62% of higher education administrators had experienced or witnessed WPB within the preceding 18 months (Hollis, 2015).

A cross-sectional questionnaire survey in Turkey of full-time government employees (hospital staff, police officers, and teachers) explored the spread of reported WPB and its effect on health, as well as the support provided for targets. The study revealed that among 877 participants, 55% of the participants reported their experience with one or more types of bullying in the previous year, and—allowing for some degree of overlap—another 47% of the respondents had witnessed the bullying of others. Among the victims, 60% had tried to take action to stop the bullying, though most of them were unsatisfied with the results. The study concluded that those who received little or no support after reporting bullying at work had the poorest scores on the mental health scales for stress, anxiety, and depression (Bilgel, Aytac, & Bayram, 2006).

Why WPB?

There seems to be a vast lack of attention on bullying among adults, even though WPB seems to occur in every sector—in hospitals, businesses, colleges, and factories.

Einarsen et al. (1994) investigated WPB in Norway by surveying members of labor unions. They found that bullying was a common phenomenon even within labor unions and similar organizations. Their results further indicated that WPB and harassment significantly correlate with some aspect of work environment, such as dissatisfaction with leadership, frustration with work control, an uneasy social climate, or confliction over roles within the workplace.

In the past, public interest and bullying research have focused extensively on sexual harassment in organizations and on bullying among schoolchildren. Harassment and WPB without any link to sexual- or gender-conflicts did not receive the same degree of attention (Einarsen et al., 1994). It was often thought that bullying was limited to schoolyard settings, while in fact it is also an adult socio-behavioral issue, recognized globally and considered a major concern for employees and their organizations (Skarbek, Johnson, & Dawson, 2015). One might assume that bullying among adults only occurs in jails or among criminals, but unfortunately, it frequently occurs among highly educated people just as often. Colleges and universities are not immune, and academic institutions have begun focusing on academic bullying both in the U.S. and internationally (Kircher, Stilwell, Talbot, & Chesborough, 2011).

Bullying has varied faces, exists in many places, and its victims are not limited to certain ages or populations. Today's bullying "is more complex, more lethal, and considerably different in many ways from bullying in the past... all of (which) can undermine constructive workplace dynamics" (Ryan, 2016, p. 267). In addition, there is no particular type of person likely to be the target of WPB (Kemp, 2014). Whereas abusive supervision involves mistreatment downwards in the hierarchy, (Tepper, 2007),

mistreatment from WPB can include: “1) from supervisor to subordinate, 2) from subordinate to supervisor, 3) between co-workers, and 4) from customers/clients to employee” (Samnani & Singh, 2012, p.582; see also Fox & Stallworth, 2005). There are also cases in which such hostility is mutual until one participant emerges as the underdog. For example, mutual harassment could be ongoing over time, with no clear distinction between victim and perpetrator. In such cases, the distinctions do not emerge until one side in the conflict gains the upper hand (Leymann, 1990b). In this field of research, by definition, the victim is “the person in the schism who has lost his/her coping resources” (Leymann, 1990b, p. 121).

The Role Characteristics in WPB Cases

In order to understand WPB, it is necessary to identify the roles that each individual plays. There are three main roles in WPB cases: the perpetrators, the targets and the bystanders.

Perpetrators

From a sociological perspective, either oppressive policies (organizational or societal), or a lack of protective policies, could account for the development of a perpetrator. Underlying power structures in society or organizations might also condone such behavior when the perpetrator belongs to the dominant population or culture (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Lee, 2002; Salin, 2003; Zapf & Einarsen, 2005). From a psychological perspective, perpetrators might suffer from psychological and/or ethical impairments, and might have even been victims of abuse or bullying themselves (see Namie, 2003b). The social work perspective draws upon both disciplines to interpret the behavior, as it

believes that behaviors such as bullying result from an interaction between the internal person and his or her external environment.

Target

Victims in WPB cases are often referred to as the *target* (Sheehan, Barker, & Rayner, 1999). Victims are to the bully as prey is to a predator, targets that do not know when it is safe, or when terror might strike again. Such mental state reinforces fear within the targets, jeopardizing their jobs, careers, physical health, and emotional wellbeing (WBI, 2016). Although scholars refer to victims as targets, this does not necessarily mean that all bullying actions target the victims intentionally. Ordinary, unwanted actions can unintentionally turn into bullying if they occur harmfully or consistently over a significant length of time (Leymann, 1990b).

Bystander

The role of bystander is multifaceted in much the same way as the role of perpetrator. Bystanders might find a bullying incident entertaining. They might not want to interfere and risk being bullied themselves, or worse, losing their jobs. The latter is especially true when the perpetrator is in a superior position to the bystanders. Alternately, they might desire to assist but be uncertain about how to do so (vanHeugten, 2011). However, by not intervening, a passive observer can be responsible for indirectly allowing the bullying behavior to increase.

Effects of WPB

The effects of WPB are multi-faceted, affecting more than just the physical and psychological welfare of targeted individuals. In addition to affecting individuals, WPB has effects on social groups, families, organizations, and society as a whole.

Psychological and Physiological Effects

The reluctance to report bullying is common among targets of WPB, as they might fear losing their jobs—especially if they are new employees, or if the bully is a manager. Further, when victims report bullying, they often encounter disbelief or belittling, which further empowers bullies to continue (Indvik & Johnson, 2012).

Researchers have found that, in addition to work-related consequences, WPB has considerable, personal consequences for employees, which are of both psychological and physiological nature (Samnani & Singh, 2012; Kivimäki et al., 2003; Takaki, Taniguchi, & Hirokawa, 2013). Giorgi et al., (2016) said, “bullying is considered...one of the most stressful phenomena in the workplace, ... an example of a dysfunctional and toxic relationship that has detrimental effects on an individual’s physical and psychological health” (p. 1). Literature has shown a negative correlation between exposure to bullying in the workplace and employees’ health and wellbeing (Gullander et al., 2015). Studies in Austria, Germany, and Ireland have shown that targets report greater anxiety, irritability, and depression than non-bullied employees (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003).

According to Charilaos et al. (2015):

Bullying symptoms in individuals can be divided in the following categories:

1. Psychological effects (anxiety, panic attacks, depression, fear, suicidal ideation or suicide, low mental well-being, low self-esteem, humiliation, helplessness, high levels of burn-out, etc.).

2. Psychosomatic effects (dizziness, abdominal pain, back pain, headache, insomnia, fatigue, perspiration, malaise, irritable bowel, high levels of blood pressure, sleeping disorders, lack of appetite, weight loss or gain).
3. Behavioral effects (irritability, alienation and lack of trust, aggressiveness, increased alcohol consumption and smoking, low problem-solving ability, social isolation, deterioration of personal relationships, etc.).
4. Flare-ups of chronic disease (asthma, diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, sciatica, as well as immune system disorders, such as cancer, cardiovascular disease, and more).
5. Increased sickness absenteeism, which can lead to dismissal or resignation. (Charilaos et al., 2015, p.64).

Even after adjusting for depression, researchers have found other significant symptoms related to WPB, including stiffness of the neck or shoulders, lumbago, and pain of two or more joints (Takaki et al., 2013).

Some international, evidence-based studies found that bullying causes overwhelming stress, affecting the human biological system. A good example of this is cardiovascular damage, which starts with hypertension and can lead to cardiac failure. Stress can also affect the gastrointestinal, immunological, and autoimmune systems. Also, neuroscience studies confirm that when a person is under severe stress, parts of the brain can atrophy extensively, resulting in an imbalance of hormone levels, potentially disturbing memory and decision-making skills (WBI, 2016).

In addition to the biological system, emotional and psychological harm are other commonly recognized consequences of bullying. Some researchers even refer to bullying

as “psychological violence,” (e.g., Namie, as cited in Oppermann, 2008, para. 1) because bullying is abusive, potentially promoting anxiety, clinical depression, and/or PTSD. Spreading rumors and lies about victims, tactics bullies often employ, can further lead to feelings of worthlessness and self-blame. Healing from WPB requires reversing all of the negative feelings, enhancing self-esteem, and restoring self-confidence. Because they are drowning in despair, any delay in intervention could lead targets to suicidal ideation, an unviable option that 29% of bullying victims have considered, with 16% of victims having an actual plan at the time of responding to the U.S. national survey in 2012 (WBI, 2016). Although WPB might be a trigger for suicidal ideation, the prior existence of suicidal ideation seems to have no effect on being at-risk of becoming a WPB-victim (Nielsen, Nielsen, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2015).

Social Effects

As neuroscience studies have shown, the aforementioned physical pain is a common effect of threats to one’s identity (Green, Ralph, Moll, Deakin, & Zahn, 2012), one of many sociological effects WPB has upon victims. According to the WBI (2016), one of the ruthless tactics that harms the social status of targets is when bullies ostracize and socially exclude the targets, which subsequently threatens their identities. Thereafter, other coworkers become prone to avoiding the targets out of fear of becoming future targets themselves. The consequences of most of these bullying cases involve the isolation of targets, making it hard for them to cope and diminishing their tolerance for stress. Thus, the shunning of the targets in their working environment further escalates the stress of bullying (WBI, 2016). When victims try to use these unhealthy coping strategies—such as isolating themselves, or such as remaining silent, never discussing

what are they facing at work—it might result in losing a friend, a colleague, or intimate partner (WBI, 2016).

According to Leymann (1990b), many ordinary, transient communication actions can constitute harassment if they occur intentionally, harmfully, and/or consistently over a significant length of time. Potentially affecting the victim within the social environment of the workplace, these actions include:

1. rumor mongering, slandering, or ridiculing, with an intent to damage an individual's reputation,
2. prohibiting a victim's self-expression, refusing to speak directly to a victim, continual criticism, or harsh looks,
3. isolating the victim in a separate office or lonely location,
4. assigning no work, or giving humiliating, meaningless tasks, and
5. threatening violence, or resorting to physical violence (Leymann, 1990b, p.121).

In the first stage, victims potentially receive ridicule and disdain. When they protest, they receive hostility and be sent on false missions to damage their reputation. Thereafter, they become socially isolated, and stigmatized, forcing them to consider voluntary unemployment (Leymann, 1990b).

Effects on the Target's Family

The effects of WPB may also reach victims' families. As one brings unfinished work home, accompanying workplace troubles may surface as well. A work-related issue might negatively influence the family's sense of wellbeing, as the surrounding family members might feel the victims' pain and distress. The WBI states that WPB can strain

the targets' relationships with friends and families, causing even more suffering to the victims (WBI, 2016).

Organizational Effects

The occurrence of bullying behavior among employees is a significant issue facing organizations worldwide today (Saunders et al., 2007). In the contemporary work environment, WPB is a widespread problem that has negative effects upon both the victims of bullying and the organizations in which the bullying occurs (Ma, Chien, Wang, Li, & Yui, 2014; Glendinning, 2001). Bullied individuals are more likely to report lower job satisfaction and overall wellbeing, along with greater stress, in comparison to non-bullied workers (Aquino & Thau, 2009). The effects of WPB can create psychological and physiological ailments, potentially affecting: productivity and work quality among individual employees, the overall work environment and harmony of teams within the workplace, and even the management team that oversees employees' work.

Since WPB has poor outcomes on employees' personal health, it also increases absenteeism and turnover rates (Skarbek et al., 2015), which reflect negatively on productivity and organizational outcomes. A study within the healthcare sector revealed increased absenteeism, decreased job satisfaction, and increased job stress resulting from WPB (Chippis & McRury, 2012). In addition to the increase of employee absenteeism and resignations in the healthcare sector, WPB has also contributed to increased medical errors and negative patient outcomes (Anderson, 2011).

WPB creates an unhealthy organizational environment, which affects targets at all organizational levels. As individual employees' job satisfaction decreases, their quality of work and productivity likewise decrease, affecting the working climate and job

satisfaction of other employees. Organizational missions face undesirable outcomes, and even client satisfaction is disrupted. The losses due to WPB are therefore uncountable, with many parties bearing its consequences.

Societal and Economic Effects.

According to Leymann (1990b), the societal and economic consequences of WPB are just as significant as the psychosocial consequences. A bullied victim might receive wages without performing any productive work, which might last for years. As mentioned above, absenteeism is a major issue caused by bullying, and excessive sick leave for long periods of time results in a decrease in production. Additionally, other efforts are often necessary to address WPB such as: “intervention by personnel officers, personnel consultants, managers of various grades, occupational health staff, external consultants, (and)...the company's health care centers, (which)...can be estimated to amount between 30,000 and 100,000 U.S. dollars per year” (Leymann, 1990b, p.123). At the time of the study, existing cases of WPB in the U.S., U.K., Australia, Canada, West Germany, and Scandinavia had lasted for ten years or more (Leymann, 1990b).

According to the WBI (2016), being a target of bullying brings potential economic harm to its victims. The WBI 2012 U.S. national study reported that almost 78% of targets lost their jobs: 28% quit, 25% terminated involuntarily; and 25% were forced out by constructive discharge (Namie, 2012). The WBI 2011 study asked targets if they found a job after quitting from the abusive situation. Among the respondents, 26% had never replaced their lost job, and among the 74% who had found a job, 53% of them earned less money in their post-bullying position (Namie, 2011).

Explanations for WPB Behavior, Including Conditions Favorable to Bullying

In the infancy of WPB research, the real reason of why bullying occurred in workplace was unknown (Leymann, 1990b). Today, there is still no overarching theoretical framework to explain it (Kemp, 2014). However, researchers have offered multiple explanations as to the reason WPB might occur. For instance, the perpetrator could be jealous of a colleague's tangible or intangible possessions (e.g., a corner office space, benefits, a promotion, or admiration and praise from the boss). The bullying might act as a catharsis that consoles, exalts, or edifies the perpetrators. Perpetrators might act in such ways because they have been previous victims of bullying themselves, thus playing a role that was practiced against them. Alternately, bullying could coincide with an attempt to gain a higher position or administrative power. Sadly, some perpetrators practice bullying as a form of entertainment, either to amuse themselves, or to beguile others. This sense of entertainment might stem from a boring working environment in which perpetrators bully their colleagues to kill the time.

Despite any of the potential reasons, when perpetrators bully others, they rarely do so without associates supporting them in this action (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). In fact, it would not be possible for WPB to occur apart from a workplace environment that supports such behavior (Glendinning, 2001). In some workplace environments—especially in the absence of affirmative and observant administration—perpetrators dauntlessly practice bullying without consequence (Glendinning, 2001). According to Gullander et al., (2015), WPB usually occurs in working environments with poor psychosocial dynamics.

Addressing WPB

Few studies have attempted to identify remedial methods of addressing bullying, and there is no viable, legal solution for WPB in the U.S. According to Carbo (2008),

The legal system in the U.S. offers little protection to targets of workplace bullying. The focus of the U.S. law on discrimination rather than dignity and judicial interpretations of the elements of workplace harassment eliminate the majority of bullying claims from any type of legal protection. Internationally, targets are afforded more protection, but there are still gaps in coverage. (Carbo, 2008, pp. 3-4).

In the U.S., this insufficiency of legal protections for bullying leads work managers to utilize unstandardized approaches to deal with bullying (LaVan & Martin, 2008).

Dealing with this problem has to be at two levels: the micro level (individual), and the mezzo level (organizational management). At the micro level, the effort to fight this issue centers on providing therapeutic sessions to empower victims and admonish aggressors. The efforts at the mezzo level should focus on the organization's enacting of policies to prevent bullying and set punishments for transgression. Studies show that employees are less likely to experience burnout or bullying if they are supported and feel empowered (e.g., Kendall-Raynor, 2011).

However, in order to minimize WPB at the macro level, the effort must not stop at the levels of individuals or organizations. Government certainly needs to enact investigative, preventative, and/or remedial legislation. Such legislation could provide funds for more studies to monitor how well the law works, such as Illinois' Legislative Task Force on Workplace Bullying (Fitzpatrick, Perine, & Dutton, 2010). The 2014 US

national survey by Namie et al., (2014), found that 93% of respondents support enacting a law protecting WPB targets.

The issue might also require an educational program to raise awareness and to nurture a new generation free of bullying. To reach this goal, actions should include changes in legislation, organizational policy, organizational culture, and workplace tensions, as well as provision of rehabilitation for the victims (Kemp, 2014).

Healthy Workplace Bill and Anti-Bullying Campaign

The Healthy Workplace Bill (HWB) is Gary Namie's campaign for an anti-bullying law. Namie is the national director and founder of the WBI. A national project, the campaign pushes to pass the HWB across the U.S. David Yamada, a law professor, crafted the bill in 2001. Since then, the organization has been advocating for anti-bullying laws state-by-state. Over half of the states have received the HWB, and more than 400 legislators have endorsed it. The campaign achieved partial victories in Utah, California, and Tennessee. However, to attain complete victory, all states and/or the federal government still needs to pass a full version of the HWB, making employers responsible for any abusive work environment (HWB, 2016).

The reason for adopting the HWB is that in the majority of cases, employers deal with WPB through the workplace's internal policies, which are diverse and might not do justice for bullied workers. These internal policies tend to lack protection against bullying, especially when the bullies are in a high position, and they have no effect upon the attempt to criminalize bullying. The HWB holds employers accountable to prevent bullying through policies and procedures that apply to all employees and employers, which is the main purpose of the HWB (HWB, 2016).

The major barriers that anti-bullying campaigns face find their roots in US norms, beliefs, and values. Obvious gender and racial identities fueled the now-established civil rights laws in the 1960s, but bullied workers today have a less-organized constituent base. Lawmakers seem reluctant to expand beyond prohibitions against discrimination. Market ideologies (e.g., reverence for capitalism) also hinder both legislative efforts and organizational interventions, as these esteem profits and productivity over anything else. In this kind of cultural environment, worker protection comes second, and typically only when it affects the organization's productivity and economic bottom line. Unfortunately, this is also true even in non-profit organizations. (Namie, Namie, & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2011).

The concept of strong and pioneering spirits has fueled the values of U.S. individualism, which often blames the victims of any miserable event, just as in WPB cases. Additionally, the conditions that shape work environments are hard to identify, and therefore go underestimated. The bully is a poisonous component of the work environment, but rather than organizations removing bullies, they blame targets, who lose their jobs as a result. (Namie et al., 2011).

The reverence for hierarchy is also a barrier to the anti-bullying campaign, as this worldview perceives persons at the top of the organization to be high and lofty, contrasted against the lowly, average worker. Typically, victims consider top executives neither part of the solution nor of the problem (Namie et al., 2011).

Laws against bullying began in Sweden in 1993 and Norway in 1994 (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Sweden, Finland, and Norway supported the right of workers to remain physically and mentally healthy at work via their national Work Environment Acts

(Leymann, 1990b). Despite the law in Sweden being in effect for 23 years, only a few businesses have voluntarily implemented policies and procedures against bullying (Hoel & Einarsen, 2010). Since employers in these pioneering nations are reluctant to initiate anti-bullying policies, even if the United States were to pass anti-bullying laws, the probability of American employers applying anti-bullying policies is modest, at best (Namie et al., 2011).

The absence of a strict and clear law or policy that identifies all the forms of WPB provides perpetrators, whether in the U.S. or any other country, a safe zone or haven to escape and evade the responsibilities and consequences of bullying.

The Role of Organizational Administration.

Through the past two decades, WPB has evolved as a substantial area of research in management studies (Samnani & Singh, 2012). Some researchers have seen that managers and human resources (HR) struggle to identify and efficiently manage WPB, thus proposing a need for psychiatric treatment of victims (Kemp, 2014).

According to Arthur (2011), current studies in this field have focused primarily on the interpersonal behaviors involved—such as bullying, incivility, and sexual harassment, as well as their effects—meanwhile ignoring differences in HR systems, which influence employee interactions and protect employees at work. Arthur conducted a nationally representative study that surveyed over 300 U.S. work places, finding that those with HR systems utilizing less team autonomy and greater internal labor markets and had fewer reported cases than those depending on self-managed teams and external labor markets (Arthur, 2011).

In publishing the results of the 2014 U.S. national survey, Namie et al., revealed that the majority of bullies are supervisors, who account for 72% of cases. A modest 18% of the bullies were the targets' peers, and only 9% of cases were from the bottom up. Since bosses are causing the majority of the problem, it is incumbent on researchers to explore the actions of those at the top of the administrative level.

The Role of Social Worker

The social worker can play a major role in addressing, reconciling, and reconstructing the workplace after bullying has contaminated a relationship between individuals, or between a victim and an organization. The social worker is a well-educated and skilled professional, prepared to deal with varied issues and settings, such as working with: refugees, immigrants, domestic violence, bullying, people with special needs, the elderly, foster care, people with mental/psychological issues, the homeless, divorcees, marriages in need of counseling, drug abusers, addictions, and so on, (Whitaker, 2012).

A professional works on all these problems by addressing them in an organized manner, relying on theoretical and practice-based processes, starting with assessment, intervention, and evaluation. Whitaker (2012) indicates,

Social workers may be called upon to assist employees in addressing occupational risks and in constructing responses that promote psychological and physical safety in the workplace. These responses could range from developing standards for workplace conduct to providing services through employee assistance programs. (Whitaker, 2012, p. 116).

With more awareness of WPB, particularly in regards to organizations employing social workers, Whitaker has suggested that the social work profession ought to improve its tools and guidelines to help practitioners identify, confront, and extinguish WPB behaviors (Whitaker, 2012).

The Purpose of this Study

The main purpose of this study consists of two parts. First, since this study is the first of its kind in Kuwait, it is essential to explore the prevalence of WPB and its association with several demographic variables in Kuwait at the national level. The second part is to detect the public's view of the importance of and need for the social work professional to address this workplace phenomenon.

Aims of the Study

Therefore, this study aims to: a) explore the prevalence and patterns of WPB behaviors experienced by a sample of employees living in the State of Kuwait, b) measure the association of WPB with employees' demographics, c) identify which set of these demographics best predicts WPB and absenteeism, and d) assess the need for social workers to address WPB in individual places of employment.

Core Research Questions

Given the prevalence of WPB in other countries, it is impossible to assume that WPB does not exist in Kuwait. It is possible, however, to assume that adult Kuwaitis lack an understanding of the meaning of WPB behaviors. Therefore, based on the background and literature review, it is both rational and imperative to address the following, core research questions:

1. What is the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait?

2. What participant demographics are associated with WPB in Kuwait?
3. What perpetrator demographics are associated with WPB in Kuwait?
4. What participant, work-related factors are associated with WPB in Kuwait?
5. Which set of demographics best predicts WPB in Kuwait, and do these same variables have implications on absenteeism with illness due to being bullied?
6. Is there a need for social workers in the workplace to address WPB?

Reason for Researching in Kuwait

The reader might be wondering why this study is being conducted in Kuwait instead of another country. First, the researcher is a Kuwaiti citizen who carries a national duty, loyalty, and moral imperative to contribute to policies that promote Kuwaiti residents' wellbeing.

Secondly, as of the date of writing, no other published study has yet investigated WPB in the Arabian Gulf generally, or in Kuwait specifically. Further, only two published studies have examined bullying among high school students (Alsaleh, 2014) and middle school students (Abdulsalam, Al Daihani, & Francis, 2017) in Kuwait. Also, social work literature worldwide is still developing, with an inadequate number of studies addressing WPB with appropriate plans for assessment and intervention. Identifying the extent of WPB in Kuwait is a first step towards remedying it. Further, there is a moral responsibility asserted in the National Association of Social Workers' Code of Ethics that social workers ought to promote human wellbeing (Code of Ethics, 2008, §3.4). WPB causes emotional, psychological, mental, and physical distress, (Introduction to Mobbing, 2015), all of which are contrary to the promotion of human wellbeing. These factors,

combined with the lack of available data, impart a moral imperative upon the researcher to conduct his research for the benefit of his fellow Kuwaiti citizens and resident aliens.

Thirdly, the Kuwaiti employment and organizational cultures are not fully compatible with modern organizational systems found in developed countries, wherein consideration of employees' rights is the norm. In Kuwait, employees in governmental sectors often lose trust in their employers due to confusion within the administration, differences in managerial style, or inadequate leadership qualifications. In contrast, employees in the private sectors perceive their management and leadership as efficient because they are led mostly by qualified expatriates (Al-Mailam, 2004). Frustration within the governmental sector produces many problems in the workplace, including but not limited to WPB; in order to improve the workplace environment, information must be collected to understand the extent of WPB.

By way of background, as August 10, 2017, the total population of Kuwait is 4,478,607. The Kuwaiti people constitute 30.29% (1,356,598) of the total population, while the non-Kuwaitis are 69.71% (3,122,009) of the total population (Statistics Services System, 2017). The Kuwaiti population is not large enough to fill all of the employment opportunities within the country, and thus Kuwait is very dependent on foreign labor (Al-Refaei & Omran, 1992).

The Kuwaiti society comprises several socio-economic groups, with various ethnic, religious, societal, and tribal bases. Due to the rapid economic development after discovering oil in 1946, Kuwait went through various transformational stages that affected these social strata, creating social mobility. These rapid changes in society

created tension between conflicting groups such as Shi'a vis-à-vis Sunni, Bedouins vis-à-vis urbanized families, and merchants vis-à-vis the poor (Ghabra, 1997).

There is some evidence showing tribal tradition and certain Islamic principles affecting the organizational culture in Kuwait, such as: strong family relationships, robust social networks, collective welfare, societal duty, general wellbeing, and socioeconomic justice (Daly, Owyar-Hosseini, & Alloughani, 2014). These attributes might affect the organizational culture either positively or negatively. For example, the personal and cultural values and characteristics might overlap with the values, mission, and vision of various jobs and positions; but when personal interests take precedence over organizational interests, it creates a chaotic atmosphere. In Hofstede's (1980a) study on cultural values, Kuwait (along with other countries in the Arabic region that share similar cultural values) scored high in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity; and low in individualism (Daly et al., 2014).

According to Al-Refaei and Omran (1992), in recent years the problem of employee turnover has risen to the surface, becoming a critical issue in Kuwait. They estimated that the annual rate of employee turnover—which indicated dissolution of the employer-employee relationship—for both governmental and private sectors, was higher than the rates in developing countries (Al-Refaei & Omran, 1992). Additionally, absenteeism has become a serious concern in Kuwait. Al-Otaibi (1997) compared Kuwaitis and expatriates in terms of the effect of job stress on psychosomatic disorders and absence. The results indicated that Kuwaitis have higher scores on job stress, psychosomatic disorders, and absenteeism than expatriates.

One study (Al-Mashaan, 2003), measured the associations among job satisfaction, optimism, pessimism, and psychosomatic symptoms in a sample of 718 Kuwaiti employees. It found male employees had significantly higher job satisfaction and optimism, while their female counterparts had significantly more pessimism and psychosomatic symptoms (Al-Mashaan, 2003). This corresponds with males reporting better mental health than females, and females often experiencing negative health effects following exposure to WPB (Giorgi, Leon-Perez, & Arenas, 2015). One explanation for this gender-based discrepancy is that females are targets of WPB more often than males (Namie, 2009). The results of this Kuwaiti-sample study may suggest that the symptoms of pessimism and psychosomatic disorders could be resulting from WPB.

For all of these reasons, this study will explore WPB in Kuwait while controlling for demographic variables. Figure 1.1 below illustrates the conceptual model of this study.

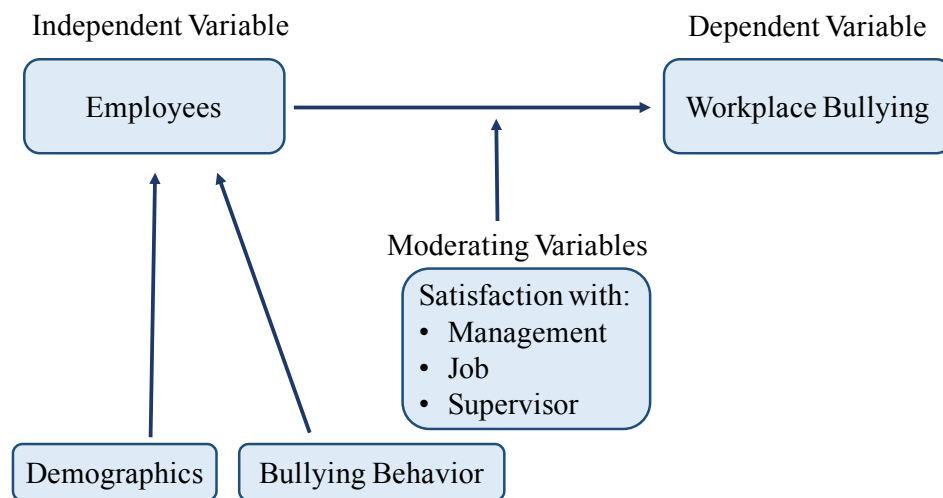


Figure 1.1, Illustration of Conceptual Model

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Mobbing (bullying) “is defined as a severe form of social stressors at work. Unlike normal social stressors, mobbing is a long lasting, escalated conflict with frequent harassing actions systematically aimed at a target person” (Zapf, 1999, p.70). When mistreatment is repeated and health-harming, it becomes classified as WPB (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Introduction

The topic of WPB is still in its infancy, with most of the advanced studies in this field found in Scandinavian countries (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Björkqvist, 1994; Leymann, 1990b, 1992a). The Scandinavian academic interest in WPB reflects the public awareness and established law against bullying, beginning in Sweden in 1993 and Norway in 1994 (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Sweden, Finland, and Norway support the right of workers to remain physically and mentally healthy at work via their national Work Environment Acts (Leymann, 1990b).

In the U.S., WPB is not a rare occurrence. Over half of organizations with more than 1,000 employees identified at least one incident in the year 2005 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006). Therefore, it is imperative for workplaces to increase the awareness of WPB forms and prevention techniques (Chechak & Csiernik, 2014).

This chapter will first investigate the prevalence of WPB across several regions and settings. A summary of historical and classical studies will follow. Thirdly, this chapter will explore theoretical explanations of WPB before discussing the significant factors, forms, effects, and consequences of WPB. Finally, this chapter will summarize

the strengths and weaknesses of, the literature, as well as identify current gaps within WPB scholarship.

The Prevalence of WPB across Different Regions and Settings

The prevalence of WPB is alarming. Although WPB remains a new research field, the significant number of bullied people across the world indicates that it has been either a hidden or neglected problem. The Scandinavian pioneers into the study of WPB—who have implemented most of the research studies to-date—conducted a striking majority of them within the medical sector. This fact alone suggests a moral responsibility to investigate WPB throughout other disciplines and careers.

WPB has many forms, ranging from non-verbal communication to physical attacks, but it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between isolated, transitory conflicts and bullying (Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996). Leymann (1990b) suggested two criteria to make such a distinction. These criteria he described in terms of frequency and duration. Regarding frequency, actions that constitute WPB occur often, at least weekly, if not daily. Concerning duration, victims of WPB face exposure to these negative acts over a period of at least six months.

Other definitions of WPB vary in terms of both frequency and duration. Some surveys have asked participants to identify WPB in terms of any act that has occurred within the previous six months, (Hoel et al., 1999), while others have gone to the extreme of asking if such actions have occurred “ever in your career” (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). The prevalence of WPB across cultures ranges from 3% to 50% (and sometimes higher) based on whether one of these definitions appeared on surveys, in contrast to Leymann’s criterion of events occurring over a period of six months (Hoel et

al., 1999; Zapf et al., 2003; Leymann, 1990b). The highest rates occur when targets label themselves and define the frequency as “ever in my career” (Jennifer et al., 2003). As such, higher prevalence rates of bullying result when researchers use less rigorous definitions of duration and frequency (Out, 2005).

WPB in the United States and Canada

Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, and Alberts (2007) conducted a U.S.-based project called *The American Workplace Survey* by distributing an online survey through social media. According to their working definition of bullying as comprising “two or more negative acts occurring at least weekly for six months or longer” one-fourth of the total respondents (n=469) experienced bullying at work (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., p. 854). However, less than two-fifths of those who met this definition of bullying (9.4% of all respondents) actually self-identified as recipients of WPB. Consequently, in over 60% of instances in this study, employees did not perceive such persistent negativity to be equal to acts of *bullying*. Difficult questions remain regarding how to explain why bullying occurred in this study, the answers to which might have broader implications on the phenomenon as a whole. Workers might perceive bullying to be normal workplace behavior. American adults might associate the concept of being bullied with passivity or weakness—a notion fueled by competitiveness in the US workforce—and thus might be reluctant to self-identify with the term (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). The results of the study, if projected upon the U.S. workforce population as a whole, estimate that somewhere between 35%-50% of the U.S. workforce experiences workplace negativity weekly for a period of six months to a year. Further, nearly 30% of workers experience at least two negative acts per week, fitting this study’s working definition of bullying. By

comparison, Scandinavian samples indicate a significantly lower amount of negativity in the workplace than this U.S. sample, projecting U.S. rates of workplace negativity approximately 20-50% higher than in Scandinavian countries (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Keashly (2001) estimated one out of every six workers in Michigan experienced WPB, a statistic Namie (2007) considered a credible estimate—the first of its kind—for the prevalence of bullying prior to the 2007 Zogby International survey. The survey, authorized by the WBI and the Waitt Institute for Violence Prevention, became the first U.S. survey of WPB. In an effort to collect data to represent all the adult American workers, Zogby International collected a stratified sample of 7,740 individuals, 12.6% of whom the study found to be current or recent (within the past year) victims of WPB. Another 24.2% of respondents had experienced WPB longer than a year ago, with another 12.3% of respondents witnessing but never experiencing it first-hand. A large minority, 44.9% of respondents, had never witnessed nor experienced it. Only 22 individuals admitted to perpetrating WPB. In projecting the survey results upon the U.S. workforce population as a whole, as many as 54 million Americans have been bullied, with approximately 18 million of those being current or recent (Namie et al., 2011).

In contrast, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) surveyed 516 organizations in the U.S. to determine employers' perceptions regarding the prevalence of bullying. A large majority of employers (75.5%) indicated bullying never occurred at their workplaces, and the largest minority (17.4%) stated that it was rare. A small minority (5.5%) indicated bullying happened occasionally, and only 1.6% reported

frequent bullying. Among employees, 39.2% of individuals were identified as the most frequent aggressors, whereas 55.2% were identified as victims (Namie et al., 2011).

The first study of its kind to examine the relationship between the incidence of WPB and everyday-experiences of ethnic and racial minorities comprised 262 full-time employees associated with the National Association of African-American Human Resources Professionals, Hispanic MBA Association, Loyola University Chicago Alumni Association (MBA graduates), and/or the National Black MBA Association (Illinois). The most shocking finding was the magnitude of bullying—nearly all participants (97%) had experienced some type of WPB during the previous five years. Over 15% of respondents had experienced WPB “quite often” or “extremely often” (Fox & Stallworth, 2005, p. 453). The majority of reported bullying events implicated supervisors, the cases of which precipitated increased, negative, emotional behaviors amongst victims, along with decreased confidence in the organization (Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

The WBI-Zogby study indicated 91% of African-Americans reported a need for additional workplace protections to supplement existing anti-discrimination laws. The study’s results showed African-Americans suffering higher rates of WPB compared to other racial groups, with Hispanic workers comprising the second largest group. In terms of political affiliation, the results revealed that people who identified as Democrats were more likely to report both experiencing and witnessing bullying, compared to those who identified as Republicans (Namie et al., 2011).

A national study conducted by Jayaratne, Vinokur-Kaplan, Nagda, & Chess, (1996) on a sample of 633 members of the National Association of Social Workers found that female workers and female social workers are more at risk than their male

counterparts. Among the reported responses, 42.8% of respondents received verbal abuse, 17.4% physical threats, and 2.8% physical assaults.

Table 2.1 below summarizes three other studies measuring WPB in the U.S. and Canada across various sectors, such as the medical (Vessey, Demarco, Gaffney, & Budin, 2009; Out, 2005) and social services (Whitaker, 2012) sectors.

Table 2.1, The Prevalence Rate of WPB in North America

Author	Average or Range of WPB	Distinctive Feature of Study	Country
Vessey et al. (2009)	70%	Registered nurses	U.S.
Out (2005)	47.2%	Registered nurses	Canada
Whitaker (2012)	58%	Social workers	U.S.

WPB in Europe and Oceania

Given the prevalence of WPB in North America, it comes as no surprise that it is also a significant occupational stressor in Europe, affecting approximately 5% to 30% of the European workforce (Vie, Glasø, & Einarsen, 2011). Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, (2010) estimated the average prevalence of WPB in European countries outside of Scandinavia may be as high as 15.7%. Specifically in Sweden, Leymann (1990b) estimated that 25% of workers would experience bullying at some point in their lives, and Rayner (1997) found that 50% of employees in the U.K. have been affected by WPB.

The first nation-wide survey of WPB in Britain surveyed 5,288 individuals from more than 70 different organizations. One out of every ten people (10.6%) responding to the survey reported to have been bullied within the preceding six months. Further, one in four (24.7%) respondents reported bullying within the preceding five years, with almost half of respondents (46.5%) having witnessed such acts. The prevalence of bullying remained similar regardless of different sectors: the percentage of workers in the criminal

justice system (16.2%), communication and mail services (16.2%), educational institutions (15.6%), and performing arts (14.1%) all experienced WPB at approximately the same rate (Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

Niedhammer, David, and Degioanni (2007) conducted the first study to evaluate the prevalence of WPB in France in 2004. In a sample of 7,694 workers (3,132 men and 4,562 women) in southeast France, the study found 9% of men and 11% of women were targeted within 12 months prior to the survey. Additionally, certain economic activities and occupations contributed to an elevated risk of bullying, such as men working in the service industry. The level of bullying remained low among males in blue- and white-collar occupations, and among females in government-associated professions (Niedhammer et al., 2007).

In 2001, one study in Great Britain explored features of bullying to compare similarities between bullying and an epidemic. The results indicated 10.6% of respondents had been bullied within the previous 6 months. It also found a significant relationship between gender, organizational status, and bullying frequency. In low-level supervisor roles and non-supervisory roles, men experienced bullying more often than women. For middle and senior management, the study found this tendency reversed. Among senior management, 15.5% of women reported having been bullied, in contrast to 6.4% of men. The study attributed these discrepancies between status and gender “to cultural differences between men and women, the phenomenon of the ‘glass-ceiling’, and the interaction between such factors and the prevailing socio-economic status” (Hoel et al., 2001, p. 443). Two years later, McAvoy & Murtagh (2003) cited Rayner’s (1997) estimate of WPB affecting as many as 50% of the U.K.’s workforce over the course of

their lives to support their claim that WPB has become a “silent epidemic” of “dysfunction, fear, shame, and embarrassment” (McAvoy & Murtagh, 2003, p. 776).

A study conducted in the U.K. investigated the perceptions of social and organizational work conditions and experiences of bullying among 677 employees across five different work sectors (management, education, technology, telecommunication, and engineering). For the total sample, nearly half of employees identified as non-bullied, while one-third identified as targets of bullying. However, only one-fifth identified as victims (Jennifer et al., 2003).

In New Zealand, a study examined individual and organizational factors and their relationship to WPB and cyber bullying (CB). The researchers collected data from 826 respondents (58% female, 42% male) through an online, self-report survey. The findings indicated that 123 respondents (15%) had experienced bullying and 23 participants (2.8%) had experienced CB within the previous six months. Additionally, they found that women more often than men reported experiencing WPB, but the comparison did not hold true for CB. Regardless of gender, workers in management positions experienced more CB than those without supervisory responsibilities. Also, both WPB & CB corresponded to poorer work environments, lower physical health, and less organizational support (Gardner et al., 2016). Outside of New Zealand, international studies have found incidence rates of CB to be between 400,000 and 2 million employees (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

In Denmark, a study of 55 workplaces (16 private and 39 public) surveyed 1,944 employees and indicated only 1.1% of employees frequently experienced bullying, with

7.2% experiencing it on occasion. Bullying incidents occurred at 78% of the workplaces, and frequent bullying occurred at 21% (Hansen, Høgh, & Persson, 2011).

Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) also assessed the prevalence of WPB in Danish work-life, finding 2-4% of respondents identifying as victims of bullying. When determining the prevalence levels of WPB based on an operational definition of bullying (i.e., exposure to one negative act per week for a period of 6 months or longer), rates were higher across the entire sample, ranging from 8% to 25%. However, when employing a stricter criterion by requiring two negative acts per week, the prevalence rate ranged from 2.7% to 8%, closer to that of those who self-identified as victims. By comparison, 14 Norwegian surveys a few years earlier (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) indicated 5.6% of workers felt exposed to bullying.

Table 2.2, The Prevalence Rate of WPB in Europe and Oceania.

Author	Average or Range of WPB	Distinctive Feature of Study	Country
Leymann (1996)	3.5%	Swedish working population	Sweden
Niedl (1996)	7.8% - 26.6%	Health professionals	Austria
Ferrinho et al. (2003)	60%	Health professionals	Portugal
Galanaki & Papalexandris (2013)	13%	Junior & middle managers	Greece
Karatza et al. (2016)	30%	Nursing	Greece
Malinauskiene & Einarsen (2014)	30%	Family physicians	Lithuania
Petrović et al. (2014)	70%	Governmental employees	Serbia
Carter et al. (2013)	20%	National Health Service (NHS) staff	UK

Table 2.2 above summarizes several other studies measuring WPB in Europe and Oceania across different sectors, such as the health sector (Niedl, 1996; Ferrinho et al.,

2003; Karatza, Zyga, Tziaferi, & Prezerakos, 2016; Malinauskiene & Einarsen, 2014; Carter et al., 2013) and the governmental sector (Leymann, 1996; Galanaki & Papalexandris, 2013; Petrović, Čizmić, & Vukelić, 2014).

WPB in Asia, Africa, and Australia

A nationally representative, community-based study of 1,546 Japanese workers aged 20-60 years old evaluated both their vicarious and direct experiences with WPB within the previous 30 days. The results revealed that 6% of respondents had first-hand experience with WPB, while 15% of respondents had witnessed it (Tsuno et al., 2015).

In Egypt, a cross-sectional study surveyed 1,127 workers, exploring the prevalence, causes, forms, and health consequences of WPB. After receiving initial results, the survey then followed with intervention and reevaluation. The results revealed that 71.3% of participants had experienced WPB. The most frequent forms of bullying were: withholding workers' thoughts (64.2%), shouting (53.1%), refusing reasonable requests (49.1%), and unfair criticism in front of colleagues (39.7%). The main factors leading to bullying were: need to meet deadlines (91.2%), excessive workloads (83.7%), keeping workers alert and active (79.6%), and low performance (67.3%). The most prevalent health consequences were: loss of concentration (60.7%), insomnia (57.1%), headache (53.4%), tachycardia (52.7%), and fatigue (47.3%). The prevalence of bullying forms and health problems decreased dramatically after the intervention. The researchers suggest that management's raising awareness and committing to anti-bullying policies could be part of a preventive program for bullying and its health consequences (Alazab, Elsheikh, & Kamal, 2008).

A survey of employees at two Jordanian colleges—Irbid College (public) and Toledo College (private)—measured the prevalence of WPB, paying special attention to the institutional culture, the administrations' responses, the victims' characteristics, and the bullies' characteristics. The findings revealed a high prevalence of bullying at Irbid College, and only a moderate prevalence at Toledo College. The most reported negative behaviors at Irbid College included reprimand and repression, most of which were committed by employees in powerful positions. In contrast, the most reported negative behavior at Toledo College was a lack of appreciation, indicated by the absence of verbal compliments employees expected for to their efforts (Al-Zoubi, & Mhedat, 2014).

Regarding the related factors of WPB, results indicated that employees at both colleges did not consider the organizational culture, the administrations' responses, or the victims' characteristics a significant factor in causing WPB. Rather, Irbid employees believed that the contradiction in the concepts of fellowship and mastered individualism was the most significant factor of the institutional culture contributing towards increased WPB, while Toledo employees believed it to be a lack of feeling safe and comfortable. Employees at both colleges believed that the administrations responded to knowledge of WPB by condoning the facts and ignoring the workers' efficiency in evaluation. Further, employees at both colleges characterized most victims as either highly efficient employees or new employees. Similarly, both sets of employees believed the strongest factor contributing to WPB comprised bullies' personality characteristics. Employees at Irbid observed these characteristics to include obsession with control and an inability to differentiate between leadership and bullying. In contrast, employees at Toledo observed

bullies' characteristics to include abuse of power and previous victimhood (Al-Zoubi, & Mhedat, 2014).

Table 2.3 below summarizes several other studies measuring WPB in Asia, Africa, and Australia across different sectors, such as healthcare (Farrell & Shafiei, 2012; Yokoyama et al., 2016) and government (Marais-Steinman & Herman, 1997).

Table 2.3, The Prevalence Rate of WPB in Asia, Africa, & Australia

Author	Average or Range of WPB	Distinctive Feature of Study	Country
Farrell & Shafiei (2012)	32%	Nurses & Midwives	Australia
Yokoyama et al. (2016)	18.5%	Nurses	Japan
Marais-Steinman & Herman (1997)	42.5%	Governmental employees	South Africa

Historical and Classical Studies of WPB

Since the “1980s, following the country’s groundbreaking research on schoolyard bullying,” Sweden has been considered the pioneer country associated with research on WPB (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007, p. 839). Heinz Leymann (1990b), a German physician and psychiatrist and the founder of the international anti-bullying movement, focused primarily on the impact WPB had upon targets’ health (Namie, 2003a). Many researchers in this field recognize him as a pioneer in the study of WPB. Leymann’s passion and involvement with schoolyard bullying led him to explore bullying at work when he found similar dynamics among adult patients (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). In the 1980s he established the first work trauma clinic, documenting traumatization resulting from persistent, workplace "psychological terrorization", naming the phenomenon, "mobbing" (Namie, 2003a, p. 1).

In 1990, Andrea Adams, an independent British journalist publicized the issue “via a BBC broadcasts series” (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007, p. 839; see also Adams & Crawford, 1992). She coined the term *workplace bullying* in 1992, applying the concept of schoolyard bullying to workplace misery among adults (Namie, 2003a). Due to her work, several U.K. scholars began conducting studies on bullying (e.g., Hoel et al., 1999; Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997). Several years later, new researchers from Finland (Björkqvist, 1994) and Norway (Einarsen et al., 1994) took an interest in the field, conducting their own studies on workplace harassment and bullying. After these initial Scandinavian and U.K. studies, research on WPB spread across the Eastern hemisphere, reaching countries such as Australia (Sheehan & Jordan, 2003), Austria (e.g., Niedl, 1996), Bangladesh (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2011), Germany (Zapf, 1999), Netherlands (Hubert & van Veldhoven, 2001), and South Africa (Marais-Steinman & Herman, 1997), among others (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Carrol Brodsky, a U.S. psychiatrist considered an American pioneer in this field, published *The Harassed Worker* in 1976, documenting an investigation of workers’ compensation claims of a thousand Californian and Nevadan workers. Despite this books’ pioneering explorations of workplace harassment, it did not receive much public attention until the early 1990s.

In the early 1980s, Helen Cox (1991), a Continuing Nursing Education professor, began investigating verbal abuse among nurses after one of her aspiring students experienced workplace harassment to the point of quitting her job. Around the same time, Sheehan et al., (1990) researched workplace abuse experienced by medical students.

Since then, U.S. interest in workplace hostility has increased, and the literature in this area has grown significantly (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

In 1997, Drs. Gary and Ruth Namie, founders of The Workplace Bullying & Trauma Institute (Namie, 2003a), brought the phrase *workplace bullying* from Europe to the U.S. They have helped many bullied people by confronting bullies, providing intervention, and implementing systemic solutions at various workplaces. With the help of Dr. David Yamada, a law professor, they have also been directing a U.S. campaign, to enact anti-bullying laws at the state and federal level (Namie, 2010), though such laws are still lacking from most states.

The word *bully* often brings up an image of an aggressive kid at school that other students try to avoid in the playground. For many generations, bullies have tortured children, and yet, bullies grow up and get jobs. However, WPB is more complex than what children in a schoolyard experience, because adult victims do not have the protection that is found at school. Further, the range of negative behaviors is expanding, with a spectrum from subtle looks and implied negativity to outright physical abuse. Additionally, bullying seems to have intensified, especially when the economy is nearing recession, as organizations may find it difficult to get rid of bullies who have exceptional knowledge, skills, or tenure. Also, it is common among targets to hesitate in reporting bullying out of fear for their jobs—especially for newly employed workers, or when the bully is a manager. Moreover, victims often face belittlement or disbelief when they report bullying, which further empowers bullies to continue their negative behavior (Indvik & Johnson, 2012).

Workplace violence is notably different from WPB. Physical violence can occur in WPB, although it is rare (Salin, 2003). WPB is predominantly psychological, both in its nature and in its tactics (Ferris, Zinko, Brouer, Buckley, & Harvey, 2007). The bully might start a conflict with physical violence, and the target might respond accordingly. Such would characterize a workplace violence phenomenon, up until the point where the power swung to one party (Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009). With WPB, harassment continues, and the target, for some reason, is unable to defend him- or herself (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011). Studies on workplace violence do not mention the bullying element of an imbalance in power (e.g., Alkorashy & Al Moalad, 2016; Mohamed, 2002; Adib, Al-Shatti, Kamal, El-Gerges, & Al-Raqem, 2002; AbuAlRub & Al-Asmar, 2011; Alameddine Kazzi, El-Jardali, Dimassi, & Maalouf, 2011; AbuAlRub, Khalifa, & Habbib, 2007; Abbas, Fiala, Abdel Rahman, & Fahim, 2010). Such studies may share some similarities with WPB, and one might precede the other, but they are completely different subjects. These studies focused mainly on workplace violence and aggressive behaviors against the health care staff in the Arab region. The main perpetrators reported were the patients, their family members, and their friends. As WPB and workplace violence are not the same phenomena, the studies on workplace violence will not be reviewed in this chapter.

The uniqueness of WPB as a phenomenon derives from four features distinguishing it from other transient attitudes. Those features are intensity, recurrence, duration, and imbalance of power. First, bullying includes a systematic, negative behavior, rarely limited to a single action. In most of the reported cases of bullying, the targets suffered numerous types of abuse. Usually researchers assess the intensity of

bullying by considering various acts of isolation, degradation, and coercion. In one operational definition, Leymann (1990b) considered the possibility of bullying comprising a single, negative act, although most other researchers believe that targets should report at least two negative acts (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Secondly, to consider bullying as a case, these adverse actions have to occur with a frequency of at least once per week. Therefore, since this concept of bullying requires repetitive, negative acts, the majority of researchers exclude one-time incidents as bullying cases. Thirdly, cases of bullying are not only limited by frequency, but also duration. Usually researchers consider a case to be bullying if it has occurred frequently over the course of six months or longer. Finally, the pivotal element of WPB cases involves an imbalance of power between perpetrator and target. Despite some recent research revealing that attempts to resist bullying are common (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006), most of the WPB definitions propose that targets should feel unable to stop or avoid the bullying. This power disparity can either occur at the onset of bullying cases, or it may evolve throughout (Lutgen-Sandvik, et al., 2007).

Theoretical Explanations for Workplace Bullying

The primary causes of WPB can include envy, leadership disregard, a permissive climate, organizational culture, and personality traits (Himmer, 2016). Yet in a review of over two hundred eighty-one articles (281) on WPB, very few studies (less than 10%) discussed *any* theoretical framework to explain the phenomenon, at least not by name. As shown in Table 2.4 at the end of this section, no single theory holds a clear majority position in comparison to the others. In fact, one recent publication (Mghar, 2015) explained WPB from nine different theoretical constructs, attributing equal plausibility to

them all. The most often reported theoretical framework is the Social Interactionist Theory, appearing by name in four different articles. Social Learning Theory and Attribution Theory both appeared in three different articles, and two articles discussed Revised Frustration Aggression Theory as a theoretical framework. Other theoretical frameworks, however, were recognized: nine other theories appeared only once each. A brief explanation of the four most commonly reported theories follows:

Social Interactionist Theory

Felson and Tedeschi developed the social-interactionist perspective on aggression and violence in 1993, which Neuman and Baron later developed into the Social Interactionist Theory, in 2011 (Neuman et al., 2011). From this perspective, the researchers asserted that frustration can trigger a violation of social norms through a process of psychological distress, inciting perpetrators to bully the distressed individual. For example, when depressed employees make mistakes or have an unfriendly demeanor at work, this could elicit a negative reaction from others. Subsequently, this frustration could manifest as revenge, resulting in the depressed individuals becoming targets of bullying (Baillien & De Witte, 2010). According to Reknes, Einarsen, Knardahl, & Lau (2014), the Social-Interactionist Theory describes how stressors within the workplace elicit negative emotions and adverse behaviors from employees, increasing the plausibility that one of these employees would become a target of WPB. Because of the high level of stress and unavailable coping strategies, a distressed employee might break the workplace norms unintentionally by being too polite or failing to meet job expectations. Hence, this might lead others to act aggressively towards him or her in such a way that the target perceives as bullying (Reknes et al., 2014).

Several other articles supported the Social Interactionist Theory via their descriptions without naming the theory directly. Namie and Namie (2003) claimed that people in authority typically do not believe targets when they complain, and management often labels targets as “whiners,” “thin-skinned,” or “provocative and thus deserving” (p. 1). Despite similarities among bullies, adult targets of WPB are different than young targets at school. The researchers found that bullies selected targets at work because targets refuse to be submissive. Persons in authority most frequently complained that targets are insubordinate. Yet in reality, targets’ superior service and sociability threatened bullies who lack emotional intelligence (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Aquino (2000) discovered that subordinates’ negative affectivity and self-determination correlated with both indirect and direct victimization. Aquino argued that people with high, negative sentiment report more victimization because they incite others to behave sharply against them, and because they appear weak, vulnerable, and incapable of defending themselves when they become targets of bullying. In contrast, people with high self-determination control their interactions with others including potential victimizers.

Baillien et al., (2009) indicated that victimization of bullying correlates with shyness, depression, low social skills, neuroticism and pre-existing symptoms of anxiety. Also, victims tend to be obedient, agreeable, avoiding conflict, conscientious, traditional, trustworthy, peaceful, reserved, anxious, and sensitive. They prefer quiet places and have difficulty coping effectively with stressful situations. Although they reported that no empirical evidence yet indicates the extent or degree to which characteristics create the

most potential for victimization, their findings correspond well to the Social Interactionist Theory.

According to Zapf (1999) the victim and social system together can be causes of bullying, showing that some of the bullying cases may lie within the victims themselves. While only 2% of the victims in Zapf's study admitted that their performance was below average, they did admit to other characteristics that support Social Interactionist Theory. Such examples of these traits include deficits in social skills, performance, or accuracy, as well aggressive or complaining behavior. Despite victims' traits inciting bullying, Zapf clarifies that there is a difference between finding a cause and assigning fault or responsibility. As such, it can be difficult to determine whether the victim struggled to fit into the organization, or whether the social group struggled to integrate a person who was different (Zapf, 1999).

Social Learning Theory

Bandura developed the Social Learning Theory in 1977, and applied it to bullying in the workplace. This theory suggests that former targets of bullying model behavioral patterns of others who exposed them to bullying in the past, thus imitating and propagating WPB (Samnani & Singh, 2012). Cyclically, the witnesses of WPB observe the reinforced behavior and the advantages that bullies receive for bullying, (Samnani & Singh, 2012), making it more likely that they will employ similar tactics themselves (Salin, 2003, p.13). According to Vartia-Väänänen (2003), this theory explains the behavior of both bullies and the victims.

Related to this theory, Kieseker and Marchant (1999) suggested an individual's preconditioning could influence his or her tendency to become a bully. Learned behavior

from one's childhood and adolescence can factor into making a bully behave in a certain way. Some researchers have suggested bullying begins at one's childhood home, develops during grade school or college, surfaces as an issue at work, and then recycles itself by creating problems with the bully's own family at her or his adulthood home (Kiesecker & Marchant, 1999).

Indvik and Johnson (2012) also stated that bullies were often victims at home when they were children, and therefore they became bullies in adulthood. They were insecure children who pushed their insecurities and inadequacies onto others, instead of addressing them appropriately. Bullies become predators: controlling and dangerous. They target people they view as less competent and less skilled, or highly competent individuals whom they perceive as a threat. The classic *zero-sum game* belief seems to drive them, leading them to believe that rewards are limited, and that they deserve whatever they desire. They also believe that by debasing others, they can exalt themselves.

The Attribution Theory

This theory originated with Kelly in 1972 and developed under Baron in 1990. According to Rayner and Hoel (1997), Attribution Theory claims that individuals tend to explain their own negative behavior via their respective environments, inversely projecting their own personality traits onto others in order to explain their fellows' negative behavior. Leymann has used the theory to explain how victims of bullying become mentally ill in struggling to understand how their behavior contributes to the problem. Einarsen and Björkqvist also used Attribution Theory to explore the targets' perception of bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). According to Attribution Theory, people

tend to blame others for their own negative experiences. Thus, it is difficult for bullied individuals to perceive themselves as a catalyst for the bullying against them, and they instead blame the work environment or the bully as the cause, without recognizing their behavior as a precipitating catalyst. According to Zapf (1999), the organizational culture or environment might indeed generate bullying behavior; for example, in some cases, the causes may lie in the social system led by an abusive individual. However, under Attribution Theory the targets' own behavior may also contribute to the problem (Vartiainen, 2003).

Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory

In the Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory, Baillien and De Witte (2010) claimed that frustration can cause bullying when someone systematically vents his or her negative emotions onto a colleague, and tension escalates. Berkowitz developed the Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory in 1989, claiming, "a stressful work environment can lead to aggression towards others through negative affects" (Baillien et al., 2009, p. 11). This explains how active-yet-inefficient coping with frustration may lead to bullying, which is comparable with the Social Interactionism Theory as discussed earlier, where "stress increases the probability of violating work-related expectations and social norms, which increases the probability that colleagues or other members of the organization react negatively towards the violating person" (Baillien et al., 2009, p.11). Bullying may result from inefficiently passive coping with frustration as well. According to both the Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory and the Social Interactionism Theory, frustrations and strains might cause bullying. However, the distinction is that the Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory claims that one's own frustration may contribute to his or her

becoming a perpetrator, while social interactionism theory claims that one's own frustration may precipitate victimization (Baillien et al., 2009).

Related to the Revised Frustration-Aggression theory, Hoobler and Brass (2006) found that supervisors who perceived employers to have delivered less than promised were more abusive to their subordinates than the satisfied supervisors. This effect, known as psychological contract break, was even more prominent among supervisors who already had a tendency towards hostility and bullying.

Another study found that supervisors who had experienced interactional injustice (i.e., unfavorable, interpersonal treatment) were more aggressive towards their subordinates. The study also found that supervisors' tendency towards authoritarianism corresponded to the relationship between interactional injustice and abusive supervision. The researchers explained that interactional injustice triggers defeat and discontent, which bullies displace upon targets rather than onto the source of the injustice. This displacement is more likely to occur when supervisors strongly believe that subordinates must be obedient to their authority (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007).

Another study based on 87 bullying cases investigated the development of WPB and found that bullying can result from inefficient coping with frustration. The study also indicated that bullying can be the consequence of escalated conflicts from destructive team and organizational cultures or habits (Baillien et al., 2009). Both of these examples relate to the Revised Frustration-Aggression Theory.

Other Theoretical Explanations

Other proposed theories explaining WPB follow. Although information from multiple articles may relate to each of these theories, the theories as named only appeared in one article each, as noted in Table 2.4 at the end of this section, on page 59.

The Social Construction Theory. The Social Construction Theory proposes that “people’s thoughts, feelings and behaviors are influenced by the actual, imagined, or inferred presence of other people” (Lawrence, 2015, p.88).

The Social Processing Theory. The Social Processing Theory suggests there is an atmosphere of condoning or condemning certain behaviors. Further, a high cohesion among groups can prevent some individuals from intervening; in other cases, it might lead them to participate in verbal abuse, inappropriate jokes, ethnic slander, and/or racial slurs in the workplace (Chakrabarti, 2013; see also Einarsen et al., 1994; Rayner et al., 2002),

Along these lines, Baillien, Neyens, & De Witte (2004) wrote that this is especially the case within goal-oriented organizations characterized by task-oriented leadership styles, formal power relationships, and directive communication; all of which incite higher levels of WPB. They also found the inverse to be true: organizations with a supportive climate tend to have lower levels of reported bullying.

In other studies, bullying correlated with a lack of anti-bullying policy (e.g., Neyens, Baillien, De Witte, & Notelaers, 2007), poor communication (e.g., Vartia, 1996), and organizational change (e.g., Vartia, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996). Additionally, Zapf et al. (1996) suggested that the more social support the victims receive from supervisors, the less scolding, constant criticism, and verbal threats they report.

Hofstede (1993) suggested that U.S. companies embrace market processes, individualism, and value managers over workers, which again relates to Social Processing Theory. When employers focus primarily on competition, individual achievement, and reward, it reduces the importance of collaborative efforts. Also, by focusing on management instead of workers—a tendency that reflects extreme individualism and masculinity (see pp. 67-69 below)—employers may enable people with authority to bully others backed up with impunity (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2007).

Relatedly, Salin (2003) identified organizational structures that enable bullying behaviors, such as: a) a competition culture between employees, b) the reward system that supports the win-at-all-costs mentality inherent to highly competitive cultures, and c) a lack of accountability for bullying behaviors, which leads to future benefits for the bully.

The Person–Environment Fit Theory. This theory, applied to workplace stress, assumes that tension results from the interaction between a person’s needs, the resources at hand, and any environmental demands. It also suggests that persons lacking in coping skills in a stressful environment are prone to become targets of WPB (van Heugten, 2013).

Role Theory. Kahn et al. (1964), developed the Role Theory, which, explains the phenomenon of “role stress,” where one experiences distress in one’s position due to ambiguous instructions, conflicting expectations, and inconsistent demands (Reknes et al., 2014, p.46). Further, there is evidence showing that bullying behaviors such as isolation or withholding information correlate with role stress, which results in confusing the target, who consequently develops a sense of *role ambiguity* (see Hauge et al., 2011).

Related to Role Theory, Baillien et al., (2009) indicated other studies that have focused on work-related antecedents of WPB. These include various job characteristics such as role conflict (e.g., Einarsen et al., 1994), low autonomy (e.g., O'Moore, Lynch, & Daeid, 2003), high workload (e.g., Zapf, 1999), job ambiguity (e.g., Vartia, 1996), job insecurity (Hoel & Cooper, 2000), lack of skill utilization (e.g., Einarsen et al., 1994), monotonous tasks (e.g., Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Vartia, 1996), forced cooperation (e.g., Zapf et al., 1996), and lack of goal clarity (e.g., Vartia, 1996).

Organizational Strain Theory. According to Sims and Sun (2012), the Organizational Strain Theory separates the concept of strain from the concept of stressor. Stressors are internal and external factors contributing to an individual's emotional and/or physical state, whereas strain is the physical and/or emotional response to one or more stressors. In a workplace, myriad stressors can cause strain. Due to personal differences in how one perceives and interprets stressors, individual stressors can cause more or less strain in one individual than in another. (Sims & Sun, 2012).

Social-Identity Theory. The Social-Identity Theory asserts that individuals tend to form groups with members similar to themselves, while excluding those who are different. Reflecting on this theory, evidence in many cases shows that victims of bullying tend to fall into the *different* category, compared to others in the workplace. These differences can include, but are not limited to, being a member of a minority group, such as in terms of gender, race, religion, education, and so on (Vartia-Väänänen, 2003).

Theoretical explanations not linked to a formal theory. Although most articles did not directly deal with any particular theoretical framework, several of them shared

thematically related explanations. Primary among the shared themes was the tendency to relate causes of bullying to personality characteristics of either the bully or the victim. One unique study indicated the plausibility of a neuropsychological explanation, while others agreed that the explanations were multifaceted without the possibility of assigning it to one, sole, theoretical explanation.

Personality factor. One study by the Bergen group, under the supervision of Stale Einarsen, revealed that factors pertaining to the work environment explained little, while factors pertaining to personality held more significance in explaining the causes of WPB (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). However, not all scholars agree. For example, Leymann rejected the effect of personality factors on bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, (2000) investigated the extent of personality traits regarding their ability to predict victims of WPB. The results revealed significant differences between the personality scale scores of bullied workers *vis-à-vis* non-bullied workers. These results indicated that victims are less independent, less extroverted, and less stable than non-victims, yet more conscientious. The results also indicated that personality traits can be a reasonably reliable predictor of victimization (Coyne et al., 2000).

In psychological literature, Baillien et al. (2009), discussed concepts relating to perpetrators' characteristics, such as "the abrasive personality," "the authoritarian personality," and "the petty tyrant" (p. 2) (see also, Ashforth, 1994). In another study, bullies had low scores on their ability to take others' perspectives, and high scores pertaining to social dominance (Parkins, Fishbein, & Ritchey, 2006). With respect to the perpetrators' characteristics, some researchers argue that these may overlap with factors

related to both the work group (e.g., negative climate), and the victim (e.g., anxiety) (Einarsen, 1999; Zapf, 1999). Such characteristics may in turn provoke aggressive behavior (Einarsen et al., 1994), which relates back to the Social Interactionist Theory. Further, Lee and Brotheridge (2006) found that WPB behavior has a negative correlation with self-esteem, for both the targets and the bullies.

Neuropsychological factors. Indvik & Johnson (2012) refer to a neuropsychological study in which a brain scan indicated bullies' brains operate differently than others. When bullies saw their victims in pain, their brain responded with activity in sections related to pleasure, rather than sympathy. Also, bullies tend to target highly competitive individuals who constitute a threat to their job security.

Multi-faceted explanations. Although the theoretical explanations above hold merit to many scholars, others believe that there is no single theory that can explain WPB, and thus they take a multi-faceted approach for their explanations. For example, Zapf (1999) investigated the causes of bullying at work on two samples consisting of bullied workers ($n = 96$, $n = 118$) and a control group ($n = 37$). Zapf stated that it would be inappropriate to consider one-sided explanations for the causes of bullying, as many cases have multiple causes. According to Zapf, there are four main causes: the perpetrator, the organization, the victim, and the social system.

Similarly, Baillien et al., (2009) suggested three interrelated processes that may contribute to bullying: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and intragroup/organizational. The intrapersonal pathway explains WPB as resulting from workplace stressors on the one hand, and from frustration relating to employees' coping strategies on the other. These explanations are similar to the Organization Strain Theory, the Revised Frustration-

Aggression Theory, and the Social Interactionist Theory. This intrapersonal pathway relates to how employees' characteristics could increase their susceptibility to become victims, due to differences in: a) the way potential victims determine behavior to be hostile, b) how they interpret these behaviors, and c) how they deal with them (Baillien et al, 2009). The interpersonal pathway comprises interpersonal conflict, especially when it is not addressed appropriately and allowed to escalate (Baillien et al., 2009). The intragroup/organizational pathway perceives WPB to be a result of organizational features that enable or foster bullying, similar to the Social Processing Theory (Baillien et al, 2009).

As discussed in these theoretical frameworks, it appears that explaining the phenomenon of WPB consists of two essential components: work-related factors and personality attributes (of both the victim and the aggressor). The work-related factors include work stress, organizational culture, leadership style, and role description. The personality attributes can involve those such as acute complaisance, extreme compliance, poor morale, excessive respectfulness, and unusual anger management. Having work-related factors, such as being in a work environment with poor leadership and/or role ambiguity, can trigger a short-fused employee to become a perpetrator who puts docile employees with fewer coping skills or strategies at risk of becoming targets of WPB. Bullying in the workplace seems to occur mostly in organizational cultures where there is a weak leadership style with unorganized and stressful work. However, in the end, no single theory suffices as a universal theoretical framework, as nearly all cases of WPB involve multi-faceted factors contributing to them.

Table 2.4, The Reported Theoretical Frameworks Explaining WPB among 281 Articles

Theory	Author	Times Reported	Citation
Social Interactionist Theory and perspectives on aggression and violence	(Felson & Tedeschi, 1993)	4	(Neuman et al., 2011); (Baillien et al., 2009); (Reknes et al., 2014); & (Baillien & De Witte, 2010).
Social Learning Theory of aggression	(Bandura, 1978)	3	(Samnani & Singh, 2012); (Salin, 2003); & (Vartia-Väänänen, 2003).
Attribution Theory	(Kelly, 1972)	3	(Rayner & Hoel, 1997); (Zapf, 1999); & (Vartia-Väänänen, 2003).
Revised Frustration Aggression Theory	(Berkowitz, 1989)	2	(Baillien et al., 2009) & (Baillien & De Witte, 2010).
Social Construction Theory	(Berger & Luckman, 1966)	1	(Kircher et al., 2011).
Conservation of Resources Theory	(Hobfoll, 1989)	1	(Wheeler et al., 2010).
Social Psychology Theory	(Allport, 1954)	1	(Lawrence, 2015).
Social Information Processing Theory (SIP)	(Walther, 1992)	1	(Lawrence, 2015).
Person–Environment Fit Theory	(French, Caplan, & Van Harrison, 1982)	1	(van Heugten, 2013).
Role Theory	(Kahn et al., 1964)	1	(Reknes et al., 2014).
Organizational Strain Theory	(Merton, 1938)	1	(Sims & Sun, 2012).
Social-Identity Theory	(Tajfel & Turner, 1986)	1	(Vartia-Väänänen, 2003).

The Factors Affecting the Phenomenon of WPB

The phenomenon of WPB, as with any other psychosocial issue, has many factors that impact its existence, extension, intention, and tension. The researchers divided these factors into two main sections: factors relating to personality, and factors relating to working environment (e.g., Baillien et al, 2009). The factors concerning personality relate to the target and perpetrators' individual personalities and demographic characteristics, while the factors concerning the work environment relate either to the organizational climate or to the culture and leadership style within the organization. The following section will review these factors in more detail.

Cultural Differences

Cultural aspects usually contribute an understanding for dealing with daily incidents in certain ways. WPB is shaped by and perceived through the lenses of the cultures in which it occurs. Similarly, its impact on people varies based on the nature and nurture of the culture and sub-cultures in which employees live.

One definition of culture, according to McFarlane-Ossmann & Curtis, (2011), is, "the way a group of persons interpret situations, events, and practices in a similar way" (p. 2). Schein (1990) states that any "definable group with a shared history can have a culture, and within one nation or one organization there can be many subcultures" (p. 111).

WPB can result from bias towards other persons because of their gender, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, ethnicity, and/or race. Also, the forms of WPB can take various shapes throughout and across various cultures (Kemp, 2014). Despite the fact that WPB has a distressing effect in many cultures (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003), the

different cultures themselves can affect the extent of distress experienced, which directly relates to the types of bullying that cause the most mental harm (Sidle, 2010). For example, although most American employees seem to respond negatively to direct conflict, Chinese employees tend to do so with *indirect* conflict. As a result, Chinese employees exhibit more physical health problems after encountering situations with indirect conflict (Liu, Nauta, Spector, & Li, 2008).

The first study exploring variegated cultural impacts upon the acceptance of WPB (Power et al, 2013), conducted across 14 countries, discovered that work-related bullying is more acceptable than bullying that employs physical intimidation. This discovery has remained consistent not only within cultures sharing similar values, but also globally across different cultures. Further findings indicated that highly performance-orientated cultures (i.e., those that tend to have motivational practices to improve performance, emphasizing results instead of people) accepted bullying more than those that were highly future-orientated (i.e., those that believe personal behavior influences future outcomes, valuing delayed gratification as an investment in maintaining long-term relationships). Additionally, highly human-orientated groups (i.e., those that encourage fairness, generosity, hospitality, and kindness to others) are less prone than others to accept work-related bullying. In contrast, Asian areas influenced by Confucian thought have a greater tolerance for both work-related bullying and physical intimidation than predominately Caucasian or Latino cultures, and a greater tolerance for work-related bullying than cultures in sub-Saharan Africa. Cultural dimensions seem to provide at least a partial explanation for these differences in how various cultures tolerate or repudiate WPB. (Power et al., 2013).

As mentioned previously, WPB appears to be less prevalent in Scandinavian countries than in others. Hofstede's (1980) theory regarding the effect of national differences on workplace values provides a basis for extrapolating the data, hypothesizing that the low power distance of Scandinavia's female-led, egalitarian culture might be a significant cause for the lower bullying rates in these countries. The difference between supervisors and subordinates in cultures that have a low-power distance tends to be rather insignificant, in terms of both responsibility and status. The power difference in other countries, such as in the U.S. or U.K., tends to be much greater, and bullying rates are correspondingly higher. Since power difference plays a large role in bullying, all of these findings are to be expected. Additionally, egalitarian countries such as those in Scandinavia tend to have more concern for the quality of personal relationships, a trait often lacking in cultures in which males tend to dominate at the top of the organizational hierarchy. Such concern further seems to reduce the prevalence of bullying and other forms of abusive power, in contrast to the masculine cultures (e.g., U.K. & U.S.) that tolerate it in exchange for individual assertiveness and achievement (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

While the above provides examples of how different cultures seem to affect the prevalence of WPB, other studies have indicated this remains true on a sub-cultural level as well. Al-Husaini (2004) conducted a study in Kuwait by examining the relationship between culture and school violence among 600 males, high school students. The study found that tribal participants reported more violent behavior characteristics than non-tribal participants. Such is an example of how subculture affects personal characteristics corresponding to bullying.

In 1994, Hofstede, following a survey of workers in over fifty countries, suggested that aspects of different cultures vary based upon four fundamental “dimensions” (Hofstede et al., 2010, p 31). The authors describe these “dimensions” in terms of “*power distance* (from small to large), *collectivism versus individualism*, *femininity versus masculinity*, and *uncertainty avoidance*” (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 31).

The power distance dimension of culture refers to the extent to which there is an influential relationship between a superior and subordinate. In cultures with a low power distance, it is much more likely that a subordinate can influence a superior, as they view each other with mutual respect valuing each other’s importance. In contrast, high power distance cultures are more likely to see superiors in authoritative positions, unlikely to be swayed by the opinions of their subordinates (Hofstede et al., 2010, pp. 55-63).

In individualistic cultures, a person views him- or herself as having a unique set of elite characteristics that are invaluable to, yet distinctly separate from, the group he or she belongs to. In contrast, collectivistic cultures view the individual as part of the whole, integrating individuals into society from birth (Hofstede et al., 2010, pp. 90-114).

The femininity versus masculinity dimension of culture refers to the balance of power between gender-based characteristics (Hofstede et al., 2010, p. 136). Masculine culture describes countries with high competitiveness and assertiveness, as opposed to feminine cultures with modesty and caring as central values (Hofstede et al., 2010, pp. 136-144).

The dimension of uncertainty avoidance refers to a culture’s tolerance for ambiguity, especially in relation to work expectations. Cultures with high uncertainty avoidance are prone to have strict rules that minimize ambiguity, whereas cultures with low uncertainty avoidance are prone to have looser rules, allowing members to explore different ways of

operating in an unstructured setting. (Hofstede et al., 2010, pp. 187-198). In 2010, Hofstede and colleagues added a fifth dimension to this index which is *long-term versus short-term orientation* (Hofstede et al., 2010, pp. 236-259). Hofstede (2001) proposed that in cultures with high-power distance, abusive supervision appears more frequently. He also found that the topic of abuse has not generated interest for further studies in Mexico, India, and Malaysia (McFarlane-Ossmann & Curtis, 2011).

A cross-sectional study investigated whether immigrants and minority groups are exposed to WPB more than natives and majority groups, and whether the immigrants' cultural distance from the host culture increases the risk of being bullied. The sample consisted of 183 immigrants and 186 natives, all employees in a transport company in Finland. The results showed that on average, immigrants are more likely to label themselves as victims of bullying. Compared to natives, the risk of becoming a target was nearly three times higher for immigrants at an intermediate distance from their home country, and nearly eight times higher for immigrants in the most culturally distant group. The type of bullying that most immigrants received was social exclusion (Bergbom, Vartia-Vaananen, & Kinnunen, 2015).

Survey data collected from 44,836 employees in 44 countries revealed that a cultural in-group orientation was associated with lower employee harassment. Also, as a simulation of Van de Vliert's climato-economic theory of culture, harassment cases were reported more in poorer countries with more demanding climates, that is, those that have colder-than-temperate winters, hotter-than-temperate summers, or both (Van de Vliert, Einarsen, & Nielsen, 2013).

Seo, Leather, and Coyne (2012) suggested that people living in the Far East might construct WPB differently than people in Western countries. For example, the researchers analyzed South Korea's relation to WPB through cultural, historical, and psychological lenses. The results concluded that close, social bonding might act as a buffer against a conflict escalating into bullying. In definitional terms, the study indicated that the Korean culture defined bullying as a group act. The study also explained that by defining bullying as engagement in a group act, the definition demonstrated the South Korean collectivist culture and value of conformity. Additionally, the study postulated that the influence of Confucianism, which explains the given respect for authority, might contribute in accepting or condoning negative acts by authority. Finally, in reference to the Korean culture concepts of *jeong*, the close relationship among society members acts to prevent people from participating in bullying and protect them from becoming one of its victims.

Organizational Culture and Leadership Style.

Organizational culture and leadership style comprise pivotal elements in determining the prevalence or elimination of WPB. In fact, the task of maintaining a safe and healthy organizational climate frequently hinges on leadership style, as it often shapes the organizational culture directly (Al-Asmri, 2014; Casida & Pinto-Zipp, 2008; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2011). Researchers use the term *organizational culture* to categorize “a set of shared mental assumptions that guide action in organizations by defining appropriate behavior for various situations” (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006, p. 437). Likewise, the term *leadership style* represents an “influence relationship between leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (Rost, 1993, p.

102). One study (Appelbaum, Semerjian, & Mohan, 2012) reported that both ethical and transformational leadership styles efficiently enable managers to face WPB, but that the most effective tool to prevent WPB was the foundation of an ethical, organizational climate.

Employers are responsible for determining the composition and size of the workforce, shaping its culture, and assessing all aspects of the workplace environment. Further, the top management is accountable for addressing and preventing bullying, as they shape the organizational culture directly via making decisions (Liefvooghe & Davey, 2001).

Empirical studies have measured the relationship between the existence or absence of leadership vis-à-vis the frequency of WPB. For example, Einarsen et al., (1994), discovered a correlation between bullying among colleagues and a weakness or inadequacy of senior leadership, results which Leymann (1996) later confirmed. Comparatively, Hoel and Cooper's (2000) study concluded that a similar correlation existed between bullying and a *laissez-fair* leadership style. This is especially true for organizations lacking consistency, or ones that have low accountability and security. Hodson, Roscigno, and Lopez (2006) claimed that such would create a chaotic organizational climate, thus fostering WPB. In contrast, Cortina, Magley, Williams and Langhout (2001) discovered scarce evidence of bullying in workplaces with respectful and fair climates (Namie et al., 2011).

The majority of Scandinavian studies have concentrated on the relationship between bullying and the quality of the work environment. One such study (Rayner & Hoel, 1997), found that bullying highly correlates with the style of leadership, the

conflicts between different roles in the workplace, and the control of workflow. The researchers asserted that two interrelated triggers for WPB involve when leadership insufficiently controls the workflow, and when a high level of role conflict exists. Further, when management responsible for the level of control allows role conflict to exist or to continue, they often gain the reputation of bullies themselves, since they are at the same level of those who tend to cause problems (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Another study indicated that role conflict positively affected both being bullied and enacting bullying, with personal vulnerability (Balducci, Cecchin, & Fraccaroli, 2012).

A 2010, nationwide study in the U.S. revealed that the most frequent response in dealing with bullying within organizations was to do nothing (Namie et al., 2011).

Another study had similar results, revealing that in 53% of reported bullying cases, employers took no action to stop mistreatment, and the bullies received disciplinary action in only 6.2% of the cases. Even worse, in 71% of the reported bullying cases, the whistle-blowers or targets received revengeful treatment, and in 24% of cases, the complaints led to severe retaliation, causing the targets to lose their jobs. In 40% of the cases, targets considered the employers' investigations unsatisfactory, inadequate, and unfair; and in fewer than 2% of cases did targets consider the investigations to be satisfactory, safe, and fair. (Namie et al., 2011).

Einarsen et al., (1994), state that executive leadership is responsible for any bullying that occurs within the organization. Further executives should be held accountable for supporting bullies within their organizations. These findings correspond in part to Namie's later study (2007), which indicated bullies draw their support from executive management 43% of the time, peer-level management 33% of the time, and HR

14% of the time; which allows only 10% of the remaining support to come from other sources (Namie et al., 2011).

The WPB literature highly supports the idea that both organizational culture and work environment are influential upon both the incidence and escalation of negative workplace behavior. The organizational culture affects how members define bullying, how they perceive interaction between bullies and their targets, and how they respond to and manage such interactions. Competitive, antagonistic, and highly politicized organizational cultures are most at risk of producing and fostering WPB, as these types of cultures often employ authoritarian and autocratic leadership styles that do not tolerate nonconformity (Hoel & Salin, 2003).

Organizational cultures that support targets, instead of bullies, tend to see not only a lower frequency of bullying, but also a lower impact of the incidents that do occur. Cooper-Thomas et al., (2013), investigated how targets and non-targets perceive the effectiveness of workplace initiatives against bullying by surveying 727 employees at nine different organizations in the New Zealand healthcare sector. The results classified 133 employees as targets, having experienced two or more negative acts weekly over the course of six months leading up to the date of the survey. The researchers attributed the low incidence of bullying (approximately 18.3%) among these 133 targets to organizational support, which also helped to reduce the impact bullying had on both the targets and the organizations (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013).

Source and Degree

Both the source of WPB and the degree of its intensity have varied effects on targets. The targets might perceive bullying from co-workers to have less of an effect on

them than bullying from a manager, though the opposite might be true, as well. Also, targets' perception of the intensity of bullying might vary based upon the method employed, the frequency at which it occurs, the relationship they have to the perpetrators, or the time and setting of the incident.

Four studies conducted in the U.S. found that supervisors were reported for WPB more frequently than any other group of employees (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2009; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Namie, 2000, 2003a, 2003b). When someone with such power and influence guides the hostility, bullying can become a contagious behavior (Westhues, 2002). A previous study found that supervisors' aggressive behavior had a larger negative impact on targets than similar behavior from aggressive coworkers or outsiders (Hershcovis & Barling, 2009). The study suggests this difference in degree of intensity might be due to the power difference between bullies in high positions and their subordinates, which creates a feeling of powerlessness for both the targets and witnesses. Westhues (2002) also postulated that hierarchical positions might influence the sources to which targets can turn to for support, as well as the degree of support received. Regardless, the evidence clearly shows that the perpetrator's position has varied effects on both the type of bullying and the degree of its impact upon targets, witnesses, and the organization (Hershcovis & Barling, 2009).

Namie (2007) found that in 72% of bullying cases, the bullies outranked their targets. Conversely, executives are the least likely of employees to experience bullying, as only 5% of bullying cases involve executive targets. Bullying is more obvious when it comes from managers than from the work team (Namie et al., 2011).

Bystanders

As discussed in chapter one, bystanders are the people who witness WPB, but who are either not involved, or who are only indirectly involved. McDonald and Flood (2012) identified bystanders as:

individuals who observe ... harassment first hand, or are subsequently informed of the incident. This definition includes both 'passive' bystanders (those who take no action) and 'active' bystanders (those who take action to prevent or reduce the harm). This inclusive definition of bystanders is not limited to people who have witnessed the event or incident. It also includes those who subsequently hear about the event. (McDonald and Flood, 2012, p. 3).

Some evidence shows that bullying affects bystanders who witness it, potentially causing them to develop symptoms similar to those of its victims (Paull, Omari, & Standen, 2012). The same evidence shows that witnesses of bullying often have a passive reaction, meaning they do nothing about an observed incident and do not even report it to authority.

According to Namie and Lutgen-Sandvik (2010), it is rare to find aggressive organizational members bullying others without either sympathizers or accomplices present. Their study revealed that targets and bystanders who reported persistent abuse often reported that the harassment involved either a group of accomplices, or a group of witnesses in support of a single harasser. Supporters who actively participated in support of bullies were effectively aggressors themselves. Passive accomplices included HR, management, and the bullies' peers. In several cases, even the targets' peers became passive accomplices. The respondents of the survey indicated that in over 70% of the

cases, the organizations were complicit in bullying, as the upper management had either not taken any action, or had taken action that worsened the situation (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010).

Employers and co-workers who witness bullying are not the only ones who do little-to-nothing to help in bullying situations. In Namie's (2008), online, self-identified bullied survey, targets reported abandonment by co-workers 46% of the time. Further, in 16% of cases, co-workers did nothing, in 15% of cases, co-workers harassed the targets along with the bullies, and in less than 1% of cases did co-workers defend the targets, confronting the bullies as part of a group. One reason preventing most co-workers from defending their peers was the fear of becoming targets themselves (Namie et al., 2011).

Another study investigated the effects of WPB on the psychological wellbeing of the targets and observers. It found that respondents exposed to bullying reported more stress, both generally and mentally, as well as lower self-confidence than the other respondents who were not exposed to bullying (Vartia, 2001).

Gender and Job Position

Gender and job position play an inter-connected role in determining features and patterns of WPB affecting the prevalence, severity, and impact of WPB.

Johannsdottir and Olafsson (2004) conducted a study on WPB in Iceland, differentiating between general bullying and work-related bullying. Their initial findings indicated that gender does not affect which type of bullying perpetrators employ or targets receive. However, they found that when bullying occurs, gender does affect the features of WPB. Males tend to seek help less often than females do, and females tend to avoid bullying situations more than males do. Also, females are more prone than males to

respond to bullying passively, although such non-assertive strategies tend to increase the frequency and severity of bullying (Johannsdottir & Olafsson, 2004).

Giorgi et al., (2015) found that men reported better mental health than women, and managers than their subordinates. Relatedly, their study found that men and male managers were more often perpetrators than were women and subordinates. These results correspond to previous studies, which reported that women experience negative health effects resulting from exposure to WPB (i.e., Namie & Namie, 2003).

Namie (2009) had similar results regarding the targets, finding that targets were female 79% of the time. However, in contrast, his study found that females were perpetrators in 65% of the cases. Namie also found that female perpetrators bullied men only 14% of the time, while male bullies targeted women 64% of the time. In this study, gender did not seem to play any role in determining consequences for either the target or the bully.

Opposite this, Rayner and Hoel (1997) reported on a study in the U.K. that indicated gender differences did indeed produce a diversity of results. Their study had similarly revealed that the perpetrators are usually direct supervisors or senior managers of the targets. In their study, 33% of bullies were female, which corresponded to the percentage of females in management roles. However, in contrast to Namie's (2009) study, men rarely perceived themselves to be bullied by women, even though a female manager was just as likely as a male manager to become a perpetrator. Although contrasting with Namie's (2009) study, these results correspond with several of the Scandinavian studies (e.g., Sjøtveit, 1992; Leymann & Thallgren, 1989; Einarsen & Raknes, 1991). The results also correspond to several studies that found male targets

most often had male perpetrators (Jones, 2006; Namie, 2003a; Zapf et al., 2003; O'Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016) and to several others that found perpetrators to be in supervisory positions in approximately three-fourths of the cases (Namie, 2003a, 2003b, 2007; O'Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016).

In the U.S., Britain, and Australia, 70%-90% of bullies are supervisors and managers (Namie & Namie, 2003). Sexual harassment and racial harassment, prohibited by law, only accounted for 25% of bullying cases, leaving three times as many bullying cases without any legal recourse. According to the study, WPB, despite being legal, was more damaging to targets' mental health than sexual harassment (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Drabek and Merez (2013) surveyed 1313 transportation employees investigated whether an employee's position, gender, or work-related stress related to his or her bullying experience. The results revealed that bullying affected more women than men, and that women more often than men experienced bullying from a colleague, rather than a supervisor. These results remained relatively constant whether the target was a manager or an entry-level employee. According to the study, employees with high work-related stress levels reported more incidents of bullying behavior by supervisor (Drabek & Merez, 2013).

The Effect of Age

Age also can factor into the prevalence of WPB, as well as into one's vulnerability for becoming a victim. Einarsen et al. (1994) found that older people were at a significantly higher risk of being targeted than younger people. However, not all researchers have come to the same conclusion. For example, Leymann (1992b) did not find significant differences between age groups (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

To measure the effect of gender and age upon the type of WPB, Johannsdottir & Olafsson (2004) surveyed 398 union members across retail, administrative, and banking sectors. The findings revealed an increased risk of passivity (doing nothing) for older employees who experienced bullying. The researchers suggested this may reflect a progressive loss in faith in the system's ability to address bullying, but added that additional research was needed to confirm the findings.

Another study (Quine, 1999) within the health-financial sector in southeastern England reported on the effect age difference had upon the likelihood of becoming a bully or a target. Respondents reported age in 205 of the cases, among which the victim was younger than the bully 49% of the time (100 cases), a similar age to the bully 28% of the time (57 cases), and older than the bully only 28% of the time (57 cases).

The discrepancies between these findings indicate that additional research is needed to determine whether age is a factor of its own, or if age is a subset of cultural factors.

Types of WPB

One of the earliest ways of categorizing the types of WPB involved a series of three different spectra. Buss (1961) developed the classification system, and it remained in use for at least 35 years (Neuman & Baron, 1997). The three spectra are as follows:

- 1- Physical (deeds) – verbal (words, tone);
- 2- Active (doing a behavior) – passive (withholding or failures to do); and
- 3- Direct (at the target) – indirect (at something or someone the target values)

(Neuman & Baron, 1997, p. 20).

Since then, researchers (e.g., Threadgill, 2013) have simplified these spectra into two primary categories of bullying: direct bullying and indirect bullying, with both categories including several subcategories each with their own varied effects. Most of the research and public attention have focused on physical, active, and direct behaviors, such as shootings, assaults, and physical violence (Keashly, 2010). However, WPB naturally depends on manipulation, and the most frequent bullying behaviors include passive, indirect, and nonphysical forms of psychological aggression (Keashly, 2010). As such, indirect bullying occurs more frequently—and is also more influential—than direct bullying (Threadgill, 2013).

Indirect Bullying

WPB is a type of interpersonal, workplace aggression that exceeds common incivility. Common features include frequent, intense, and persistent incidents, that occur due to power disparity between the perpetrator and the victim (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). Tepper (2007) points out that the most common subtypes of indirect bullying that supervisors employ include temper tantrums, exploitation of subordinates' successes, and scapegoating. Researchers have labeled these kinds of behaviors as “petty tyranny” (a superior's use of power unjustly, whimsically, and vengefully), “supervisor aggression,” “undermining,” and most commonly, “abusive supervision” (Tepper, 2007, p. 262).

According to Keashly's study (2001), respondents most frequently reported experiencing verbal and nonphysical types of bullying, whether active or indirect. These findings correspond to the majority of research studies, which found psychological violence employed more frequently than physical violence (e.g., Greenberg & Barling, 1999; Neuman & Baron, 1997; Richman et al., 1999; Rogers, 1998). Rayner & Hoel's

(1997) summative WPB literature review agreed with this finding, concluding that bullying among adults is more complicated than among children at school. In their study, targets rarely reported physical bullying, although they reported verbal and indirect bullying frequently.

Rayner & Hoel (1997) went on to further sub-classify indirect bullying. In general, they clustered indirect bullying behavior into the following categories:

1. undermining job status (e.g., underestimating opinion, humiliation at work, accusation of weakness in productivity);
2. personal insults (e.g., name-calling, intimidation, disrespect due to age);
3. isolation (e.g., obscure opportunities, physical or social segregation, withholding of information);
4. overwork (e.g., impossible deadlines, excessive pressure, needless confusion);
and
5. destabilization (e.g., lack of gratitude, refusal to give due credit, trivial assignments, stripping responsibility, forcefully repeated mistakes, intention to fail) (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

A Finnish study examined different types of aggression in WPB and correlated the results with the gender composition of diverse workplaces. The findings indicated that the two most common styles of aggression included aggression that was indirectly manipulative, and aggression that appeared to be rational. In the predominantly male workplaces, aggression types occurred more often than in predominantly female workplaces (Kaukiainen et al., 2001).

Workplace Harassment

Workplace harassment can be another subset of WPB, although there is a fine line that distinguishes the two phenomena. WPB and workplace harassment both include degradation, intimidation, and insults. However, according to Indvik & Johnson (2012), “harassment is discriminatory behavior that targets demographics such as gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion, or disability” (p. 75). Bullying sometimes employs harassment by targeting these demographics, but the main goal of bullying is to frighten targets based on the presence or absence of workplace abilities. Within the U.S., another important distinction between bullying and harassment is that no laws against bullying exist (except in Hawaii, cf., Fitzpatrick, 2007), but harassment has a legal recourse in all 50 states (Indvik & Johnson, 2012).

Cyberbullying

A new form of bullying has developed recently called *cyberbullying* (CB). Originally a term indicating online bullying among children and adolescents in the late 1990s, CB has now come to denote the same types of electronic activity for adults in and about the workplace. The definition of CB is “inappropriate, unwanted social exchange behaviors initiated by a perpetrator via online or wireless communication technology and devices” (Piotrowski, 2012, p. 45). Types of CB include fraudulent, anonymous, aggressive or unwanted messages; spreading rumors, making threats, hacking accounts, or mounting electronic attacks; and unwanted, harassing, malicious, or abusive phone calls, texts, voicemails, or emails (Grigg, 2010, p.148). CB uses modern technology (e.g., computers with internet access, smartphones, or texting platforms) to deliver pejorative or threatening messages, either directly to the targets, or indirectly to others. Perpetrators

can use CB to victimize targets by sending private images or confidential messages to parties not authorized to view them. Doing so denigrates and humiliates the targets publicly (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

CB has some important elements in common with WPB. Both are repeated, harmful, and potentially severe. They also involve an imbalance of power, which makes targets feel powerless. The key difference between the two is that CB necessarily utilizes technology. Although CB can be a subset of WPB, there is an argument that CB is distinct from all other forms of bullying and is more harmful, due to the potential for anonymity, publicity, and accessibility (Lawrence, 2015).

An exploratory study investigated the relationship between face-to-face bullying and CB, in terms of prevalence, among members of the Australian Manufacturing Workers' Union. The study found that among 103 returned surveys, 34% of the respondents had experienced face-to-face bullying, whereas 10.7% had experienced CB. Every victim of CB had also experienced face-to-face bullying (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

The Consequences of WPB

In the last three decades, researchers started giving more attention to supervisory sexual harassment, physical violence, and nonphysical aggression (Tepper, 2007). During these studies, researchers have found that targets of WPB have been exposed to persistent negativity, which has made them feel threatened and humiliated (Einarsen & Matthiesen, 2004). Additionally, those who self-identify as victims suffer significantly more from psychosocial problems and physical symptoms than those who self-identify as non-victims or those who self-identify as incidental victims (Kaukiainen et al., 2001).

Read and Laschinger (2013) state that bullying is the strongest factor affecting job dissatisfaction, emotional exhaustion, and poor mental and physical health, compared to supervisor incivility and coworker impertinency. However, when incivility, impoliteness, discourtesy, or rudeness turn into bullying behaviors, it can have severe consequences, not only on the victim (e.g., physical or psychological health, personal career), but also on the victim's community (e.g., family, employer, society as a whole).

Psychological, Mental, and Emotional Consequences

On average, targets of WPB report higher stress levels, a lower sense of wellbeing, and lower job satisfaction, compared to other employees (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Studies in Austria, Germany, and Ireland have found that targets of WPB report more anxiety, depression, and irritability than non-victims do (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003). Others studies have indicated a possibility that intense bullying can cause long-term and even permanent damage, such as PTSD, an increased risk of heart disease, and even susceptibility to suicidal ideation (Kivimäki et al., 2005; Leymann, 1990b; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Further, Leymann (1992c) states that one in seven adult suicide cases results from WPB (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

As has been shown and will become even more evident, psychological distress is one of the most significant, personal consequences of WPB. The negative impacts resulting from psychological distress, in addition to the lack of resources for a solution, calls for psychologists and social workers to give more attention to this area, especially since higher exposure to bullying behaviors correlates with lower levels of mental health (Giorgi et al., 2015).

Giorgi et al. (2015) explored the possibility that targets' perception of job satisfaction might help mitigate the correlation between bullying and mental health. However, the respondents to the study all showed similar levels of declining mental health after exposure to bullying, regardless of perceptions of job satisfaction (Giorgi et al., 2015). In another study, 41% of employees who self-identified as bullied were clinically depressed, and 51% of them suffered from PTSD. Among those suffering from PTSD, 59% were women, and 41% were men (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Although job satisfaction does not mitigate the psychological effects of WPB, there is some evidence that a higher level of emotional intelligence can. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) argued that relationships in the workplace are capable of affecting the development of emotional intelligence. Proceeding from this assumption, Giorgi et al., (2016) tested the hypothesis in terms of WPB. Collecting data from 326 participants from amongst two private sectors in Italy, Giorgi et al. (2016) found that pre-existing emotional intelligence can aid in handling exposure to WPB. However, they also found the reverse to be true: exposure to WPB can hinder the development of emotional intelligence by creating psychological distress (Giorgi et al., 2016).

According to O'Donnell and MacIntosh (2016), based on a qualitative study investigating male targets, the emotional consequences were most commonly described as "stress, anxiety, panic attacks, depression, self-doubt and blame, lowered self-confidence and esteem, humiliation, fear, anger, frustration, irritability, powerlessness, hopelessness, decreased concentration, and memory changes" (p. 354). Some male participants developed PTSD symptoms, intentions to self-harm, and suicidal ideation. One man said: "I developed panic attacks and depression from this, and I still deal with it

today. I still take medication” (p. 354). Another man reported suffering from suicidal thoughts and said, “I am not proud to say, but there were four occasions where I had had enough. I didn’t attempt it, but everything was set up. The last time it happened I wrote the note” (p.354).

Ciby and Raya (2014) conducted a study exploring victims’ emotional experiences in India from an interpretive perspective through in-depth interviews. They found that participants’ negative emotions, such as anger and frustration, were their initial and immediate reactions to bullying. In addition, most participants reported humiliation, worry, emotional torture, and mood swings.

A longitudinal study on a sample of 1,775 Norwegian employees over the course of two years found that current or previous exposure to bullying behavior can predict subsequent psychological distress. The inverse was also true: baseline psychological distress and victimization correlated with an increased risk of becoming a target by the time of the follow-up survey. This mutual relationship between bullying and psychological distress seems to indicate a vicious circle, wherein bullying and distress reinforce each other’s negative effects (Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2012).

Another longitudinal study of 372 Spanish employees analyzing the influence of bullying on depressive symptoms found that continuation of bullying from baseline to follow-up increases depressive symptoms. The participants who met Leymann’s bullying criteria (once or more per week, over the course of six months or longer) at both times showed significantly more depressive symptoms than the other groups (Figueiredo-Ferraz, Gil-Monte, & Olivares-Faúndez, 2015).

PTSD symptoms are also common among victims of bullying. In a survey of 183 sample victims and 183 members of a control group, 42.6% of the total sample met *all* Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders criteria for PTSD, whereas 54.1% of the control group did not meet any criterion. In addition, victims held more negative views concerning the world, other people, and themselves, compared to the control group (Rodríguez-Muñoz, Moreno Jiménez, Sanz Vergel, & Garrosa Hernández, 2010).

Tracy et al., (2006), conducted a qualitative study in the U.S. using metaphor analysis to explore the emotional pain of targets by asking them one research question, “What does bullying feel like?” (p. 154). The victims described their experiences as “a game or battle, a nightmare, water torture, and a noxious substance” (p. 159). They also framed bullies as “narcissistic dictators or royalty, two-faced actors, and evil demons” (p. 166). Targets compared themselves with “abused children, slaves, animals, prisoners, and heartbroken lovers” (p. 167). Targets’ complaints were often disregarded by others with comments such as, “Is it really that bad?”, “Are you sure they’re not just problem employees?”, or “s/he is just a disgruntled employee” (p. 149).

Another study in Norway surveyed 102 members of national associations against WPB in regards to their psychological wellbeing. All members of the association were either ongoing or previous victims of WPB. A shocking 72% of participants’ responses exceeded the threshold score indicating severe psychiatric distress and PTSD. (Einarsen & Matthiesen, 2004).

Among 186 employees at a Danish food manufacturing company, researchers investigated the relationship between psychosocial factors in the work environment and bullying. Despite only 1.6% of respondents indicating bullying on a daily or weekly

basis, the results sufficiently demonstrated a causal link between bullying and poor mental health (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004).

In Canada, researchers examined the emotions of 180 employees after experiencing WPB. For male participants, verbal abuse that disregarded or undermined their work did not lead to confusion, indicating that these men had active coping strategies. Conversely, when women experienced the same kinds of verbal abuse, undermining their work and belittling them, the abuse correlated with increased confusion. These results indicated that these women had a passive coping strategy (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010).

Few studies have focused on the effect of self-labeling in regards to WPB, but one of the few that have has produced interesting results. Out (2005) explored the process of self-labeling among 385 Canadian nurses and compared the results of victims who labeled their situation with those in similar situations that met the definition of bullying, but who did not identify as victims of such. The results indicated that by self-identifying the experience as *bullying*, targets experienced more burnout, higher levels of psychological distress, and less job satisfaction.

Individual targets are not the only ones at risk for psychological distress resulting from WPB. Bystanders in the workplace are also at risk, as bullying can produce low staff morale, reduced commitment, lowered job satisfaction, and the breakdown of work relationships and teams (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

Physical Health Consequences

WPB tactics depend significantly on psychological manipulation, which mostly affects targets mentally. However, physical health consequences also often accompany mental stress, leading to a number of other concerns.

WPB correlates with many health problems, including: “headaches, sleep disturbances, decreased energy, fatigue, weight changes, gastrointestinal problems, cardiac problems, (and)...exacerbation of chronic illness” (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016, p. 354), and cardiovascular disease (Kivimäki et al., 2003). One target noted:

I was grinding my teeth so much from the stress that I was biting out my teeth, and I was getting these wicked headaches and stuff. I started not being able to sleep, and my memory was starting to become a problem. My cholesterol went up, (I had) stomach problems. I’m on pills for all of that stuff since this happened. (O’Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016, p. 354).

Ciby and Raya (2014) also reported that the physical health consequences of WPB appeared as concentration problems, headache, sleep disturbance, and altered eating habits. One victim expressed, “When the same behavior was repeated, I did not react. But, I used to get up in the morning thinking.... *How it will be in the office today?* I was mentally disturbed. Even my sleep was disturbed” (p. 75). Another victim said: “I was nervous and worried about what was happening and often got agitated. Due to stress, I even had a headache at times” (p.75).

Self-labeling as a victim might play a crucial role in determining health outcomes, which might explain why some targets develop more intense health problems than others. However, one study found that persistent exposure to WPB would develop considerable

harmful effects on targets' health, regardless of whether the targets self-identified as victims (Vie et al., 2011).

According to Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen (2008), there is sense of coherence that offers protection for targets of low-level bullying. They described this sense as a “global orientation to view the world and the individual environment as comprehensible, manageable, and meaningful, postulating that the way people view their life has a positive influence on their health” (p. 128). This suggests that individual characteristics are substantial in defining how one perceives and reacts to bullying. However, this does not completely explain the mechanisms for how bullying affects the targets' health and wellbeing (Nielsen et al., 2008).

In line with this argument, Layman, Gidycz, & Lynn (1996) found that acknowledged rape victims report more PTSD symptoms than do unacknowledged victims. Similarly, Conoscenti & McNally (2006) surveyed 89 American women and found that acknowledgment of rape correlated with an increased number and severity of health complaints. These findings also match Out's (2005) study mentioned above.

Career Consequences

The previous studies revealed that WPB occurs in certain settings, such as within the medical sector, more than others. The studies also showed that although all targets are victims, they become more damaged when they lose their job as a result of bullying. Another study showed that over 70% of WPB targets become unemployed, either by being fired, laid off, or leaving voluntarily (MacIntosh, 2012). Namie (2009) found that 31.3% of bullied people lost their jobs for one of these reasons, and another 12.3% of victims were off work due to psychological injury. Namie further stated that bullies are

not the ones who are laid off during a recession, whereas targets are always the ones banished from employment.

In dealing with bullies, the most common employer tactic in Namie's (2009) study was to do nothing, ensuring impunity. This occurred in 54% of cases, leaving 37% of targets to experience escalated bullying, ostracism from a group, suspension, demotion, or transfer; all means of revenge for reporting the incidents. In other cases, the bullies were rewarded or promoted. In only 2.4% of the cases did the bullies receive punishment, though not once did it lead to their termination or voluntary leave of employment (Namie, 2009).

Increased levels of bullying result in a lack of job security for the targets and witnesses, as well as mistrust in management (Grubb et al., 2004). An earlier Namie study (Namie & Namie, 2003) reported that when internal HR investigations occur, despite the devastating negative impact of WPB upon targets, they typically conclude bullying cases claiming a personality conflict. In this study, targets either quit their jobs or were fired 75% of the time (Namie & Namie, 2003). Another study indicated that for those who keep their jobs, taking long-term or recurring sick leave due to psychological or physical impairments could threaten or destroy a target's career progress in terms of promotions or pay raises (Privitera & Campbell, 2009).

Social and Family Consequences

The effects of WPB are significant and deep. Victims cannot just set aside and leave the impact at the work site, and usually the targets leave work anxious to go home. However, they take with them pain and depression, which can have a negative effect on friends or family members. As such, the effects of WPB can extend into the victim's

social and family relationships (Privitera & Campbell, 2009), affecting the family's peace and happiness (Ciby & Raya, 2014). Therefore, WPB not only creates an unviable work environment, but it also creates an unlivable life.

The effect on marital and family relationships is an indirect outcome of WPB. Depression and despair predicate marital and parental dysfunction. There is evidence showing the effects of depressive symptoms on negative marital interaction, spousal violence, and psychological aggression within the marriage (Barling, 1996).

A study examined the consequences of bullying on targets' homes and work from a sample drawn from six U.S. universities. Supervisors, subordinates, and family members formed a sample consisting of 630 MBA students with full-time employment. The findings revealed that when supervisors felt that their employees had not met their expectations, the subordinates reported a higher incidence of abusive supervision. Also, the family members of the abused subordinates reported a higher incidence of undermining at home (Hoobler & Brass, 2006).

O'Donnell and MacIntosh (2016) said that the consequences of WPB on targets' personal, professional, and financial wellbeing all result in negative social outcomes, such as faltering friendships, withdrawal, isolation, unemployment, reduced or lost retirement, pay cuts, loss of reputation, and increased health care costs. One man described his situation: "I became testy with people, including my loved ones" (p. 354). Another described the financial impact: "Disability was nothing compared to what I was getting, and with that comes your credit, trying to survive, you know what I mean" (p.354).

Employer and Productivity Consequences

The consequences of WPB do not only affect the targets' health and family, but they can also reduce organizational productivity. A conflict between two persons can become dereliction of duty, creating a negative workplace climate. This decreases work productivity and job quality, thus affecting job satisfaction. According to Giorgi et al., (2015), the workplace might not just lose a very productive, skilled, and intelligent employee, but it might also lose its hard-earned, good reputation, because of dealing with this issue poorly.

In Simons & Mawn's (2010) study examining the association of WPB with job satisfaction and retention among 184 newly licensed U.S. nurses, four major themes emerged. The most prominent one was nurses "eating their young" (p. 307). The meaning of that phrase, according to the respondents, is that the young and new nurses were bullied by the older nurses in higher positions. Other important themes were being "*out of the clique* and leaving the job" (p. 308). This refers to how a group of people acts as an elitist unit by creating a clique and ganging up on another person to exclude him or her, thus pushing the target to quit (Simons & Mawn, 2010). Such behaviors may prevent the development of a healthy organization by excluding new, up-and-coming employees.

According to Power et al. (2013), some of the significant consequences of WPB that cost both the victims and employer include higher rates of absenteeism (O'Connell, Calvert, & Watson, 2007) and massive, voluntary exits from employment (Tepper, 2000). Bullying might make employees think they are not valued or respected, making them lose their motivation and become less engaged in work (Sidle, 2010). In various countries, higher levels of incivility and bullying correlate with lower levels of employee

engagement (Loh, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2010; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). Regardless of a target's positive relationship with a supervisor or with co-workers, neither type of relationship mitigates the damage bullying has upon the target's affective commitment (McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2006). Additionally, the "fear, negative mood, and perceived injustice predict lower affective commitment and enhanced withdrawal intentions, poor interpersonal job performance, greater neglect, and cognitive difficulties" (Barling, Rogers, & Kelloway, 2001, p. 255). Therefore, since employee engagement correlates with higher performance and profits, employers must have serious motivation to eliminate bullying (Medlin & Green, 2009; Saks, 2006; Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009).

Abusive supervision correlates with costly workplace problems, such as: limited *Organizational Citizenship Behavior* (OCB), decreased productivity, heightened anxiety, resistance to authority, deviant behavior, psychological distress, and overall job dissatisfaction (McFarlane-Ossmann & Curtis, 2011). The problem of OCB involves the way

abused subordinates may seek to restore the situation to what is expected by withholding actions that benefit the organization and its representatives.....

Examples of OCBs include helping coworkers with work-related problems, not complaining about trivial problems, behaving courteously to coworkers, and speaking approvingly about the organization to outsiders. A key component of the OCB definition is that the omission of OCBs is not punishable (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002, p. 1068).

Research suggests that as bullying negatively affects targets' quality of life at work (e.g., job stress or satisfaction), it also affects witnesses similarly. Witnesses of bullying have higher levels of stress, both mentally and generally, than coworkers who are not exposed to bullying. In addition, witnesses of bullying are more likely than non-witnesses to quit their jobs (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

The employers' costs (viz., the *business case*, in some literature) go beyond productivity loss. An inadequate response to bullying can cost employers by: having to hire third-party intervention; losing employees; paying for sick leave, workers compensation claims, or disability benefits; and culpability in legal lawsuits or criminal cases (Hoel & Einarsen, 2010). Additional costs might also come from overtime work that a bullying manager demands a target perform, or make-up work left by an absent target that a co-worker must complete as extra work. Organizations are also responsible for the subtle costs due to a deteriorating work climate or atmosphere (Wiedmer, 2010). Such potentially high costs should provide a logical imperative, if not a moral one, to motivate employers to put a stop to bullying (Hoel & Einarsen, 2010). The estimated savings for a single organization is approximately \$1.2 million annually, for the costs of intervention and treatment alone (Keashly & Neuman, 2004).

In a partnered study between the WPB institute and a Canadian disability management firm, the results indicated that bullying caused 18% of short-term disability claims. The targets involved missed work, on average, for 159 days per claim (Namie et al., 2011). The financial costs of bullying can be large, and employers could benefit from increasing awareness of bullying. As one of the largest effects of bullying, absenteeism negatively affects efficiency, productivity, and profitability. The high frequency of staff

rotation and resignation due to low workplace morale costs the organization time and money hiring and training new, replacement staff. It also affects the organization's public reputation, earning the perception of a poor and difficult place to work (Privitera & Campbell, 2009). While it is logical that companies would try to expel costly bullies, the evidence is to the contrary. Namie's study (Namie et al., 2011), reported on the retention of bullies, indicating that offenders received punishment in only 6% of cases, whereas in 40% of cases the targets quit their jobs, 24% were terminated, and 13% were transferred to safer positions at the same employer (Namie et al., 2011).

Oftentimes, people perceive bullying to be a problem with the HR department, as most bullying complaints are routed to anti-discrimination compliance officers there. In approximately 80% of the complaints, the anti-discrimination officers perceived no illegality in offenders' actions, and thus the employers were not required to respond (Namie et al., 2011). In another WBI study, the researchers found that in 51% of the bullying cases, HR took no action, and in 32% of the cases, HR worsened the situation for the targets. The HR department defended their position, but stated that they lacked the tools necessary to reverse the bullying, despite of their motivation to do so (Namie et al., 2011).

Indvik and Johnson (2012) estimated that around 25% of targets and 20% of witnesses quit their jobs because of WPB. Applying that figure to an organization with 1,000 employees, assuming that 25% of them are targets and 15% of the targets quit their due to being bullied, the replacement cost, on average is, \$20,000, which makes an annual cost of \$750,000. Adding to these numbers for two witnesses per bullied employee, with 20% of witnesses affected, the analysis adds at least another \$1.2 million,

totaling approximately \$2 million per year (Lieber, 2010). The International Labor Organization estimated the costs of interpersonal violence and bullying in the U.S. to be between \$4.9 and \$43.4 billion (Stagg & Sheridan, 2010). The estimated loss might be frightening, but it is not surprising, as it is not much different than what was found in other countries, such as in Australia. The Australian economy estimated the costs to be between \$6 billion and \$36 billion annually through lost productivity, absenteeism, greater staff turnover, and higher rates of illness, accidents, disability and suicide, all caused by WPB (Askew, Schluter, & Dick, 2013).

An internet-based, descriptive, cross-sectional survey examined the prevalence of WPB and its effects on the productivity of 197 novice nurses. The majority the nurses (72.6%) had experienced WPB within the previous month. Targets comprised 57.9% of respondents, and those who only witnessed events comprised 14.7% of respondents. Additionally, the survey found that productivity for both targets and witnesses decreased as a result of their encounters with WPB (Berry, Gillespie, Gates, & Schafer, 2012).

Another Danish study examined how WPB affected long-term absences by sampling 9,949 employees in the elderly-care sector. Of the total sample, 11.8% of the employees had been bullied within the previous year, 1.8% frequently, and 7.3% occasionally. The researchers adjusted the results for psychosocial factors that might affect long-term absence, but even after such adjustment, the risk of long-term absence remained highest for those encountering bullying on a frequent basis. Not only does such absence affect the company, but it also can have severe impact upon the quality of care and the safety of the patients (Ortega, Christensen, Hogh, Rugulies, & Borg, 2011).

Societal and Economic Consequences

Abusive supervisors affect an estimated 13.6% of workers in the U.S., resulting in substantial costs on the victims' life and work. The costs of this, in terms of absenteeism, healthcare, and productivity, is an estimated \$23.8 billion annually. However, this estimate could increase with legal developments, if WPB were to become an actionable offense, giving employers significant liability (Tepper, 2007).

In 2009, the WBI conducted a study that included 400 participants, investigating the prevalence of bullying after the 2008 recession. Twenty-eight percent of respondents indicated that the frequency, severity, and abusiveness of bullying increased. The recession did not affect 67% of respondents, and 3% reported a reduction in bullying since the recession started (Namie et al., 2011).

Pinkerfield (2006) has estimated that bullying costs Great Britain \$3.3 billion (£2 billion) annually, with nearly 19 million missed workdays. In the U.S., Fox and Stallworth (2009) have estimated the costs of litigating bullying claims to exceed \$350,000 per case.

Chapter Summary

Bullying and mobbing are secretive, targeted, and widespread in the workplace. They aim to ostracize, isolate, undermine, and possibly eliminate the target. For an unknown reason, WPB occurs more frequently in the health, social service, and educational sectors. The targets are often the most creative workers in an organization, and yet they experience emotional and financial costs. When organizations lose such talented employees, they can face high costs, such as decreases in productivity and staff demoralization. A lack of management intervention to address this issue can reinforce the

abusive organizational culture (Sloan, Matyók, Schmitz, & Short, 2010). Employees who are bullied have significantly lower job satisfaction, higher job-induced stress, deeper depression, and greater anxiety, eventually developing an intention to leave the job (Quine, 1999).

Bullying involves abuse of power and control. Both gender hierarchies and societal power structures reinforce the development of bullies within the workplace (MacIntosh, O'Donnell, Wuest, & Merritt-Gray, 2011). The majority of victims have been unaware of the WPB. Instead, they considered the negativity to be part of their normal work culture (Ciby & Raya, 2014). WPB has diffused across work sites (Quine, 1999) and it is estimated to be three times more widespread than sexual harassment (Namie, 2003a). WPB ranks at the top among all forms of workplace stressors (Wilson, 1991). Some previous studies have estimated the prevalence of WPB to be between 2 and 10%, depending the method of measurement and the population studied (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996; Rayner et al., 2002; Vartia, 1996; Zapf et al., 2003).

WPB is distinct from other forms of violence or harassment in that most of the research in this field found that the victims were unable to defend themselves. This is because the bullies were more powerful due to organizational status or social relationships. Thus, the most frequently reported source of bullying was supervisors (Ciby & Raya, 2014). Also, WPB involves persistent behaviors, whether overt, covert, or both. It is essential for employers and employees to understand this construct, as WPB is usually invisible and difficult to identify (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).

Bullying in the workplace thrives in economically harsh times. Bullies are aggressive and controlling, coming from any age, race, religion, or gender. Because of the lack of laws against WPB in the U.S., employers expose themselves to potential legal liability, such as negligent retention, negligent hiring, or a hostile work environment. The victims can also demand compensation for undue stress and emotional injuries. These costs, whether direct or indirect, can be up to an estimated \$43.4 billion annually. As one study put it, “lawsuits don’t just happen; they walk into your organization on two feet” (Indvik & Johnson, 2012, p.66).

Based on this literature review, it can be seen that the WPB phenomenon is relational, dynamic, and communal. The dynamics can escalate, affecting other workers within the organization, and they can even travel outside the organization. Since bullying is a systemic problem, the organization’s structure and policies help determine the presence or absence of bullying. For that reason, professionals and researchers implore management to take responsibility for preventing and controlling WPB (Keashly, 2010).

In the past fifteen years, sixteen states within the U.S. have attempted to pass anti-bullying legislation, and some of these states have tried up to five times (Indvik & Johnson, 2012), yet only one has been successful (Fitzpatrick, 2007). The Healthy Workplace Bill (HWB) has achieved the biggest victory so far in May 2010, when the New York State Senate gave workers the right to sue for abusive treatment on the job (Indvik & Johnson, 2012). Hopefully, in the near future, the remaining states will take similar action.

Gaps in the Literature

Most of the literature reviewed on this topic focused on the antecedents of WPB from the targets' perspective and the psychological consequences of WPB. There is lack of research that explains the causes of WPB. There are problems with methodology obstructing objective investigation of this issue (Zapf, 1999).

Complex ethical and methodological issues sometimes increase while conducting sensitive research topics (Fahie, 2014). While the precise definition of *sensitive* research is still debatable, it has been described as research which has the potential to pose a reasonable threat for persons involved in the study. Further if that threat were to emerge, it would likely cause problems for collecting, holding, or distributing the data (Lee & Renzetti, 1990, p. 512). This has made it difficult to investigate the issue from the perpetrators' perspectives. Few want to admit that they are bullies.

The effect of employee demographics on WPB were not fully clear or investigated. For example, there were some discrepancies about the perpetrators' gender and status, only some of which can be attributed to cultural differences (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Some studies found no significant gender-related differences (e.g., Johannsdottir & Olafsson, 2004), whereas others found that most perpetrators and targets were female (e.g., Namie, 2009). Others found males to be more prone to become perpetrators (e.g., Giorgi et al., 2015), and still others found that supervisors and male workers experienced bullying more than women did (e.g., Hoel et al., 2001). Yet researchers collectively assert that gender is indeed an impacted factor of WPB (e.g., MacIntosh et al., 2011).

Regarding the job position, some researches revealed that the perpetrators are usually in position of power, such as managers and senior managers (e.g., Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Namie, 2003a, 2003b, 2007; Einarsen, 1999; Zapf, 1999). In contrast, some studies found that employees with managerial positions also experienced bullying, including bullying by colleagues, more often than employees with non-management positions (e.g., Drabek & Merez, 2013). Therefore, the factors of gender and job position require further investigation to clear up these discrepancies and to determine whether they relate to cultural differences or methodological problems.

The effect of age on WPB is also still ambiguous. Very few researchers have studied the relationship between age and WPB, or if it makes any significant effect. Some studies found no significant impact of age on WPB (e.g., Leymann, 1992b; Himmer, 2016), whereas others revealed that younger people are more vulnerable than older people are (e.g., Quine, 1999, 2001; Owayolu, Owayolu, & Karadag, 2014; Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). On the other hand, Einarsen et al. (1994) found that older people are significantly more vulnerable to be bullied than younger people. In addition, there is an evidence of increasing passivity (the tendency to do nothing) related to age; as age increases, passivity increases as well. This might indicate a loss of faith and trust in the system to address bullying, and therefore suggest further investigation (Johannsdottir & Olafsson, 2004).

Regarding nationality and race, some studies found significant differences among racial groups exposed to WPB (e.g., Namie et al., 2011). The ethnic and racial minorities suffered more from WPB than the dominant population (e.g., Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

Thus, discrimination is embedded in WPB, but there are very few studies investigating the relationship between WPB and ethnicity.

Although WPB exists widely in the educational institutes (e.g., Kircher et al., 2011; Sloan et al., 2010; Hollis, 2015), few of the studies have investigated the variable of education as a significant predictor. For the present study, education is an especially important factor, as Kuwaiti managers tend to be less educated than their subordinates.

The evidence indicates that bullying strongly correlates with decreased job satisfaction (e.g., Read & Laschinger, 2013), and that victims report lower job satisfaction than non-bullied (e.g., Aquino & Thau, 2009). However, one study revealed that job satisfaction does not affect the consequences of WPB (e.g., Giorgi et al., 2015). Thus, it is ambiguous as to which one comes first in this compound relationship, whether job satisfaction, WPB, or health problems. Therefore, further investigation of job satisfaction within the WPB phenomenon is imperative.

One of the most significant consequences of WPB that costs both victims and employers is increased absenteeism (O'Connell et al., 2007; Chipps & McRury, 2012), which is one of the direct costs of WPB (Wiedmer, 2010). Increased absenteeism due to sickness can lead to dismissal or resignation (Takaki et al., 2013), which in turn can decrease productivity and the quality of work (Anderson, 2011; Leymann, 1990b), incurring upon employers significant financial costs (e.g., Tepper, 2007). Thus, absenteeism is a very important factor for this study specifically, as there is high rate of absenteeism due to sickness in Kuwait. Al-Otaibi (1997) examined the effect of job stress on psychosomatic disorders and absence among native Kuwaitis ($n= 462$) and expatriates ($n= 196$). The results showed that Kuwaitis have higher scores on absenteeism,

psychosomatic disorders, and work-related stress than expatriates. Thus, more investigation is required to illustrate concretely how absenteeism relates to WPB in Kuwait.

One's intention to leave a job accompanies previously mentioned WPB consequences. Researchers supported the psychosomatic model that bullying leads to negative effects, which in turn leads to physical health problems, which consequently increases intention to leave job (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2004). Therefore, targets tend to leave their jobs to escape from harassment (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2003), and almost 78% of targets lost their jobs (Namie, 2012). When targets lost their jobs, they struggled to find new ones; those who did ended up earning less money than at their prior jobs (Namie, 2011). Targets do not trust the administration and organizational policies to solve the problem, and the only solution they have is leaving their job (e.g., Simons & Mawn, 2010). Thus, the intention to leave one's job is an important factor to investigate further, in order to measure its association with WPB.

Furthermore, most of the studies found in the literature were conducted in the U.S. and Europe. There is a vast scarcity of studies investigating the issue in South America, Asia, Africa, and Australia. There are only two published studies regarding this issue conducted in the Middle East, specifically in Egypt and Jordan. This shortage has several potential explanations. It might be that those living in the Middle East consider this subject a new research field, that the researchers are not interested, or that the workers do not have a term for the problem. Regardless of the reason, social workers have to sound the alarm, as there are likely many people who are currently suffering from WPB, unaware of the issue, in need of help and education.

Additionally, the majority of the studies have taken place in the health and medical sectors, due to the high prevalence there. However, this puts researchers under moral obligations to investigate this issue in other settings and environments, especially since some previous studies have found that the effects of WPB go beyond the work boundaries, upsetting and unsettling the family's peace and happiness (e.g., Privitera & Campbell, 2009; Ciby & Raya, 2014). Of course, there is also the effect on the targets' psychological, physical, and social wellbeing (e.g., Namie & Namie, 2003; Leymann, 1992c; Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

Therefore, from a social-work perspective, it is imperative to assure the welfare of an individual in the workplace and in any environment. Thus, since this issue is a social, psychological, and occupational problem, social workers are obligated to give more attention to this topic within the field where they provide services. If a target gets betrayed by management, and legislators have failed to provide justice, social workers must take the lead and help bullied victims, if for no other reason, because of the psychological and social consequences.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The literature review has demonstrated that, in many previous cases, WPB has significantly correlated with multiple personal, educational, occupational, and societal factors. The researcher in this study posited a similarly significant degree of correlation between several of these factors and WPB for employees in Kuwait. For this study, the independent variables included: sex, age, nationality, marital status, monthly income, educational level, occupational sector and position, satisfaction with job, management, supervisor, and need for counselor. The dependent variables were reported bullying and absenteeism due to being bullied.

Research Questions

The research questions for this study comprised four sections to determine characteristics of targets. In general, these sections explored: a) employees' demographics association with WPB, b) employees' work-related factors association with WPB, c) perpetrators' demographics association with WPB, and d) potential predictions on WPB and absenteeism based on these demographics and work-related factors.

1. The following research questions explored the participants' demographics via univariate analyses and their association with WPB via bivariate analyses:
 - 1.1. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with sex?
 - 1.2. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with age?
 - 1.3. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with nationality?
 - 1.4. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with marital status?
 - 1.5. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with monthly income?
 - 1.6. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with educational level?

- 1.7. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with occupational sector?
- 1.8. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with occupational position?
2. The following research questions explored the participants' work-related factors via univariate analyses and their relationship with WPB via bivariate analyses:
 - 2.1. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with job satisfaction?
 - 2.2. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with satisfaction with management?
 - 2.3. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with satisfaction with day to day supervisor?
 - 2.4. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with the need for counselor at workplace?
 - 2.5. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with being absent on the job due to being bullied?
 - 2.6. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with intention to quit or transfer from current job?
 - 2.7. Is WPB in Kuwait associated with job productivity?
3. The following research questions explored perpetrators' demographics via univariate analyses and their association with WPB via bivariate analyses:
 - 3.1. What is the perpetrator's sex? How is it associated with WPB?
 - 3.2. What is the perpetrator's age? How is it associated with WPB?
 - 3.3. What is the perpetrator's nationality? How is it associated with WPB?
 - 3.4. What is the perpetrator's educational level? How is it associated with WPB?
 - 3.5. How many employees does the perpetrator supervise? How is this associated with WPB?
4. Upon completion of the above, the following research questions explored potential predictions one could make based on the above sets of variables, using multivariate analyses:
 - 4.1. Which set of variables best predict the targets of WPB?

4.2. Do these same variables predict targets' absenteeism due to being bullied?

Research Design & Data Collection Procedures

This non-experimental, quantitative study employed a cross-sectional survey to address the stated research questions. The purpose of the survey was: a) to collect quantitative data to describe the victims and perpetrators of WPB in Kuwait, b) to determine correlation coefficients between the aforementioned independent and dependent variables, and c) to determine which independent variables best predict dependent variables.

To collect the data, the researcher employed Qualtrics software to create and administer a self-report, online survey to a volunteer sample of employees in Kuwait, from June 1 to June 12, 2017. The online survey comprised a series of closed-ended questions, to which respondents answered using numerical scales that could be analyzed statistically (see Appendix A for a copy of the questionnaire). The online nature of the survey facilitated a rapid collection of responses from a large number of participants at a low cost. The use of a self-report questionnaire, as opposed to face-to-face interviews, facilitated anonymous responses to sensitive topics that the participants might not have wished to discuss openly with a researcher. A demographic questionnaire (Appendix B) accompanied the survey to correlate certain employee demographics with the prevalence of WPB.

The quantitative research design supported the positivist paradigm, wherein the researcher was a neutral observer whose values and preferences did not bias the process of data collection. However, this is not to ignore the postpositivist paradigm, and it must

be recognized that every choice the researcher made had a certain amount of bias (Creswell, 2009).

Target Population

The target population for this study consisted of all possible employees in the State of Kuwait. The inclusion criteria of the target population included any individual who was 18 years old or older and who had a job, regardless of sex, nationality, ethnicity, job sector, job position, legal status, or work status (full- or part-time). The exclusion criteria of the target population excluded any individual who reported being under the age of 18, was retired, or had not been employed for six months prior to the study.

Sample Size

According to Cohen (1992), for social studies data, with a conventional statistical significance level ($\alpha = .05$), and a high level of power ($1 - \beta = 0.8$), the minimum sample size to conduct a correlation analysis is 28 when the correlation is large (Pearson's $r = 0.5$) and 85 when the correlation is medium (Pearson's $r = 0.3$). Also, the minimum sample size to achieve adequate power to conduct a multiple regression at the conventional 0.05 level of significance for seven predictors is 48 when the regression is large ($f^2 = .35$) and 102 when the regression is medium ($f^2 = .15$). To ensure the minimum sample size for this study would be met, the researcher conducted a power analysis using G*3Power 3 for both analyses (see, Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). The actual sample size upon completion of the study comprised 4,687 respondents. Therefore, the sample size for this study was not a concern, and there was sufficient statistical power to make correct inferences using correlation and regression analyses.

Sampling Design and Data Collection

To encourage open and honest sharing of data pertaining to a sensitive subject, the self-report study was distributed online via social media using features built into the Qualtrics software. Following Dudovskiy's "snowball sampling" method (2016), the recruitment process started with the researcher broadcasting the survey link through his social media accounts on Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp Messenger, Instagram, and LinkedIn, and encouraged people to participate in answering the survey and sharing the survey link with others through their social media accounts (see Appendix C for the cover letter). In this process, participants recruited others voluntarily until sufficient data were collected. This recruitment process differed from other traditional recruitment processes by allowing complete anonymity with no direct contact, not only of subsequent respondents, but also of the initial group. Accounting for the researcher's involvement with a previous study regarding social media usage in Kuwait (Al-Kandari, Al-Sejari, Alaslawi, & Alballoul, 2015), it was found that Kuwaiti people are heavy users of social media, especially Twitter and WhatsApp Messenger.

To broaden the sample further, the researcher reached out to several public figures who had many followers, requesting their help in disseminating the survey. Additionally, the researcher involved Kuwaiti local newspapers, having them share the survey link through their social media accounts to encourage even greater participation.

Although each potential participant received the same link to the survey, it would have been nearly impossible for any one participant to access and review another's responses due to the security of the Qualtrics software. To prevent duplications, whenever a potential participant opened the link, the Qualtrics software automatically

identified a user's device and browser, issuing a unique code to take the survey. Upon submission of a completed survey, participants' responses automatically registered directly into the researcher's Qualtrics software account.

Because of these factors, a substantial number of people encountered the survey in a relatively short time. With each person having the option of participating and a second option of sharing, it became practically impossible for the researcher to know or ascertain the identities of the respondents. Further, the survey did not seek any personal information, such as names, addresses, phone numbers, and so on; and it did not provide any means by which any participant could view another participant's data. All of these features provided a greater sense of anonymity, so as to protect the accuracy of the data.

To ensure quality, accuracy, and validity, the survey was first translated into Arabic by an independent professional translator (Appendix D, Appendix E), and then back-translated into English (Appendix G) for comparison. The professional translator evaluated both translations and confirmed the accuracy and validity of the translated survey and that the items remain at the same original context. Then, the Arabic version was administered, as Arabic is the most commonly spoken language in Kuwait (see Appendix F for the Arabic translation of the cover letter).

Participants' responses automatically registered directly into the researcher's Qualtrics software account as soon as each participant submitted a completed survey. The University of Kentucky provided a secure hosting site for the data. To access the data, the researcher has unique username and password, preventing respondents from seeing collected data for either an individual or the group.

Description of Instruments & Processes

This study utilized the Revised Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ-R), which is the primary self-report instrument for the academic research of bullying (WBI, 2016; Nielsen, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2011; used with permission, see Appendix H). The NAQ-R is a unidimensional construct developed by Einarsen, Hoel, and Notelaers (2009) to measure one's exposure to bullying in the workplace (see Appendix A). The scale's well-established validity and reliability have an excellent internal consistency (.90), according to Cronbach's alpha measurement (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). Additionally, the NAQ-R has a reliable history of correlating individual responses with measures pertaining to mental health, psychosocial work environment, leadership behaviors, and perceived victimization; while also distinguishing between groups of employees with diverse levels of exposure to bullying. (Einarsen et al., 2009). The scale included two approaches: the behavioral experience approach and the self-labeling approach.

NAQ-R Behavioral Experience Section

The behavioral experience approach comprised 22 items categorized into three underlying dimensions/factors. The three subscales included: a) work-related bullying (7 items), b) person-related bullying (12 items), and c) physically intimidating bullying (3 items). All factor loadings exceeded .70, with no cross loadings or error correlations. Also, the correlation between factors ranged between .83 and .96, and thus most other studies have treated WPB as a quasi-one-dimensional construct (see Table 3.1). Without using the terms *bullying* or *harassment*, the phrasing of each of the 22 items connoted negative behavior that most respondents would have perceived as bullying. Participants

were asked to complete a 5-point Likert scale of how often they had been subjected to these behaviors over the last six months, with response categories ranging from: a) *never*, b) *now and then*, c) *monthly*, d) *weekly*, and e) *daily* (Einarsen et al., 2009).

Table 3.1, Items, Factors, Loadings, and Correlations among Sub-factors of the NAQ-R.

Factor	NAQ-R item number	Item wording	Factor loading
Work-related bullying	1	Someone withholding information which affects your performance	.71
	3	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	.77
	14	Having your opinions and views ignored	.88
	16	Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	.85
	18	Excessive monitoring of your work	.82
	19	Pressure not to claim something to which by right you are entitled (e.g., sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	.77
Person-related bullying	21	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	.81
	2	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	.86
	4	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	.86
	5	Spreading of gossip and rumours about you	.84
	6	Being ignored or excluded	.83
	7	Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person, attitudes or your private life	.87
	10	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	.93

Table 3.1, Items, Factors, Loadings, and Correlations among Sub-factors of the NAQ-R. (Continued)

Factor	NAQ-R item number	Item wording	Factor loading
Physically intimidating bullying	11	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	.90
	12	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	.88
	13	Persistent criticism of your work or effort	.95
	15	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get along with	.85
	17	Having allegations made against you	.92
	20	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	.91
	8	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger	.88
	9	Intimidating behaviors such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way	.86
	22	Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	.83
	<i>Correlation among the factors</i>		
	Work-related	Person-related intimidation	Physical
Work-related	1.00		
Person-related	.96	1.00	
Physical-intimidation	.83	.89	1.00

NAQ-R Self-Labeling Section

The self-labeling approach was a one-item, self-label measure of bullying victimization. Participants reported if they had been bullied according to a given, global definition of WPB:

We define bullying as a situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions. We will *not* refer to a one-off incident as bullying (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001, p.447, emphasis added).

This item was not used as a second dependent variable, but rather it aimed to detect any mismatch between the self-report of perceiving negative experiences and the self-labeling as victims of bullying based on the provided definition.

In this item, participants indicated whether they had been subjected to bullying over the previous six months. The five possible responses included a) *No*, b) *Yes, but only rarely*, c) *Yes, now and then*, d) *Yes, several times per week*, e) *Yes, almost daily* (Privitera & Campbell, 2009). When participants chose to answer any of the *Yes* options, they were then directed to two other items that measured the perpetrators' job position and sex. Participants who did not label themselves as bullied, based on the given definition, thus answering *No*, were directed to the demographic section.

Additional Victimization Section

In addition to the traditional NAQ-R, the researcher added seven more items in a victimization section. To allow for a fuller investigation of the research questions in

regards to the perpetrator’s demographics, the first four additional items measured the perpetrator’s nationality, education, age, and the number of employees the bully supervises. The other three items measured the targets’ absenteeism rate, intention to leave their jobs, and their work performance. The following Table 3.2 includes the items related to the victimization profile. As discussed previously, the NAQ-R scale included 22 items related to the negative behaviors distinguishing targets from non-targets, based on the researcher’s operational definition criterion; plus one final question related to victimization. In this final question, the respondents who labeled themselves as victims using a provided, global definition of WPB received access to an additional set of victimization-related questions. The researcher developed the additional items to identify more information to better profile the victims and perpetrators. Only the respondents who labeled themselves as victims by answering *yes* to the victimization item had access to the rest of these items. Those who did not perceive themselves as victims, answering *no*, were instead directed to the demographic questionnaire presented in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.2, Targets’ Victimization Variables & Perpetrators’ Demographics

Variable	Attribute	Value label
Have you been bullied at work based on the given global definition of WPB?	No	1
	Yes, but rarely	2
	Yes, now and then	3
	Yes, several times per week	4
	Yes, almost daily	5
Who you were bullied by?	My immediate supervisor	1
	Other supervisors/managers	2
	Colleagues	3
	Subordinates	4
	Customers/patients/students, etc.	5
	Others	6
The sex of your perpetrator/s	Male	1
	Female	2

Table 3.2, Targets' Victimization Variables & Perpetrators' Demographics (Continued)

Variable	Attribute	Value label
The number of your perpetrator/s	1	1
	2	2
	3 or more	3
The nationality of your main perpetrator	Kuwait	1
	Bedoon	2
	Middle East	3
	Asia	4
	Africa	5
	Others	6
Does your main perpetrator have the same or more or less education than you?	Same	1
	More	2
	Less	3
	Don't know	4
The age of your main perpetrator	18-29	1
	30-39	2
	40-49	3
	50-59	4
	60 and more	5
	Don't know	6
Approximately, how many people does the person who has bullied you supervise?	Not applicable	0
	Don't know	1
	1-9	2
	10-29	3
	30-99	4
	100 and more	5
Days off work with illness due to being bullied?	No days off	1
	1-6 days	2
	7-13 days	3
	14-20 days	4
	21 days and more	5
Intention to quit or transfer from current job due to being bullied?	Never	1
	Rarely	2
	Sometimes	3
	Often	4
Productivity been lower than expected due to being bullied?	Never	1
	Very rarely	2
	Sometimes	3
	Most of the time	4

Additional Demographics Section

Likewise, the researcher added a small demographic section to the NAQ-R scale to collect contextual information on the participants. The demographic questionnaire comprised two main categories, socioeconomic information and work-related information, with a total of 12 items between the two. All items involved closed-ended questions with multiple-choice answers (see Appendix B for complete list). The reason of having all the questions in categorical pattern is to avoid any data entry errors, because the Qualtrics program does not allow participants to enter numerical values in any other language except English and the study's population first language is Arabic. The purpose of this demographic questionnaire was to identify the population's characteristics and to provide control variables. Table 3.3 below lists the categorical variables used to provide demographic and contextual information about each participant.

Table 3.3, Demographic and Contextual Variables of Participants

Variable	Attribute	Value label
Sex	Female	1
	Male	2
Age	Less than 18	1
	18-29	2
	30-39	3
	40-49	4
	50-59	5
	60 and more	6
Nationality	Kuwaiti	1
	Unidentified citizenship (Bedoon)	2
	Middle East	3
	Asia	4
	Africa	5
	Others	6
Marital status	Single	1
	Married	2
	Divorced	3
	Widowed	4

Table 3.3, Demographic and Contextual Variables of Participants (Continued)

Variable	Attribute	Value label
Monthly income in Kuwaiti Dinar (KD)	499 and less	1
	500-799	2
	800-1099	3
	1100-1399	4
	1400-1699	5
	1700-1999	6
	2000-2399	7
	2400 and more	8
Highest level of educational qualification	Less than high school	1
	High school or equivalent	2
	Diploma (or 2-years associate degree)	3
	Bachelor's	4
	Graduate/professional degree	5
Occupational sector	Not applicable	0
	Governmental sector	1
	Private sector	2
	Self-employed	3
Occupational position	Not applicable	0
	Upper level	1
	Middle level	2
	Lower level	3
Job satisfaction	Not applicable	0
	Very dissatisfied	1
	Dissatisfied	2
	Undecided	3
	Satisfied	4
	Very satisfied	5
Satisfaction with management	Not applicable	0
	Very dissatisfied	1
	Dissatisfied	2
	Undecided	3
	Satisfied	4
	Very satisfied	5
Satisfaction with supervisor	Not applicable	0
	Very dissatisfied	1
	Dissatisfied	2
	Undecided	3
	Satisfied	4
	Very satisfied	5

Table 3.3, Demographic and Contextual Variables of Participants (Continued)

Variable	Attribute	Value label
Preference to have social counselor at workplace	Not applicable	0
	Strongly disagree	1
	Disagree	2
	Undecided	3
	Agree	4
	Strongly agree	5

Application of the NAQ-R

The technical application of the NAQ-R was relatively simple. With only 22 short and easy-to-read items, there was little mental demand on respondents. The survey length is often a trouble in organizational studies, and the short and comprehensible NAQ-R was a valid solution (Einarsen et al., 2009). Following Arvey and Cavanaugh's (1995) recommendation, the instrument measured the respondents' experiences of bullying within the six months prior to the study. Using such a short timeframe ensured the measurement of repeated and ongoing experiences, making responses less vulnerable to recall problems, memory biases, and distortions. Providing respondents with a definition of bullying before asking them about their perception of victimization (as recommended by Einarsen et al., 2009), also helped mitigate these concerns.

Scoring

The NAQ-R had two summary scores: intensity and frequency. The intensity score was calculated by adding together the cumulative number of negative behaviors experienced by the respondent that occurred daily, weekly, monthly, or occasionally. The frequency score was calculated by adding together only those that were reported to occur daily, weekly. This followed Notelaers & Einarsen's (2013) pattern of scoring the

NAQ-R, except that the researcher also considered *monthly* negative behaviors when calculating frequency.

Data Analysis.

First, the responses of the participants were entered into the data editor of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24.0 for statistical analysis. The questionnaire item scores were screened for missing values. All the surveys with missing values were excluded. Next, at the univariate level, the frequency distributions of the demographic and contextual characteristics of the participants (counts and percentages) were computed to provide a description of the composition of the sample.

Second, in order to assess the prevalence rate of WPB among employees in Kuwait and identify targets from non-targets, a slightly revised version of Agervold's (2007) operational definition criterion was applied. Agervold (2007) labeled targets of bullying by considering those who experienced at least three negative behaviors daily or weekly in the last six months. In this revised criterion, monthly behaviors were also considered to quantify frequency. As indicated in the literature review, previous studies have found discrepancies between those who fit the definitions of a target and those who labeled themselves as victims. Because of this, the researcher followed the recommendation of Notelaers and Einarsen (2013), utilizing the Receiver Operation Characteristic (ROC) curve analysis. The purpose of this was not to produce cut-off values, but rather to measure for goodness of fit in evaluating the operation quality of the scale by distinguishing between true targets and true non-targets.

Third, after identifying targets, their demographic and contextual characteristics were compared with the descriptors of the general participants. Also, the perpetrators'

demographics were explored. In addition, chi squares and one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were conducted to explore the association among targets' demographics groups and any significant differences in terms of exposing to WPB.

Fourth, the association between the ordinal independent variables and the interval dependent variable (NAQ-R) was tested individually using Spearman's *rho* correlation analysis, which is a nonparametric measure of the strength and direction of association that exists between two variables measured on at least an ordinal scale (Laerd Statistics, 2015a).

Finally, three multiple regression analyses with different models were conducted to identify which set of the independent variables best predicted the targets of the WPB. Since the second dependent variable (absenteeism) is an ordinal variable, an ordinal logistic regression analysis was best fit and considered to explore whether these same variables could predict employees' absenteeism due to being bullied. The statistical significance level for both the correlation and prediction analyses was determined at the conventional 0.05 level, following Field's SPSS (2013) procedures.

Important Terms & Considerations of the Study

During the course of this study, the researcher took into consideration the following terminological differences, methodological questions, and ethical concerns.

Targets and Victims

According to Nielsen et al., (2011), throughout the literature of bullying, the terms *target* and *victim* have been used interchangeably, whereas they should be treated as separate constructs, especially when investigating WPB.

A target of bullying is an employee who experiences exposure to systematic and persistent bullying behaviors at the workplace. A victim of bullying, on the other hand, is a person exposed to equivalent systematic and persistent bullying behavior and who, *in addition*, perceives her- or himself as being victimised by this treatment (Nielsen et al., 2011, p.166).

This view, supported by previous research and theory, suggests that relational powerlessness is an essential determinant of victimization (Roscigno, Lopez, Hodson, 2009). Based on such logic, all victims are targets of bullying, but not all targets are necessarily victims. Empirical research also confirms such a claim, showing that although all victims are targets and exposed to range of bullying behaviors, many targets exist who do not label themselves as victims (Nielsen et al., 2011).

The Self-Labeling Method

Nielsen et al. (2011) asserted that the self-labeling method is probably the most frequently used approach in researching WPB. In a meta-analysis study investigating the impact of methodological moderators on WPB prevalence rates, Nielsen (2009) found that 67% of the 92 included prevalence estimates calculated their statistics based on self-labeling methods.

Ethical Considerations

The survey link shared through social media included the NAQ-R scale (Appendix A), demographic questionnaire (Appendix B), and cover letter (Appendix C). The cover letter notified the participants that participation was completely voluntary, and that there was no risk associated with refusing to participate. It emphasized the confidentiality and privacy of their identities, and that both participation in and the

information provided within the study would remain completely anonymous. Additionally, the cover letter discussed the aforementioned methods protecting the participants' information, and it described the secure approach of delivering the questionnaire to the researcher. Finally, the cover letter also described the study's title, purposes, and the researcher's and supervisor's names and contact information.

Approval

This research project was approved by the University of Kentucky's Institutional Review Board on June 1, 2017, with an exemption certification protocol number 17-0396-X4B (Appendix I).

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the researcher for this study posited a significant degree of correlation between WPB in Kuwait and multiple personal, educational, occupational, and societal factors. Personal factors included sex, age, nationality, and marital status. The level of education participants had comprised the educational factor for this study. Occupational factors included income, occupational sector, and occupational position. Following a short discussion of data screening and criteria for meeting the operational definition of WPB, this chapter first presents and then analyzes the results of the study for these factors.

Data Screening

The data collection occurred between June 1, 2017 and June 12, 2017. Before statistical analysis of the data, the researcher screened the collated data in the SPSS data editor for missing or erroneous values. Out of a total of 8,531 recorded surveys, a total of 3,725 surveys (43.7%) either had missing data or had no responses at all. (The Qualtrics program recorded data for every participant who clicked on the survey link, which explains the high number of surveys without any response.) The total number of surveys with complete responses was 4,806 (56.3% of all participants). From this number of complete surveys, eight responses (0.1%) were excluded because the participants were under the age of 18 years, and 111 responses (2.3%) were excluded too because the participants were retired or not currently working. The remaining, complete responses utilized for the analysis totaled 4,687 surveys (53.9%).

Operational Definitions of WPB and Prevalence

There are two different methodologies for measuring the prevalence of WPB: an operational method and a statistical method. The raw sum score approach for the individual items' bases also could be applied to measure the level of exposure. However, in order to differentiate the target from the non-target, an operational criterion must be used. The most common operational criteria used are the ones that were developed by Leymann (1990b), Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), and Agervold (2007). These researchers agreed upon the criteria that in order to label participants as targets of WPB, they have to experience negative act frequently (daily or weekly) and persistently (lasting a minimum of six months).

The differences among these is that Leymann required participants to experience a minimum of only one negative act to meet the operational definition of a target, while Mikkelsen and Einarsen required at least two acts, and Agervold required at least three to four acts. However, these cutoff values are arbitrary and questionable, as they are based on the number of items within the instrument—having more items is more likely to lead to a higher prevalence estimate, and the items are equally important (Nielsen, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2011). Also, when using less rigorous operational criteria (e.g., Leymann, 1990b) a large mismatch occurred between employees who were classified as victims based on these criteria and those who labeled themselves as victims based on a global definition of WPB (Notelaers & Einarsen, 2013).

A statistical cutoff criterion was introduced using the Latent Class Cluster (LCC) analysis as a non-arbitrary way to minimize the limitation of the operational criteria. The LCC empirically identifies different groups of respondents based on their exposure to

bullying behaviors. However, to measure the relationship between bullying and other variables without identifying between groups (target and non-target), it is best to utilize the raw sum score, as it provides larger variations on the variable than the dichotomized score does (Nielsen, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2011).

Later, Notelaers and Einarsen (2013) used the Received Operation Characteristics (ROC) curve analysis as another statistical cutoff because the LCC identified at least six different target groups and did not consider the sensitivity (true positives) nor specificity (true negatives) when estimating these groups. Thus, the ROC curve analysis develops cutoff values for the NAQ-R to minimize the false positives (an individual classified as a target, while in fact not a target), and false negatives (an individual not classified as target, while in fact a target). The ROC relies upon the "gold standards" for the construction of cutoff values. The "gold standard" is objective in nature such as in medical science; having disease or have not (Notelaers & Einarsen, 2013, p. 4).

Thus, by using the ROC cutoff values, Notelaers and Einarsen (2013) determined that employees' scores below 33 are considered as not being bullied, employees' scores between 33 and 45 may be considered bullied, and employees scoring above 45 may be considered as victims of WPB. However, the problem with using the ROC analysis is that the researcher is required to balance a tradeoff between sensitivity and specificity, which is based on subjective decisions to determine the optimal cutoff value, as there is no perfectly standardized cutoff value. So, based on the application that this test is being using for, researchers might have to decide between high sensitivity and low specificity or vice versa to determine the best cutoff value that meets their needs (Notelaers & Einarsen, 2013).

Due to these inadequacies, this study utilized a more rigorous operational criterion, specifically the one recommended by Agervold (2007), requiring at least three negative acts weekly or daily over a period of six months. However, this study also included the acts experienced *monthly* within the criterion, as this is a specific and reasonable time frame. Although the cutoff values of, the ROC curve analysis were not utilized, the curve itself was utilized so that the area under the curve could provide a proxy goodness of fit statistical analysis measuring the operational quality of the scale in distinguishing between the true positives and true negatives.

The ROC curve analysis was conducted between the test variable (WPB) and the dichotomized victimization variable to distinguish between targets and non-targets. The WPB was a computed variable for all 22 scale items, with a range of raw summed scores from 22 to 110. The victimization variable had five levels and was dichotomized into two sub-groups. Participants who did not label themselves as victims of WPB—based on the given definition—were coded as (*No*) = 0; participants who did label themselves as victims were coded as (*Yes; rarely, occasionally, weekly, or daily*) = 1. A low score of WPB would be associated with a negative victimization score, and a high score would be associated with a positive score regarding the self-reporting of being bullied.

Figure 4.1 below displays the tradeoff between sensitivity and specificity. Any increase in sensitivity is associated with decrease in specificity. The curve line begins low on the left-hand border and increases to the top border, indicating an accurate test. The green, diagonal line depicts the expected performance of a hypothetical, random model, and the blue curve line depicts the performance of the predictive model. The difference between these lines, known as the Area Under the Curve (AUC) (Hart, 2016), depicts the

power of the predictive model. As the space between the lines increases, the model becomes more reliable (Zweig & Campbell, 1993).

Table 4.1 below shows that the model is highly statistically significant, with $p < .001$. The AUC ranged between 0 to 1. The higher the AUCs are considered better (Hart, 2016). The AUC for this model is .82 which indicates a very good model in distinguishing between targets and non-targets of WPB, with a 95% Confidence Interval (CI) that the AUC falls in between the lower bound (.81) and upper bound (.83). Out of $N = 4,687$, the positive outcomes are 39% or 1,828—the number of cases of participants experiencing negative behaviors and labeling themselves as victims based on the given, global definition. The negative outcomes are 2,859, which are the cases of participants who may have experienced negative behaviors, but did not label themselves as targets.

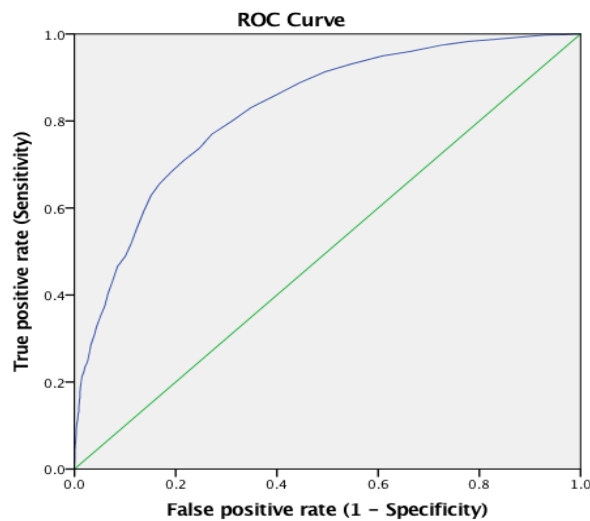


Figure 4.1, ROC Curve Analysis

Table 4.1, Area Under the Curve (N= 4,687)

Area	SE	p	95% CI		Case Summary	
			LB	UB	Positive	Negative
.826	.006	.000	.814	.838	1,828	2,859

Note: SE= standard error. p = significant. CI= confidence interval. LB= lower bound. UB= upper bound.

To measure the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait, Table 4.2 below shows the prevalence percentage based on the major operational criteria used in the literature. Using a less rigorous operational criteria resulted in a high prevalence of WPB (Out, 2005). This is shown below in the table, as Leymann’s criterion resulted in an estimated 50% of respondents being bullied. As seen in Table 4.2, the estimate of WPB prevalence has a wide range.

Table 4.2, Prevalence Rates by Previous Multiple Operational Criteria (N= 4,687)

Prevalence criterion	Equation	Percentage	Author
At least 1 act, daily or weekly, last 6 months.	$2,359/4,687 \times 100$	50%	Leymann, 1990b
At least 2 acts, daily or weekly, last 6 months.	$1,653/4,687 \times 100$	35%	Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2001
At least 3 acts, daily or weekly, last 6 months.	$1,233/4,687 \times 100$	26%	Agervold, 2007

Accordingly, this study measured the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait using a new operational definition criterion, adding the *monthly* category to acts that occurred daily or weekly. The results indicated that when balancing between the number of WPB acts experienced by the participants and the frequency they occurred, a good balance can be found. The prevalence rate of experiencing at least three negative acts daily/weekly/monthly (39%) is very close to the prevalence rate of experiencing at least

two negative acts daily/weekly (35%). The operational criteria used by Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) seems to provide a reliable prevalence estimate, supporting the estimate used in this study.

Table 4.3, Prevalence Rates by New Operational Criteria (N= 4,687)

Prevalence criterion	Equation	Percentage
At least 1 act, daily/weekly/monthly, last 6 months.	$2,992/4,687 \times 100$	64%
At least 2 acts, daily/weekly/monthly, last 6 months.	$2,293/4,687 \times 100$	49%
At least 3 acts, daily/weekly/monthly, last 6 months.	$1,834/4,687 \times 100$	39%

Employee Demographics and Prevalence

A total of $n = 4,687$ (53.9%) individuals participated in the survey and answered it in full. The following section presents, and Table 4.4 below summarizes, the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Demographic Characteristics and Contextual Information of the Participants

About three-fifths of the survey participants ($n = 2,864$, 61.1%) were male. The most frequent age group was between 30 to 39 years old, representing about two-fifths of the age groups ($n = 1,914$, 40.8%). The nationality of the vast majority of the participants was Kuwaiti ($n = 4,235$, 90.4%). Around two-thirds of the participants were married ($n = 3,190$, 68.1%). The majority of participants' ($n = 1,932$, 41.2%) monthly income ranged between 800-1,399 Kuwaiti dinar (KD). More than half of the participants held a bachelor's degree ($n = 2,643$, 56.4%). The vast majority of participants worked in the governmental sector ($n = 3,908$, 83.4%). More than half of the participants placed their occupational position in the lower level ($n = 2,719$, 58%). Just over one-third of

participants were satisfied ($n = 1,593$, 34%) and more than one-fifth were very satisfied ($n = 1,054$, 22.5%) with their jobs. Around half of the participants were dissatisfied with their management at work, either *very dissatisfied* ($n = 1,089$, 23.2%) or simply *dissatisfied* ($n = 1,167$, 24.9%). Conversely, approximately one-fourth of participants ($n = 1,118$, 23.9%) were satisfied and 11.3% were very satisfied with management. About half of the participants were satisfied with their day-to-day supervisor—either *satisfied* ($n = 1,254$, 26.8%) or *very satisfied* ($n = 1,003$, 21.4%). Around two-thirds of participants *agreed* ($n = 1,416$, 30.2%) or *strongly agreed* ($n = 1,653$, 35.3%) with the importance of having a counselor office in their workplace to address work-related issues such as WPB.

Table 4.4, Demographic Characteristics and Contextual Information of the Respondents (N= 4,687)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	Percent
Sex	Female	1,823	38.9%
	Male	2,864	61.1%
Age	18-29	1,069	22.8%
	30-39	1,914	40.8%
	40-49	1,185	25.3%
	50-59	465	9.9%
	60 and more	54	1.2%
Nationality	Kuwaiti	4,235	90.4%
	Bedoon	54	1.2%
	Middle East	284	6.1%
	Asia	34	0.7%
	Africa	16	0.3%
	Others	64	1.4%
Marital Status	Single	1,143	24.4%
	Married	3,190	68.1%
	Divorced	325	6.9%
	Widowed	29	0.6%
Monthly Income (KD)	499 and less	233	5%
	500-799	356	7.6%
	800-1099	952	20.3%
	1100-1399	980	20.9%

Table 4.4, Demographic Characteristics and Contextual Information of the Respondents (N= 4,687) (Continued)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	Percent
	1400-1699	609	13%
	1700-1999	399	8.5%
	2000-2399	446	9.5%
	2400 and more	712	15.2%
Educational Level	Less than high school	73	1.6%
	High school/equivalent	236	5%
	Diploma (2-years)	830	17.7%
	Bachelor's	2,643	56.4%
	Graduate/professional	905	19.3%
Occupational sector	Governmental sector	3,908	83.4%
	Private sector	734	15.7%
	Self-employed	45	1%
Occupational position	Not applicable	331	7.1%
	Upper level	358	7.6%
	Middle level	1,279	27.3%
	Lower level	2,719	58%
Job satisfaction	Not applicable	22	0.5%
	Very dissatisfied	445	9.5%
	Dissatisfied	739	15.8%
	Undecided	834	17.8%
	Satisfied	1593	34%
	Very satisfied	1054	22.5%
Satisfaction with Management	Not applicable	13	0.3%
	Very dissatisfied	1089	23.2%
	Dissatisfied	1167	24.9%
	Undecided	770	16.4%
	Satisfied	1118	23.9%
	Very satisfied	530	11.3%
Satisfaction with supervisor	Not applicable	43	0.9%
	Very dissatisfied	820	17.5%
	Dissatisfied	819	17.5%
	Undecided	748	16%
	Satisfied	1254	26.8%
	Very satisfied	1003	21.4%
Need for Counselor at workplace	Not applicable	199	4.2%
	Strongly disagree	120	2.6%
	Disagree	484	10.3%

Table 4.4, Demographic Characteristics and Contextual Information of the Respondents (N= 4,687) (Continued)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	Percent
	Undecided	815	17.4%
	Agree	1416	30.2%
	Strongly agree	1653	35.3%

Note: *n*= number of cases.

Instrument reliability. Before cleaning the data, the Cronbach’s Alpha for the whole NAQ-R scale Arabic version for a valid data of 5,144 (60.3%) was .928 (for the 22 items). The Cronbach’s Alphas for the underlying dimensions of Work-Related Bullying was .810 (for 7 items), of Person-Related Bullying was .896 (for 12 items), and of Physically Intimidating Bullying was .660 (for 3 items).

After cleaning the data, the Cronbach’s Alpha for the whole scale, with the valid data of *n*= 4,687, remained approximately the same, having a value of .929 (22 items). The Cronbach’s Alphas for the underlying dimensions of Work-Related Bullying, Person-Related Bullying, and Physically Intimidating Bullying remained the same as well.

As observed in Table 4.5 below, there are no statistically significant changes in Cronbach’s Alphas for the whole scale and underlying constructs between the original data and cleaned data. This indicates that the missing values and partial responses did not affect the reliability of the scale. It also indicates that the translation of the scale into Arabic language is internally consistent and reliable, and that it measures the intended concepts.

Table 4.5, Instrument Reliability Analysis

Data	Scale/subscales	Cronbach's alpha
Original N= 5,144	Whole scale	.928
	Work-Related Bullying	.810
	Person-Related Bullying	.896
	Physically Intimidating Bullying	.660
Cleaned N= 4,687	Whole scale	.929
	Work-Related Bullying	.812
	Person-Related Bullying	.897
	Physically Intimidating Bullying	.659

The frequency and prevalence of WPB. For the $n = 4,687$ participants, the most frequent categories (modes) on all the NAQ-R scale were item numbers one and two, indicating that the majority of participants' scores for these items consistently ranged from *never* to *occasionally* (now and then). As shown in Table 4.6 below, around 40% of participants scored *never* for item 18 and *occasionally* for items 16 and 21. About 50% of participants scored *never* for items 2, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 17, and 19, and *occasionally* for items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 14. Also, around 70% of participants scored *never* for items 9, 10, and 15. Lastly, about 80% of participants scored *never* for item 20, and around 95% scored *never* for item 22.

Table 4.6, Frequencies & Percentages of the Experienced Negative Behaviors of NAQ-R Scale (N = 4,687)

Negative Behaviors	Never	Now & Then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance	1,251 (26.7%)	2,472 (52.7%)	296 (6.3%)	339 (7.2%)	329 (7%)
2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work.	2,656 (56.7%)	1,567 (33.4%)	175 (3.7%)	155 (3.3%)	134 (2.9%)
3. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence.	1,128 (24.1%)	2,247 (47.9%)	342 (7.3%)	387 (8.3%)	583 (12.4%)

Table 4.6, Frequencies & Percentages of the Experienced Negative Behaviors of NAQ-R Scale (N = 4,687) (Continued)

Negative Behaviors	Never	Now & Then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
4. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks.	1,158 (24.7%)	2,139 (45.6%)	374 (8%)	461 (9.8%)	555 (11.8%)
5. Spreading of gossip and rumours about you.	1,438 (30.7%)	2,156 (46%)	313 (6.7%)	290 (6.2%)	490 (10.5%)
6. Being ignored or excluded (being 'sent to Coventry').	1,322 (28.2%)	2,312 (49.3%)	337 (7.2%)	251 (5.4%)	465 (9.9%)
7. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e., habits and background), your attitudes or your private life.	2,673 (57%)	1,481 (31.6%)	169 (3.6%)	163 (3.5%)	201 (4.3%)
8. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage).	2,667 (56.9%)	1,610 (34.4%)	191 (4.1%)	136 (2.9%)	83 (1.8%)
9. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way.	3,637 (77.6%)	793 (16.9%)	105 (2.2%)	65 (1.4%)	87 (1.9%)
10. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job.	3,074 (65.6%)	1,236 (26.4%)	158 (3.4%)	86 (1.8%)	133 (2.8%)
11. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes.	2,369 (50.5%)	1,848 (39.4%)	191 (4.1%)	131 (2.8%)	148 (3.2%)
12. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach.	2,760 (58.9%)	1,550 (33.1%)	136 (2.9%)	114 (2.4%)	127 (2.7%)
13. Persistent criticism of your work and effort.	2,302 (49.1%)	1,826 (39%)	226 (4.8%)	151 (3.2%)	182 (3.9%)
14. Having your opinions and views ignored.	1,538 (32.8%)	2,369 (50.5%)	276 (5.9%)	194 (4.1%)	310 (6.6%)

Table 4.6, Frequencies & Percentages of the Experienced Negative Behaviors of NAQ-R Scale (N = 4,687) (Continued)

Negative Behaviors	Never	Now & Then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
15. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with.	3,297 (70.3%)	1,080 (23%)	116 (2.5%)	100 (2.1%)	94 (2%)
16. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines.	1,872 (39.9%)	2,056 (43.9%)	337 (7.2%)	208 (4.4%)	214 (4.6%)
17. Having allegations made against you.	2,525 (53.9%)	1,720 (36.7%)	185 (3.9%)	115 (2.5%)	142 (3%)
18. Excessive monitoring of your work.	2,007 (42.8%)	1,689 (36%)	291 (6.2%)	217 (4.6%)	483 (10.3%)
19. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g., sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses).	2,436 (52%)	1,494 (31.9%)	294 (6.3%)	146 (3.1%)	317 (6.8%)
20. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm.	3,785 (80.8%)	688 (14.7%)	74 (1.6%)	64 (1.4%)	76 (1.6%)
21. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload.	1,605 (34.2%)	2,103 (44.9%)	314 (6.7%)	253 (5.4%)	412 (8.8%)
22. Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse.	4,448 (94.9%)	183 (3.9%)	20 (.4%)	6 (0.1%)	30 (0.6%)

This indicates that very few respondents reported experiencing these negative behaviors frequently (monthly, weekly, or daily) compared to those who reported having never experienced at least one negative act, and to those who reported experiencing some acts *occasionally*. As shown in Figure 4.2 below, the histogram of the scale items is highly and positively skewed, visually showing the vast difference between these cases. The raw sum scores of the items ranged between minimum 22 and maximum 110, with a

mean score of $M= 39$ and a Standard Deviation of $SD= 14$. The median raw sum score was 36, and the most frequent raw sum score (mode) was 30.

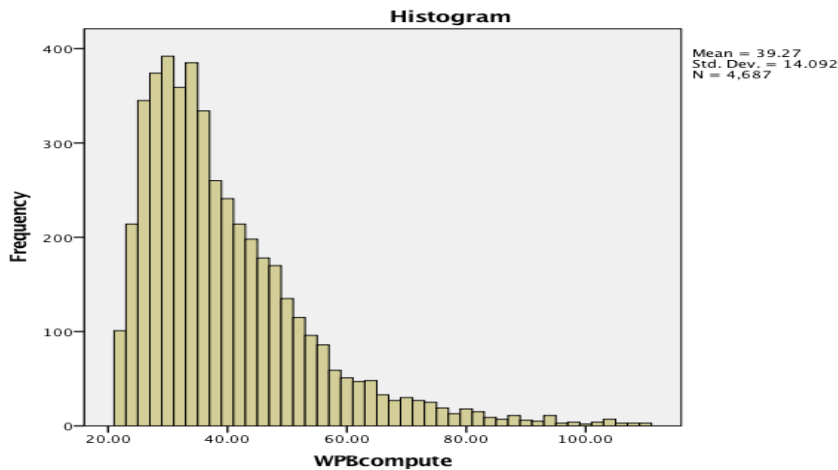


Figure 4.2, Histogram of the Computed Scale Items

Demographic Characteristics and Contextual Information of the Targets

For this study, the operational definition for identifying targets of WPB included, and was limited to, every participant who reported having experienced at least three negative acts daily, weekly, or monthly, within six months prior to the survey. Based on this operational definition, a total of $N = 1,834$ (39%) of the total of respondents ($N = 4,687$) qualified as targets. Table 4.7 below summarizes the demographic characteristics of these targets.

About three-fifths ($n = 1,110$, 60.5%) of the targets were males. The most frequent age group, between 30-39, represented almost half ($n = 819$, 44.7%) of the targets. The majority of the targets were Kuwaiti ($n = 1,658$, 90.4%). Around two-thirds of the targets were married ($n = 1,169$, 63.7%), and about one-quarter of the targets were single ($n = 510$, 27.8%). Approximately half of the targets had a monthly income ranging between 800-1,399 KD ($n = 829$, 45.2%). More than half of the targets held a bachelor's

degree ($n = 1,021$, 55.7%). A four-fifths majority of targets were working in the governmental sector ($n = 1,495$, 81.5%). Around two-thirds of the targets' occupational position fell in the lower level ($n = 1,198$, 65.3%). The targets were nearly equally dissatisfied ($n = 422$, 23%), undecided ($n = 404$, 22%), or satisfied ($n = 431$, 23.5%) with their jobs.

More than 70% of the targets were dissatisfied with their management at work—either *very dissatisfied* ($n = 782$, 42.6%) or simply *dissatisfied* ($n = 525$, 28.6%). Unlike the general participants (as in Table 4.4), around half of the targets were dissatisfied with their day-to-day supervisors--either *very dissatisfied* ($n = 618$, 33.7%) or generally *dissatisfied* ($n = 413$, 22.5%). Resembling the general participants, around two-thirds of targets agreed with the importance of having a counselor office in the workplace to address work-related issues such as WPB.

Table 4.7, Demographic Characteristics & Contextual Information of the Targets (N= 1,834)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	percent
Sex	Female	724	39.5%
	Male	1,110	60.5%
Age	18-29	516	28.1%
	30-39	819	44.7%
	40-49	376	20.5%
	50-59	114	6.2%
	60 and more	9	.5%
Nationality	Kuwaiti	1,658	90.4%
	Bedoon	26	1.4%
	Middle East	118	6.4%
	Asia	8	0.4%
	Africa	4	0.2%
	Others	20	1.1%
Marital Status	Single	510	27.8%
	Married	1,169	63.7%
	Divorced	147	8%
	Widowed	8	0.4%
Monthly Income (K.D.)	499 and less	103	5.6%
	500-799	170	9.3%

Table 4.7, Demographic Characteristics & Contextual Information of the Targets (N= 1,834) (Continued)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	percent
	800-1099	424	23.1%
	1100-1399	405	22.1%
	1400-1699	221	12.1%
	1700-1999	143	7.8%
	2000-2399	157	8.6%
	2400 and more	211	11.5%
Educational Level	Less than high school	24	1.3%
	High school/equivalent	84	4.6%
	Diploma (2-years)	353	19.2%
	Bachelor's	1,021	55.7%
	Graduate/professional degree	352	19.2%
Occupational sector	Governmental sector	1,495	81.5%
	Private sector	320	17.4%
	Self-employed	19	1%
Occupational position	Not applicable	101	5.5%
	Upper level	82	4.5%
	Middle level	453	24.7%
	Lower level	1,198	65.3%
Job satisfaction	Not applicable	19	1%
	Very dissatisfied	332	18.1%
	Dissatisfied	422	23%
	Undecided	404	22%
	Satisfied	431	23.5%
	Very satisfied	226	12.3%
Satisfaction with management	Not applicable	5	0.3%
	Very dissatisfied	782	42.6%
	Dissatisfied	525	28.6%
	Undecided	261	14.2%
	Satisfied	209	11.4%
	Very satisfied	52	2.8%
Satisfaction with supervisor	Not applicable	17	0.9%
	Very dissatisfied	618	33.7%
	Dissatisfied	413	22.5%
	Undecided	320	17.4%
	Satisfied	299	16.3%
	Very satisfied	167	9.1%
Need for Counselor at workplace	Not applicable	66	3.6%
	Strongly disagree	52	2.8%
	Disagree	172	9.4%
	Undecided	274	14.9%
	Agree	476	26%
	Strongly agree	794	43.3%

Note: *n*= number of cases.

Victimization profile of targets. From the total respondents, a total of $N = 1,828$ participants (39%) self-identified as being victims of bullying, based on the given, global definition of WPB. Their number closely matched the number of respondents who both experienced negative behaviors and met the operational definition criterion (at least three acts daily, weekly, or monthly) $N = 1,834$ (39%). This provides another reason to believe that the previously identified prevalence rate is a reliable estimate, and that the operational criterion is a good fit. However, from among the participants who were identified as targets ($N = 1,834$) only 1,176 (64.1%) of them self-identified as victims, even though the other 658 (35.9%) met the operational definition criterion for being targets but did not label themselves as victims.

Tables 4.8 and 4.9 below show the frequencies and percentages for the victimization items seen only by the respondents who admitted that they had been victims of WPB. These additional items comprise two main sections: characteristics of those who self-labeled as victims, and characteristics related to the perpetrators' profile. The Qualtrics program was set to open these items only for the people who selected *Yes*, that they have been bullied *rarely*, *occasionally*, *weekly*, or *daily*. The participants who did not label themselves as being bullied were automatically directed to the demographic questionnaire, regardless of whether they reported experiencing negative behaviors.

According to Table 4.8 below, half of the victims ($n = 909$, 49.7%) reported being bullied by their immediate superior, and around another half ($n = 821$, 44.9%) reported being bullied by other superiors or managers. Around one-third of the victims ($n = 582$, 31.8%) reported being bullied by their colleagues. Very few victims reported being bullied by their subordinates ($n = 147$, 8%). The Qualtrics program allowed multiple

responses to this item to account for victims who had more than one perpetrator, thus there is a degree of overlap between the groups.

Table 4.8, Targets' Victimization Profile 1 (N= 1,828)

Items	<i>n</i>	percent
Self-labeled as being bullied	1,828	39%
Bullied by immediate superior	909	49.7%
Bullied by other superiors/managers	821	44.9%
Bullied by colleagues	582	31.8%
Bullied by subordinates	147	8%
Bullied by customers/patients/students, etc.	182	10%
Bullied by others	110	6%

Note: *n*= number of cases.

Continuing the victimization profile in Table 4.9 on the following page, around half of the victims' main perpetrators (*n* = 852, 46.6%) supervised between 1-29 employees, whereas approximately one-third of the primary perpetrators (*n* = 597, 32.7%) supervised 30 or more employees. Regarding the absenteeism rate due to bullying, 54.3% of respondents (*n* = 993) reported taking time off work with illness due to being bullied; whereas around 45.7% (*n* = 835) did not. The majority of victims reported thinking of quitting or transferring from their current job, either *often* (*n* = 805, 44%) or *sometimes* (*n* = 581, 31.8%). Around one-third of the victims (*n* = 549, 30%) indicated that their productivity *never* had been lower than expected, and around another third of the victims (*n* = 626, 34.2%) stated that *sometimes* their productivity was lower than expected.

Table 4.9, Targets' Victimization Profile 2 (N= 1,828)

Items	Category	<i>n</i>	percent
Number of employees the main bully supervises	Not applicable	202	11.1%
	Don't know	177	9.7%
	1-9	442	24.2%
	10-29	410	22.4%
	30-99	292	16%
	100 and more	305	16.7%
Number of days been off work with illness due to being bullied	No days off	835	45.7%
	1-6 days	663	36.3%
	7-13 days	159	8.7%
	14-20 days	61	3.3%
	21 days and more	110	6%
Intention to quit or transfer from current job due to being bullied	Never	246	13.5%
	Rarely	196	10.7%
	Sometimes	581	31.8%
	Often	805	44%
Has your productivity been lower than expected due to being bullied	Never	549	30%
	Very rarely	332	18.2%
	Sometimes	626	34.2%
	Most of the time	321	17.6%

Note: *n*= number of cases.

Demographic Characteristics of Perpetrators Cross-Tabulations with Targets

Participants who labeled themselves as victims also reported demographic information—from their perspective—of the perpetrators. These demographics included sex, age, nationality, and educational level. Additionally, self-labeled victims reported the number of perpetrators involved in the incidents. The cumulative percentages for the perpetrators' profile exceed 100% because the respondents were able to list up to three perpetrators. They were able to provide the demographics for their main female perpetrator, main male perpetrator, or both. Thus, the number of perpetrators became more than the number of targets. Using the data for the two main perpetrators is more comprehensive and provides better information than asking about a single perpetrator, as, targets are often bullied by more than one perpetrator (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010).

Demographics of perpetrators by sex. Table 4.10 below summarizes the demographic characteristics of male perpetrators, and Table 4.11 below summarizes those of female perpetrators. The results revealed that 785 participants (42.9%) were targeted by females only, 711 participants (38.9%) were targeted by males only, and 332 participants (18.2%) were targeted by both sexes. Thus, females or groups of females were the perpetrators in most cases.

Table 4.10, Demographic Characteristics of Male Perpetrators (N= 1,828)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	percent
Sex	Male	1,043	57.1%
Age	18-29	63	3.4%
	30-39	249	13.6%
	40-49	398	21.8%
	50-59	249	13.6%
	60 and more	45	2.5%
	Don't know	39	2.1%
Nationality	Kuwaiti	905	49.5%
	Bedoon	15	0.8%
	Middle East	93	5.1%
	Asia	13	0.7%
	Africa	4	0.2%
	Others	13	0.7%
Educational level	Same as target	437	23.9%
	More than target	235	12.9%
	Less than target	306	16.7%
	Don't know	65	3.6%
Number of perpetrators	1	287	15.7%
	2	340	18.6%
	3 or more	416	22.8%

Note: *n*= number of cases; percentages relate to total number of perpetrators, regardless of sex.

The results in Table 4.10 above show that more than half of the perpetrators were males ($n = 1,043$, 57.1%). The largest percentage of male perpetrators were in the 40-49 age group, representing 21.8% ($n = 398$) of the male perpetrators. The majority of male perpetrators were Kuwaiti ($n = 905$, 49.5%). The majority of male perpetrators have similar educational level as the targets ($n = 437$, 23.9%). The majority of WPB targets who experienced bullying by male perpetrators reported being bullied by three or more male perpetrators ($n = 416$, 22.8%).

Table 4.11, Demographic Characteristics of Female Perpetrators (N= 1,828)

Characteristic	Category	<i>n</i>	percent
Sex	Female	1,117	61.1%
Age	18-29	77	4.2%
	30-39	290	15.9%
	40-49	479	26.2%
	50-59	224	12.3%
	60 and more	16	0.9%
	Don't know	31	1.7%
Nationality	Kuwaiti	996	54.5%
	Bedoon	11	0.6%
	Middle East	82	4.5%
	Asia	5	0.3%
	Africa	5	0.3%
	Others	18	1%
Educational level	Same as target	608	33.3%
	More than target	189	10.3%
	Less than target	272	14.9%
	Don't know	48	2.6%
Number of perpetrator	1	292	16%
	2	363	19.9%
	3 or more	462	25.3%

Note: n = number of cases; percentages relate to total number of perpetrators, regardless of sex.

Regarding the female perpetrators in Table 4.11 above, they represented around two-thirds of the total number of perpetrators ($n = 1,117$, 61.1%). The most frequent age

group of the female perpetrators was similar to the male perpetrator, 40-49 years old, representing approximately one-quarter ($n = 479$, 26.2%) of the perpetrators. The majority of female perpetrators were also Kuwaiti ($n = 996$, 54.5%). Similar to the male perpetrators, the majority of female perpetrators had similar educational level as the targets ($n = 608$, 33.3%). Also, similar to the male perpetrators, the majority of WPB targets who experienced bullying by female perpetrators reported being bullied by three or more female perpetrators ($n = 462$, 25.3%).

Cross-tabulation between targets' and perpetrators' sex. The cross-tabulation results in Table 4.12 below reveal statistically significant differences at the alpha level (α) of .001 between both targets and perpetrators by sex. Around 92.7% of female targets were bullied by male perpetrators, while only 22.4% of female targets were bullied by female perpetrators. On the other hand, 82.8% of male targets were bullied by female perpetrators, while only 37.1% of male targets were bullied by male perpetrators. Even though females comprised the majority of perpetrators, females were mostly targeted by males, and males were mostly targeted by females.

Table 4.12, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Sex & Perpetrators' Sex (N= 1,828)

Targets' sex		Perpetrators' sex	
		Male	Female
Female	Count	608	147
	Expected count	374.3	400.8
	% within target's sex	92.7%	22.4%
	% within perpetrator's sex	58.3%	13.2%
Male	Count	435	970
	Expected count	668.7	716.2
	% within target's sex	37.1%	82.8%
	% within perpetrator's sex	41.7%	86.8%

Note: Table 4.12 is a compilation of two cross-tabulations: a) the targets' sex by male perpetrators, b) targets' sex by female perpetrators. In Qualtrics, perpetrator sex was represented by two separate variables.

Cross-tabulation between targets' and perpetrators' educational levels.

Another cross-tabulation revealed statistically significant differences between targets' educational level and male perpetrators' educational level, $\chi^2(16) = 325.32, p < .001$. The results presented in Table 4.13 showed a tendency of male perpetrators to bully those who have less education. The statistics indicate that approximately half of targets with less than high school degree reported being bullied by male perpetrators with a higher educational level. Also, 38.8% of targets with a high school degree or equivalent were bullied by males with a higher educational level. In addition, 39.1% of male perpetrators have more education than targets with a 2-year, post-secondary diploma degree. However, for targets with a graduate or professional degree, a similarly high percentage of male bullies (39.9%) have less education than their targets. Sixty-one percent of male perpetrators have a bachelor degree—the same education as their targets.

Table 4.13, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Education & Male Perpetrators' Education (N= 1,828)

Targets' Education		Male Perpetrators' Education		
		Same	More	Less
Less than HS	Count	5	14	1
	Expected count	6.7	3.6	4.7
	% within target's education	17.9%	50%	3.6%
	% within male perpetrator education	1.1%	6%	0%
HS or Equivalent	Count	18	33	8
	Expected count	20.3	10.9	14.2
	% within target's education	21.2%	38.8%	9.4%
	% within male perpetrator education	4.1%	14%	2.6%
Diploma	Count	63	92	43
	Expected count	83.9	45.1	58.8
	% within target's education	17.9%	26.2%	12.3%
	% within male perpetrator education	14.4%	39.1%	14.1%
Bachelor's	Count	265	65	132
	Expected count	237.9	127.9	166.6
	% within target's education	26.6%	6.5%	13.3%

Table 4.13, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Education & Male Perpetrators' Education (N= 1,828) (Continued)

Targets' Education	Male Perpetrators' Education			
	% within male perpetrator education	60.6%	27.7%	43.1%
Graduate/Professional	Count	86	31	122
	Expected count	88.2	47.4	61.8
	% within target's education	23.3%	8.4%	33.1%
	% within male perpetrator education	19.7%	13.2%	39.9%

Regarding the female perpetrators' educational level, the results found a statistically significant difference between female targets' educational level and female perpetrators' educational level, $X^2(16) = 309.77, p < .001$. The results in Table 4.14 on the following page revealed a pattern similar to the male bullies—female perpetrators also have tendency to bully individuals with less education. About one-third (32.1%) of female targets with less than high school diploma were bullied by females with more education, and 15.3% of female targets with a high school diploma or equivalent were bullied by females with more education. Also, 36% of female perpetrators had more education than their targets with a 2-year, post-secondary diploma degree. Around 46% of female perpetrators had less education than their targets with graduate or professional degree. Almost three-quarters (72%) of female perpetrators had the same education—a bachelor degree—as their targets.

Cross-tabulation between targets' and perpetrators' ages. Regarding the male perpetrators' age, there was a statistically significant difference between targets' age and the male perpetrators' age, $X^2(24) = 287.52, p < .001$. Following Table 4.14, the results in Table 4.15 revealed that around 57.1% of male perpetrators were in the age range between 18-29, and that they bullied targets within the same age range. Fifty percent of

male perpetrators between 30-39 bullied targets within the same age range, and almost the same proportion (47%) of male perpetrators between 40-49 bullied targets younger than them (respondents aged 30-39 years). About one-third of male perpetrators age 50-59 bullied targets younger than them (respondents aged 40-49 years). Although some perpetrators share a similar age range with targets, the pattern suggests that male

Table 4.14, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Education & Female Perpetrators' Education (N= 1,828)

Targets' Education		Female Perpetrators' Education		
		Same	More	Less
Less than HS	Count	0	9	0
	Expected count	9.3	2.9	4.2
	% within target's education	0%	32.1%	0%
	% within female perpetrator education	0%	4.8%	0%
HS or Equivalent	Count	9	13	3
	Expected count	28.3	8.8	12.6
	% within target's education	10.6%	15.3%	3.5%
	% within female perpetrator education	1.5%	6.9%	1.1%
Diploma	Count	84	68	25
	Expected count	116.7	36.3	52.2
	% within target's education	23.9%	19.4%	7.1%
	% within female perpetrator education	13.8%	36%	9.2%
Bachelor's	Count	439	79	119
	Expected count	330.9	102.9	148.1
	% within target's education	44.1%	7.9%	12%
	% within female perpetrator education	72.2%	41.8%	43.8%
Graduate/Professional	Count	76	20	125
	Expected count	122.7	38.2	54.9
	% within target's education	20.6%	5.4%	33.9%
	% within female perpetrator education	12.5%	10.6%	46%

perpetrators tend to bully younger targets.

Table 4.15, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Age & Male Perpetrators' Age (N= 1,828)

Target's Age		Male Perpetrators' Age				
		18-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
18-29	Count	36	58	69	29	7
	Expected count	14.1	55.8	89.3	55.8	10.1
	% within target's age	8.8%	14.1%	16.8%	7.1%	1.7%
	% within male perpetrator age	57.1%	23.3%	17.3%	11.6%	15.6%
30-39	Count	15	124	187	91	15
	Expected count	26.8	105.8	169.2	105.8	19.1
	% within target's age	1.9%	16%	24.1%	11.7%	1.9%
	% within male perpetrator age	23.8%	49.8%	47%	36.5%	33.3%
40-49	Count	10	52	105	84	10
	Expected count	16.2	63.9	102.1	63.9	11.5
	% within target's age	2.1%	11.1%	22.4%	17.9%	2.1%
	% within male perpetrator age	15.9%	20.9%	26.4%	33.7%	22.2%
50-59	Count	2	14	35	45	6
	Expected count	5.5	21.9	35.1	21.9	4
	% within target's age	1.2%	8.7%	21.7%	28%	3.7%
	% within male perpetrator age	3.2%	5.6%	8.8%	18.1%	13.3%
60 and more	Count	0	1	2	0	7
	Expected count	0.4	1.5	2.4	1.5	0.3
	% within target's age	0%	9.1%	18.2%	0%	63.6%
	% within male perpetrator age	0%	0.4%	0.5%	0%	15.6%

Similarly, a statistically significant difference was found between targets' age and female perpetrators' age, $X^2(24) = 95.20, p < .001$. Table 4.16 below shows that 50.6% of female perpetrators within the age range of 18-29 bullied targets with a similar age range. Also, around 43.1% of female perpetrators within the age range 30-39 bullied targets within a similar age range, whereas an almost similar proportion (42.4%) of female perpetrators within the age range 40-49 bullied targets younger than them (30-39). Also, around 37.5% of female perpetrators within an age range of 50-59 bullied targets younger

than them (40-49). These results were very similar to the male perpetrators in terms of age. They both share the pattern that young perpetrators tend to bully targets of a similar age and older perpetrators tend to bully younger targets.

Table 4.16, Cross-Tabulation between Targets' Age & Female Perpetrators' Age (N= 1,828)

Target's Age		Female Perpetrators' Age				
		18-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60+
18-29	Count	39	85	108	27	1
	Expected count	17.3	65	107.4	50.2	3.6
	% within target's age	9.5%	20.7%	26.3%	6.6%	0.2%
	% within female perpetrator age	50.6%	29.3%	22.5%	12.1%	6.3%
30-39	Count	23	125	203	83	7
	Expected count	32.7	123.3	203.6	95.2	6.8
	% within target's age	3%	16.1%	26.1%	10.7%	0.9%
	% within female perpetrator age	29.9%	43.1%	42.4%	37.1%	43.8%
40-49	Count	13	62	121	84	5
	Expected count	19.8	74.4	122.9	57.5	4.1
	% within target's age	2.8%	13.2%	25.8%	17.9%	1.1%
	% within female perpetrator age	16.9%	21.4%	25.3%	37.5%	31.3%
50-59	Count	2	18	47	28	3
	Expected count	6.8	25.5	42.2	19.7	1.4
	% within target's age	1.2%	11.2%	29.2%	17.4%	1.9%
	% within female perpetrator age	2.6%	6.2%	9.8%	12.5%	18.8%
60 and more	Count	0	0	0	2	0
	Expected count	0.5	1.7	2.9	1.3	0.1
	% within target's age	0%	0%	0%	18.2%	0%
	% within female perpetrator age	0%	0%	0%	0.9%	0%

Analysis

The analysis of this data involved both correlational analysis and multivariate analyses. The correlational analysis employed a Spearman's rank-order correlation to assess the relationship between WPB (the computed variable relating to the scale items) and the participants' demographic and contextual information ($N = 4,687$), as well as one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) to determine if there were any statistically

significant variances between the groups.. The multivariate analyses involved multiple regression analyses to identify the best set of predictors for the dependent variable, *WPB*.

Correlational Analysis between WPB and Demographics and Work-Related Variables

Spearman's *rho* (non-parametric) correlation coefficient, based on the use of ranked data, is considered to be more appropriate to answer the research questions regarding the association than Pearson's *r*, based on the raw data, because Spearman's *rho* does not assume a normal distribution of the data. The only assumptions of Spearman's *rho* are that the data can be ranked into a logical order, and that the relationships between the ranked data are approximately linear (Field, 2013).

Based on Spearman's *rho*, the preliminary correlation coefficients analysis in Table 4.17 below shows that there is a weak-to-moderate, negative relationship at alpha level $\alpha = .05$ that is highly statistically significant. In this relationship, $p < .001$ between WPB and age ($r_s = -.132$), monthly income ($r_s = -.117$), job satisfaction ($r_s = -.419$), satisfaction with management ($r_s = -.525$), and satisfaction with supervisor ($r_s = -.510$). Also, a weak, positive relationship with high statistical significance was found between WPB and need for counselor ($r_s = .162$, $p < .001$) and occupational position ($r_s = .122$, $p < .001$).

The results also showed a statistically significant, weak, positive relationship between WPB and occupational sector ($r_s = .044$, $p < .01$), educational level ($r_s = .029$, $p < .05$), and a statistically significant, weak, negative relationship between WPB and marital status ($r_s = -.036$, $p < .05$). There was no statistically significant relationship between WPB and gender ($r_s = -.007$, $p > .05$) or nationality ($r_s = .024$, $p > .05$).

Table 4.17, Matrix of Spearman's Rho between WPB & Participants' Demographic Characteristics & Contextual Information ($N = 4,687$)

Variable	WPB
WPB	1.000
Gender	-.007 ^{ns}
Nationality	.024 ^{ns}
Marital Status	-.036*
Educational Level	.029*
Occupational Sector	.044 ⁺
Age	-.132 [^]
Monthly Income	-.117 [^]
Occupational Position	.122 [^]
Job Satisfaction	-.419 [^]
Satisfaction with Management	-.525 [^]
Satisfaction with Supervisor	-.510 [^]
Need for counselor at Workplace	.162 [^]

Note: * $p < .05$., ⁺ $p < .01$, [^] $p < .001$, ^{ns} = not significant

Table 4.18 below presents the correlation coefficients between WPB and the perpetrators' demographics profile ($N = 1,828$). The results showed that there are weak, yet highly statistically significant, positive relationships at alpha level $\alpha = .05$ between WPB and perpetrators' gender ($r_s = .123, p < .001$), age ($r_s = .100, p < .001$), nationality ($r_s = .102, p < .001$), educational level ($r_s = .124, p < .001$), and the number of employees the main perpetrator supervises ($r_s = .103, p < .001$).

Table 4.18, Matrix of Spearman's Rho between WPB & Perpetrators' Profile ($N = 1,828$)

Variable	WPB
WPB	1.000
Sex	.123 [^]
Age	.100 [^]
Nationality	.102 [^]
Educational Level	.124 [^]
Number of employees the bully supervises	.103 [^]

Note: * $p < .05$., ⁺ $p < .01$, [^] $p < .001$, ^{ns} = not significant

Table 4.19 below presents the correlation coefficients between the WPB and the targets' victimization profile ($N = 1,828$). The results showed that there are weak-to-moderate, yet highly statistically significant, positive relationships at alpha level $\alpha = .05$

with $p < .001$ between WPB and self-labeled victims ($r_s = .588, p < .001$) being bullied by immediate superiors ($r_s = .204, p < .001$) and by other superiors ($r_s = .131, p < .001$). Being bullied by colleagues ($r_s = .058, p < .05$) and customers/patients/students ($r_s = .052, p < .05$) also has a weak, yet statistically significant, positive relationship with WPB. Being bullied by others ($r_s = -.047, p < .05$) has a weak, yet statistically significant, negative relationship with WPB; while being bullied by subordinates did not correlate with WPB to a statistically significant degree.

The correlation coefficients also showed weak-to-moderate, yet statistically significant, positive relationships at alpha level $\alpha = .05$ between WPB and the number of perpetrators ($r_s = .282, p < .001$), the number of days off work with illness ($r_s = .249, p < .001$), lower productivity ($r_s = .309, p < .001$), and one's intention to quit or transfer from current job due to being bullied ($r_s = .450, p < .001$).

Table 4.19, Matrix of Spearman's Rho between WPB & Targets' Victimization Profile (N = 1,828)

Variable	WPB
WPB	1.000
Self-Labeled as being bullied	.588 [^]
Bullied by immediate superior	.204 [^]
Bullied by other superiors	.131 [^]
Bullied by colleagues	.058*
Bullied by subordinates	.027 ^{ns}
Bullied by customers/patients/students	.052*
Bullied by others	-.047*
Number of Perpetrator	.282 [^]
Days off work with illness due to being bullied	.249 [^]
Intention to quit or transfer from current job due to being bullied	.450 [^]
Lower productivity due to being bullied	.309 [^]

Note: * $p < .05$, + $p < .01$, [^] $p < .001$, ^{ns} = not significant

Comparing means of participants' demographics with WPB. To determine if there are statistically significant differences between three or more groups of categorical,

independent variables on an interval, dependent variable, an ANOVA is a suitable test. A one-way ANOVA is based on the variance of within and between groups, and it helps identify if the groups are significantly varied from each other (Montcalm & Royse, 2002).

Participants by sex. An independent-samples t-test was used to determine if a difference exists by sex on WPB. No statistically significant difference in the WPB mean score was found between males and females, $t(4685) = .433, p = .665$.

Table 4.20, Independent Samples T-Test of WPB on Sex

<i>Sex groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Std. E.</i>
Male	1,823	39.37	14.14	.331
Female	2,864	39.19	14.06	.262

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *Std. E.*= standard error.

Source	<i>Levene's test</i>		<i>t-test for Equality of Means</i>				
	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p (2-tailed)</i>	<i>MD</i>	<i>Std. E.</i>
Equal variances assumed	.219	.640	.433	4685	.665	.182	.422

Note: *F*= f ratio. *p*= significance. *t*= t statistics. *df*= degree of freedom. *MD*= mean difference.

Std. E.= standard error.

Participants by age group. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if WPB scores are statistically different for age groups. Table 4.21 below shows the descriptive information for age groups of participants. The results indicated that WPB was more of a problem for those in younger age groups. Exposure to WPB decreased with increasing age. This ANOVA was significant at $p < .001$.

Table 4.21, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Age

<i>Age groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
18-29	1,069	40.89	14.31	40.03	41.75
30-39	1,914	40.08	14.34	39.44	40.72
40-49	1,185	38.22	13.94	37.42	39.01
50-59	465	35.62	12.32	34.50	36.74
60 and more	54	32.31	7.52	30.26	34.36
Total	4,687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>		<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>	
7.995		4	4682	.000	

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

Table 4.22, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Age

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
Welch	27.575	4	393.134	.000

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, but the Welch ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference among the age groups.

Participants by nationality. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine if WPB scores are statistically different for nationality groups. Table 4.23 below shows the descriptive information of the means for various nationality groups. The results indicated that there were significant differences in WPB exposure among individuals from different nations. WPB rates were the highest for the Bedoon group (immigrants with no or unidentified citizenship) and with the Middle Eastern group.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met but the Welch ANOVA showed that exposure to WPB was statistically significantly different among the nationality groups.

Table 4.23, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Nationality

<i>Nationality groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
Kuwaiti	4,235	39.13	13.95	38.70	39.55
Bedoon	54	44.64	20.38	39.08	50.21
Middle East	284	40.96	15.03	39.21	42.72
Asia	34	35.35	9.72	31.96	38.74
Africa	16	38.81	17.19	29.65	47.97
Others	64	38.50	12.54	35.36	41.63
Total	4,687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
3.432	5	4681	.004		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

Table 4.24, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Nationality

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
Welch	2.605	5	87.756	.030

Participants by marital status. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine if WPB scores were statistically varied in regards to marital status. Table 4.25 below shows the descriptive information for the marital status groups. The results indicate that WPB rates were the highest for single and divorced persons. There was a significant difference in the means among the groups ($p < .001$).

Table 4.25, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Marital Status

<i>Marital Status</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
Single	1,143	40.79	14.94	39.92	41.66
Married	3,190	38.55	13.70	38.08	39.03
Divorced	325	41.14	14.30	39.58	42.70
Widowed	29	36.34	12.64	31.53	41.15
Total	4,687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
2.650	3	4683	.047		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met, but the Welch ANOVA revealed that exposure to WPB differed to a statistically significant degree among the marital status groups.

Table 4.26, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Marital Status

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
Welch	9.066	3	130.108	.000

Participants by monthly income. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine if WPB scores were statistically different by monthly income. Table 4.27 below shows the descriptive information for income groups. The results indicated that the two lowest income groups have the most exposure to WPB, and that there was a statistically significant difference in the means among the groups ($p < .001$).

Table 4.27, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Monthly Income

<i>Monthly Income groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
499 and less	233	42.00	16.04	39.93	44.07
500-799	356	43.43	15.98	41.76	45.10
800-1099	952	40.08	14.80	39.14	41.02
1100-1399	980	39.71	14.06	38.82	40.59
1400-1699	609	38.22	12.64	37.21	39.22
1700-1999	399	38.41	13.71	37.06	39.76
2000-2399	446	37.90	13.02	36.68	39.11
2400 and more	712	36.82	12.74	35.88	37.75
Total	4,687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
6.473	7	4679	.000		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met, but the Welch ANOVA revealed that exposure to WPB differed to a statistically significant degree among the monthly income groups.

Table 4.28, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Monthly Income

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
Welch	10.001	7	1513.216	.000

Participants by educational level. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine if WPB scores were statistically different by educational groups. Table 4.29 below shows the descriptive information for this variable. The results indicated that the group of persons holding a 2-year, post-secondary diploma had the highest exposure to WPB, followed by the group of persons holding a graduate degree, and then the group holding only a high school diploma. Differences in the means among the groups were statistically significant ($p < .01$).

Table 4.29, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Educational Level

<i>Educational Level groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
Less than HS	73	37.78	12.71	34.81	40.74
HS or Equivalent	236	39.24	13.32	37.53	40.95
Diploma (2 years)	830	40.80	14.88	39.79	41.82
Bachelor's	2643	38.75	13.66	38.23	39.28
Graduate/professional	905	39.46	14.78	38.50	40.43
Total	4687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
3.909	4	4682	.004		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met but the Welch ANOVA analysis in the table below revealed that exposure to WPB was statistically significantly different among the educational groups.

Table 4.30, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Educational Level

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>P</i>
Welch	3.400	4	424.725	.009

Participants by occupational sector. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine if there were differences in exposure to WPB by occupational sector groups. Table 4.31 below shows the descriptive information for the means by occupational sector group. The results indicate that the highest rates of exposure to WPB were found in the self-employed group, followed by those in private employment, with the lowest rates occurring in the governmental sectors. The rates among these three sectors were statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Table 4.31, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Occupational Sector

<i>Occupational Sector groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
Governmental sector	3908	39.03	14.03	38.59	39.47
Private sector	734	40.28	14.12	39.26	41.31
Self-employed	45	42.64	16.98	37.54	47.74
Total	4687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
1.703	2	4684	.182		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was met as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances. The statistics showed that WPB scores among the occupational sector groups differed to a statistically significantly degree.

Table 4.32, One-Way ANOVA Analysis on Occupational Sector

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Between Groups	2	1485.798	742.899	3.746	.024
Within Groups	4684	929021.625	198.339		
Total	4686	930507.423			

Note: *df*= degree of freedom. *SS*= sum of squares. *MS*= mean square. *F*= f ratio. *p*= significance.

Participants by occupational position. One-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if WPB scores were statistically varied among occupational position groups.

Table 4.33 below shows the descriptive information for this variable. The results indicate that exposure to WPB was the highest in the lower level and middle level groups. There was a significant difference among the groups ($p < .001$).

Table 4.33, Means and Standard Deviations of WPB on Occupational Position

<i>Occupational position groups</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	
				<i>LB</i>	<i>UB</i>
Not applicable	331	36.44	12.53	35.08	37.79
Upper Level	358	35.87	13.16	34.50	37.24
Middle Level	1279	38.35	13.26	37.62	39.08
Lower Level	2719	40.48	14.61	39.93	41.03
Total	4687	39.26	14.09	38.86	39.67
<i>Levene Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>		
8.379	3	4683	.000		

Note: *N*= number of cases. *M*= mean. *SD*= standard deviation. *CI*= confidence interval. *LB*= lower bound. *UB*= upper bound. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, but the Welch ANOVA test revealed that exposure to WPB differed to a statistically significantly degree among the occupational position groups.

Table 4.34, Robust Tests of Equality of Means on Occupational Position

	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>df1</i>	<i>df2</i>	<i>p</i>
Welch	21.635	3	937.476	.000

Multivariate Analyses

To identify the best set of predictor variables for the dependent variables of *WPB* and *absenteeism*, multiple regression analyses were used. The predictor variables included: *sex*, *age*, *nationality*, *marital status*, *monthly income*, *educational level*, *occupational sector*, *occupational position*, *job satisfaction*, *satisfaction with management*, *satisfaction with supervisor*, and *the need for counselor at workplace*.

Multiple regression analyses allowed for the simultaneous measurement of the strength

and direction of several independent variables with a single dependent variable (Field, 2013).

Multivariate analysis between the dependent variable of WPB and the predictor variables of demographics and work-related variables. According to Laerd Statistics (2015b), there is a set of assumptions necessary to run a valid, multiple regression analysis. First, there should be one dependent variable that is measured at the continuous level (i.e., the interval, or ratio level), which in this study is the WPB measured by the NAQ-R scale. Second, there should be two or more independent variables that are measured either at the continuous or nominal level. The independent variables in this study are a mixed set of continuous, nominal, and ordinal levels. The ordinal independent variables can be entered in multiple regression analysis, but they will be treated as either continuous or nominal variables. There are six other assumptions that a multiple regression analysis must meet:

- (a) the errors (residuals) should be independent;
- (b) there should be a linear relationship between the predictor variables and the dependent variable;
- (c) homoscedasticity of residuals (equal error variances);
- (d) no multicollinearity;
- (e) no significant outliers, high leverage points or highly influential points; and
- (f) the errors (residuals) should be approximately normally distributed (Laerd Statistics, 2015b, p. 1).

Durbin-Watson was used to test the independence of observation. It is a test that measures the lack of independence, or the *first-order autocorrelation*. Its value ranges from 0 to 4, and a value of approximately 2 indicates no correlation between residuals

(Laerd Statistics, 2015b). There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.038.

To test the linear relationship between the collective of predictor variables and the dependent variable, a scatterplot of the studentized range distribution of residuals against the unstandardized, predicted values was plotted (see, Laerd Statistics, 2015b). In Figure 4.3 below, the residuals of a hypothetical scatterplot form an oblique horizontal band, indicating a linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables.

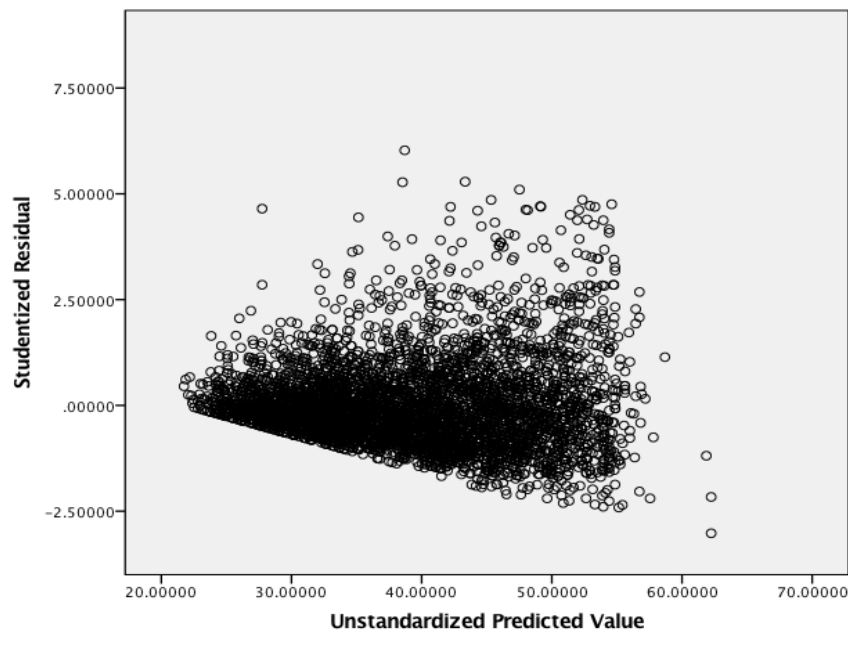


Figure 4.3, Scatterplot of a Linear Relationship between the Dependent and Independent Variables Collectively

The assumption of homoscedasticity of residuals (equal error variances) can also be measured through this scatterplot. The meaning of this assumption is that the residuals are equal for all values of the predicted dependent variable. More clearly, the variances

over the line remain in the same pattern as they move along the line (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). Thus, there is homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of the above plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values.

A multicollinearity assumption exists when there are two or more independent variables that are highly correlated. This causes the highly correlated independent variables to overlap, which makes it hard to determine each variable's contribution to the variance explained. This, in turn, creates problems in calculating a multiple regression model (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). There are two stages in identifying multicollinearity: inspection of correlation coefficients and Tolerance values, also known as Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). For stage one, the matrix of Pearson correlation coefficients in Table 4.36 below (p. 165) indicates that the independent variables have no correlations greater than 0.7, which met the assumption. For stage two, the VIF is the reciprocal of Tolerance (i.e., $1/\text{Tolerance}$). If the Tolerance value is less than 0.1—which is a VIF of greater than 10—this means there is a collinearity problem (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). In this analysis, all of the Tolerance values are greater than 0.1 (the lowest is 0.509), and the greatest value of VIF is 1.966. Therefore, the assumption of a lack of multicollinearity was met.

A casewise diagnostic was run on the standardized residuals to detect any significant outliers, which are cases that do not track the usual patterns of points (they are very distanced from their predicted value) (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The casewise diagnostic points are any cases (e.g., participants) that have standardized residuals greater than ± 3 standard deviations (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The casewise diagnostic table showed that there are 78 cases that exceeded the criterion of more than ± 3 standard

deviations, when compared to the sample equivalent $(78/4,687 \times 100) = 1.6\%$. Since the Qualtrics program recorded and transcribed the data automatically, a data entry error cannot account for the large number of outliers in this study. Multiple reasons could explain this issue, such as some sort of response bias (e.g., social desirability). Since the significant outliers constitute a very small percentage of the total sample, the researcher decided to leave them in and not take any further action.

When checking if there are any high leverage values, it is common to consider a leverage value of less than 0.2 as acceptable, a value from 0.2 to less than 0.5 as risky, and a value of 0.5 or greater as critical (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The highest ordered leverage value in this study was 0.008, which is within the acceptable range of values less than 0.2. As such, there were no cases with problematic leverage values.

To detect the influential points, the *Cook's Distance* option was utilized, which is a measure of influence. Any value above 1 is considered critical and should be investigated (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The highest, ordered value of Cook's Distance in this study was 0.014, and as such, there were no critical values.

According to Laerd Statistics (2015b), in order to be able to generate inferential statistics (i.e., to locate statistical significance), the errors in prediction (residuals) should be distributed normally. There are two common methods to test this assumption of residuals' normality: a) a normal curve superimposed upon a histogram, along with a P-P Plot, both of which utilize standardized residuals, and b) studentized residuals on a Normal Q-Q Plot (Laerd Statistics, 2015b, p. 14).

As shown in Figure 4.4 on the following page, the standardized residuals appear to be approximately normally distributed. However, histograms can be misleading

because their appearance is dependent on determining the column width (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The mean, standard deviation, and number of cases (participants) are shown in the top-right of the histogram. The normal histogram should have approximately a mean of zero and standard deviation of 1 (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). To confirm the finding, the Normal P-P Plot was inspected as shown in Figure 4.5, immediately following Figure 4.4 below. Since the bold line closely followed along the diagonal line, it can be concluded that the residuals are approximately normally distributed.

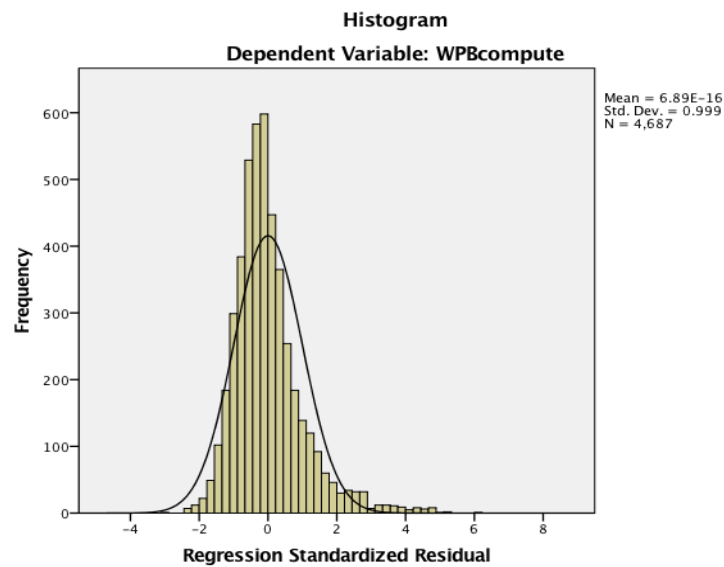


Figure 4.4, Histogram of the Dependent Variable Versus the Regression Standardized Residual

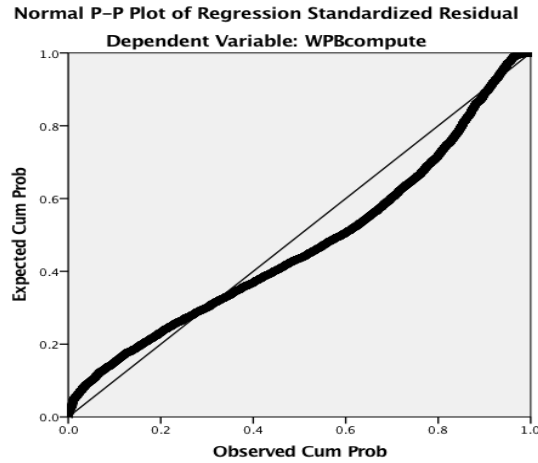


Figure 4.5, Normal P-P Plot of the Regression Standardized Residual

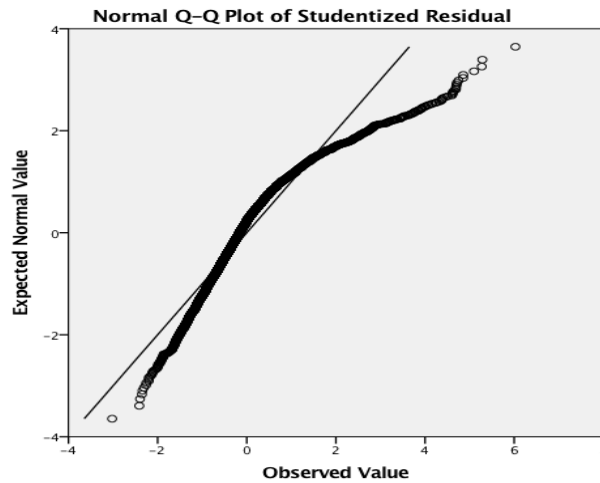


Figure 4.6, Normal Q-Q Plot of the Studentized Residual

The second method of testing the normality of the residuals was generated to confirm the results, which is the Normal Q-Q Plot of the studentized residuals. As shown in Figure 4.6 above, the points along the bold line are near to the diagonal line, indicating a near-normal distribution of the residuals. In reality, the residuals never align perfectly along the diagonal line, but an approximately normal distribution is sufficient for reliability (Laerd Statistics, 2015b).

According to Laerd Statistics (2015b), the regression analysis has robust deviations from normality, thus having the residuals approximately normally distributed is sufficient. Even though the bold line in the Normal P-P Plot (Figure 4.5) and the points line in the Normal Q-Q Plot (Figure 4.6) are not aligned perfectly along the diagonal line (the distribution is somewhat peaked), the residuals are close enough to normal for the analysis to proceed. All assumptions of normality were met, and therefore no transformations or further steps are needed prior to computing the regression.

First model. Since this was an exploratory study with virtually nothing previously known about WPB in Kuwait, a stepwise multiple regression was conducted to reach the most parsimonious model that could predict and explain the most variances of WPB. As a first step, all twelve variables mentioned previously were entered. The Pearson correlation matrix of coefficients is presented in Table 4.36 on page 165. The stepwise procedure excluded five variables that were insignificant at alpha level (α) = .05 and did not contribute in improving the overall model. The variables that remained in the model were: a) *sex*, b) *age*, c) *monthly income*, d) *job satisfaction* e) *satisfaction with management*, f) *satisfaction with supervisor*, and g) *need for counselor*.

Immediately below, Table 4.35 presents a summary of the model. The multiple correlation coefficient (R) is the Pearson correlation coefficient between the scores predicted by the regression model and the actual values of the dependent variable. Thus, R measures the strength of the linear relationship between the dependent and independent variables. This method is a sound measurement of the model, as the value of R ranged between 0 and 1, with a higher value indicating a stronger linear relationship. A

correlation coefficient of zero would mean no linear relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables, and a value of 1 would indicate a perfect linear relationship (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). In this study, the R value of .560 indicates a large level of association, according to Cohen's (1992) classification.

Table 4.35, Model Summary of the Multiple Regression

Model	R	R^2	$Adj. R^2$	SE	$Durbin-Watson$
7	.560	.314	.313	11.68	2.038

Note: R = multiple correlation coefficient. R^2 = coefficient of determination. $Adj. R^2$ = adjusted R^2 . SE = standard error.

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is a measure of the variances' proportion in the dependent variable that is accounted for by the independent variables over and above the mean model. It is used as a common measure to assess the overall model fit (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The R^2 for this model equals .314. This means that the sum of all the significant independent variables in the regression model explained 31.4% (.314x100 = 31.4%) of the variability in the dependent variable (WPB). Since R^2 is based on the sample and is considered a positively-biased estimate (i.e., it is larger than it should be when generalizing to a larger population), the *adjusted* R^2 corrects this bias to provide an accepted value in the population (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The *adjusted* R^2 value is .313, which is almost similar to R^2 , but always smaller than R^2 , and it is preferable to report both of them (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). The *adjusted* R^2 is an estimate of effect size. A value of .313 (31.3%) indicates a moderate-to-large effect size, according to Cohen's (1992) classification.

Table 4.36, Matrix of Pearson Correlation Coefficients between WPB & Demographics & Work-Related Variables (N=4,687)

Variables	WPB	Gender	Age	Nationality	Marital Status	Monthly Income	Education	Job Sector	Job Position	Job Satisfaction	Satisfaction with Management	Satisfaction with supervisor	Need for Counselor
WPB	1.000												
Gender	-.006 ^{ns}	1.000											
Age	-.119 [^]	-.032 [*]	1.000										
Nationality	.011 ^{ns}	-.055 [^]	.069 [^]	1.00									
Marital Status	-.035 ⁺	-.004 ^{ns}	.354 [^]	.004 ^{ns}	1.000								
Monthly Income	-.116 [^]	-.245 [^]	.384 [^]	-.277 [^]	.174 [^]	1.000							
Education	-.014 ^{ns}	.087 [^]	.061 [^]	-.024 [*]	-.016 ^{ns}	.373 [^]	1.000						
Job Sector	.013 ^{ns}	.013 ^{ns}	.001 ^{ns}	-.017 ^{ns}	.004 ^{ns}	.021 ^{ns}	.013 ^{ns}	1.000					
Job Position	.108 [^]	.099 [^]	-.336 [^]	-.015 ^{ns}	-.083 [^]	-.330 [^]	-.142 [^]	.002 ^{ns}	1.000				
Job Satisfaction	-.393 [^]	-.055 [^]	.201 [^]	.031 [*]	.054 [^]	.206 [^]	.010 ^{ns}	.014 ^{ns}	-.231 [^]	1.000			
Satisfaction with Management	-.476 [^]	-.018 ^{ns}	.132 [^]	.069 [^]	.062 [^]	.082 [^]	.002 ^{ns}	-.005 ^{ns}	-.146 [^]	.540 [^]	1.000		
Satisfaction with supervisor	-.474 [^]	-.040 ⁺	.029 [*]	.032 [*]	.014 ^{ns}	.023 [*]	-.024 [*]	-.002 ^{ns}	-.034 ⁺	.380 [^]	.615 [^]	1.000	
Need for Counselor	.119 [^]	.130 [^]	-.026 [*]	.036 ⁺	-.017 ^{ns}	-.098 [^]	-.025 [*]	-.034 ⁺	.075 [^]	-.048 [^]	-.055 [^]	-.057 [^]	1.000

Note: * $p < .05$, + $p < .01$, ^ $p < .001$, ^{ns} = not significant

The statistical significance of the overall model is presented in the ANOVA table, Table 4.37 below. The results indicate that *satisfaction with management, supervisor, job, need for counselor, monthly income, sex, and age* significantly predicted *WPB* $F(7, 4679) = 305.69, p < .001$. This means that the combination of these independent variables led to a model that is better at predicting the dependent variable with statistical significance than the mean model, and thus it is a better fit to the data than the mean model (Laerd Statistics, 2015b).

Table 4.37, ANOVA Analysis of Significance of the Multiple Regression

Model		<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
7	Regression	7	292005.24	41715.03	305.69	.000
	Residual	4679	638502.17	136.46		
	Total	4686	930507.42			

Note: df= degree of freedom. SS= sum of squares. MS= mean square. F= f ratio. p= significance.

As the multiple regression coefficients demonstrate (Table 4.38 on the following page), six of the independent variables were significant predictors with negative regression coefficients which are: *satisfaction with management; satisfaction with supervisor; job satisfaction; monthly income; sex; and age*. Only one independent variable was a significant predictor with a positive regression coefficient: the *need for counselor at workplace*. The slope coefficient (*B*) indicates the change in the dependent variable for a one-unit change in the independent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). As such, a one-ordinal-level increase each in *satisfaction with management, satisfaction with supervisor, and job satisfaction* is associated with decreases in *WPB* of 2.146, 2.776, and 1.723 points, respectively. Also, a one-interval-level increase of *monthly income* is associated with a decrease in *WPB* of .370 points. The results also indicate that the *WPB* scores are significantly different based on *Sex*. Since *sex* is a dichotomous, independent

variable and the categories were coded as 1= female and 2= male, the comparison between the two categories is with respect to the category with a value of 1 (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). So, based on the results, females have significantly higher predicted *WPB* scores than males. Based on the regression coefficient, females have scores that are 1.590 points higher than those predicted for males. In addition, the results indicate that an increase in *age* of one interval unit is associated with a decrease in *WPB* of 0.452 points. In other words, the multiple regression equation predicts that the older employees are less likely to experience *WPB*. Furthermore, an increase in the reported *need for counselor at workplace* of one ordinal unit is associated with an increase in *WPB* of 0.895 points.

Table 4.38, Multiple Regression Coefficients of the Predictors Versus WPB- First Model

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept (constant)	62.220	1.106	-	56.24	.000
Satisfaction with management	-2.146	0.177	-0.206	-12.12	.000
Satisfaction with supervisor	-2.776	0.152	-0.283	-18.28	.000
Job satisfaction	-1.723	0.163	-0.156	-10.58	.000
Need for counselor	0.895	0.130	0.085	6.89	.000
Monthly income	-0.370	0.094	-0.054	-3.93	.000
Sex	-1.590	0.364	-0.055	-4.36	.000
Age	-0.452	0.196	-0.031	-2.304	.021

B= unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE_B*= standard error of the coefficient; β = standardized coefficient. *t*= t statistic. *p*= significance.

The standardized coefficients (*Beta*) often assess the strength of, and compare the relative-effect sizes of, the individual predictors. Their interpretation is similar to that of a Pearson correlation coefficient: 1 represents a perfect, positive, linear relationship; -1 a perfect, negative, linear relationship; and 0 no linear relationship (Field, 2013). The satisfaction with *supervisor*, *management*, and *job* have substantially higher *beta* values

than the other predictors. While a weak-to-moderate effect, the *satisfaction with management* has the largest effect with *beta*, of -0.283. This is followed by *satisfaction with supervisor* (-0.206) and *job satisfaction* (-0.156). The *need for counselor at workplace* has weak effect with *beta* of .085, followed by *sex* (-.055), *monthly income* (-.054), and *age* (-.031).

Second model. Five insignificant predictors (*education, marital status, nationality, occupational sector* and *position*) that were removed from the model by stepwise procedure are categorical nominal predictors with more than two nominal categories. Categorical nominal predictors with more than two values cannot be entered into multiple regression analysis to produce any meaningful interpretation; rather, the categories have to be transformed into dummy variables (Stockburger, 1998). Therefore, the multiple regression analysis was repeated by recoding these predictors as dummy variables, during which all the categories except one for each variable become separate variables. The dummy coding gives each category a value of 1 and others as 0 (zero), and the rest of categories follow the same pattern (Montcalm & Royse, 2002).

Since there are multiple dummy variables in the analysis, it is not preferable to use a computer-determined modeling approach (e.g., stepwise) (Cohen, 1991), so, the *enter* method was used. The model summary in Table 4.39 below shows that the new model has improved slightly, compared to the previous model. The multiple correlation coefficient (*R*), with a value of 0.565, indicates a strong level of association. The R^2 for the overall model is 31.9% with an *adjusted R²* of 31.6%, indicating a moderate-to-large sized effect, according to Cohen's (1992) classification.

Table 4.39, Multiple Regression Coefficients of the Predictors Vs WPB- Second Model

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>		
Intercept (constant)	64.453	3.618	-	17.815	.000		
Sex	-1.310	0.391	-0.045	-3.351	.001		
Age	-.0729	0.226	-.050	-3.222	.001		
Monthly income	-0.314	0.120	-.046	-2.611	.009		
Job satisfaction	-1.734	0.165	-.157	-10.528	.000		
Satisfaction with management	-2.208	0.178	-.212	-12.375	.000		
Satisfaction with supervisor	-2.706	0.153	-.276	-17.649	.000		
Need for counselor	0.887	0.130	.084	6.820	.000		
Governmental sector	-3.069	1.801	-.081	-1.704	.088		
Private sector	-2.575	1.834	-.066	-1.404	.160		
Middle level	1.497	0.566	.047	2.643	.008		
Lower level	0.334	0.568	.012	0.587	.557		
Kuwaiti	-1.025	1.500	-.021	-0.684	.494		
Bedoon	2.241	2.167	.017	1.034	.301		
Middle east	0.735	1.623	.012	0.453	.651		
Asia	-2.836	2.477	-.017	-1.145	.252		
Africa	1.377	3.272	.006	0.421	.674		
Single	-0.506	2.234	-.015	-0.226	.821		
Married	-0.308	2.193	-.010	-0.140	.888		
Divorced	0.451	2.275	.008	0.198	.843		
High school	1.578	1.571	.024	1.005	.315		
Diploma	2.061	1.443	.056	1.428	.153		
Bachelor	1.106	1.421	.039	0.778	.436		
Graduate	2.265	1.474	.063	1.536	.125		
Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>Adj. R</i> ²	<i>SE</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
1	.565	.319	.316	11.65	23	94.917	.000

Note: *B*= unstandardized regression coefficient; *SE_B*= standard error of the coefficient; β = standardized coefficient. *t*= t statistic. *p*= significance. *R*= multiple correlation coefficient. *R*²= coefficient of determination. *Adj. R*²= adjusted *R*². *SE*= standard error. *df*= degree of freedom. *F*= f ratio.

The results in Table 4.39 above indicate that *sex, age, monthly income, need for counselor, satisfaction with job, management, supervisor, and the middle level position* were statistically significantly predicted *WPB*, $F(23,4663) = 94.917, p < .001$.

Comparing the unstandardized and standardized coefficients between the previous model and this model, there are no significant changes, as the significant predictors' standardized coefficients in both models closely match each other. Only the new, additional predictor in the model (*middle level position*) is different. According to the results, being an employee in the *middle level position* increases the *WPB* by 1.497 units, compared to being an employee in the *upper level position* (baseline).

Third model. Although not typically recommended, a third multiple regression test was conducted using the stepwise modeling method (Cohen, 1991). The purpose of this was to determine the most parsimonious model feasible. Two significant dummy predictors were added to the predictors found in the previous model. No notable changes in the regression coefficients for the predictors were found. The new, significant dummy predictors with negative regression coefficients are *Kuwaiti nationality* ($B = -1.761, \text{beta} = -.037, p = .006$), and *bachelor degree* ($B = -.916, \text{beta} = -.032, p = .009$). This indicated that the *Kuwaiti* employees were less likely to be exposed to *WPB* than the *other* employees from different nationalities (baseline) were. Also, employees holding a *bachelor degree* were .916 points less likely to be exposed to *WPB* than employees with *less than high school* degree (reference) were. These dummy predictors were highly significant, though with a weak effect size. The summary for this model slightly decreased from the previous model but still had a strong level of association with *R* value of .563. The model accounted for an (R^2) = 31.7% with an *adjusted R²* of 31.6%, which

indicates a moderate to large size effect according to Cohen's (1992) classification. The overall model indicates that *sex, age, monthly income, need for counselor, satisfaction with job, management, supervisor, the middle level position, Kuwaiti nationality, and bachelor degree* all predicted *WPB* to a statistically significant degree, $F(10,4676) = 217.139, p < .001$.

Table 4.40, Multiple Regression Coefficients of the Predictors Vs WPB- Third Model

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE_B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>		
Intercept (constant)	64.297	1.216	-	52.857	.000		
Satisfaction with management	-2.190	0.177	-0.210	-12.365	.000		
Satisfaction with supervisor	-2.741	0.152	-0.279	-18.053	.000		
Job satisfaction	-1.762	0.163	-0.160	-10.828	.000		
Need for counselor	0.870	0.130	0.082	6.712	.000		
Monthly income	-0.291	0.104	-0.043	-2.791	.005		
Sex	-1.249	0.373	-0.043	-3.348	.001		
Middle level	1.287	0.412	0.041	3.124	.002		
Age	-0.759	0.206	-0.052	-3.675	.000		
Kuwaiti	-1.761	0.638	-0.037	-2.760	.006		
Bachelor	-0.916	0.349	0.032	-2.622	.009		
Model	<i>R</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>Adj. R²</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
10	.563	.317	.316	11.65	10	217.139	.000

Note: *B*= unstandardized regression coefficient. *SE_B*= standard error of the coefficient. β = standardized coefficient. *t*= t statistic. *p*= significance. *R*= multiple correlation coefficient. *R²*= coefficient of determination. *Adj. R²*= adjusted *R²*. *SE*= standard error. *df*= degree of freedom. *F*= f ratio.

Multivariate analysis between the dependent variable of absenteeism and the independent variables of demographics and work-related variables. Since the second dependent variable (*absenteeism*) is a categorical variable, it is inappropriate to use multiple regression, because it requires a continuous dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2015b). So, another statistical analysis was considered, *Ordinal Logistic Regression*

through *Generalized Linear Models* (GENLIN). According to Laerd Statistics (2015c), this procedure helps predict an ordinal dependent variable with one or more independent variables measured at the continuous, categorical, or ordinal level. This statistical analysis determines: “a) Which ... independent variables (if any) have statistically significant effect(s) on the dependent variable; and b) ... how well the ordinal logistic regression model predicts the dependent variable” (Laerd Statistics, 2015c, p. 1).

According to Laerd Statistics (2015c), there are four requirements to run this statistical analysis. First, as mentioned previously, the dependent variable has to be measured at the ordinal level. Second, the independent variables have to be measured at the ordinal, continuous, or categorical level. Thirdly, there should be no multicollinearity. Finally, there have to be proportional odds. This assumption means that “each independent variable has an identical effect at each cumulative split of the ordinal dependent variable” (Laerd Statistics, 2015c, p. 16).

In this study, a multicollinearity diagnostic tested this assumption. The results showed that eight dummy variables violated the multicollinearity assumption with tolerance values less than 0.1 and VIF values greater than 10. These variables include: a) *governmental sector*, b) *private sector*, c) *single* (unmarried), d) *married*, e) *divorced*, f) *2-year postsecondary diploma degree*, g) *bachelor degree*, and h) *graduate degree*. Since the ordinal logistic regression required entering the main variables and treating their categories as dummy variables by default, these offending dummy variables remained part of the study.

According to Laerd Statistics (2015c), the proportional odds assumption can be tested using two methods: “a) with a full likelihood ratio test comparing the fit of the

proportional odds model to a model with varying location parameters; and b) by running separate binomial logistic regressions on cumulative dichotomous dependent variables” (p. 16).

A test of parallel lines measured the full likelihood ratio. If the assumption of proportional odds is met, the difference in model fit (chi-square) between the two models should be small and statistically insignificant (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). The results in Table 4.41 below indicate that the assumption of proportional odds was not met, $X^2(147) = 263.182, p < .001$.

Table 4.41, Test of Parallel Lines

<i>Model</i>	<i>-2 LL</i>	<i>X²</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Null Hypothesis	4090.124			
General	3826.942	263.182	147	.000

Note: -2 LL= -2 Log Likelihood. X²= Chi-Square. df= degree of freedom. p= significance.

The full likelihood ratio test sometimes might raise inaccurate violations of the proportional odds assumption (e.g., large samples sizes might result in statistically significant coefficients, although they might not be varied). Therefore, it is imperative to test the proportional odds assumption more by conducting separate binomial logistic regressions on cumulative dichotomous dependent variables (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). In order to apply this method, the dependent variable *Absenteeism*, with five categories, was transferred into four dummy dependent variables, based on the cumulative splits of the ordinal dependent variable. These new dependent variables were required to run separate binomial logistic regressions and to achieve the viability of the proportional odds assumption, as well as to run residual analysis diagnostics. These diagnostics are essential, as no test has yet been developed to investigate unusual cases for ordinal

logistic regression. Thus, the binomial logistic regression analysis is the best alternative (Laerd Statistics, 2015c).

Four binomial logistic regressions were conducted between the main, independent variables and with each dummy, dependent variable. Parameter estimates and odd ratios were compared for the dichotomized cumulative categories of the dependent variable. The proportional odds assumption would be met if the regression coefficients, with the exception of the intercept, are approximately equal for each binomial logistic regression conducted on each dichotomized cumulative category. Therefore, it is easier to look at the differences or similarities between the odds ratios (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). The results showed that the odds ratios for the four, different, binomial logistic regressions were approximately similar, except for the odds ratio regarding *nationality* and *marital status*, which varied slightly in two binomial logistic regressions. Therefore, the assumption of proportional odds seemed tenable for most of the independent variables, although not for *nationality* or *marital status*. Therefore, these two variables were treated in the final ordinal regression with more caution. All of the other assumptions were addressed and met. The results are as follows:

First, the overall model fit was tested by using three methods;

- a) two overall goodness-of-fit-tests provided an overall measure of whether the model fits the data well, the Deviance goodness-of-fit test and Pearson goodness-of-fit test;
- b) three pseudo *R* measures that attempt to provide a similar “variance explained” measure as provided in ordinary least-squares linear regression: Cox and Snell, Nagelkerke and McFadden;
- and c) the likelihood-ratio test, which looks at the change in model fit

when comparing the full model to the intercept-only model (Laerd Statistics, 2015c, p. 19).

According to Laerd Statistics (2015c), both the Pearson and deviance statistics are intended to measure whether the model fits the data well or poorly. However, these tests do not provide reliable test of goodness-of-fit if there are many cells with zero frequencies and/or small, expected frequencies, as is the case of this study where there are 7100 (79.7%) cells with zero frequencies. The reason for having such a large number of cells with zero frequencies is that the participants who labeled themselves as victims of *WPB* are the only participants who had access to the questions regarding the dependent variable (*absenteeism*). The participants who did not self-identify as victims were automatically directed to the demographic questionnaire, and therefore were assigned zero or empty cells for the *absenteeism* item. Regardless, the deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $X^2(7071) = 4055.068, p = 1.00$. Also, the Pearson goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit to the observed data, $X^2(7071) = 6575.824, p = 1.00$.

Table 4.42, Goodness-of-Fit

	X^2	df	p
Pearson	6575.824	7071	1.00
Deviance	4055.068	7071	1.00

Note: X^2 = Chi-Square. df = degree of freedom. p = significance.

The ordinal regression provides measures of the explained variance, similar to that found in Ordinary Least-Squares (OLS) linear regression. However, these measures do not have the same interpretation as with the OLS regression, and thus they are called *pseudo R²* measures. Three measures as shown in Table 4.43 below (Cox and Snell,

Nagelkerke and McFadden) are the three most common measures of R^2 (Laerd Statistics, 2015c).

Table 4.43, The pseudo- R^2 Measures

Cox and Snell	.166
Nagelkerke	.182
McFadden	.075

The best method for assessing the model fit is to investigate the change in model fit resulting from comparing the full model to the intercept-only model. The difference of -2 Log Likelihood (-2 LL) between the models equals the Chi-Square (X^2) distribution, and the degree of freedom equals the number of parameters (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). When the -2 LL value decreases, it indicates a better model fit. Also, when the difference between the two models increases, the independent variables more precisely explain the dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). According to Table 4.44 below, the results indicated that the final model predicted the dependent variable with greater statistical significance than the intercept-only model, $X^2(49) = 332.623, p < .001$.

Table 4.44, Model Fitting Information

<i>Model</i>	<i>-2 LL</i>	<i>X²</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept Only	4422.747			
Final	4090.124	332.623	49	.000

Note: -2 LL= -2 Log Likelihood. X^2 = Chi-Square. *df*= degree of freedom. *p*= significance.

The included cases numbered in the ordinal logistic regression analysis was $N = 1,828$ (39%), which included the participants who self-identified as victims and thus proceeded to answer the questions related to the victimization profile.

The results of the omnibus statistical tests for the predictors reported in the Tests of Model Effects are shown in Table 4.45 below. It is imperative to indicate which variable is statistically significant overall before exploring any specific contrasts later

reported in the parameter estimates. It works like ANOVA results before running post-hoc tests (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). The overall test of significance for each variable entered into the logistic regression model indicated that eight of the predictors had a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable at alpha level (α) of .05,. These predictors include: a) *sex*, b) *age*, c) *marital status*, d) *monthly income*, e) *educational level*, f) *occupational position*, g) *job satisfaction*, and h) *satisfaction with supervisor*.

Table 4.45, Tests of Model Effects

<i>Source</i>	<i>Type III</i>	<i>Wald X²</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Sex		40.581	1	.000
Age		9.816	4	.044
Nationality		.362	5	.996
Marital status		20.923	3	.000
Monthly income		21.296	7	.003
Educational level		13.162	4	.011
Occupational sector		1.389	2	.499
Occupational position		8.198	3	.042
Job satisfaction		36.373	5	.000
Satisfaction with management		7.573	5	.181
Satisfaction with supervisor		20.164	5	.001
Need for counselor		8.410	5	.135

Note: X² = Chi-Square. df = degree of freedom. p = significance.

Next, the parameter estimates for the GENLIN procedure in Table 4.46 below shows the results of the dummy variables used for the polytomous variables. It aims to explore any specific, reported contrasts. However, only the significant predictors in the omnibus statistical tests in Table 4.45 above were investigated for any significant contrasts. Additionally, if there are significant categories (contrasts) pertaining to insignificant predictors, it is standard practice to leave them unreported (Laerd Statistics, 2015c).

First, since *sex* is a dichotomized variable with values 1 as female and 2 as male, the log odds (coefficient) for females is -.671. This means that there is a decrease in the

log odds of .671 of scoring higher in the dependent variable (i.e., fewer days absent due to being bullied) for females compared to males. However, changes in the log odds do not have direct meaning. Thus, it is better to report the changes in the odds ratio [Exp(B)] which is the exponential of the log odds of the slope coefficient (Laerd Statistics, 2015c). In other words: the exponential of -.671 is $e^{-.671} = .511$. This means that, for females, the odds of scoring higher (being in a higher category) on the dependent variable (absent many days due to being bullied) is 50% less likely than that of males. So, the odds ratio of being in a higher category of the dependent variable for females versus males is .511, 95% CI [.416, .628], a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 40.581, p < .001$.

Table 4.46, Parameter Estimates of the Generalized Linear Models for Absenteeism

Parameter	B	SE _B	Hypothesis Test			Exp(B)	95% Wald CI for Exp(B)	
			Wald X ²	df	p		LB	UB
Females	-0.671	.1053	40.581	1	.000	0.511	0.416	0.628
Divorced	1.756	.8549	4.219	1	.040	5.789	1.084	30.924
500-799 KD	0.800	.2303	12.069	1	.001	2.226	1.417	3.495
800-1099 KD	0.773	.2017	14.694	1	.000	2.166	1.459	3.217
1100-1399 KD	0.611	.1882	10.537	1	.001	1.842	1.274	2.664
High school	0.817	.2507	10.631	1	.001	2.265	1.385	3.702
Middle position	-0.265	.1188	4.987	1	.026	0.767	0.608	0.968
Very dissatisfied with job	0.990	.1794	30.483	1	.000	2.692	1.894	3.827
Dissatisfied with job	0.473	.1654	8.183	1	.004	1.605	1.161	2.220
Very dissatisfied with supervisor	.0544	.1877	8.389	1	.004	1.723	1.192	2.489

Note: B= slope coefficient. SE_B= standard error of the coefficient. X²= Chi-Square. df= degree of freedom. p= significance. Exp(B)= odds ratio. CI= confidence interval. LB= lower bound. UB= upper bound.

Although age appeared as a significant predictor ($p = .044$) in the omnibus statistical tests, none of its categories' parameter estimates were statistically significant at

the alpha level (α) of .05. This indicates that *age* categories are the same in predicting *absenteeism* due to being bullied—no differences due to age exist.

The *divorced* group had an increase in the log odds of 1.756 of scoring higher in the dependent variable (absent many days due to being bullied) comparing to the *widowed* group (reference). The odds ratio (e^B) of being in a higher category of the dependent variable for the *divorced* group versus the *widowed* group was 5.789, 95% CI [1.084, 30.924], a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 4.219$, $p < .05$. This means that the *divorced* group is five times more likely to have a higher level of absenteeism than the *widowed* group.

Regarding the *monthly income* predictor, three of its categories have significant parameter estimates, which are 500-799 KD (income 1), 800-1099 KD (income 2), and 1100-1399 KD (income 3). These three categories have almost equal log odds (B) and odds ratio (e^B) with positive log odds of .800, .773, and .611, respectively. Income 1 [e^B 2.226, 95% CI [1.417, 3.495], Wald $X^2(1) = 12.069$, $p = .001$], income 2 [e^B 2.166, 95% CI [1.459, 3.217], Wald $X^2(1) = 14.694$, $p < .001$], and income 3 [e^B 1.842, 95% CI [1.274, 2.664], Wald $X^2(1) = 10.537$, $p = .001$] have statistically significant effects on the dependent variable. This means that the low-income categories are twice as likely to report high absenteeism due to being bullied than the reference category (2400 KD or more).

Those with a *high school (or equivalent)* level of education had an increase in the log odds of .817 compared to those with a *graduate* degree (reference). The odds ratio (e^B) of being in a higher category of the dependent variable for the *high school (or equivalent)* diploma versus the *graduate* degree is 2.265, 95% CI [1.385, 3.702], a

statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 10.631, p = .001$. This means that the *high school (or equivalent)* group is twice as likely to have a higher rate of absenteeism from being bullied, compared to those with a *graduate* degree.

Regarding the *occupational position* predictor, the *middle level position* (managers of employees) had a decrease in the log odds of $-.265$ of reporting absence for many days due to being bullied, compared to the reference category, those in the *lower level position* (regular workers). The Exp(B) for the *middle level position* being in a higher category of the dependent variable was $.767$, 95% CI $[.608, .968]$, a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 4.987, p < .05$. This means that the *middle level position* group is roughly 25% less likely to report being absent for many days due to being bullied than those in the *lower level position* group.

The *job satisfaction* predictor has two categories with significant parameter estimates, which are *very dissatisfied* and *dissatisfied*. The *very dissatisfied* category had an increase in the log odds of $.990$ of scoring higher on the dependent variable (absent more days due to being bullied) compared to the reference category (*very satisfied*). The odds ratio for the *very dissatisfied* category is 2.692 , 95% CI $[1.894, 3.827]$, a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 30.483, p < .001$. This means that the participants who were *very dissatisfied* with their jobs were more than twice as likely to predict high absenteeism due to being bullied than the participants who were *very satisfied* with their jobs.

In addition, the *dissatisfied* category also had an increase in the log odds of $.473$ in reporting high absenteeism due to being bullied. The odds ratio of *dissatisfied* category is 1.605 , 95% CI $[1.161, 2.220]$, a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 8.183, p =$

.004. This means that participants who are *dissatisfied* with their work are more than one-and-a-half times more likely to predict high absenteeism due to being bullied than the participants who are *very satisfied* with their work (reference). Thus, workers who are more dissatisfied with their work are more likely to take off days with illness due to being bullied.

The *Satisfaction with supervisor* predictor had one category with a significant parameter estimate, which is the *very dissatisfied* category. The *very dissatisfied* category had an increase in the log odds of .544 for reporting a higher absenteeism rate. The odds ratio of *very dissatisfied* category was 1.723, 95% CI [1.192, 2.489], a statistically significant effect, Wald $X^2(1) = 8.389, p = .004$. This indicates that participants who are *very dissatisfied* with their supervisor at work are more than one-and-a-half times more likely to report high absenteeism due to being bullied than the participants who are *very satisfied* with their supervisor (reference).

Summary

As posited, this study showed a statistically significant degree of correlation between WPB in Kuwait and multiple personal, educational, occupational, and societal factors. Statistically significant factors included *age, marital status, monthly income, educational level, occupational sector, and occupational position*. WPB did not correlate with *sex* or *nationality* to a statistically significant degree. The following is a summary of the findings and the analysis on these factors.

Demographics and Contextual Characteristics

From a total of 8,531 recorded surveys, 3,725 (43.7%) surveys with missing data and 119 (2.4%) surveys that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded. The

remaining, complete surveys used for the analysis totaled 4,687(53.9%). The NAQ-R scale and its underlying structures were found to be highly reliable and consistent with the literature with Cronbach's Alphas ranging between .659 to .929.

Participants. The majority of the survey participants were males, and the largest group ranged in age from 30 to 39. The vast majority of participants were Kuwaiti, married, holding bachelor degrees, employed in the governmental sector, in lower level positions, with a monthly income ranging between 800 to 1,399 KD. Around half of the participants were satisfied with their jobs and with their day-to-day supervisor, while a similar proportion was dissatisfied with their management. The majority of participants agreed to the importance of having a counselor's office (i.e., social worker) in their workplace to address work-related issues such as WPB.

Most of the scores on the NAQ-R reflected negative behaviors that were reported as *never* and *occasionally (now and then)* with very few cases reporting experiencing the negative behaviors frequently (*monthly, weekly, or daily*). A rigorous operational definition criterion was taken to distinguish clearly between the targets of WPB and non-bullied persons, as well as to measure the prevalence of *WPB* in Kuwait. The operational definition criterion used to label a case as a target required the individual to have experienced at least three negative behaviors daily, weekly, or monthly. From the total participants, 1,834 (39%) of individuals met the criterion, which in turn reflects a 39% prevalence rate of *WPB* in Kuwait. The percentage of participants who labeled themselves as a victim based on the given, global definition of *WPB* was also 39% ($n = 1,828$), although not all of them met the operational definition criterion. Only 1,176

participants who labeled themselves as victims (64.1%) met the operational criterion of being targets.

Targets. The demographics of the WPB targets were very similar to the general (non-bullied) participants. The majority of targets ($N = 1,834$) were males (60.5%), with an age range between 30-39 years old. The vast majority included persons who were Kuwaiti, married, graduates with a bachelor degree, employed in governmental sector in lower level positions, and earning a monthly income ranging between 800-1,399 KD. Unlike the general participants, the targets' rating of job satisfaction was more ambiguous, spanning the dissatisfied, undecided, and satisfied categories with almost equal percentages of about 20%. Dissatisfaction with management was lower among the general participants (around 50%) than the WPB targets (more than 70%). Unlike the general participants, around half of the targets were dissatisfied with their day-to-day supervisors. Similar to the general participants, around two-thirds of the targets agreed that having a counselor's office in the workplace would help in addressing WPB.

Regarding the victimization profile, the vast majority of targets were bullied by their immediate superiors (50%), and other superiors or managers (45%). Fewer individuals were bullied by their colleagues (32%). Main perpetrators generally supervised a small number of employees (between 1-29 employees). The largest group of targets reported no days off with illness due to being bullied (46%). Only 36% reported being absent for 1-6 days with illness due to being bullied. The majority of targets (44%) *often* had an intention to quit or transfer from their current job due to being bullied, and 32% *sometimes* considered leaving their jobs. One-third of targets indicated their

productivity was never (*none of the time*) lower than expected due to being bullied, while one third reported it to be lower than expected *some of the time* due to being bullied.

Perpetrators. The demographic characteristics of perpetrators showed that the majority of perpetrators were females and they mostly targeted males, while male perpetrators mostly targeted females. In terms of age group, perpetrators between 40-49 years old constituted the largest group—making them older than the majority of targets, since the majority of targets were between 30-39 years old. Also, young perpetrators tended to bully young targets, and older perpetrators tended to bully younger targets. Also, the vast majority of perpetrators for both male and female targets were Kuwaiti. The majority of male and female perpetrators had the same educational level as the targets-- a bachelor degree, but there was a tendency from perpetrators to bully targets with less education. Also, both male and female perpetrators were not bullying their targets alone but had other aggressors who collaborated with them in bullying.

Comparing Means of Participant Demographics

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to detect statistically significant differences among the respondents' demographics on *WPB*, but for the *sex* variable an independent t-test was conducted, since the variable only had two categories. The results found no significant, mean differences by *sex* (male vs. female). There were significant mean differences among *age* groups with young employees exposed to *WPB* more than older employees. There were significant means differences in *nationality*. Employees with *unidentified citizenship (Bedoon)* and *Middle Eastern nationalities* reported the highest exposure to *WPB*. Significant mean differences appeared among *marital status* groups with *divorced* employees followed by *single* employees having the highest rates of

exposure to WPB. There were also significant mean differences among the *monthly income* groups as employees with the lowest monthly income (499 to 1,099 KD) had the highest rate of exposure to WPB. Significant mean differences appeared among *educational level* groups showing that employees with a 2-year, post-secondary *diploma degree* were the most bullied, followed by those with a *graduate/professional degree*, and then by those with *high school* diplomas. Ambiguous, yet significant, mean differences appeared among *occupational sector* groups, indicating that the *self-employed* group had the highest rate of exposure to WPB, followed by the *private group*, even though the *self-employed* group are often considered the owners and managers of their own businesses. Analysis found significant means differences among *occupational position* with employees in the *lower level positions* the most bullied group.

Correlational analysis. Regarding the association between *WPB* and participants' demographics ($N = 4,687$), *WPB* had a weak, yet highly statistically significant, negative relationship ($p < .001$) with *age*, *monthly income*, and *marital status* ($p < .05$). It also has weak, yet statistically significant, positive relationships with *occupational position* ($p < .001$), *occupational sector* ($p < .01$), and *educational level* ($p < .05$). *WPB* did not correlate with *sex* or *nationality* to a statistically significant degree ($p > .05$).

Regarding the association between *WPB* and participants' satisfaction and work-related factors ($N = 4,687$), *WPB* had moderate, yet highly statistically significant, negative relationships ($p < .001$) with *job satisfaction*, *satisfaction with management*, and *satisfaction with day-to-day supervisor*. *WPB* also had a weak, yet highly statistically significant, positive relationship ($p < .001$) with the *need for counselor* in the workplace.

In addition, WPB had weak-to-moderate, yet highly statistically significant, positive relationships ($p < .001$) with *absenteeism*, *intention to quit job*, and *low productivity* due to being bullied.

Regarding the association between WPB and perpetrators' demographics ($N = 1,828$), WPB had weak, yet highly statistically significant, positive relationships ($p < .001$) with the perpetrators' *sex*, *age*, *nationality*, *educational level*, and *the number of employees the bully supervises*.

Multivariate analyses. Multivariate analyses allowed for making predictions regarding WPB and absenteeism. The following paragraphs summarize the results of these analyses.

Predicting WPB. Three separate multiple regression analyses were conducted to identify the best set of predictors of demographics and contextual variables on the dependent variable (WPB). The first multiple regression used a stepwise procedure to achieve the most parsimonious model that could predict and explain the most variants of WPB. The first model showed a large level of association ($R = .560$) and it was statistically significantly predicted *WPB*, $F(7, 4679) = 305.69$, $p < .001$. Seven predictors added significantly ($p < .05$) to the model, which are: a) satisfaction with management, b) satisfaction with supervisor, c) job satisfaction, d) need for a counselor in the workplace, e) monthly income, f) sex, and g) age. The model accounted for 31.3% (*adjusted R²*) of the variance on the dependent variable by the independent variables over and above the mean model. The unstandardized coefficients indicated that females are one time more likely to experience WPB than males. As satisfaction with management, supervisor, and job increase by one ordinal unit, the WPB decreased by two units. Also, as monthly

income and age increased, WPB decreased. Last, as the need for counselor at workplace increased by one ordinal level, WPB increased in one interval level.

Since the five insignificant predictors that were removed from the model are categorical nominal predictors, a second multiple regression was conducted after transferring them into dummy variables. All the predictors were entered without using any computer-determined modeling approach (e.g., stepwise) because computer-determined modeling approaches are inappropriate when the model includes dummy variables. The model indicated a strong level of association ($R = .565$). The model improved slightly compared to the previous one, and it significantly predicted *WPB*, $F(23,4663) = 94.917, p < .001$. The model explained 31.9% (*adjusted R*²) of the variances on the dependent variable by the independent variables. The results showed that the seven significant predictors in the previous model were also significant in this second model at alpha level (α) of .05, and the standardized and unstandardized coefficients were almost identical between both models. Only one new, significant, dummy variable was added to the model, which was the *middle level position*, which had a weak effect size. It indicated that employees in the *middle level position* were more likely to be exposed to *WPB* than those in *upper level positions* (reference).

The third multiple regression was conducted by using the stepwise method, even though this is uncommon when using dummy variables. The results showed that the model significantly predicted *WPB* $F(10,4676) = 217.139, p < .001$. All of the significant predictors from both previous models (first and second) remained as significant predictors in the third model, with almost identical standardized and unstandardized coefficients. There were only two more dummy variables added to the model at alpha

level (α) of .05, and both had negative coefficients and weak effect sizes (*bachelor degree* and *Kuwaiti nationality*). This indicates that employees with bachelor degrees are less likely to be exposed to WPB than employees with less than a high school diploma (reference). Employees with *Kuwaiti nationality* were also less likely to be exposed to WPB than the *other* nationalities (reference). The model summary slightly decreased from the previous model, but it still had a strong level of association with an *R* value of .563. The model explained 31.6% of the variances on the dependent variable by the predictors.

Predicting absenteeism. A cumulative odds ordinal logistic regression with proportional odds was run to determine the effect of *sex, age, nationality, marital status, monthly income, educational level, job sector and position, need for counselor, satisfaction with work, management, and satisfaction with supervisor*, on reporting high *absenteeism* due to being bullied. The results indicated that *female* employees were less likely to report *absenteeism* due to being bullied than *male* employees (reference). *Divorced* employees were five times more likely to report *absenteeism* than *widowed* employees (reference). Employees with *low monthly income* are twice as likely to report *absenteeism* than employees with *high income* (reference). Employees with a *high school (or equivalent)* diploma are also twice as likely to report *absenteeism* than employees with *graduate/professional degree* (reference). Employees in the *middle level position (managers of employees)* were 25% less likely to report *absenteeism* than employees in the *lower level (regular workers)*. Employees who were *dissatisfied with their work and day-to-day supervisors* were twice as likely to report *absenteeism* than employees who were *satisfied* with the mentioned categories.

In summary, the results concluded that *females* were exposed more to WPB by *male perpetrators*, but *males* were more likely to report higher *absenteeism* rates due to being bullied. *Divorced* employees scored high in absenteeism due to being bullied but marital status did not serve to predict WPB. The categories of employees with a) *low income*, b) *low educational levels* and c) in the *middle-level positions* were statistically significant predictors for WPB. On the other hand, the categories of employees with a) *low income*, b) *low educational levels*, and c) in the *low-level positions* were statistically significant predictors for *absenteeism* due to being bullied. In addition, the categories employees who were *dissatisfied* a) with their *jobs* and b) with their *day-to-day supervisors* were statistically significant predictors of both *WPB* and *absenteeism* due to being bullied.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

The first two chapters have indicated why the topic of WPB is timely, relevant, and important. Before the discussion of the findings from Chapter Four, this chapter will briefly note how the topic relates to the researcher's own life and why the study of WPB must be explored in the Arabian Gulf nations.

Background

Between 2006-2008, the researcher worked in the Council of Ministers as a social researcher for the Department of Citizen's Services and Governmental Bodies Assessment Agency. One of the primary services provided by this department was receiving complaints from employees working in different governmental offices. Most of these complaints were about work-related problems that the employees experienced. The negative experiences that employees complained about were the same items as found in the NAQ-R scale: actions preventing employees from getting something they were entitled to receive (e.g., promotions, travel expenses, bonuses, etc.), withholding information or resources, humiliation, taking away responsibilities, malignant gossip or rumors, persistent criticism, and teasing or sarcasm, among many other complaints too long to list.

At the time, the department officially viewed these problems as interpersonal conflicts, and thus did not investigate them as WPB cases. No further investigations explored how these issues developed; how they affected the targets socially, psychologically, or financially; or even how they affected the organization's productivity and morale. Rather, the employers most commonly attempted to solve these problems by

transferring the targets to another department or office. Employers only rarely addressed the people in power who were most likely the causes (perpetrators) of these problems.

Additionally, as mentioned in the literature review, in Kuwaiti WPB cases, any employer response typically resulted in the targets being punished and the perpetrators experiencing no consequences. During the time the researcher worked at the Council of Ministers, he never heard or recognized the term *WPB*. The concept was simply unknown to officials in the government office. The lack of appropriate intervention in regards to these issues resulted in strengthened perpetrators continuing to bully others, depressed targets disbelieving in the government's ability to fix these issues, lowered productivity in the workplace, and impoverished morale among the workforce.

Recently, the department changed its services and quit receiving employees' complaints. Its primary activity instead transitioned into focusing on assessing the development of governmental projects. As a result, the victims of WPB have no solution to gain their rights and achieve justice, except for suing their employers. The researcher believes that a possible reason for closing this department is because its efforts were not built upon scientific literature and its staff—including the researcher himself at the time—did not have the training or knowledge of how to deal with this issue.

However, from this experience, the researcher became determined to study WPB and to equip himself with the necessary knowledge and skills to investigate this issue. His purpose in this was to find effective solutions to help the targets, the perpetrators, and the employers. Developing this dissertation has been the first step in his journey.

As of the onset of this research, no published study has investigated WPB, neither in Kuwait, nor in the surrounding Arabian Gulf countries, many of which share cultural,

linguistic, and religious characteristics. In addition, there is a lack of studies internationally, especially those that look at this issue from a social work perspective. As the literature review has demonstrated, the Scandinavian countries were pioneers in this field (see, e.g., Lutgen - Sandvik et al., 2007). From these, it seems that once a country raises public awareness and shapes policies to fight this issue, it affects the surrounding countries in the region, which also become interested in engaging and investigating the problem. Therefore, the researcher has felt an ethical responsibility to take the lead by conducting studies to raise awareness of WPB in Kuwait and in the Arabian Gulf countries by sharing the knowledge he has gained.

Review of Methodology

This cross-sectional study was conducted through the Internet using social media to investigate the prevalence and patterns of WPB in Kuwait and its association with selected demographics, work-related variables, and other contextual factors. The study's aim was to find which set of variables best predicts WPB and absenteeism.

The reason for online distribution of the study was to collect a large, convenient sample of the Kuwaiti population in a quick and cost-effective manner. Collecting data online allowed the researcher to reach many people working in various sectors in a short time, many of whom would be difficult to reach if data had been collected in a traditional method.

The NAQ-R scale measuring WPB (plus a few additional informational items) was distributed via Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp Messenger, Instagram, and LinkedIn. Qualtrics was utilized to establish and distribute the questionnaires, subsequently receiving them automatically once the participants submitted them. The data collection

was from June 1 to June 12, 2017, which was transcribed into SPSS software version 24 for data analysis and results.

The Addressed Research Questions

This section discusses the six core research questions of the study. The next section will present a comparison between the findings of this study with previous studies and draw some speculations as appropriate.

After cleaning the data, the researcher analyzed 4,687 completed surveys in response to the question, *What is the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait?* Identified targets comprised 1,834 participants, based on the applied operational definition criterion of three or more negative experience occurring daily, weekly, or monthly. Based on the number of targets compared to the overall number of completed surveys, the prevalence of WPB in Kuwait is approximately 39%. Additionally, participants who labeled themselves as victims also accounted for 39% (1,828) of the total surveys. Two independent and separate measures thus support a prevalence rate of 39%, creating a significant finding, perhaps even the most important finding of this study.

However, among those who self-identified as being bullied, only 1,176 (64.1%) met the operational definition's criterion as being targets. The reason why more of these did not meet the operational definition criterion might be due to respondents having difficulty seeing themselves as victims in a culture with authoritarian features. The self-labeling method is a subjective approach in which personality traits, emotional and cognitive factors, and cultural factors might interfere. Although the self-labeling approach provided a definition of WPB, participants' personal definition of bullying might not match the scientific definition (Nielsen et al., 2011). Another possible

explanation is that adult males, for instance, might not be very comfortable admitting that they were being bullied (especially for those being bullied by a woman) since they live in a country strongly valuing masculine qualities and traits (Hofstede, 1980).

In response to the question, *What participants' demographics are associated with WPB in Kuwait?*, the results indicated that WPB was significantly associated with the participants' age, marital status, monthly income, educational level, occupational sector and position, but was not significantly associated with sex or nationality.

Although WPB scores did not significantly differ by sex, 60.5% of those meeting the definition of being bullied were males, and only 39.5% were females (see Table 4.7), which approximately corresponds to the gender difference among survey participants.

This finding is consistent with the literature (Namie, 2009; Jayaratne et al., 1996).

However, an interesting finding revealed that 92.7% of females were targeted by males, and 82.8% of males were targeted by females (see Table 4.12). This contradicts Rayner and Hoel (1997) who stated that men rarely perceive themselves as being bullied by women, while women have reported a more equal gender-balance of bullies in several studies (cf., Sjøtveit, 1992; Leymann & Thallgren, 1989; Einarssen & Raknes, 1991).

Also, although nationality was not significantly associated with WPB, the one-way ANOVA test found that those with unidentified citizenship (the Bedoon) and Middle Eastern groups reported the highest rate of WPB, compared to the other nationalities.

This implies that class or racial discrimination could be embedded in WPB behaviors, as found in other studies (e.g., Namie, Namie, & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2011; Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

Regarding the association between WPB and occupational position, the one-way ANOVA test found that the lower job position category reported being the most highly bullied group. The group was mostly bullied by their immediate superiors or other superiors. It is axiomatic that targets earn less income than the perpetrators, thus the results also found that employees with low income reported a high rate of WPB. These results correspond with the vast majority of previous studies (e.g., O'Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016; Tepper, 2007; Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Namie & Namie, 2003).

An unexpected finding was having the *self-employed* group as an occupational sector reporting the highest group exposure to WPB. The researcher assumes this is related to second jobs. That is, to keep up with life expenses, many Kuwaiti people keep daily, routine jobs while also owning their own businesses. These people may have assigned themselves as self-employed, but they used the occasion to vent negative feelings from other jobs where they were working under superiors. Further investigation into this assumption is warranted.

Regarding the association between WPB and age. The one-way ANOVA test found that younger employees reported the highest rates of WPB, which also corresponds to the literature (e.g., Quine, 2001;1999; Ovayolu, Ovayolu, & Karadag, 2014; Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). One is less likely to find a case in Kuwait where young employees bully older ones for two reasons. First, from cultural perspective, older people are highly respected in Kuwait, and they receive special, priority treatment in different sectors, such as in medical treatment. Second, the promotion system in employment, especially in the governmental sectors, is based on seniority. It would be rare to find a young manager supervising older employees.

The study found that divorced and single targets reported the highest rate of exposure to WPB. This is also supported by two studies that found unmarried, separated, and widowed persons exposed to more WPB than married individuals (Powell, 2012; Keuskamp, 2012). However, the vast majority of the literature did not find significant differences by marital status. In Kuwait, divorced individuals, especially females, are stigmatized and perceived as having an inferior social status. This might explain why this group was highly bullied. Single individuals, whether divorced or not previously married, are most likely be vulnerable to a high rate of WPB because having a spouse with a family name and its strong reputation provide some level of immunity against WPB.

Regarding the association between WPB and educational level, the researcher expected that those with lower educational levels would report the highest rate of WPB, as indicated in the literature (e.g., Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2008). However, the findings indicate that those with less than high school degrees had the lowest reported rates, and those with 2-year, post-secondary Diplomas or Graduate/professional degrees had the highest rates of WPB (see Table 4.28). This finding appears unique among the literature and may speak to the characteristics of the sample. Although statistical significance was found, the differences among the educational groups were minor and the significance was likely due to the large sample size. There was no obvious pattern in the WPB rates among educational groups. The only possible explanation is that having a high prevalence rate of WPB (39%) indicates WPB is widespread and found almost equally among the various educational groups without hierarchal recognition. However, given the lack of studies in Kuwait and the surrounding Arabian Gulf countries, this might also be a characteristic unique to the region.

In response to the question, *What perpetrators' demographics are associated with WPB in Kuwait?* the results indicated that WPB significantly associated with the perpetrators' *sex, age, nationality, educational level, and the number of employees the bully supervised*. The results indicated more self-labeled targets were male, while more identified perpetrators were female. This finding corresponds with the literature (e.g., Namie, 2009). It seems that regardless of the region or culture in which WPB takes place, more females than males tend to lead the action as perpetrators. Probably due to the often subtle and indirect nature of the phenomenon (Agervold, 2007), it suits females' nature more than males, as males tend to engage in more direct encounters (Lim & Teo, 2009).

Since the majority of the targets in this study were young, it is not surprising that the perpetrators were older than their targets. Younger employees with a tendency towards being a perpetrator cannot easily bully older employees, as discussed previously, and therefore they bully those who are in the same age range. However, older employees are able to bully the younger ones (see Table 4.15 & Table 4.16) This is commonly found in the literature (Quine, 1999, 2001; Owayolu et al., 2014; Di Martino et al., 2003). This phenomenon is likely due to the promotion system and job descriptions, especially for managerial positions requiring experience that find older employees in higher positions.

Regarding the nationality variable, it was unsurprising to find that the Kuwaiti were identified most often as the perpetrators. As it happens in other countries, the dominant population are found most often in the higher positions, especially in the governmental sectors.

Regarding the perpetrators' educational level, there is a tendency for perpetrators of both genders to bully those who have less education than them, but the interesting

finding is that the majority of perpetrators had the same educational level as their targets, specifically holding a bachelor degree (see Tables 4.13 & 4.14). Sharing the same educational level contributes to explaining the occurrence of WPB because of tension in the relationship. There could be a rivalry or struggle for job security, since both share the same educational qualifications (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Since the majority of perpetrators supervised a small number of employees (1-29), the researcher did not anticipate that the majority of targets would be bullied by more than one perpetrator, as such is more typical in larger organizations with more employees under each supervisor. However, having multiple perpetrators is a common finding in the literature. In most cases, there are other aggressors involved besides the main perpetrator (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). This indicates that WPB might go beyond work-related issues and be related to personality traits or identities; otherwise, it is hard to explain individuals partnering with the main perpetrator on a small group of employees.

In response to the question, *What participants' work-related factors are associated with WPB in Kuwait?*, WPB significantly associated with *job dissatisfaction, dissatisfaction with management, dissatisfaction with day-to-day supervisor, days off work with illness, intention to quit or transfer from current job, and low productivity due to being bullied.*

The categories *dissatisfaction with job, dissatisfaction with management, and dissatisfaction with supervisor* revealed moderate-to-strong associations with WPB. These relationships were also common in the literature. Almost every study has asserted that targets were dissatisfied with their jobs and the management (e.g., Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Aquino & Thau, 2009; Chipps & McRury, 2012; Read &

Laschinger, 2013; Out, 2005; Giorgi, Leon-Perez, & Arenas, 2015; McFarlane-Ossmann & Curtis, 2011; Quine, 1999). In this study, job satisfaction was not clearly different among targets, as there were similar proportions who were satisfied, undecided, and dissatisfied (see Table 4.7); whereas the general participants were satisfied with their jobs. The researcher infers that this result is due to the targets' mixed feelings, wherein they were trying to distinguish between the leadership style and the work itself. They may have liked their jobs, but they did not like how the management handled WPB.

The *satisfaction with supervisor* category was distinct between the targets and general participants, as targets were dissatisfied with their supervisors, while the general participants were satisfied with their supervisors. This supports the previous point that targets might be satisfied with their job, but not with their supervisors or how they handle the work-related problems.

It was surprising to find that the majority of both the targets and the general participants were dissatisfied with management. It seems there is loss of trust and faith toward the management overall, and the targets were more frequently dissatisfied with management. Having both the bullied and non-bullied dissatisfied with management indicates that this perception does not exist except in poor work environments, wherein it could foster WPB (Johannsdottir & Olafsson; 2004; Baillien et al., 2009; Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006; Hoel & Salin, 2003).

Regarding the association between WPB and absenteeism, it was surprising to find that almost half of the targets reported no days off due to being bullied, and only one-third of targets reported being absent for few days. This finding seems to contradict Al-Otaibi's study (1997), which stated that Kuwaiti employees had a high absenteeism

rate. The difference might be explained by the fact that the item measuring absenteeism in this study specified the condition of being absent *with illness* due to being bullied—which is not the same as the item’s wording for calculating Al-Otaibi’s rate. However, the association between WPB and absenteeism is very common and confirmed by many of the previous studies (e.g., Skarbek, Johnson, & Dawson, 2015; Chipps & McRury, 2012; O’Connell, Calvert, & Watson, 2007; Takaki et al., 2013).

The association between WPB and intention to leave a job is also common in most of the literature (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2004; Einarsen et al., 2003; Simons & Mawn, 2010). Although they have low rate of absenteeism, they have high desire to escape from the bullying.

Regarding the association between WPB and the expectation of low productivity due to being bullied, the results indicated that targets were divided into two equal proportions. One-third reported that *none of the time* their productivity was lower than expected and another third reported *sometimes* their productivity was lower than expected, due to being bullied (see Table 4.9). This also corresponds with the majority of studies, as low productivity is one of the consequences of WPB (Carbo, 2008; Namie, Namie, & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2011; McFarlane-Ossmann & Curtis, 2011; Wiedmer, 2010). The reason why the majority who have been affected by WPB did not report low productivity might be that it is hard for employees to admit that they had poor work performance.

In response to the question, *Which set of demographics best predicts WPB in Kuwait, and do these same variables have implications on absenteeism with illness due to being bullied?*, the results indicated that *satisfaction with job, supervisor, management,*

need for counselor, monthly income, sex, age, nationality, educational level, and occupational position were significant predictors of WPB.

Being female, non-Kuwaiti, young, having low education, low income, little job satisfaction, little satisfaction with management and supervisor, or working in a middle-level position all empirically seem to make the employees in Kuwait highly vulnerable to WPB. Further, the reported need for a counselor in the workplace seems to confirm this. Other than the need for a counselor in the workplace (which was a new item added for this study), these findings correspond with the literature (e.g., Namie, 2009; Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Simons & Mawn, 2010; Out, 2005).

Regarding the prediction of absenteeism, the results revealed that sex, marital status, monthly income, educational level, occupational position, satisfaction with job, and satisfaction with supervisor significantly associated with absenteeism due to being bullied.

Being male, divorced, dissatisfied with one's job, dissatisfied with one's supervisor; having low income or low education; and working in a lower-level position are all likely predictors for being absent with illness due to being bullied.

An unexpected finding was that males had higher rates of absenteeism due to being bullied, since females were initially predicted to be more vulnerable after being bullied. Inferentially, this is due to the nature of Middle Eastern men who avoid confronting problems they face, preferring instead to stay far away. It is hard for them to speak frankly about their negative feelings, admit they feel bullied, and face their aggressors. Therefore, when they feel depressed or sad, they tend to isolate. Collectively, these tendencies may explain the higher rate of WPB-related absenteeism among males.

The common variables between predicting both WPB scores and absenteeism were having low income, low education, job dissatisfaction, and dissatisfaction with a supervisor. In the social sciences, lower levels of income and education play a significant role in explaining most social problems. These characteristics are found largely in minority groups; these individuals feel powerless, working hard to barely cover their basic needs. Undoubtedly, people with these characteristics are the most vulnerable group to WPB; and as such, it would be expected that they report higher rates of absenteeism due to being bullied. However, even though this was the expectation, instead one of predictors for WPB was the middle-level position. This result may have occurred for two reasons. First, the item that measured the occupational positions might not be clear enough for respondents to identify their positions, since it was impossible to list all the types of occupational positions within different sectors. Second, WPB might be more obvious to individuals in the middle-level position (managers of employees) and the upper level position (professionals, top managers, owners).

In response to the question, *Is there a need for social workers in the workplace to address WPB?* the results revealed that the majority of respondents indicated there was a need for counselors in the workplace. It was surprising to find that there was an equally large demand for having a counselor at workplace from both the general participants and targets. The findings also indicated that the need for counselor was a significant predictor for WPB.

As a result of all of these findings, it is imperative that the social work profession in Kuwait be expanded and prepared to address occupational problems. Maiden (2001) stated that occupational social work was first brought to the US in the 20th century due to

the rapid urbanization and industrialization, with an increasing number of immigrants and their social needs. Social workers made significant improvements in helping the workplace become more humane (e.g., advocating for the abolition of child labor). Social workers currently provide unique services that help workers and organizations adapt to rapid changes in organizations, assist with improving the work climate for diversity, help workers with family issues that could result in time away from work (e.g., family disruption due to separation, divorce, conflict, child problems), and so forth (Maiden, 2001). When work takes a large share of a person's life, no doubt it affects his or her wellbeing. When there is bullying in the workplace, social workers can counsel the victim and work with management to design preventative strategies. They can be the voice of the powerless, so that management can address problems that might not be brought to their attention otherwise.

Limitations of the Study

This cross-sectional study is based on self-reported data, which prevents drawing a causal relationship from the observed phenomenon. The weakness of the design is that it can only indicate when variables correlate with one another (Pearl, 2009). Consequently, it will not be possible for this study to determine if employees' age, sex, nationality, educational level, job position and sector, job satisfaction, and so on are, in fact, responsible for making them victims. Nor can it determine which variables contribute to making perpetrators become workplace bullies.

Methodologically, the instruments that have been developed for WPB were influenced by the ones used for schoolyard bullying. However, to a greater extent than the research on school bullying, researchers of WPB have used a range of different

methodologies including focus groups, case studies, and more qualitative approaches (Cowie et al., 2002). However, an important limitation of research on WPB is the lack of verification—verifying the bullying incidents. The majority of studies in this field have investigated the problem from the targets' perspective without verifying the behavior or contacting other parties such as the colleagues or the perpetrators (Nielsen, et al, 2011).

Agervold (2007), suggested that the assessment of WPB from the witnesses' perspective and/or observation relies upon convenience, as is the case in the school-based research where the peer nomination method is typically utilized to identify both the victims and bullies. However, in the workplace setting, WPB is often subtle and indirect, exemplified by activities such as withholding information and slander, making it difficult for the third party to observe until it reaches direct aggression. It might also be difficult for third parties to provide data or testify against bullies when they are financially depending on their jobs and when the bullies are in powerful positions.

Use of social media for data collection might be considered the major limitation in this study for couple of reasons. First, Kuwaiti people are heavy users of social media (Al-Kandari et al., 2015) which decreases the probability of reaching the expatriates. Also, when individuals helped distribute the questionnaire to their friends and families, they were mostly Kuwaiti people, and therefore the study might not have reached the expatriates in proportion to their large number in Kuwait. Second, there are still some people who do not use smart phones and do not have access to social media, which kept the survey from reaching them. Third, having the majority of participants holding a bachelor degree suggested that the survey might not have reached a representative sample of all workers (especially those with lower levels of education). It seems like it mostly

reached college graduates. Lastly, although the researcher took all the necessary precautions to protect the identities of respondents, it is impossible to make sure that they provided accurate information. However, the researcher believes that no one had an incentive to spend some time on something of no personal benefit.

Implications for Future Research

A controversial question in the phenomenon of WPB is how frequently bullying or negative behaviors must occur in order to constitute bullying. In medicine and epidemiology, the concept of a *dose* is an important one. The same approach has been used with sexual assaults and adverse childhood experiences, but has not been empirically applied in the WPB research (Matthiesen, 2006). Therefore, it will be important for future researchers to continue to develop an empirical definition that will allow for precise and accurate measurement across types of employment, organizations, and countries. The approach used in this study with the NAQ-R that was confirmed with the single self-reported bullying item ought to be used again in future studies to see if has value for estimating prevalence rates.

Corresponding with the literature, it appears that dissatisfaction related to job, supervisor and management are the strongest factors for predicting WPB. It seems that these factors detect the features of WPB and determine its intensity and possibly the lack of organizational efforts to address it. However, due to the nature of this study, it could not be concluded which one *causes* the other, nor which one comes first. Does dissatisfaction with job, supervisor, and management lead an employee to be target of bullying? Or does the existence of WPB lead an employee to become dissatisfied with job, supervisor, and/or management? These questions need to be answered to determine

how each type of satisfaction might produce a summative effect that would cause an employee to consider quitting or changing jobs.

A refinement for this study would be to capture information from the *Job Satisfaction Survey* developed by Spector (1997) along with the NAQ-R scale as causal modeling. Measuring job satisfaction overall with its subscales (salary, promotion, supervision, co-workers, communication, etc.) might help pinpoint factors providing more explanations for WPB than the one-item measure, as in this study. Future studies could draw a causal relationship via the Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling, which is a second-generation technique that offers comprehensive, scalable, and resilient causal-modeling capabilities (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

Additionally, assessing respondents for mental and psychological illness besides measuring job satisfaction and WPB could be very important, because all three of these components interrelate. Several previous studies found association among these factors (e.g., Bilgel, Aytac, & Bayram, 2006; Charilaos et al., 2015; Sidle, 2010; Vartia, 2001; Namie & Namie, 2003; Read & Laschinger, 2013). It would be helpful to know if employees suffering from mental or psychological issues prior to being exposed to WPB would make them more vulnerable to be targets. Also, if employees already suffered from mental or psychological issues, would WPB increase the severity of their symptoms? And could job satisfaction moderate this relationship? Only one noted study suggested that job satisfaction does not moderate the relationship between WPB and mental health (Giorgi, Leon-Perez, & Arenas, 2015). Thus, further investigation is necessary across settings and cultures.

According to Salin (2003), due to practical and ethical considerations, there is lack of information about WPB from the perpetrators' perspective, which makes it difficult to study this group (see also Rayner & Cooper, 2003). Thus, due to the nature of this phenomenon, it is essential to conduct more qualitative studies, such as case studies or focus groups with targets, bystanders, and perpetrators, to have a more in-depth understanding of the bullying mechanism.

Based on this study, since the governmental sectors recorded the highest rate of exposure to WPB, corresponding to the literature (Salin, 2001), the researcher recommends that a study be conducted drawing a random sample from these sectors to identify any rate differences among them with regard to job positions and job descriptions. This would help reach a large number of expatriate employees, including the employees who do not have access to social media. Also, it is preferable to conduct a mixed methods data collection study, due to the nature of this phenomenon. Employees might be reluctant to share their negative experiences online through social media, as they might be afraid to disclose information, possibly having no trust in an unfamiliar researcher. However, besides collecting the quantitative data, having an interview with employees and gaining their trust might capture more information than just completing a scale. Interviews might reveal information from the targets/victims, bystanders, and perpetrators when they acknowledge by discussion what WPB means—and perhaps even their role in it.

The other thing that the researcher wishes to see is for more researchers to become interested in this phenomenon and start doing research in this field, especially in the Arabian Gulf countries. It would be helpful to see the NAQ-R scale applied in every

country in the Arabian Gulf region. This would provide good comparative data for how WPB has been measured in Kuwait. Comparing with the other countries that share many similarities would help put the Kuwaiti data in perspective. It is also important for other Arabian Gulf countries to begin collecting this type of data to improve employment systems and protect employees.

Implications of the Study

This study is the first of its kind to measure WPB in Kuwait. The prevalence rate was high but similar to what has been found in the US and some European countries, except for those in Scandinavia. Without a doubt, this high rate of WPB has implications in the workplace environment: on employees' wellbeing, employment systems, and the development of Kuwait as a whole going into the future.

This issue calls for concerted efforts to identify the reasons that trigger WPB, how it escalates, how it affects the employees' lives, how it affects the organizational environment, and how it affects productivity. The literature has demonstrated that the effects of WPB go beyond these, and that it could harm the country's economy due to consequences such as absenteeism, turnover, poor retention rates, compensations, sick leave, and lawsuits (Indvik & Johnson, 2012). In most countries, the government often bears the costs of these consequences. An abusive supervisor or management could cost the government of Kuwait hundreds of thousands of Dinars. Perpetrators are costly to retain; they should be either removed or retrained.

Thus, a problem of this magnitude must be addressed at high levels. Social activists, educators, and researchers have to pay more attention to this issue and how it affects the public and hinders development. There should be a synergy from many people

with different backgrounds to draft a law defining WPB and legitimize fighting it through appropriate channels at workplaces. There needs to be trained and knowledgeable staff to investigate WPB. These staff should be given the power and authority to look at WPB cases neutrally, so as to produce recommendations without pressure or intimidation to achieve justice. This law has to come with policies that manage this procedure from start to finish while protecting employees' privacy and confidentiality. Passing such a law might save the country from expensive consequences. Implementing a law against WPB should emphasize that the purpose of the law is not to punish perpetrators, but to improve the functioning of employees in workplaces across Kuwait.

There is also a lack of non-profit agencies in Kuwait at all levels. So, besides lobbying to pass a law to eliminate WPB, there should also be lobbying to establish a non-profit agency to provide rehabilitative counseling and resources for victims of bullying, sexual harassment, domestic violence, intimate partner violence, and so forth. These problems might be different in their nature and mechanisms, but the commonality among them is that they result in similar health, social, and psychological consequences. Such consequences create victims who share a fear of their perpetrators, even afraid to recover from their abuse.

In terms of education, there is a large need for social work educators to pay more attention to the phenomenon of WPB. Educators have to teach social work students about this phenomenon: how it develops, and what has been discovered about it. Teachers should also do more research and participate in public and scientific forums to increase public awareness. Social work students have to be trained and equipped with all the necessary knowledge and skills to face this issue and help victims of WPB. It should be a

new counseling and practicum field, and in the near future there could be a special elective or class focusing on bullying across ages, sexes, settings, and cultures. The psychological effects from which victims of WPB suffer are not less severe than what victims of sexual harassment experience (Namie & Namie, 2003). Thus, it needs as much attention as the other problems that social workers usually work with.

The Kuwaiti government should start developing a strategic, long-term plan to address this issue. The plan should include educational workshops for employees at their workplaces. This would increase the sense of being responsible about their behaviors, allowing them to be alert to how they or others have been treated. The workshops should educate employees about the signs of WPB and the risk factors that lead to bullying. The workshops also should teach employees how to deal with such an issue appropriately and the consequences of ignoring it. The education could provide people a shield against WPB and teach them good conflict management skills that decrease the odds of the conflict escalating (Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2008).

In addition, the government should broadcast an educational commercial through social media, TV, and public places to increase the public awareness about this issue. When awareness increases, it decreases the likelihood for some to treat others with incivility and harmful actions.

APPENDIX A
NEGATIVE ACTS QUESTIONNAIRE-REVISED (NAQ-R)

The following behaviors are often seen as examples of negative behavior in the workplace. Over the last six months, how often have you been subjected to the following negative acts at work?

Please circle the number that best corresponds with your experience over the last six months:

	1	2	3	4	5
	Never	Now and then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
1) Someone withholding information which affects your performance.	1	2	3	4	5
2) Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Being ordered to do work below your level of competence.	1	2	3	4	5
4) Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
5) Spreading of gossip and rumours about you.	1	2	3	4	5
6) Being ignored or excluded (being 'sent to Coventry').	1	2	3	4	5
7) Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e., habits and background), your attitudes or your private life.	1	2	3	4	5
8) Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage).	1	2	3	4	5
9) Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way.	1	2	3	4	5
10) Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job.	1	2	3	4	5
11) Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
12) Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach.	1	2	3	4	5
13) Persistent criticism of your work and effort.	1	2	3	4	5
14) Having your opinions and views ignored.	1	2	3	4	5
15) Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with.	1	2	3	4	5
16) Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
17) Having allegations made against you.	1	2	3	4	5
18) Excessive monitoring of your work.	1	2	3	4	5
19) Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g., sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses).	1	2	3	4	5
20) Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm.	1	2	3	4	5
21) Being exposed to an unmanageable workload.	1	2	3	4	5

22) Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse. 1 2 3 4 5

23. *Have you been bullied at work? We define bullying as a situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where the target of bullying has difficulty in defending him or herself against these actions. We will not refer to a one-off incident as bullying.*

Using the above definition, please state whether you have been bullied at work over the last six months?

- No (continue to demographic)
- Yes, but only rarely
- Yes, now and then
- Yes, several times per week
- Yes, almost daily

24. If your answer to the previous question was «Yes», please tick the appropriate box(es) below to state who you were bullied by:

- My immediate superior
- Other superiors/managers in the organisation
- Colleagues
- Subordinates
- Customers/patients/students, etc.
- Others

25. Please state the sex of your perpetrator/s (you may choose more than sex):

- Male perpetrator
- Female perpetrator

26. Please state the number of your perpetrator/s:

- Male perpetrator: 1 2 3 or more
Female perpetrator: 1 2 3 or more

For the following questions, please provide a profile information about the main or worst perpetrator:

27. Please state the nationality of your main perpetrator:

Male perpetrator:

- Kuwaiti Unidentified citizenship (Bedoon) Middle East & Egypt,
Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, & Libya Africa Asia Other

Female perpetrator:

- Kuwaiti Unidentified citizenship (Bedoon) Middle East & Egypt,
Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, & Libya Africa Asia Other

28. Does your main perpetrator have the same or more or less education than you?

Male perpetrator:

Same More Less Don't know

Female perpetrator:

Same More Less Don't know

29. Please state approximately the age of your main perpetrator/s:

Male perpetrator:

18-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60 and more Don't know

Female perpetrator:

18-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60 and more Don't know

30. Approximately, how many people does the main person who has bullied you supervise?

1 to 9 10 to 29 30 to 99 100 and more Don't know

Not applicable

The following questions are related to some work-related information about yourself:

31. In the last 6 months, how many days approximately have you been off work with illness due to being bullied?

No days off 1-6 days 7-13 days 14-20 days 21 days and more

32. In the last 6 months, have you considered quitting or transferring from your present job due to being bullied?

Never Rarely Sometimes Often

33. In the last 6 months, has your productivity been lower than expected due to being bullied?

Never Very rarely Sometimes Most of the time

NAQ-R – Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised
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Very satisfied Satisfied Undecided Dissatisfied Very dissatisfied Not applicable

For the following question, from your perspective please choose the most convenience answer from the five categories:

12. Would it be valuable to have a counselor office (social worker/psychologist) where you are employed to address any work-related problem such as workplace bullying?

Strongly agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly disagree

Not applicable

APPENDIX C
COVER LETTER
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY
WORKPLACE BULLYING IN KUWAIT

Dear employees,

You are being invited to take part in a research study examining workplace bullying in Kuwait. The research aims to investigate how often this type of bullying occurs in Kuwait and what form it takes. The study invites all employees in Kuwait who are 18 years old and above regardless of their job sectors, job positions, ethnicities/nationality, legal status, work status (part/full time) and sex. The study is being conducted by Hamad Alaslawi, an international doctoral student at the University of Kentucky, College of Social Work. Mr. Alaslawi is being guided in this research by his faculty advisor, Dr. David Royse.

The researcher is distributing the questionnaire online through social media, and invites you to participate and also to forward the questionnaire link to your friends and family members. It would be beneficial to the study, and possibly to all employees, to better understand this problem. If you agreed to participate, your responses will be entirely anonymous and go directly into the researcher's personal Qualtrics account. Qualtrics is a secure survey software that provides researchers with private personal accounts created through the University of Kentucky website. This software allows researchers to build an online survey, distribute it, and receive completed surveys in a confidential manner. Only the researcher has access to the data submitted to this protected account. It will not be possible to know who has responded.

Please kindly answer the following online questionnaire, if possible, within the next seven days. Your response to all of the questions will be greatly appreciated. We recommend that you complete and submit the entire questionnaire at one time in order to avoid potentially losing your answers once you exit the questionnaire. The questionnaire will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. You will not receive any rewards or payment for taking part in the study. Your participation in the study is anonymous. That means that no one, not even the researcher, will know what information you supplied.

Although we have tried to minimize this, some questions may make you upset or feel uncomfortable and you may choose not to answer them. If some questions do upset you, we can tell you about some people who may be able to help you with these feelings. If you need to seek social and/or psychological consultation, you may contact the "Family Center for Social & Psychological Consultation" at Kuwait University, under the supervision of Dr. Amthal Al-Huwailah. The Center's contact information is: Tel: +965-24984909 Email: alhuwailah.77@ku.edu.kw

If you have any questions about your rights as a volunteer in this research, contact the staff in the Office of Research Integrity at the University of Kentucky (USA) at <http://www.research.uky.edu/ori/staff.htm>.

Please be aware, while we make every effort to safeguard your data once received on our servers, given the nature of online surveys, as with anything involving the Internet, we can never guarantee the confidentiality of the data while still en route to us.

Sincerely,
Hamad Alaslwi
h_alslawi@uky.edu
Doctoral Student

Dr. David Royse
droyse@uky.edu
College of Social Work
Faculty Advisor

APPENDIX D
TRANSLATED NAQ-R - ARABIC VERSION

CANTRANSLATE



كان ترانسليت

Appendix D
Translated NAQ-R - Arabic version
استبيان التصرفات السلبية – نسخة مراجعة

غالبا ما نشاهد السلوكيات التالية كأمثلة على السلوك السلبى في مكان العمل. في غضون الستة أشهر الماضية، كم عدد المرات التي تعرضت فيها للتصرفات السلبية التالية أثناء العمل؟
يرجى اختيار الرقم الذي يتوافق مع تجربتك الشخصية على مدى الستة أشهر الماضية:

٥ يومية	٤ اسبوعيا	٣ شهريا	٢ بين الحين والآخر	١ أبدا	
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١) شخص ما قام بحجب أو إخفاء المعلومات التي تؤثر على أدائك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٢) تتعرض للإذلال أو للسخرية فيما يتعلق بعملك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٣) يتم أمرك بالقيام بعمل أقل من مستوى كفاءتك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٤) يتم إزالة أو استبدال مسؤولياتك الرئيسية بمهام تافهة أو غير مريحة.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٥) يتم نشر "القبيل والقال" والشائعات عنك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٦) يتم تجاهلك أو استبعادك (جرى "إرسالك إلى المنفى").
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٧) يصدر تصريحات مهينة أو مسيئة عن شخصك (أي تتعلق بالعادات والخلفية الثقافية)، أو سلوكياتك أو حياتك الخاصة.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٨) يتم الصراخ عليك أو كنت ضحية لغضب عفوي (أو نوبة انفعال).
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(٩) تتعرض لسلوك التخويف أو التهيب مثل الإشارة بالإصبع، التعدي على المساحة الشخصية، والدفع، والمنع/ إعاقة الطريق.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٠) يتم التلميح أو الإشارة لك من آخرين بأنه يجب ان تترك عملك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١١) يتم تكرار تذكرك بأخطائك أو أغلاطك المتعلقة بالعمل.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٢) يتم تجاهلك أو تواجه رد فعل عدائي عندما تحاول التقرب.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٣) يتم نقدك أو انتقادك باستمرار فيما يتعلق بعملك وجهودك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٤) يتم تجاهل آرائك ووجهات نظرك.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٥) تتعرض للذكاك العملية (وهي مزحة أو خدعة ثقيلة تظهرك بالحماقة لإضحاك الآخرين) من قبل أشخاص لا تتأقلم معهم.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٦) يتم إعطائك مهام ذات أهداف أو مواعيد تسليم غير معقولة أو مستحيلة.
٥	٤	٣	٢	١	(١٧) يتم توجيه الادعاءات أو الاتهامات ضدك.

Signature Redacted



٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١	(١٨) يتم مراقبة أو رصد عمالك بإفراط (بشكل زائد عن الحد).
٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١	(١٩) يتم الضغط عليك بعدم المطالبة بشيء يحق لك الحصول عليه (مثل الإجازة المرضية، أو عطلة مستحقة، أو نفقات السفر).
٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١	(٢٠) يتم جعلك موضوع لعملية إغاطة وسخرية مفرطة (بشكل زائد عن الحد).
٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١	(٢١) تتعرض لعبئ عمل (كثرة عمل) لا يمكن ادارته أو التحكم به.
٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١	(٢٢) يتم تهديدك بالعنف أو الإيذاء الجسدي أو الاعتداء الفعلي.

(٢٣) هل تعرضت للتمييز (البلطجة/الاستقواء/التخويف) أثناء العمل؟ نحن نعرف التمييز على أنه الموقف الذي فيه شخص أو عدة أشخاص يرون أنفسهم أو يدركون على أنهم يتعرضون لمعاملة سلبية باستمرار وعلى مدى فترة من الزمن من قبل شخص أو عدة أشخاص، وبهذا الموقف يجد فيه الشخص المستهدف من التمييز (الضحية) صعوبة في الدفاع عن نفسه أو نفسها ضد هذه التصرفات. ولن نشير إلى حادثة حصلت لمرة واحدة على أنها حالة تمييز.

باستخدام التعريف المذكور أعلاه، يرجى بيان أو ذكر ما إذا كنت قد تعرضت للتمييز في العمل خلال الستة أشهر الماضية؟
() لا، (انتقل إلى الجزء الخاص بالمعلومات الديموغرافية/الأولية)
() نعم، ولكن نادراً
() نعم، بين الحين والآخر
() نعم، عدة مرات في الأسبوع
() نعم، تقريبا يوميا

(٢٤) إذا كانت اجابتك على السؤال السابق «نعم»، يرجى وضع علامة في الخانة أو الخانات المناسبة أدناه لبيان أو ذكر من هم الذين تعرضت للتمييز من قبلهم (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من اجابة):

- () رئيسي المباشر
() الرؤساء الآخرين / المدراء في العمل
() زملاء العمل
() المرؤوسين (من هم أقل منك بالمنصب)
() العملاء / المرضى / الطلاب، وما إلى ذلك
() أشخاص آخرين

(٢٥) يرجى ذكر جنس الجناة أو المعتدين مرتكبي تلك التصرفات بحقك (يمكنك اختيار أكثر من جنس):
() الجناة الذكور
() الجناة الإناث

(٢٦) يرجى ذكر عدد الجناة أو المعتدين مرتكبي تلك التصرفات بحقك:
الجناة الذكور: () ١ () ٢ () ٣ أو أكثر
الجناة الإناث: () ١ () ٢ () ٣ أو أكثر

- في الأسئلة التالية، يرجى الادلاء بالبيانات الأولية التي تخص الجاني/المعتدي الرئيسي أو الأسوأ:

(٢٧) يرجى ذكر جنسية الجاني/المعتدي الرئيسي مرتكب تلك التصرفات ضدك:
١. الجاني الذكر:

- () كويتي () من غير محدد الجنسية (بدون) () الشرق الأوسط و مصر، المغرب، الجزائر، تونس، وليبيا
() آسيا () أفريقيا () أخرى

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الجاني الانثى:

() كويتي () من غير محددى الجنسية (بدون) () الشرق الأوسط و مصر، المغرب، الجزائر، تونس، وليبيا
() آسيا () أفريقيا () أخرى

٢٨ هل المستوى التعليمي للجاني/المعتدي الرئيسي مشابه أو أكثر أو أقل من مستواك التعليمي:

الجاني الذكر:

() مشابه () أكثر () أقل () لا أدري

الجاني الانثى:

() مشابه () أكثر () أقل () لا أدري

٢٩ يرجى ذكر العمر التقريبي للجاني/المعتدي الرئيسي مرتكب تلك التصرفات ضدك:

الجاني الذكر: () ٢٩-١٨ () ٣٩-٣٠ () ٤٩-٤٠ () ٥٩-٥٠ () ٦٠ وأكثر () لا أدري
الجاني الانثى: () ٢٩-١٨ () ٣٩-٣٠ () ٤٩-٤٠ () ٥٩-٥٠ () ٦٠ وأكثر () لا أدري

٣٠ تقريباً، كم عدد الموظفين الذين يشرف عليهم الجاني/المعتدي الرئيسي مرتكب تلك التصرفات ضدك:

() ٩-١ () ٢٩-١٠ () ٣٠-٩٩ () ١٠٠ وأكثر () لا أدري () لا ينطبق

- الأسئلة التالية تتعلق في بعض معلومات العمل الخاصة بك:

٣١ خلال السنة أشهر الماضية، كم يوماً تقريباً توقفت عن العمل لعرض صحي أو مرض بسبب تعرضك للتمتر؟
() ولا يوم () ٦-١ أيام () ٧-١٣ يوم () ١٤-٢٠ يوم () ٢١ يوم وأكثر

٣٢ خلال السنة أشهر الماضية، هل فكرت في الاستقالة أو الانتقال من وظيفتك الحالية بسبب تعرضك للتمتر؟
() أبداً () نادراً () بعض الأحيان () كثيراً

٣٣ خلال السنة أشهر الماضية، هل كانت إنتاجيتك في العمل أقل مما هو متوقع منك بسبب تعرضك للتمتر؟
() أبداً () نادراً جداً () بعض الأوقات () أغلب الأوقات

(NAQ-R) استبيان التصرفات السلبية – نسخة مراجعة

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APPENDIX E
TRANSLATED DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE- ARABIC VERSION



Appendix E
Translated Demographic Questionnaire- Arabic version
الاستبيان الديموغرافي

١. ما هو جنسك؟
() ذكر () انثى
٢. ما هو عمرك؟
() أقل من ١٨ () ١٨-٢٩ () ٣٠-٣٩ () ٤٠-٤٩ () ٥٠-٥٩ () ٦٠ وأكثر
٣. ما هي جنسيتك؟
() كويتي () من غير محددتي الجنسية (بدون) () الشرق الأوسط و مصر، المغرب، الجزائر، تونس، وليبيا () آسيا () أفريقيا () أخرى
٤. ما هي حالتك الاجتماعية؟
() أعزب/عزباء () متزوج/متزوجة () مطلق/مطلقة () أرمل/أرملة
٥. ما هو دخلك (معاشك) الشهري بالعملة الكويتية (دك)؟
() ٤٩٩-٥٠٠ () ٥٠٠-٧٩٩ () ٨٠٠-١٠٩٩ () ١١٠٠-١٣٩٩ () ١٤٠٠-١٦٩٩ () ١٧٠٠-١٩٩٩ () ٢٠٠٠-٢٣٩٩ () ٢٤٠٠ وأكثر
٦. ما هي أعلى درجة علمية حصلت عليها؟
() أقل من الشهادة الثانوية () الشهادة الثانوية (أو ما يعادلها) () دبلوم (أو سنتين دراسيتين ما بعد الثانوية) () شهادة جامعية (بكالوريوس) () شهادة عليا / درجة مهنية (ماجستير/دكتوراه/طبيب)
٧. ما هو قطاع العمل الذي تعمل به؟
() القطاع الحكومي () القطاع الخاص () أعمال حرة () لا ينطبق (متقاعد خلال الستة أشهر الماضية أو لا تعمل حالياً)
٨. أين يقع منصبك الحالي في العمل ضمن الفئات التالية:
() المستوى الأعلى (المهنيون، كبار المدراء، أصحاب الشركات)
() المستوى المتوسط (مدراء الموظفين)
() المستوى الأدنى (الموظفين العاديين)
() لا ينطبق
- في الأسئلة الثلاث التالية، يرجى اختيار الرقم المناسب بحيث يعتبر الرقم ١ هو الأقل رضا ويكون الرقم ١٠ الأكثر رضا:
٩. هل أنت راضٍ عن عملك؟
() راضٍ جداً () راضٍ () محايد () غير راضٍ () غير راضٍ جداً () لا ينطبق
١٠. هل أنت راضٍ عن الإدارة في عملك؟
() راضٍ جداً () راضٍ () محايد () غير راضٍ () غير راضٍ جداً () لا ينطبق
١١. هل أنت راضٍ عن مسؤولك المباشر؟
() راضٍ جداً () راضٍ () محايد () غير راضٍ () غير راضٍ جداً () لا ينطبق



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كان ترانسليت

في السؤال التالي، يرجى اختيار الإجابة المناسبة حسب وجهة نظرك من بين الفئات الخمسة التالية:

١٢. هل من المفيد وجود مكتب استشاري (أخصائي اجتماعي أو نفسي) في مكان عملك لحل المشاكل المتعلقة بالعمل مثل مشكلة التمر الوظيفي؟
() أوافق بشدة () أوافق () محايد () لا أوافق () لا أوافق بشدة () لا ينطبق



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APPENDIX F
TRANSLATED COVER LETTER- ARABIC VERSION

CANTRANSLATE



كان ترانسليت

Appendix F
Translated Cover letter- Arabic version
الموافقة على المشاركة في الدراسة البحثية
التمتع الوظيفي في الكويت

أعزائي الموظفين،

أنتم مدعوون للمشاركة في الدراسة البحثية التي تتناول مشكلة التمتع الوظيفي في الكويت. تهدف هذه الدراسة الى التحقق في حجم تواجد هذه المشكلة في الكويت وماهي أشكالها المختلفة. وهذه الدراسة تستهدف جميع الموظفين في الكويت ممن يبلغون من العمر ١٨ عاما وما فوق، بغض النظر عن اختلاف قطاعات العمل، والمناصب الوظيفية، والأعراق/الجنسيات، الحالة القانونية، الحالة الوظيفية (نصف دوام/دوام كامل) والجنس. يجري الباحث حمد العسلاوي هذه الدراسة، وهو طالب دكتوراه في جامعة كنتكي، كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية، تحت اشراف البروفيسور د. ديفيد رويز.

يقوم الباحث بنشر الاستبيان عبر الأنترنت على وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي ويطلب منكم لطفا المشاركة في الإجابة على الاستبيان والمشاركة ايضا في نشر الرابط بين أفراد الأسرة والأصدقاء. كما ان كثرة المشاركات ونشر الرابط على أوسع نطاق من شأنه يعود بالنفع للدراسة ولجميع العاملين في الكويت لفهم هذه المشكلة بشكل أفضل. ولذا، إذا وافقت على المشاركة، يرجى العلم بأن إجاباتك ستكون مجهولة الهوية تماما، وترسل مباشرة إلى حساب الباحث العلمي في برنامج يسمى Qualtrics، وهو برنامج آمن يوفر للباحثين حسابات شخصية يتم انشائها عبر موقع الجامعة. ويتيح هذا البرنامج للباحثين وضع الاستبيانات ونشرها وتلقي الإجابات بطريقة تتسم بالسرية التامة. مع العلم بأن الباحث وحده هو من يمكنه الوصول الى البيانات المرسله الى هذا الحساب الآمن. ولا يمكن بأي طريقة كانت معرفة هوية المشاركين.

يرجى التكرم بالمشاركة في الإجابة على الاستبيان خلال السبعة أيام المقبلة إن أمكن. إجاباتكم على جميع الأسئلة الواردة بالاستبيان محل تقدير واحترام كبيرين.

نوصي بتعبئة الاستبيان وإرساله في نفس الوقت من أجل تجنب احتمالية فقدان الاجابات عند الخروج من الاستبيان عن طريق الخطأ. سيستغرق الاستبيان ما يقرب من ١٠-١٥ دقيقة لتعبئته.

وسوف تكون مشاركتك في الدراسة مجهولة. وهذا يعني أنه لن يعلم أي شخص ولا حتى أعضاء فريق البحث بمصدر المعلومات التي أدليت.

بعض الأسئلة قد تشعرك بالضيق أو عدم الراحة، على الرغم من أننا عملنا جاهدين بتقليل هذا الأثر. لكن في حال أنك شعرت بالضيق من بعض الأسئلة، فيمكننا أن ندلك على أشخاص تساعدك في التغلب على هذا الشعور. لذلك، إن كنت في حاجة الى الاستشارة الاجتماعية و/أو النفسية، فيمكنك التواصل مع "مركز الأسرة للاستشارات النفسية والاجتماعية" في جامعة الكويت، تحت اشراف الدكتورة أمثال الحويله. بيانات التواصل للمركز هي كالتالي: هاتف: ٩٦٥-٢٤٩٨٤٩٠٩ - البريد الإلكتروني: alhuwailah.77@ku.edu.kw

إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة حول حقوقك كمتطوع في هذا البحث، أرجو التواصل مع موظفين مكتب النزاهة البحثية في جامعة كنتكي (الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية) على <http://www.research.uky.edu/ori/staff.htm>

يرجى العلم، في حين أننا نبذل قصارى جهدنا لتأمين البيانات الخاصة بك، لكن نظراً لطبيعة الدراسات الاستقصائية على الإنترنت، كما هو الحال مع أي شيء ينطوي على الإنترنت، فنحن لا يمكننا أبداً ضمان سرية البيانات في حين أنها لا تزال في طريقها إلينا.



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كان ترانسليت

مع جزيل الشكر والتقدير والاحترام،
بإخلاص،

حمد العسلاوي

h_alaslawi@uky.edu

طالب دكتوراه

كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية

د. ديفيد رويز

droyse@uky.edu

مرشد أكاديمي

كلية الخدمة الاجتماعية



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APPENDIX G
NEGATIVE ACTS QUESTIONNAIRE-REVISED (NAQ-R)
BACK-TRANSLATION VERSION FROM ARABIC TO ENGLISH

CANTRANSLATE



كان ترانسليت

Appendix G
Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)
Back-translation version from Arabic to English

We mostly see the following behaviors as examples of negative behaviors at workplace. Within the last six months, how often you have been exposed to the following negative behaviors at work?

Please choose the appropriate number that applies to your personal experience within the last six months:

	1 Never	2 Occasionally	3 Monthly	4 Weekly	5 Daily
1) Someone concealed or hidden information that could affect your performance.	1	2	3	4	5
2) Being exposed to humiliation and mockery about things related to your work.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Being instructed to perform some work that is below your proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5
4) Your main duties are being removed or replaced with other silly or uncomfortable ones.	1	2	3	4	5
5) Spreading gossips and rumors about you.	1	2	3	4	5
6) Being ignored or excluded (sent to exile).	1	2	3	4	5
7) Issuing some humiliating remarks that offend you (i.e. related to your habits and cultural background), behaviors or your private life.	1	2	3	4	5
8) Being shouted at or being a victim of spontaneous anger (or outrage).	1	2	3	4	5
9) Being exposed to intimidating behavior or terrorization such as finger-pointing, interference to the private space, pushing, preventing/blocking the way.	1	2	3	4	5
10) Others persons give you a hint or gesture that you should quit your job.	1	2	3	4	5
11) Keep reminding you of your mistakes and errors related to your work.	1	2	3	4	5
12) Being ignored or exposed to an aggressive reaction when you trying to approach.	1	2	3	4	5
13) Being criticized frequently about your work and efforts.	1	2	3	4	5
14) Your opinions and point of views are being ignored.	1	2	3	4	5
15) Being exposed to practical jokes (which are silly jocks or pranks meant to show you as a foolish person to entertain others) by others that you don't get along with.	1	2	3	4	5
16) Giving you tasks with unrealistic or impossible targets or due dates.	1	2	3	4	5
17) Direct some accusation and allegation against you.	1	2	3	4	5

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18) Watching or monitoring your work excessively (over-limit).	1	2	3	4	5
19) Being subject to pressure not to claim your entitlements (such as sick leave, or holiday, or travel expenses).	1	2	3	4	5
20) Being subject to teasing and mockery excessively (over-limit).	1	2	3	4	5
21) Being exposed to overload of work (much of work) that cannot be managed or controlled.	1	2	3	4	5
22) Being threatened with violence or physical abuse or actual assault.	1	2	3	4	5

23. Have you been exposed to bullying (hounding, ganging up, terrifying) during work? *We define bullying as a situation in which a person or group of persons perceive themselves or realized that they are being exposed to negative treatment frequently and for a period of time by a person or group of people. In such situation, the target of bullying (the victim) finds difficulty to defend himself or herself against these actions. We will not point out one incident that happened just once a time as a bullying case.*

By adopting above definition, please state whether you have been exposed to bullying at work within the last six months?

- () No (continue to demographic)
 () Yes, but rarely
 () Yes, occasionally
 () Yes, several times per week
 () Yes, almost daily

24. If your answer to the previous question is "Yes", please choose the appropriate box(es) from the categories below to state whom you were bullied by (you may choose more than one answer):

- () My direct manager/supervisor
 () Other managers/superiors at the work
 () Colleagues
 () Subordinates (who are below your position)
 () Customers/patients/students, etc.
 () Others

25. Please state the sex of the perpetrator/s who have done these negative actions against you (you may choose more than one sex):

- () Male perpetrator
 () Female perpetrator

26. Please state the number of your perpetrator/s:

- Male perpetrator: () 1 () 2 () 3 or more
 Female perpetrator: () 1 () 2 () 3 or more

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In the following questions, please provide the initial information that related to the main or worst perpetrator:

27. Please state the nationality of the main perpetrator who committed these actions against you:

Male perpetrator:

Kuwaiti Unidentified citizenship (Bedoon) Middle East & Egypt, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, & Libya Africa Asia Other

Female perpetrator:

Kuwaiti Unidentified citizenship (Bedoon) Middle East & Egypt, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, & Libya Africa Asia Other

28. Does your main perpetrator have the same or more or less education than you?

Male perpetrator:

Same More Less Don't know

Female perpetrator:

Same More Less Don't know

29. Please state the approximate age of the main perpetrator/s who committed these actions against you:

Male perpetrator:

18-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60 and more Don't know

Female perpetrator:

18-29 30-39 40-49 50-59 60 and more Don't know

30. Approximately, how many employees are supervised by the person who has bullied you?

1 to 9 10 to 29 30 to 99 100 and more Don't know Not applicable

The following questions related to some information about your work:

31. Within the last six months, how many days approximately you have stopped working for health condition or illness because of being bullied?

No days off 1-6 days 7-13 days 14-20 days 21 days and more

32. Within the last six months, have you thought about quitting or transferring from your current job because of being bullied?

Never Rarely Sometimes Often

33. Within the last six months, has your work productivity been lower than what was expected from you because of being bullied?

Never Very rarely Sometimes Most of the time

NAQ-R – Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised
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APPENDIX H
PERMISSION TO USE THE NEGATIVE ACTS QUESTIONNAIRE-REVISED

Bergen, Norway, 20.04.2017

Permission to use the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised

To Whom It May Concern,

I hereby confirm that Hamad Alaslawi has been granted permission to use the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised in his PhD project.

The conditions for this permission are described in the NAQ-R request letter completed by Mr. Alaslawi (see attachment below).

Please contact me at oystein.hoprekstad@uib.no should you have any questions regarding this matter.

Best regards

Signature Redacted

Oystein Hoprekstad,
On behalf of
Professor Staale Einarsen
Bergen Bullying Research Group

To Whom It May Concern,

If you are interested in using the Negative Acts Questionnaire in your research you are welcome to use this scale in your research as long as you agree with the following terms:

1. That you give us a short description of your research project, and some information about yourself (workplace/institution, education/title). Please provide the following information;

Dissertation Title/working title: Workplace Bullying in Kuwait

Purpose: The purpose of this research is to measure the prevalence of workplace bullying (WPB) in Kuwait, its association with some demographic variables, and assessment need for social work services at the workplaces to address this issue.

Personal information: Hamad Alaslawi, international doctoral student at the College of Social Work.

University Information: University of Kentucky

Supervisor information and contact details:

Dr. David Royse, a professor at the College of Social Work, University of Kentucky
Office address: 625 Patterson Office Tower, Lexington, KY. 40506-0027
e-mail: droyse@uky.edu
Phone #: +1(859)257-6659

2. That you provide us with the NAQ data (only the NAQ data, not any other data you collect) after you have finished your study, including demographic data and response rate. These data must compatible with SPSS.

Please state; I acknowledge and promise to provide you with the NAQ-R data including the demographic data and response rate once I finished from the study. The data will be compatible with SPSS.

3. That the use of the NAQ is for research purposes only (non- profit).

The use of the NAQ-R is only for research purposes to fulfill the requirements of the Ph.D. degree.

4. That each permission is for one project only.

This request is to seek a permission for one project only.

5. That you provide us with any translation of the questionnaire you may do, and that such translation must be done in a professional sound manner with back translation.

I promise to provide you the translated version of NAQ-R in an Arabic language and the back-translated version (from Arabic to English). The translation and back-translation were done by an independent professional translator.

APPENDIX I

OFFICE OF RESEARCH INTEGRITY IRB APPROVAL



EXEMPTION CERTIFICATION

MEMO: Hamad Alaslawi,
Social Work
3600 Winthrop Dr.
Apt. 6202
Lexington, KY 40514
PI phone #: (314)757-8271

FROM: Institutional Review Board
c/o Office of Research Integrity

SUBJECT: Exemption Certification for Protocol No. 17-0396-X4B

DATE: June 1, 2017

On May 24, 2017, it was determined that your project entitled, *Workplace Bullying in Kuwait*, meets federal criteria to qualify as an exempt study.

Because the study has been certified as exempt, you will not be required to complete continuation or final review reports. However, it is your responsibility to notify the IRB prior to making any changes to the study. Please note that changes made to an exempt protocol may disqualify it from exempt status and may require an expedited or full review.

The Office of Research Integrity will hold your exemption application for six years. Before the end of the sixth year, you will be notified that your file will be closed and the application destroyed. If your project is still ongoing, you will need to contact the Office of Research Integrity upon receipt of that letter and follow the instructions for completing a new exemption application. It is, therefore, important that you keep your address current with the Office of Research Integrity.

For information describing investigator responsibilities after obtaining IRB approval, download and read the document "PI Guidance to Responsibilities, Qualifications, Records and Documentation of Human Subjects Research" from the Office of Research Integrity's IRB Survival Handbook web page [<http://www.research.uky.edu/ori/IRB-Survival-Handbook.html#PIresponsibilities>]. Additional information regarding IRB review, federal regulations, and institutional policies may be found through ORI's web site [<http://www.research.uky.edu/ori/>]. If you have questions, need additional information, or would like a paper copy of the above mentioned document, contact the Office of Research Integrity at (859) 257-9428.

see blue.

315 Kinkead Hall | Lexington, KY 40506-0057 | P: 859-257-9428 | F: 859-257-8995 |
www.research.uky.edu/ori/
An Equal Opportunity University

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Honors and Awards

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Publications

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