

**THE ROLE OF CULTURE ON WORKPLACE BULLYING:
THE COMPARISON BETWEEN UK AND SOUTH KOREA**

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Declaration

I, Yoojeong Nadine Seo, hereby declare that, except where acknowledged, that this work is my own and has not been submitted for a higher degree at any other university or institution.

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Abstract

This thesis begins by questioning the applicability of Western concepts and measures of workplace bullying to the Far East culture. Facing such an issue, the thesis aims to address the role of culture on workplace bullying by examining the emic and etic dimensions and developing an indigenous bullying scale. By emic was meant culturally specific dimension while by etic was meant culturally neutral dimension. Three studies were conducted which illustrated the emic and etic dimensions of workplace bullying. The first study was based on a questionnaire survey with 50 Korean and 43 UK employees and showed the extent of cultural differences in the employees' concepts of and attitudes towards workplace bullying. Based upon these results, the qualitative part of the second study developed an indigenous bullying questionnaire (KBAQ: Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire) through a repertory grid with 42 Korean participants. Then, the quantitative part of the study tested employees' agreement of the KBAQ items being examples of bullying using a questionnaire survey with 76 Korean and 75 UK participants. Finally, the third study conducted a questionnaire survey utilising KBAQ and NAQ-R (Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised). 193 Korean and 167 UK employees participated. The study highlighted cultural differences in the descriptive aspects of workplace bullying such as the prevalence rate, bully/perpetrator status, health outputs (e.g., job satisfaction and work-related burnout) and predictors (e.g., leadership style, role conflict, and interpersonal conflict). The results also evidenced the validity and reliability of KBAQ and revealed that KBAQ had a greater applicability for Korean employees and NAQ-R for UK employees. The consistent findings of cultural differences suggest the need for an indigenous approach in examining workplace bullying. This thesis makes a significant contribution to the literature on workplace bullying in the Far East and provides the ground for the advancement of the indigenous approach to workplace bullying research.

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Introduction to the Thesis

Academic and professional interest in bullying at work is growing and advancing. Bullying is a serious conflict within the workplace that disrupts the psychological and physical health of employees as well as affecting organisational efficiency and productivity. Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994) cite work by Leymann that in Sweden each year about “100-300 workers commit suicide” as a result of bullying and harassment at work (p. 382). While Leymann’s claim may be an overstatement, it makes the point that bullying is a potentially very serious issue to consider and examine.

In Europe, bullying research began in Scandinavia before spreading to many other European countries including the UK, Germany and Portugal. Outside Europe, research has also been actively conducted in the US and in Australia. Although the research interest has branched out to other countries, the main focus has been within Western cultures. Away from Western culture, in South Korea in particular, public interest on workplace bullying is also growing and yet, research interest has been almost non-existent. The history and culture of South Korea seem to suggest that the societal atmosphere might be rich in aggression and justification for the aggression, which would provide a fertile ground for aggression or conflict to escalate into more repetitive, persistent forms (e.g., bullying). Facing this possibility, the thesis aims to explore workplace bullying in South Korea and how the phenomenon is seen in South Korea in comparison to the UK.

Structure of Thesis:

Chapter 1: Introduction to workplace bullying. The thesis begins with a comprehensive literature review of workplace bullying research, including the definition, the prevalence, the three approaches taken in the methods of bullying research (i.e. descriptive/epidemiological, individualist, theory/construct-based), and, finally, the impact of workplace bullying. The chapter provides a base to begin the research and raises a number of issues to be examined within a different culture. The point is made that the focus of the literature has been individualist and based upon Western culture,

with little research being conducted in collectivist cultures such as that prevalent in the country focused upon here: South Korea.

Chapter 2: South Korean culture and the history. Chapter 2 describes South Korean history and culture and how they may be related to the issue of bullying. Korean terms equivalent to bullying are introduced and two conflicting hypotheses over the prevalence of bullying are raised based on Korean culture and history. Towards the end of the chapter, the lack of indigenous research methods or tools to investigate bullying in South Korea – and the use of Western-developed tools in such cultures – is discussed. Based on this issue, it is suggested that the applicability of Western concepts and tools in the Far East should be tested.

Chapter 3: Cultural differences in the conceptualisation of bullying: Definition, bullying tactics and tolerance to bullying. Chapter 3 examines the conceptualisation of workplace bullying in and the applicability of bullying items from well-known European bullying questionnaires to the South Korean culture. The study reported in this chapter identifies a lay-person definition of bullying by Korean and UK employees through thematic analysis and examines whether Koreans are as likely as UK samples to consider the behaviours listed in European bullying scales as ‘bullying’ through quantitative analysis. Although bullying questionnaires have been developed in other (non-European) Western countries, it is the European bullying questionnaires – and particularly the Negative Acts Questionnaire – that have been used in the Far East. The applicability and generalisability of European bullying questionnaires is questioned in the chapter. In addition, considering that Koreans have the tendency to justify aggression when there are emotional or pragmatic reasons (see Chapter 2), their tolerance level of negative acts is also examined in comparison to a UK sample. Cultural differences in the conceptualisation of bullying and limitations of using European bullying questionnaires in South Korea are considered.

Chapter 4: South Korean bullying tactics: The first step to the development of an indigenous bullying measure. Chapter 4 aims to develop Korean specific bullying items and the research is conducted in two phases: qualitative

and quantitative. The qualitative, repertory grid technique draws together data on negative acts that Korean employees consider to be bullying. From this, a list of 23 bullying items, namely Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ), is developed. In the quantitative part, the 23 Korean bullying items are assessed to view if they are equally likely to be considered bullying acts by Korean and UK participants.

Chapter 5: Application of Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) and Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R). Chapter 5 examines the application of KBAQ in comparison to the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R). KBAQ is used alongside the NAQ-R and a self-report of bullying in order to examine the prevalence, bully status, predictors (e.g., role conflict, interpersonal conflict, and leadership style) and health outputs (e.g., job satisfaction and work-related burnout). Cultural comparisons between UK and Korean participants are conducted as well as the comparison between the application of KBAQ and NAQ-R. Evidence for the construct validity and reliability of KBAQ is highlighted and the emic dimensions of workplace bullying are illustrated from the prevalence rate, bully status, and the significant predictors of workplace bullying.

Chapter 6: Discussion. The final discussion reviews the development and validation of KBAQ and the cultural similarities and differences seen across the three studies. The conclusion highlights the repeated finding of cultural differences and suggests the need to use an indigenous measure when investigating bullying in other countries. Moreover, since there is no Korean academic definition of bullying currently available, the establishment of the definition is recommended in order to conduct bullying research in Korea. The thesis is the first to attempt an indigenous approach in order to examine bullying in South Korea and provides the ground from which the body of future Korean bullying research can grow.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction to Workplace Bullying

Regardless of the research discipline, scientific research has been predominantly conducted in the Western culture and workplace bullying research is of no exception. However, research findings from the West are not necessarily applicable to the East. The thesis will attempt to address the issue by comparing and contrasting one Western country (i.e. UK) and one Eastern country (i.e. South Korea). Since workplace bullying research in the East is limited, the main body of literature reviewed in this chapter will be from the research in the West.

Systematic workplace bullying research began in Scandinavia including Sweden (e.g., Leymann, 1996), Norway (e.g., Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), and Finland (e.g., Björkqvist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994a; Vartia, 1996), before spreading to other European countries including the UK (e.g., Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997), Ireland (O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith, 1998a, b; Sheehan, Barker, & Rayner, 1999) Germany (e.g., Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b; Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003); Portugal (e.g., Cowie, Jennifer, Neto, Angula, Pereira, & del Barrio et al. 2000), Denmark (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001), and Austria (e.g., Niedl, 1996). Outside Europe, research has been carried out in the US (e.g., Keashly, Hunter, & Harvey, 1997) and in Australia (e.g., Sheehan, 1999; Sheehan et al., 1999). Depending on the part of the world, different terms have been used to refer to bullying and the focus of the bullying research has also been different. In the first part of this chapter, those differences in terms and research tradition will be discussed. Then, combining the culturally-different line of research together, the approaches to workplace bullying and its impact will be discussed.

1. Definition of Bullying

For the purpose of bullying research, different countries have adapted and used different terms to refer to bullying behaviour, such as 'mobbing' in Scandinavian countries, Germany, and Italy (e.g., Leymann, 1990; Leymann, 1996; Leymann &

Gustafsson, 1996; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b), 'bullying' in the UK (e.g., Hoel, Cooper, Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; Vartia, 1996), 'emotional abuse' and 'work mistreatment' in USA, and 'moral harassment' in France and Spain (e.g., Hoel & Beale, 2006, p. 242). In some cases, it is also referred to as 'harassment' (e.g., Björkqvist, Osterman & Hjelt-Back, 1994a) and 'victimisation' (e.g., Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). Although similar, these terms have some differences from one another. Some researchers have, for example, distinguished between them on the basis of the severity, frequency, or the focus of the behaviour in question. Hoel and Beale (2006), for instance, distinguished 'bullying' from 'victimisation' in that, 'bullying' can be understood as an umbrella concept whereas 'victimisation' represents the severest end of a continuum of bullying. Victimisation is also used in the cases in which individuals are singled out (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001).

Distinctions have also been made between bullying and harassment. Jones (2006) stated that harassment is "usually linked to gender, race, prejudice, discrimination" (p. 150) whereas bullying is "usually discrimination on the basis of competence" (p. 150). Indeed, gender and gender-related conflict has not been a central feature of research on bullying (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Another way of distinguishing harassment from bullying is that harassment has physical or sexual aspects while bullying is usually psychological, at least initially (Jones, 2006). According to Vega and Comer (2005), the main legal difference between harassment and bullying concerns specificity; harassment refers to more specific behaviours whereas bullying is more generic. Indeed, Einarsen (1999) used the term 'generic harassment' to refer to bullying. Within the US, workers are legally protected by harassment but not bullying (Vega & Comer, 2005). By Norwegian law, harassment includes one-off incidents whereas bullying is repeated for a reasonable length of time (Matthiesen, 2008).

Hoel and Beale (2006) suggested that the distinction between bullying and mobbing is linked to the focus of research. While UK researchers tended to draw attention to the behaviours of the bully, Scandinavian and German researchers tended to emphasise the experience of victims. Moreover, while bullying is primarily concerned

with aggressive and unwanted behaviour delivered by someone in a superior position towards subordinates, mobbing is more likely to be the work of colleagues (Hoel & Beale, 2006). Therefore, bullying is associated with more direct forms of aggression whereas mobbing is more associated with subtle, indirect behaviour.

On the other hand, the Danish Equal Treatment for Men and Women Act 1977 defines harassment as “When a person methodically and over a long period of time is exposed to unpleasant and/or humiliating actions that are difficult to defend oneself against” (Widerszal-Bazyl, Zolnierczyk-Zreda, & Jain, 2008, p. 43), blurring the line between bullying and harassment that Norwegian law draws. The Finnish Occupational Safety and Health Act even uses the term ‘bullying’ to define violence as that it is “a long-term, recurring bullying, oppression, degradation... designed to make another person feel defenceless” (Widerszal-Bazyl et al., 2008, p. 43). Thus, it seems that, while legislation in certain countries and the research tradition have been distinguishing bullying from other forms of aggression, legislation in other countries has blurred their distinction.

Indeed, while distinctions amongst the terms have been repeatedly reported, they appear to refer to similar phenomenon that is “systematic mistreatment of a subordinate, a colleague or a superior, which, if continued, may cause severe social, psychological and psychosomatic problems in the victim” (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003, p. 3).

1.1. Elements of definitions. Taking ‘bullying’ as the term, researchers have often suggested three elements in its definition: frequency, power imbalance, and the duration.

1.1.1. Frequency or repetitiveness. Although bullying overlaps with aggression to some extent, it remains distinctive in that it is a repetitive activity based on an asymmetrical power relationship (Olweus, 1996). Quine (2003) also includes persistency or repetitiveness as one of the three elements of defining bullying. According to Steensma (2008), greater frequency of bullying is linked with greater negative consequences of bullying. The importance of frequency is further supported

by many researchers who accept that a conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is a single, isolated event (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). While it may not be the nature of the conduct in itself that makes the victim suffer (Leymann, 1990), the frequency of the acts together with the situational factors relating to power differences, or the victim's attributions about the offender's intentions may cause as much anxiety, misery and suffering as does the actual conduct involved (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994).

1.1.2. Power imbalance or power relationship. Power relationships are present in any social group and this power can be abused. Some researchers have pinpointed the power imbalance between bully and victim as essential to defining bullying (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). At a group level, bullying can be seen as a scapegoating process. Within the process, groups may direct their aggression to a least powerful individual who is not accepted by their colleagues. Such colleague rejection eventually leads to victimisation. Power is understood in relative terms, expressed as an imbalance of power between the parties, where the bully perceives a power deficit in the victim (Einarsen et al., 2003). The power imbalance may reflect formal power relationships (Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson, & Wilkes, 2006; Vartia, 1996) or perceptions of powerlessness resulting from the bullying process itself (Leymann, 1996; Vartia, 1996).

1.1.3. Duration. As well as frequency and power imbalance, duration is also included among the elements of bullying. Bullying is a gradually evolving process (Einarsen, 2000). Einarsen (1999) identified four stages of process development and referred to them as aggressive behaviours, bullying, stigmatisation, and severe trauma. During the first stage, subtle aggressive outlets start to be directed against one or more persons in the work group. The behaviours are sometimes difficult to recognise for the targeted victim (Leymann, 1996). The second phase follows more direct negative behaviours, often leaving the victim humiliated, ridiculed, and increasingly isolated (Leymann, 1996). The victim has problems in defending him/herself, which after a while places a social stigma on the victim. This situation affects the mental and

physical health of the victim dramatically. The prejudices against the victim cause the organisation to treat him/her as the problem (Leymann, 1996) and he/she begins to suffer severe trauma. Thus, bullying becomes more and more severe unless resolved. Support for bullying as an escalating process comes from Zapf and Gross (2001) who found that the group of victims bullied the longest tended to report the highest frequency of being bullied.

1.1. Definition by the elements. Combining the above ideas together, the following definition of 'bullying in the workplace' is produced: "... harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks. In order for the label 'bullying' to be applied to a particular activity, interaction, or process, it has to occur repeatedly and regularly and over a period of time" (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003, p. 15). Einarsen et al. (2003) also included power imbalance in the definition by mentioning that bullying is an escalating process in which, even if the initial conflict begins between two parties of the same strength, one party ends up in an inferior position and becomes the victim of systematic negative social acts. This would be particularly so if the targeted party lacks the skills to manage an escalating conflict or if he or she gets into an outsider position and loses the support of other colleagues and supervisors (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

2. Prevalence of Bullying

In order to discuss the prevalence of workplace bullying, the issues over the sample, the measurements, and the criteria used in the definition of bullying should be first considered. Regarding the sample, Nielsen and Einarsen (2007) raised the issue that only a few studies on workplace bullying were based on representative samples and the majority of these utilised convenience samples, which might have led the prevalence rate to be biased. Researchers have also pointed out that different studies used different research design, different measures, and different statistical analyses (Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002; Notelaers, Einarsen, De Witte, & Vermunt, 2006). Prevalence rates based on different methods are not directly comparable. Thus, this leaves a doubt over the rates found in different samples, using

different measures. In addition to the issue of using different measures and samples, there is also the issue that different researchers use different frequency and duration criteria to define bullying and that different research uses different approaches (subjective vs. operational) to identify victims.

2.1. Frequency and duration. In terms of the criteria of defining bullying, Leymann (1996) set reasonably strict criteria for the frequency (weekly) and duration (at least half a year). However, not all researchers agree. Vartia (1996) applied less strict criteria by classifying as victims the respondents who have been subjected often to at least one single form of bullying, and replied yes to a general bullying question based on the definition. At the extreme end of the relaxed criteria lies Lee's (2000, 2002) claim that every incident of negative behaviours within workplace can be bullying and not recognising them is tolerating workplace bullying.

Depending on how strict one enforces the criteria, the reported prevalence of bullying appears to vary. Rates of 3.5% have been reported in Sweden (Leymann, 1996), 8.6% in Norway (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), 10.1% in Finland (Vartia, 1996), and 10.6% in the UK (Hoel et al., 2001). Using the subjective and operational approaches, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) found that, including occasional victimisation, 2-4% were reported to be subjective victims and 8-25% were identified to be operational victims (i.e., weekly exposure to one act for at least 6 months). Unlike Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), Salin (2001) used slightly different criteria for the two approaches. In her study, operational victims were identified as those who have experienced at least one type of acts from the NAQ scale on a weekly basis. Subjective victims were identified as those who considered themselves to have been at least occasionally bullied during the past 12 months. Salin (2001) used the 12 months time frame instead of the usual 6 months (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) in order to account for the seasonal variation following holiday season (her questionnaire was distributed in September). Using the criteria, Salin (2001) identified 8.8% as subjective victims and 24.1% as operational victims. In a review of studies conducted in Europe, Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2003) proposed a prevalence rate of 1 - 4% for frequent incidents of bullying and a prevalence rate of 8 - 10% for less frequent

bullying (i.e. incidents occurring less frequently than weekly). These studies used different criteria to identify bullying and thus, without an agreement over the criteria, it is not clear what is a standard to measure the prevalence of bullying.

While the frequency criterion varies a great deal, the duration criterion is reasonably settled. Researchers usually agree to the duration of 6 months (Einarsen et al., 2003; Leymann, 1996) though, as stated, Salin (2001) used a 12-month time frame to take account of potential seasonal variation. Zapf and Gross (2001) reviewed that the reported average duration of bullying ranges from 15 months to 46 months and a substantial number of all bullying cases last longer than 2 years. Following from this point, a 6-month duration appears to be a reasonable criterion.

2.2. Subjective and operational approaches. As well as over the frequency and the duration, there has also been controversy over the two approaches in classifying victims: subjective and operational. The subjective approach identifies victims by the respondents' self-report in relation to a given definition of bullying. Thus, this method relies on the respondent's own feeling of being victimised. According to Niedl (cited in Hoel, Faragher, & Cooper, 2004), the subjective perception of victims lies at the core of the definition of workplace bullying. In other words, even if workers were exposed to negative behaviours, without their perceiving such behaviours to be bullying, they are not the victims of bullying. In contrast, a more objective, operational approach was proposed by Leymann (1990). This method identifies victims according to the frequency and the duration of exposure to the listed bullying behaviours. Victims may be identified as those people who have been exposed to at least one such behaviour at least once a week over a period of 6 months.

Some researchers used both approaches and compared the prevalence rates (e.g., Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001). For example, in Salin's (2001) study, 8.8% were identified as subjective victims (at least occasionally bullied during the past 12 months) and 24.1% were classified as operational victims (exposed to at least one type of bullying behaviour on a weekly basis). Within their Danish sample, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) identified 2-4% to be subjective victims, and 8-25% to be operational victims. Based on the prevalence

rates found, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) concluded that the operational methods tend to produce higher percentage of victims.

The question over which of the two approaches would be better is open to discussion. With respect to the impact of bullying, the subjective classification is likely to be better, since the subjective feeling of being victimised would be more likely to impact on the physical and psychological health of the individuals (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). On the other hand, for legal purposes or the purpose of reporting being bullied, the victims would gain stronger ground by listing the specific bullying behaviours they have experienced. However, the operational method does not necessarily take the victim's feeling of being victimised into account. Thus, the operationally identified victims may not feel that they are being bullied. Without the feeling of being bullied, employees do not have the reason to report being bullied. Considering the limitations and strengths of both approaches, one may suggest combining them so that the victim groups identified would have both their own feeling of being bullied and the objective evidence. However, combining the two methods also seems to be problematic due to the small overlap in the victim groups identified by the two methods (Hoel et al., 1999; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001; Seo, 2008). The combined method is likely to produce an underestimated percentage of victims since only the overlapping group will be identified as victims.

Notelaers, Einarsen, De Witte, and Vermunt (2006) questioned the validity of the commonly used operational approaches. In many of the operational approaches the respondents were simply divided into two groups: victims and non-victims. While those who satisfied the criteria of operational victim (e.g., weekly exposure to at least one bullying act) were identified as victims, the rest were simply labelled as non-victims. According to Notelaers et al. (2006), such an approach does not take the complexities of bullying into account. Based upon the criticism, Notelaers et al. (2006) suggested a latent class cluster approach in place of the operational approach. A latent class cluster approach produces a statistically testable model of groups and divides the respondents into more than just victim and non-victim groups. The analysis begins with the assumption that there is only one group and, then, continues to divide the groups until

a model is found that statistically fits the data. Using this approach, Notelaers et al. (2006) produced 4 clusters in their study: victim, work-related bullied, sometimes bullied, and not bullied/limited work criticisms/limited negative encounters.

However, even the latent class cluster model is not free from the influence of self-report, as the approach produces a model based on the respondents' own responses. In the same way, the conventional operational approach (Leymann, 1990) relies on the victims' memory and perception of whether or not they have experienced any of the negative behaviours in the organisation. A subjective approach relies even more heavily on the victims' perception. Thus, neither the operational nor the subjective methods are free from self-reporting bias. The question over the reliability of self-report is further highlighted by Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall (2003). Coyne, Craig, and Chong (2004) suggested that, through the use of peer-nomination methods, the problems of self-report may be overcome to some extent. In fact, within school bullying research, peer nomination is commonly used (e.g., Boulton & Smith, 1994; Perry, Kusel, & Perry, 1988; Kim, Koh, & Leventhal, 2005). However, the situation of workplace bullying is different from that of school bullying. For example, in peer nomination of school bullying, pupils identify bullies and/or victims among themselves under the supervision and protection of their teachers. However, in peer nomination of workplace bullying, the respondents are not necessarily protected by the superiors, especially since the superiors can be the bullies. In some cases, people who report bullying may be considered as the problem and are driven out of the workplace. In school settings, removing the victim is not so likely although it can happen in certain cultures (e.g., MBC After News Report, 2007). Therefore, school children would nominate bullies and victims more easily whereas it would not be so easy for employees at the workplace.

In addition, school bullying tends to be more overt than workplace bullying. As workplace bullying is more covert and discrete, respondents may not be aware of who is being bullied and who is bullying. Coyne et al. (2003) used peer-nomination as well as self-reporting to identify victims of workplace bullying and found that self-reported victims were not necessarily perceived to be victims by the colleagues. It is possible

that the finding was due to the tactics of workplace bullying being more subtle and covert, or even occurring in private where only the bully and the victim were present (Einarsen, 1999). Thus, there remains the issue that it is difficult to verify the self-report. Björkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back (1994a) strongly argued against the use of peer nomination as an objective measure since the 'peers' may not take a neutral, fair position in reporting the bullying case, especially so in the case where a supervisor is the bully or is otherwise involved in the bullying. Here, colleagues may be even less likely to be honest in their responses so as not to upset the supervisor's feelings. Moreover, if bullying takes the form of 'mobbing' in which a group bullies a vulnerable individual (Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996b), the group would attempt to hide the bullying situation. In such cases, peer-nomination is not likely to be an appropriate objective measure.

Some researchers have suggested that bullies' intent should be looked into when identifying bullying (e.g., Björkqvist et al., 1994a). Björkqvist et al. (1994a) even went as far as to argue that, without the intent to inflict harm on victims, there would be no bullying. However, by taking the victims' own perceptions into account to define bullying, the issue of bullies' intent becomes problematic. Even if the 'bullies' did not intend to harm others, the 'victims' may perceive the behaviours as bullying. Besides, there is the issue of verifying whether or not the bully intended such harm. Even if the bully did intend to harm the victim, he/she could easily deny such intention. Moreover, before considering a bully's denial of the intention, there is the underlying difficulty of identifying the workplace bullies themselves. Thus, it seems that whichever methods are used to classify victims, there will be some degree of problem associated with them and resolving this issue would require extensive research. Indeed these issues might never be solved!

Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2003) have already introduced the concept of 'frequent' (i.e. weekly occurrence) and 'less frequent' (i.e. less frequent than weekly occurrence) bullying and suggested that 'frequent' bullying was often reported in between 3 and 7 per cent of samples and 'less frequent' bullying in between 8 and 10 per cent. While accepting that current approaches to victim classification have

limitations, currently there is no better agreed method. Moreover, although better than the conventional operational approach, the use of latent class cluster approach (Notelaers et al., 2006) has been limited. Therefore, in this thesis, the two conventional methods (operational and subjective) will be used but with some modification. Adapting Zapf et al. (2003), this study will distinguish 'frequent' and 'less frequent' bullying.

3. Approaches to Workplace Bullying Research

There are three main approaches in bullying research (Quine, 1999): the descriptive/epidemiological approach, the individualist approach, and the theory/construct-based approach. Depending on the approach taken, different aspects of workplace bullying have been documented.

3.1. Descriptive/epidemiological approach. The descriptive/epidemiological approach is usually based on self-report (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994). The aspects of bullying documented by this line of study include the prevalence of workplace bullying, bully status, the types of bullying, gender differences, racial differences, and industry sector differences. Prevalence of bullying has already been discussed above. Therefore, the remaining topics will be discussed beginning from the bully status.

3.1.1. Bully status. In terms of the commonly reported bully status, a degree of cultural difference has been observed between the UK and Scandinavian countries. In the UK, bullying is predominantly done by people in superior organisational positions (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). For example, in the British UNISON (1997) study, 84 per cent of respondents were bullied by their managers while only 16 per cent were bullied by a colleague. Hoel et al. (2001) later found a much higher percentage of co-worker bullying in Britain. Even so, there seems to be a common British perception of bullying predominantly as a process whereby a worker is being bullied by someone in a managerial capacity (Hoel et al., 2001).

In Scandinavian countries, bullying or mobbing is more closely related to bullying by colleagues (Vartia, 1993; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002). This does not mean that

mobbing in Scandinavia is predominantly done by colleagues. However, compared to the findings that bullying in the UK is predominantly done by superiors, the proportion of colleagues who 'bully' in Scandinavia is noticeably greater than the proportion of colleagues among the British samples. Vartia, (1993) and Vartia & Hyyti, (2002) reported that colleagues were marginally more likely to be reported as bullies than supervisors and Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) reported approximately equal number of bullies in supervisors and colleagues.

3.1.2. Types of bullying. Different researchers have divided bullying into different types or use different terms to refer to the types of bullying. Some took a broader classification by dividing bullying into two categories (e.g., overt vs. covert bullying; and dispute vs. predatory bullying) while others identified a greater number of types or factor analysed the bullying behaviours.

3.1.2.1. Overt vs. covert bullying. One of the broader classification methods was dividing bullying into direct (overt) and indirect/relational (covert) bullying. Direct bullying refers to clearly observable bullying behaviours such as physical assaults, verbal abuse, or threats (Ireland & Archer, 1996). In contrast, indirect/relational bullying involves the manipulation of colleague relationships or friendships to inflict harm on others, which includes name-calling, malicious rumour spreading, and social exclusion (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995).

Baron, Neuman and Geddes (1999) classified workplace aggression in three types: expressions of hostility, obstructionism, and overt aggression. Expressions of hostility are primarily verbal or symbolic in nature, and include behaviours such as verbal assaults, negative gestures, and facial expressions. Obstructionism refers to behaviours aimed at preventing co-workers or supervisors from meeting their workplace objectives. Examples include failing to return phone calls, not responding to memos, and withholding resources or information. Finally, overt aggression includes behaviours commonly associated with workplace violence such as homicide, physical assaults, theft, and property damage. Expressions of hostility and obstructionism are under the category of covert aggression. Thus, although Baron et al. (1999) divided

aggression into three categories, they can be collapsed into the covert/overt typology.

It is usually believed that adult bullying often takes a form of covert bullying while childhood bullying is much more likely to involve overt bullying. Indeed, workplace assaults are more likely to be verbal than physical, preceded by aversive treatment and targeted at people directly involved in the negative outcomes. Verbal and passive forms of aggression (e.g., expressions of hostility and obstructionism) were rated as more frequent than physical and active forms of aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Baron et al., 1999; Rutter & Hine, 2005). Only those individuals who had been aggressive in the past but had not been disciplined were likely to engage subsequently in physical bullying (Allen & Lucero, 1998).

Physical bullying can easily be observed by others (Baron & Richardson, 1994) as employees in a given work unit generally have contact with one another on a regular and repetitive basis. The result is that anonymity, which has been shown to increase aggression, is generally absent (Prentice-Dunn & Rogers, 1989). With potential witnesses being present in the workplace, potential aggressors would not commit overt aggression so readily since reporting of the aggression could get them into trouble. Moreover, with the identity of the overt aggressor almost certainly known, retaliation may also be more likely. Thus, for the bully, it would be a greater risk to engage in physical bullying. In contrast, the identity of the aggressors is usually concealed in covert bullying (Baron et al., 1999). This may lead adults to prefer covert forms of harm-doing behaviour, especially in situations where they are not anonymous nor anticipate potential retaliation from the victim, and where there are many potential witnesses to overt forms of aggression (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a). While children are less able to consider the consequences or inhibit their behaviour, adults would be able to calculate the risk and refrain from engaging in physical bullying. Further support for the preference of covert bullying in the workplace comes from Björkqvist et al. (1994a). They found that two variants of covert aggressions, namely, rational-appearing aggression (i.e. questioning the victim's work competence) and social manipulation, were used among university employees more often than direct types of workplace aggression.

3.1.2.2. *Dispute vs. predatory bullying.* As well as categorising in terms of its covertness, bullying can also be labelled as either dispute-related or predatory (Einarsen, 1999), although the two forms are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Predatory bullying refers to cases where the victim has done nothing provocative that may justify the behaviour of the bully. The victim was accidentally in a situation where a predator was demonstrating power or, in other ways, trying to exploit an accidental victim into compliance. In some organisations, harassment is institutionalised as a part of the leadership and managerial practice (Ashforth, 1994). In such a work atmosphere, predatory bullying would be likely. Examples of predatory bullying are aggressive and authoritarian leadership, scapegoating processes, and acting out prejudice (Einarsen, 1998). Predatory bullying is probably caused by a combination of a social climate where hostility and aggressiveness prevail and an organisational culture tolerant to bullying and harassment.

If predatory bullying is targeted at the accidental victims, dispute-related aggression develops out of grievances and involves social control reactions to perceived wrong-doing. According to Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994), a bullying case is typically triggered by a work-related conflict. In highly escalated conflicts both parties may deny the opponent's human value, thus clearing the way for manipulation, retaliation, elimination and destruction. If one of the parties acquires a disadvantaged position in this struggle, he or she may become a victim of bullying (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994b). Hence, dispute-related bullying occurs as a result of a highly escalated interpersonal conflict and may be of three kinds: aggressive behaviours used as a struggle tactic in an interpersonal conflict; malingering as a tactic; and resentment to perceived wrong-doing or unfair treatment by one's opponent (Einarsen, 1998).

3.1.2.3. *Factor analysis of bullying behaviours.* Developing from the simple division of bullying behaviours into two types, researchers began to factorise bullying behaviours into more specific factors. For example, Leymann (1996) categorised five different classes of bullying behaviour. He described them as the manipulation of: the victim's reputation; the victim's possibilities of communicating with colleagues; the

victim's social relationships; the quality of a person's occupational and life situation; and the victim's health.

By factor analysing the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization (LIPT), Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla (1996b) found seven factors among bullying behaviours.

'Organisational measures' consists of behaviours initiated by the supervisor or aspects directly related to the victim's tasks. 'Social isolation' is related to informal social relationship at work. The third factor is related to individual attributes of the victim and the victim's private life. 'Physical violence' includes general physical violence as well as the threat of violence. 'Attacking the victim's attitudes' is related to political, national, and religious attitudes. 'Verbal aggression' is comprised by items related to verbal attacks and the last factor was 'spreading rumours'.

Rayner and Hoel (1997) developed a five-category taxonomy of bullying behaviours: threat to professional status (e.g., open displays of belittling opinions of the victim, public professional humiliation, and accusation of lack of effort); threat to personal standing (e.g., name-calling, insults, teasing, and intimidation); isolation (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, and deliberate withholding of information important to the victims' work); overwork (e.g., undue pressure to produce work, setting impossible deadlines, and constant unnecessary disruptions); and destabilisation (e.g., failure to give credit where it is due, assigning meaningless tasks, repeated reminders of blunders, removal of responsibility, and setting up the victim for failure. This taxonomy provides coverage of the key forms of bullying behaviours found in organisations.

Hoel and Cooper (2000) outlined 29 different types of bullying behaviours, ranging from subtle bullying behaviours to physical, violent behaviours and psychological tactics. Most of the behaviours outlined were included in the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), although the NAQ-R itself included only 22 items. By factor analysing an early version of the NAQ, Einarsen and Raknes (1997) identified five factors, four of which appear to overlap with attacking the private person, social isolation, work-related measures and physical violence. Based on the NAQ-R, Einarsen and Hoel (2001) and

Einarsen, Hoel, and Notelaers (2009) suggested two dimensions: personal bullying and work-related bullying. Notelaers and Einarsen (2008) found three dimensions with a short, 9 item version of the NAQ including work-oriented negative acts, person-oriented negative acts, and negative acts measuring social isolation.

Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) put forward 7 categories of bullying behaviours. The first category is 'calling out' of a victim in public. Calling out can occur when the victim has been discriminated/stigmatised or when they are susceptible to bullying due to past acts of aggression of the bully. The second is using individuals as scapegoats to draw attention to the victims or to reduce attention on the bully for a failure of the group. This can represent a threat to the professional status of the scapegoat and not that of the bully. The third category is harassment of co-workers by someone with more power or a higher position in the organisation, recognising that harassment can be either between-genders or within-gender. Fourth is increasing work pressure and/or workload (e.g., undue pressure, impossible deadlines and so on) to be performed by the victim beyond what the expectations are of others in the organisation. Fifth is isolating targeted individuals, which in many cases may take the form of preventing access to opportunities, withholding of information, or physically or socially isolating the individual. Sixth is destabilization of the workplace through the failure to give credit to the targeted individuals when due, repeated reminders of failures, or setting victims up to fail. The last is physical abuse or harm of the targeted individual/group.

While different factors were introduced by different researchers, the typical categories of workplace bullying were found to be 'organisational measures', 'attacking the victims' tasks and competencies', 'social isolation', 'attacking the private person', 'verbal aggression', and 'spreading rumours' (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Although 'attacking attitudes' and 'physical violence' are found in some studies, they only occur occasionally (Zapf et al., 2003). Physical violence was found to be only 2.4 per cent (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) or reported to occur between 3.6 and 9.1% of the bullying cases (Zapf, 1999). Regardless of the exact prevalence of physical violence

within bullying cases, one thing seems clear, physical violence is not common in workplace bullying.

3.1.3. Gender differences. Gender difference can be investigated in terms of which gender is over represented among bullies or victims, and what kind of bullying tactics are preferred by each gender. In terms of bullies, many studies have reported that men are more likely to be bullies in comparison to women. For example, Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) reported that 49 per cent of the victims were bullied by men only, 30 per cent by women only, and that in 21 per cent of all cases the bullies were both men and women. The rates in the study by Mackensen von Astfeld (in Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003) were 32 per cent men, 27 per cent women, and 37 per cent both. In the study by Rayner (1997), two thirds of the bullies were men. Zapf (in Zapf et al., 2003) also provided a limited support by reporting the figures of 27 per cent men, 11 per cent women, and 63 percent both. Although the exact figures vary, in general, men tend to be over-represented among the bullies. However, this may be explained by the fact that men are over-represented in high positions within organisations (Li & Wearing, 2004). With high organisational status, men have the legitimate authority, which, sometimes, is used for bullying.

Another explanation comes from cognitive expectancies (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996; Eagley & Steffen, 1986). As previous research has found, men are more likely to explain their aggression in instrumental terms in comparison to women (Archer & Haigh, 1997; Campbell & Muncer, 1994). In other words, men were more likely to consider their aggression to have its purposes than women. With such expectancies, they would be more likely to express aggression than women. In a recent study by Rutter and Hine (2005), men, in comparison to women, were found to expect fewer costs and more benefits for expressing hostility. The expectation of fewer costs and more benefits, in turn, were associated with higher levels of hostility expression. The expected benefit, in particular, played a critical mediator of gender differences in expression of obstructionism and overt aggression in the workplace, which were types of bullying acts.

In terms of its manifestation, bullying includes direct and indirect aggression. Direct aggression involves behaviours such as shouting or humiliating somebody. This kind of aggression is much more likely to be displayed by men than by women and women prefer forms of indirect aggression such as social exclusion or spreading rumours (Björkqvist, 1994b). Similarly, Leymann and Tallgren (in Einarsen et al., 2003) reported that women used slander and making someone look a fool, whereas men preferred social isolation. Mackensen von Astfeld (in Zapf et al., 2003) found that women used significantly more strategies affecting communication, social relationships, and social reputation, whereas men preferred strategies affecting the victims' work. These results, in a sense, correspond to findings regarding school bullying which revealed that boys used physical aggression more often; whereas girls preferred more indirect strategies such as rumours and social exclusion (Björkqvist, Lagerspetz, & Kaukiainen, 1992).

Compared to indirect aggression, direct aggression is more visible and easier to detect. Since males are more prone to using direct aggression, this may also account for their over-representation among bullies to some extent. In other words, men and women may be equally likely to bully others but due to women using less direct forms of bullying, the victims and bystanders do not perceive women's bullying as bullying. However, on the other hand, Rutter and Hine (2005) examined gender differences in three types of workplace aggression (expressions of hostility, obstructionism, and overt aggression) and found that males reported engaging all three types of workplace aggression more often than females. In other words, regardless of the type of aggression, men were more likely to display aggression than women.

Gender balance is not as clear with victims of bullying as it is with perpetrators. While some researchers report that the numbers of women and men being bullied are relatively equal (e.g., Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002), other studies indicate a higher risk for females (e.g., Salin, 2001; Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). In a sample of junior doctors, Quine (2003) found that women were more likely to report being bullied than men (43% against 32%). Among university

employees and young working adults, women have also been found to experience work harassment more often and more severely than men or exposed to greater risk of threat and violence (Björkqvist, Osterman, Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Vaez, Ekberg, & Laflamme, 2004). Whilst the findings might have been partly due to the over-representation of women in some samples (Zapf et al., 2003), Salin's (2005) study suggested otherwise. In this study, a random sample of business professionals were employed but the significant gender differences still persisted among subjective victims. Hence, women's overrepresentation among the victims cannot be interpreted by the gender imbalance in the samples.

If gender imbalance cannot account for gender differences, another explanation may be that women are more sensitive to their psychosocial surroundings at the workplace (Andre-Petersson, Engstrom, Hedblad, Janzon, & Rosvall, 2007; Denton, Prus, & Walters, 2004). Researchers have shown that females were more accurate in identifying relational aggression than men (Ostrov, Crick, & Keating, 2005) and show greater sensitivity to disempowering behaviour in organisations (Vance, Ensher, Hendricks, & Harris, 2004). With greater sensitivity to negative aspects of social surroundings, women would be more likely to notice bullying and report it. However, this explanation also has a problem in that women were not always found to be over-represented among the victims.

A better explanation for the inconsistent findings of gender differences may be found from the results reported by Vaez et al. (2004). In Vaez et al.'s study (2004), among women, exposure to threat/violence was spread over several occupational groups whereas the exposure of men was more concentrated. In other words, men tend to be over-represented among victims in a limited number of industries whereas women tend to be over-represented in wider range of industries. Vaez et al. (2004) also found that bullied women were more frequently found in older age groups and among those with better employment conditions (i.e. permanent job contract, full time employment, and work requiring theoretical skills). Therefore, inconsistent findings might have been due to the studies sampling from different occupational groups, different age groups, and different job industries.

Further to the gender imbalance, it has also been suggested that victims are more likely to be bullied by the same gender than by the different gender. Indeed, according to Leymann (1996), women are more often bullied by other women than by men whereas men are much more often bullied by other men than by women. The finding was explained in terms of the gender segregation of the labour market. For certain industries such as IT and manual labour, men tend to dominate the working population whereas in other industries such as nursing and social services women tend to dominate. Similar results were obtained by other researchers (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Zapf et al., 2003). Although some researchers obtained slightly different findings that women are bullied by both men and women in more or less equal numbers, they all agree that men are rarely bullied exclusively by women (Zapf et al., 2003; Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). The finding may be explained by the different power positions of men and women in organisations. If it can be accepted that supervisors have more chance and power to bully others, since men are over-represented in higher positions, they are likely to be supervising a larger group of people than women. The larger group is likely to include both men and women. Thus, men would have greater chance to bully both genders than women. In contrast, women tend to occupy lower positions in organisations more than men and the group they supervise might be a smaller, single-gender group due to the gender segregation in the labour market. The result is that women have the chance to bully women but not men whereas men have the chance to bully both men and women.

3.1.4. Racial differences. Although not in the main stream of workplace bullying research, racial difference has also been reported in the bullying literature. While laws and norms no longer condone overtly racist behaviours, there still exist subtle, even unconscious manifestations of racism, including neglect, incivility, humour, ostracism, inequitable treatment and other forms of micro-aggression and micro-inequities (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). Micro-aggressions consist of subtle, apparently relatively innocuous behaviours. However, when delivered incessantly, the effect can cumulate to an unmanageable magnitude. Fox and Stallworth (2005) distinguished general and racist

bullying behaviours among US samples and found for general bullying behaviours, that only Hispanic/Latinos reported a significantly higher bullying rate than White Americans. However, for racist bullying behaviours, Asian, African-American, and Hispanic/Latino employees all reported significantly higher bullying rate than white employees. Indication of racism-induced bullying has also been found in the UK. Racial discrimination has been shown to occur at all levels in the UK medical profession, from application to medical school (McManus, Richards, Winder, Sproster, & Styles, 1995; McManus, 1998; Esmail, Nelson, Primarolo, & Toma, 1995) to examination success (Dillner, 1995), and job application (Esmail & Everington, 1993; McKeigue, Richards, & Richards, 1990). In a medical setting, Quine (2003) found that doctors with the background of ethnic minority were more likely to report being bullied than other doctors (45% compared to 34%).

3.1.5. Industry sector differences. Depending on the industry sector, the nature of the job and the way the organisation operates differ. This difference may impact on bullying making certain industry sectors suffer higher levels of bullying than others (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). For the comparison between public and private job sectors, substantial evidence indicates that workplace bullying is particularly prevalent within the UK public sector (Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Hoel, Faragher, & Cooper, 2004; Lewis, 1999; Quine, 1999; Unison, 1997). Hoel and Beale (2006) suggested that the high prevalence of bullying in the public sector may be explained by a breakdown in the established norms of managerial behaviour in the public sector and/or the emergence of new, higher expectations of what may constitute acceptable behaviour. This explanation seems feasible considering that changes in managerial practice (Baron & Neuman, 1996; McAvoy & Murtagh, 2003; Salin, 2001) and organisational injustice perception (Hoel & Beale, 2006; Neuman & Baron, 2003) have been reported to be associated with increased workplace bullying. However, on the other hand, a more straightforward explanation was provided by Zapf et al. (2003) who explained industrial sector differences in terms of the types of jobs offered. If it can be assumed that private enterprises suffer less bullying, this may be because short-term job contracts are common in private sectors. Within the short time-frame, it is not likely for

the conflict to escalate into bullying. Besides, the cost of leaving the organisation would not be great for an employee who, eventually, has to leave when the contract ends. Thus, when a conflict arises, the employee can simply leave. However, in the public sector, the jobs offered are usually secure and lifelong jobs. The employees would consider the cost of leaving the jobs too great even if the conflicts become serious. Their usually long tenure also allows the time for the conflicts to develop into bullying as well. Some of the public sector jobs (e.g., social and health sector) require a high level of personal involvement (i.e. sensing and expressing emotions and developing personal relationships). With such a high level of personal involvement, more personal information is available and exposes greater vulnerabilities of the individuals. For bullies, there is more knowledge with which to mount an attack on the victims.

3.2. Individualist approach. The second, the individualist approach, identifies a role for the individual in terms of the vulnerability to bullying or the tendency to bully (Randall, 1997). Researchers such as Coyne, Seigne, and Randall (2000) argued that individual dispositions (e.g., the personality of bullies and victims) contributed to why certain people bullied or were bullied. Field (1996) even claimed that bullying was mainly caused by the psychopathic personality of the bully. More support comes from the suggestion that no comprehensive model of workplace bullying would be satisfactory without including personality and individual factors of both bullies and victims (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). In line with this approach, characteristics of people involved in bullying were identified.

Individual antecedents of workplace bullying have been investigated by a large body of bullying research. One such study found that measures of trait anger, attribution style, negative affectivity, attitudes towards revenge, self-control and previous exposure to aggressive cultures accounted for 62% of the variance in the participants' self-reported incidence of workplace aggression (Douglas & Martinko, 2001). Thus, it seems that individual antecedents do play some part in the likelihood of workplace bullying. For workplace bullying, it is easier to investigate victims than bullies due to the difficulty of identifying workplace bullies. Therefore, the characteristics of the victims will be discussed first, followed by the discussion of the

limited research on bullies. In addition, the impact of childhood bullying will be discussed separately as it relates to both victims and bullies.

3.2.1. Victims. Management has often blamed bullying on individual victims in order to avoid the blame and lawsuits. Even among researchers, there has been a claim that being a gelotophobic (fear of being ridiculed) or paranoiac results in the workers claiming to be victimised without actually being persecuted (Ege, 2008). Although much less drastic, Zapf (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) explained workplace bullying in terms of individual antecedents by suggesting that the reasons may lay within the victim him-/herself to some extent. According to Niedl (1995), the potential victims will only become real victims if they are unable to defend themselves or unable to escape the situation due to any dependency on their part. Such dependency may be social (e.g., power relations, group membership, and hierarchical position) or psychological (self-esteem, personality, and cognitive capacity). For the typical characteristics of victims, Zapf and Einarsen (2003) identified three criteria: the victims' personality (or social competence and self-esteem deficits), the victim's social position within the organisation (or the exposed position of victims in their words), and the victims' competency (or overachievement and conflict with group norms). However, the three categories are relevant to each other to some degree and clear lines cannot be drawn between each of them. Thus, instead of distinguishing the three categories, they will be discussed together in relation to each other.

The victim's personality has received consistent attention in the workplace bullying literature. Studies have found a list of typical personality types and traits that were related to the risk of victimisation. For example, Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall (2003) reported that victims were more likely than control groups to be submissive, low in independence, introverted and highly conscientious. They were also more likely than the control group to have difficulty coping with personal criticism and to report significantly more negative perceptions of the organisational environment. Victims of harassment were found to be introverted (Boulton & Smith, 1994), suspicious, conflict avoidant, and reserved (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Gandolfo, 1995), and more over-sensitive and angrier than other claimants (Gandolfo, 1995), and

have a negative self-image (Vartia, 1996). They were also neurotic (Vartia, 1996) and anxious in social settings (Boulton & Smith, 1994; Coyne et al., 2000). Kivimaki, Virtanen, Vartia, Elovainio, Vahtera, and Keltikangas-Jarvinen (2003) also found an association between depression and subsequent bullying, which indicates that psychological disorders could also lead to subsequent victimisation.

In Matthiesen and Einarsen's (2001) MMPI-2 study, potential vulnerability factors in each of the specific groups of victims were found. Victims who completed the MMPI-2, comprised three clusters: the 'seriously affected', the 'common' and the 'disappointed and depressed'. The 'seriously affected' group reported a wide range of psychological and emotional problems and symptoms. The 'common' group did not portray any particular psychological symptoms of a neurotic or psychotic nature. Surprisingly, while this group reported exposure to a wide range of specific bullying behaviours, the former reported exposure to fewer acts of bullying. The last group, being depressed and somewhat paranoid, consisted of those victims who were bullied at present. The findings are indicative of different types of victims with different pre-existing personality factors. The damage or impact upon victims was not necessarily related to the number of bullying behaviours they have been exposed to but related to the victims' own personal vulnerability.

Studies also reported that victims considered that their own lack of coping resources and self-efficacy, such as shyness (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) and low self-esteem and lack of social competency (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) contributed to the bullying problem. Self-esteem is "...a favourable opinion of one's own character and abilities" (Begley & White, 2003, p. 391). In a study of Norwegian employees, it was found that both victims and bully/victims reported lower levels of general self-esteem than did bullies or non-involved employees (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). According to Begley and White (2003), people with high self-esteem are viewed as more acceptable socially and are more successful, less likely to develop psychological disorders following stress life events, and can cope with negative experiences better. In other words, high self-esteem operates as a protector against stress (Carson, 1997; Lo, 2002).

For the lack of conflict management skills, Zapf and Gross (2001) compared the coping behaviour of successful victims (those whose overall situation substantially improved) and unsuccessful victims (those whose overall situation became worse and worse in spite of their coping trials). The successful victims more frequently avoided mistakes or behaviours that can be viewed negatively, which could be turned against them, and they were better in recognising and avoiding behaviours which escalate the conflict. In contrast, the unsuccessful victims may try to avoid the conflict in a way that can gain disapproval from colleagues such as taking sick leave often and frequent absenteeism. Further support was provided by a report that victims of school bullying were at slightly greater risk of being bullied in the workplace (Smith, Singer, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Even among the victims themselves, there are successful and unsuccessful victims in terms of coping with bullying or preventing the escalation of bullying (Zapf & Gross, 2001). In Smith et al.'s (2003) report, those who reported poor coping with school bullying as victims had an increased risk of becoming victims of workplace bullying. In other words, a victim's own vulnerability, free from the impact of bullying experience, plays a role in the likelihood of being bullied.

These findings indicate that individuals with a lack of good conflict management skills are more vulnerable to bullying in the workplace. Zapf (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) also noted that victims high in unassertiveness/avoidance portrayed the worst conflict management behaviours. They were high in conflict avoiding and obliging and low in compromising and integrating. Lindemeier's (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) psychiatric analysis also found that victims have the tendency to avoid conflict, to have low self-esteem problems before bullying begins, to be emotionally labile, and to take things too seriously. These findings all indicate that poor conflict management skills may be a typical characteristic of victims.

Lack of sense of humour has also been found to be among the personality characteristics of victims. Studies based on victims among employees of Norwegian nursing homes (Einarsen, 1997) and American victims (Brodsky, 1976) found that victims tend to have little sense of humour or have negative attitudes towards use of humour at work. When confronted with individuals with a teasing nature, they may feel

that they are victimised while others may accept the teasing as a joke. Some studies appear to show similar results despite using samples of a completely different nature. For example, the victims in Gandolfo's (1995) study mostly consisted of young men whereas Matthiesen and Einarsen's (2001) study involved mainly relatively-aged females. Their results indicated over-sensitivity, suspiciousness, depressiveness, and tendency to convert psychological distress into psychosomatic symptoms. The victims were also described as possibly having problems with understanding more subtle psychological explanations for their own problems. Such similarity in the two studies indicates that there may be global characteristics of victims that are more prone to bullying. Referring back to the lack of conflict management skills, one may conclude that the lack of general social skills contributes to the likelihood of being bullied.

One individual factor that is likely to be linked to both victims and bullies is negative affect. Negative affect can be defined as a mood dispositional dimension that reflects individual differences in negative emotionality and self-concept (Watson & Clark, 1984) or the tendency to experience distressing emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1980). Negative affect is related to stress-proneness/resistance (Hansen, Hogh, Persson, Karlson, Garde, & Orbaek, 2006; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). Before discussing its relationship to bullying, two forms of negative affect should be distinguished: trait negative affect and state negative affect. Trait negative affect refers to an individual's underlying and relatively stable affective level. State negative affect is more transient and linked to fluctuation in mood.

Following the division of two types of negative affect, one can expect that workplace bullying would have a greater impact on the victim's state negative affect than on trait negative affect. It is state negative affect that is more dependent on the situation and other external factors (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b) while trait negative affect is more independent from external factors. Another link with the opposite direction can be expected between trait negative affect and workplace bullying. As evidence suggests, trait negative affect may be associated with bullying prone personality such as over-sensitivity, suspiciousness, depressiveness, and tendency to convert psychological distress into psychosomatic symptoms (Gandolfo, 1995;

Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001). The stressor creation mechanism suggests that those high in negative affect create job stressors themselves. These mechanisms are related to the likelihood of reporting oneself as victims of bullying while colleagues do not perceive one to be victims (Coyne et al., 2003). Indeed, support comes from Quine (2003), who found that trait negative affect would lead people to be more likely to report benign behaviour as bullying. Djurkovic, McCormack, and Casimir (2006) also obtained similar findings by testing a psychosomatic model of bullying. In their study, trait negative affect was found to work as a moderator in the tendency to report bullying.

Taking the psychosomatic hypothesis (Watson & Pennebaker, 1989), one can expect that bullying leads to state negative affect and the state negative affect impacts on the severity of the physical symptoms. Supporting evidence comes from the findings in Denmark (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b) and in Australia (Djurkovic et al., 2004) that exposure to bullying correlated strongly with state negative affect while trait negative affect mediated the relationship between bullying and somatic complaints. Moreover, many of the consequences of bullying (e.g., ill health) are associated strongly with the victims' own evaluation of the situation (Salin, 2003), upon which negative affect would have an impact.

Another factor that is also likely to be linked to both victims and bullies is Type A Behaviour Pattern (TABP). TABP was first introduced by Friedman and Rosenman (1974) as the type of behaviours exhibited by people prone to heart disease. TABP is characterised by extremes of competitive achievement-striving, a strong sense of time urgency, impatience, easily aroused anger and aggression (Friedman & Rosenman, 1974). At the first sight, TABP appears to be more likely to be linked to bullies. People exhibiting TABP are reported to be significantly more prone to respond aggressively to various forms of provocation than persons low on this dimension (Type B: Baron, 1989; Baron, Russell, & Arms, 1985; Evans, Palsane, & Carrere., 1987). They often describe others as 'obstacles' who slow them down in their efforts to complete various tasks (Contrada, 1989). If TABP individuals have power and social status, they would be highly likely to be bullies. On the other hand, if they have neither the power nor the status, they are more likely to be targeted by others. Indeed, Baron, Neuman, and

Geddes (1999) found that participants with higher score on the measure of TABP reported greater frequency of being the victim of workplace aggression as well as greater frequency of engaging in such behaviour. TABP individuals are also achievement-oriented and competitive. In turn, they are likely to stand out or annoy other workers. As shown in the above victim's competency section, such individuals are more likely to be bullied.

Perceived low control can also contribute to the likelihood of bullying (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 1994; Quine, 2001; Vartia, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996b). Bullied employees reported that they had less control over their work (Vartia, 1996). Although the perceived low control may be related to the work environment, the report by Tubbs (1994) suggested that the internal disposition of perceiving low control can also contribute to bullying. In his report, Tubbs (1994) described how the upbringing of Japanese children led them to hold external locus of control and linked it to the high prevalence of bullying in Japanese society. Due to the external locus of control, people who became the victims of aggression or bullying would easily give up on actively resolving the problem. By not acting, they would become 'easy victims' and bullying would escalate into a more serious problem.

Furthermore, Zapf (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) reported that a majority of victims were more likely to consider themselves to be more conscientious and achievement-oriented than their colleagues in comparison to a control group. Similarly, Coyne et al. (2000) found that victims, in comparison to a control group, were generally more rule-bound, honest, punctual and accurate. Such persons tend to stand out with their achievement or attitudes, which may be perceived to be highly annoying to others. Moreover, by standing out, they may be perceived as 'different' from the majority. As Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) suggested, belonging to one group could easily lead individuals to discriminate against and be aggressive to members of another group. With no visible differences, simply random-labelling people into different groups triggered discrimination and aggression towards the out-group. Such discrimination leads to devaluing of people who are different from others in some

sense (Brown, 1997). These 'different' people may also carry a greater risk of getting into trouble and being a scapegoat (Thylefors, 1987). To apply the theory to people who stand out at the workplace, those people would be considered to be 'different' from the rest of the group. Then, they would be discriminated from the rest of the group and be targeted. Once recognised as the 'outsiders', people receive less social support from other members (Cohen & Wills, 1985). They are at greater risk of being the victims of negative treatments from the group since the bullies are more likely to get away with bullying the people who are in weaker positions than they are (Hoel & Cooper, 2001).

Victims may also be placed in 'outsider's position by being highly qualified and experienced. As research suggested, highly qualified and experienced individuals might be at greater risk of being bullied (Coyne et al., 2000; Zapf, 1999) since, because of their ability, they might violate the productiveness norms of the work group to which they belong. By outperforming the others, they would become a constant threat to the self-esteem of their colleagues and superiors. They would also be placed in a socially exposed position and are more likely to be targeted. Although they may be better employees as individuals than others, for the group, they would be seen as the cause of conflict. It is easier to blame one individual than the whole group. Consequently, management would take the view of the group rather than that of the victim.

With a considerable body of evidence suggesting personal vulnerability to bullying, Leymann and Gustafsson (1996) argued that the observations on personality must be seen as the consequence of the bullying. In short, exposure to stress and bullying may lead to lowered self-esteem. The link between bullying and lowered self-esteem has been found in the nursing occupation where stress and bullying have been identified as the major problems (Begley, 2002) and nurses' self-esteem levels are usually considered to be low (Arthur, 1992). Combining the above claims together, it could be suggested that there is a circular relationship between bullying and personal vulnerability. Individual health and previous experiences will influence the perception of events at work and long term bullying can lead to personality changes. Then

personality changes lead the victim to be even more likely to be bullied.

3.2.2. Bully. Research on bullies' individual characteristics has not been as extensive as research on victims' characteristics. Yet, a body of literature has looked into it. For example, regarding self esteem, Baumeister, Smart, and Boden's (1996) review suggested that high self-esteem was related to aggressive behaviour. High self-esteem could lead to bullying or tyrannical behaviour because it might be related to perfectionism, arrogance, and narcissism (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1993; 1996). Besides, the feeling that one's ego or superiority was somehow being undermined, jeopardised, or contradicted can produce violence (Baumeister et al., 1996). However, in contrast to the above findings, Einarsen and colleagues (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) reported that self-reported bullies also describe themselves as having low self-esteem. Regarding this inconsistency, Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, and Harlow (1993) provided an explanation that people with unstable high self-esteem might become aggressive in response to trivial threats to self-esteem and respond defensively to unfavourable feedback.

Another individual personality factor that could be considered is self-control, which was also linked to the risk of being bullied in the above section. Previous research suggested that, among children, boys are more impulsive and are likely to have less self-control than girls (Kendall & Wilcox, 1979), which explains why boys tended to be over-represented among bullies in school bullying. More recently, Rutter and Hine (2005) established a direct path from aggression self-control to expressing aggression. They found that respondents who were less confident in their ability to control hostile expressions were more likely to report engaging in aggressive behaviour. Further support comes from Tubbs (1994) who explained that extremely protective mothering of Japanese mothers led their children to lack the sense of their own self-worth. Without their mother, they would consider them worthless and incapable of handling issues around them. They would also lack the sense of responsibility for their own actions as they are used to their mothers handling their problems for them. Such mentality would produce a poor, immature coping style and when things do not go as they want, they might exhibit irrational behaviour or aggression towards the others

surrounding them.

A lack of social competencies can lead to being a bully too, as it leads to victimisation. In a Norwegian survey by Einarsen and colleagues (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003), it was found that the self-reported bullies are high on social anxiety and low on social competence. Moreover, Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall (2003) described an interview study with 30 Irish victims that all victims blamed the difficult personality of the bully. A half of them felt that this was combined with a change in the job situation for the alleged bully into a position of power. Thoughtlessness, one of poor social competencies, was considered to be a cause of bullying in half of the cases in a study by Einarsen and colleagues (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). As Leymann (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) suggested, bullies often claimed that they were not aware of the consequences of their bullying behaviour especially if a group bully an individual, which is indicative of their lack of perspective taking. Baumeister, Stillwell, and Wotman's (1990) analysis of interviews showed that victims tend to put up with bullying behaviours for some time and suddenly over-react at one point. Bullies perceive their own behaviours to be tolerable and become surprised by the sudden reaction of the victim. Due to the lack of perspective taking, the bullies find it difficult to understand a victim's reaction and may even blame the victims for taking things too seriously.

Another factor to consider is bullies' envious or jealous nature. Among Seigne's (1998) interview participants, approximately two out of three victims also felt that the bully was envious of them. In a survey that investigated the perceived reasons for bullying (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a), envy was among the main reasons together with the competition concerning status and job positions. Einarsen and colleagues (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) also reported that envy was the most common factor mentioned by 278 victims in a Norwegian survey followed by a general negative evaluation of the leadership style of one's immediate superior. Envy may, of course, be an important reason why some are subjected to bullying. However, on the other hand, the claim usually comes from the victims. Einarsen and colleagues (in Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) suggested that envy as a reason for being bullied might be no more than a self-preserving attribution. It is possible that some victims are punished by

others due to an unrealistically high self-esteem (Brodsky, 1976) and rigidity. Envy arises when someone else has what the envious person wants, which can imply that the envious person is less worthy and less deserving than the other (Salvoes, 1991). As Smith, Parrott, Ozer, and Moniz (1994) found, envy leads to hostility only if the person retains a favourable view of self as deserving a positive outcome, in which case the envied person's advantage is seen as unjust and unfair. In this sense, the impact of envy can be considered as linked to protection of one's self-esteem.

Although a reasonable amount of research has been carried out on the individual characteristics of bullies, the research has not been greatly extensive. Besides many of the studies are based on the responses of victims (e.g., Seigne, 1998), which might have confounded the findings. Theories on workplace bullies' personality range from bullies as 'cool' and confident planners (Sutton, Smith & Swettenham, 1999) through to anxious and depressed individuals (Salmon, James, & Smith, 1998). In other words, there is an inconsistency in the findings. Yet, without resolving the difficulty of identifying workplace bullies first, there can be no rigorous way to investigate bullies' characteristics. Indeed, Seigne, Coyne, Randall, & Parker (2007) investigated personalities of bullies by identifying bullies but the sample was small. Adult bullies, in general, would be reluctant to admit bullying someone else and self-reported bullies would only represent a small part of the population of bullies. Relying on the victims' response would negatively bias the finding but investigating self-reported bullies may also produce biased results in that the group would be self-selected.

3.2.3. Impact of Childhood Bullying. As already mentioned, it has been reported that there was a link between childhood experience of bullying and adulthood bullying (e.g., Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). White (2004) also described the 'life cycle theory' of bullying in which the victim becomes a victim again and bullies become bullies again. Indeed, evidence supports that victims are often bullied again (Randall, 1997) and bullies continue to bully (Rayner, 1999). The main psychoanalytic theory used in the life cycle theory is projective identification. Projective identification can be defined as "...the process by

which specific impulses, aspects of the self or internal objects are imagined to be located in some object external to oneself. Projection of aspects of oneself is preceded by denial, i.e. one denies that one feels such and such an emotion, has such and such a wish, but asserts that someone else does” (White, 2004, p. 274).

According to the life cycle theory, potential bullies are the ones who often feel frustrated and potential victims are the ones who did not receive the desired love and recognition at childhood. In other words, the potential for becoming a bully or a victim can be traced back to the childhood. Supposing that a child began to project their negative emotions on others (bullying) at one point and found that it made them feel better, they are likely to learn this kind of coping behaviour for their negative feelings. Thus, they develop the potential to become bullies in adulthood. Similarly, a child who has been bullied and not received the love and support they needed would grow up to crave for them. For that, they would try hard to avoid conflict and not stand up for their rights even when necessary, which leads them to be vulnerable to bullying in later life. Adopting projective identification, life cycle theory suggests four stages to the cycle of development of bullying: ‘embryonic stage’, ‘the trigger’, ‘the loyalty stage’, and ‘dance of death’ (White, 2004, p. 275). The embryonic stage refers to the time before any bullying has taken place. There are only potential bully and potential victim. At the trigger stage, certain events, changes, and/or experiences raise frustration or unhappy feelings in the potential bully and the bully begins to seek out someone to project his/her anxiety and negative emotions. At the loyalty stage, victims try harder to please others, create a feeling of acceptance, and/or deny the reality of the situation. At the last, dance of death stage, bullies justify their behaviours and victims begin to blame themselves for the bullying.

Smith et al. (2003) reported the first study to find an association between school bullying and workplace bullying. Based on a large survey with workers in the UK, they found a significant relationship between reported roles in school bullying, and experience of workplace victimisation. Among victims of school bullying, those who consistently could not cope with bullying or tried to make fun of the bullying were found to be at even higher risk of problems at workplace later in life, although the

associations were modest. Moreover, Smith et al. also reported that it was especially females who reported that they 'did not really cope' with school bullying who were more at risk of victimisation in the workplace. Since females are usually more willing to seek help (Smith & Shu, 2000; Smith et al., 2003), those females who do not/cannot seek help are more towards the extreme of a distribution of unsatisfactory coping. Recently, Hetland, Notelaers, and Einarsen (2008) presented a 17 year longitudinal study. In their study, it was found that higher initial levels of victimisation in early adolescence (age 13) predicted workplace harassment in adult life (age 30). This finding gave strong support to the association between childhood bullying experience and adult bullying experience. The finding also suggested the importance of school-based bullying prevention programmes. Since childhood bullying experience is linked to adult bullying experience, school-based bullying prevention programmes might have long-term effect into preventing adult bullying at the workplace.

School bullying experience is not just associated with the likelihood of being bullied at work. It is also associated with the likelihood of being a workplace bully. Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) suggested that childhood victims as well as childhood bullies are likely to become workplace bullies in later life. Indeed, supporting evidence comes from a number of studies into violence and bullying. For example, high violence victimisation significantly predicted increased aggression scores and young adults with high exposure, whether as victims or observers, reported more psychological maladjustment including aggressive behaviour (Scarpa, 2001; Scarpa, Fikretoglu, Bowser, Hurley, Pappert, Romero, et al., 2002; Scarpa, Haden, & Hurley, 2006). Despite the possibility that aggressive individuals may also be more likely to become victims of violence, the findings suggest that earlier victimisation can increase the likelihood of being the bully.

3.3. Theory/construct-based approach. The last approach is the theory/construct-based approach, which is influenced by theories and constructs in organisational psychology (Quine, 1999). This approach mainly looks into how aspects of the organisational structure and climate of the workplace contribute to workplace bullying and the interaction between individual and organisational factors (Einarsen,

Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994). This does not mean that the above antecedents discussed are not theory/construct-based. Yet, since they have already been discussed above, they will not be discussed further in this section, which leaves the environmental antecedents of workplace bullying. These antecedents have received much attention and a large body of literature has been contributed to them. Hence, instead of grouping them under this heading, they are discussed separately in the following section.

4. Environmental Antecedents

Although the influence of individual dispositions and earlier childhood experience should not be ignored, Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2003) argue that bullying in adulthood is more likely to be influenced by the environment. Bullying is a complex and dynamic process, where both action and reaction should be understood within the social context in which they take place. Thus, situational factors may increase the vulnerability of victims or recipients of bullying behaviour and contribute to their response to such acts. For example, with a better constructed psycho-social work environment, negative feelings are better resolved. However, in a badly-organised work environment, conflicts are more likely to result in bullying. As Brodsky (1976) claimed, although bullies may suffer from personality disorders, they will only act as bullies when the organisational culture permits or even rewards this kind of misbehaviour.

According to Vartia (1996), environmental antecedents explained 24% of the variability in bullying in a Finnish workplace sample. Although it still leaves sizeable variability unexplained, one cannot deny the influence of external antecedents on workplace bullying. In addition, Lewis (2006b) stated that 'bullying may be better understood as an organisational problem rather than one which can be explained in terms of individual characteristics of either the victim or the bully' (p. 130). Leymann (1996) strongly advocated the influence of external antecedents in the process of bullying. He went as far as rejecting that personal characteristics of victim are capable of playing any part in the development of bullying at work.

Support for environmental antecedents comes from Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2007). Hauge et al. (2007) found that victims or bystanders of workplace bullying tended to perceive the work environment to be more stressful than bullies or people not involved in bullying. Similarly, previous research reported the difference between bullied employees and non-bullied employees over the perceptions of their work environment (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Jennifer, Cowie, & Ananiadou, 2003). A number of studies have also found a correlation between different work characteristics and exposure to bullying behaviour (Hansen, Hogh, Persson, Karlson, Garde, & Orbaek, 2006; Salin, 2003). Further support was provided by studies that conducted multiple regression analyses by showing the relative strength of different job stressors in explaining workplace bullying (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Vartia, 1996, Vartia & Hyyti, 2002).

Antecedents from the organisational environment can be divided under two categories: social antecedents (Neuman & Baron, 2003) and organisational antecedents (Hoel & Salin, 2003). The former category is associated with relationships in the workplace whereas the latter category comprises the characteristics of the work place.

4.1. Social antecedents. Social antecedents are factors associated with relationships with others at work and the internal feelings and perceptions regarding the treatment one receives at work. Neuman and Baron (2003) described social antecedents that trigger aggression and, eventually, bullying. These include the norm of reciprocity and injustice perception. The norm of reciprocity refers to the norm of repaying what one has received. Whether altruistic favour or aggression, when a person becomes a victim of a certain social behaviour, he/she feels the obligation or the urge to return it. In terms of aggression, when one party receives aggression from the other, the former would return the aggression and, in turn, the latter would also return the aggression. If one of the parties ends up in an inferior position during the process (Einarsen, 2003), the situation would become bullying.

Injustice perception has been found to produce employee relationship problems by increasing the level of aggression (Hoel & Beale, 2006). Neuman and Baron (2003)

explained four main unjust situations that were associated with aggression including situations that: violate the norms of distributive/procedural/ interactional justice; produce frustration and stress; induce negative affect; and assault the individual's self-worth and dignity. In a study by Weide and Abbott (1994), over 80 per cent of the cases of workplace homicide they examined involved employees who "wanted to get even for what they perceived as their organisation's unfair or unjust treatment of them" (p. 139). Similarly, Neuman and Baron (2003) mentioned that the bullies of workplace homicide often justified their actions by blaming the unfair treatment at the hands of a supervisor or co-worker. Even for customers, they are more likely to become violent if they are treated unfairly with regard to service delivery and service recovery (Bowen, Gilliland & Folger, 1999). Evidence of displaced aggression following unfair treatment was also found when the source of unfair treatment was the stronger party than the victim of unfair treatment (Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, & Miller, 2000). Further support comes from Baron, Neuman, and Geddes (1999) who found that the perception of organisational injustice was significantly correlated with the reported aggression against various victims. The greater the degree of perceived injustice reported by participants, the greater their tendency to engage in workplace aggression.

4.2. Organisational antecedents. Organisational antecedents consist of factors related to the characteristics of the organisation. They overlap with social antecedents to some extent but social antecedents are more to do with internal feelings and perceptions of the employees whereas organisational antecedents tended to be related to the characteristics of the organisation and the general work atmosphere. Bowling and Beehr (2006) suggested that characteristics of the work environment may influence bullying directly or may also contribute to creating a stressful work climate that provides rich ground for bullying. In fact, both victims and observers of bullying perceive significantly higher workload, a more negative work climate, more organisational changes, more unsatisfactory relationships at work, and higher turnover intentions than do non-involved respondents (Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

With respect to organisational antecedents, Hoel and Salin (2003) identified four different factors: 'organisational culture and climate', 'leadership' and 'changing nature

of work', and 'work organisation'. Although not identified by Hoel and Salin (2003), work environment and structure and size of organisation have also been found to impact on the prevalence of bullying. Thus, these categories will also be discussed together with the other organisational factors.

4.2.1. Organisational culture and climate. The culture of an organisation has an important influence on the likelihood of bullying. As reported by Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994), bullying in Norway is promoted in an organisational climate with little encouragement for personal development, uninteresting and unchallenging work, and little variation. Salin (2003), Vartia (1996) and Vartia and Hyyti (2002) found bullying to be correlated with a politicised and competitive work climate and workload. Moreover, norms concerning bullying behaviours at work may differ from other societal norms that regulate the expression of aggression in general (typically disapproving and condemning aggression). Bullying within an organisation may not receive as strong condemnation as aggression in other societal settings. The values and norms of a workplace strongly influence how bullying is viewed, how employees interpret situations and whether bullying is recognised as a problem (Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002). Adopting a social learning model, organisational cultures tolerant to workplace bullying and aggression may lead to elevated likelihood of bullying/violence, which was termed 'organisation-motivated aggression/violence' (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew, 1996). Bullying behaviours may be left unchecked or even increased by lack of procedures to deal with bullies and a latent or manifest propensity for bullying and harassment to be condoned (Liefoghe & Davey, 2001).

In addition, in an organisation with a culture that facilitates autocratic leadership style, bullying may be considered as an acceptable management style and speaking up over bullying may be perceived as disloyal to the organisation. Moreover, if there is no policy against bullying, no monitoring policy and no punishment for those who engage in bullying, it could be interpreted that the organisation accepts the behaviour (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). Bullying is, therefore, prevalent in organisations where employees and managers feel that they have the implicit support or approval of senior managers to carry on their abusive and bullying behaviour (Einarsen, 1999).

This is in line with Brodsky's (1976) view that "for harassment to occur, the harassment element must exist within a culture that permits and rewards harassment" (p. 83). This view has been confirmed by the UNISON survey (1997). Here, over 90 per cent of respondents reported that being able to get away with bullying acted as a cause of bullying. Indeed, bullying is also more likely if the bully assesses the costs of bullying such as the risk of being dismissed as being relatively small (Rutter & Hine, 2005). The importance of perceived low costs and risks can be illustrated by the fact that bullying has been shown to be more frequent in large and bureaucratic organisations (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) have pointed out that the size and length and formality of decision-making processes in these companies make the individual less visible, thus reducing the risks for the bully of being caught, punished or socially condemned. While there may be situational, contextual, and personal factors that trigger aggression, such behaviours will not be exhibited systematically if there are factors in the organisation that hinder or inhibit such behaviours. Rayner (1998) concludes from her survey that bullying prevails due to an organisational tolerance of such behaviour.

Similarly, bullying would be more likely if harsh treatment is embedded within the culture of an organisation. Stevens (2002) indicated that a culture of bullying is to a degree prevalent within nursing professions, expressing the view that it is necessary for younger nurses to endure the harsh regime that previous generations of nurses have also endured, particularly with regards to training, thus maintaining the cycle of bullying. As Lewis (2006a) explained, within nursing occupations, bullying activity is essentially learned behaviour. Even those who are not prone to bullying by their individual characteristics may become bullies through learning the others' bullying behaviours. Not conforming to the majority could also lead them to become the victims themselves (Tubbs, 1994).

Organisations with extreme conformity and group pressure can be particularly prone to bullying as well. This has been illustrated by the commonality of bullying in Japanese culture where those who do not conform to the norm are bullied (Tubbs, 1994). Bullying has also been linked to organisations with a high degree of

bureaucracy where the threshold for bullying behaviour may be lower due to lesser chance of social condemnation (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994). Bureaucracy may increase the value of using bullying as a strategy for circumventing rules and eliminating unwanted persons (Salin, 2001). Situational factors may bring about aggression and bullying indirectly by giving rise to behaviours in breach of rules and norms of the group. In this case, bullying can be seen as an intentional response to norm-violating behaviour and an instrument for social control. Stress and frustration may lead people to project the anger on people in weaker ground. Besides, the increased need for team work may provide a ground for conflict development, particularly if linked to inter-team competition for limited rewards (Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b).

4.2.2. Leadership. The general work atmosphere is influenced heavily by the management style or the leadership style. Considering that supervisors are mostly identified as bullies in the UK (e.g., Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997), the impact of leadership styles on bullying would surely be of importance. If management condone aggression and bullying or deal with it ineffectively, it would be easier for bullies to bully without the fear of being prosecuted. In that sense, a passive leadership style can facilitate bullying between colleagues (Einarsen et al., 1994; Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Support comes from Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2007) who found a correlation between laissez-faire leadership style and workplace bullying. Managers' ignorance and failure to recognise and intervene in bullying cases may indirectly contribute to bullying by leading the bullies to think that bullying is not disapproved. Similarly, dissatisfaction with the amount and quality of guidance, instructions and feedback given has been shown to be associated with higher levels of bullying (Einarsen et al., 1994).

An autocratic leadership and an authoritarian way of settling conflicts or dealing with disagreements have also been found to be associated with bullying (O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith, 1998a; Vartia, 1996). Ashforth (1994) introduced the term 'petty tyranny' or tyrannical leadership to describe an aggressive kind of leadership style. Such leadership comes from a joint function of the predisposition of individuals

and situational factors/facilitator. While abuse of power is often associated with bullying, managers who perceive themselves as powerless in undertaking their tasks can also resort to bullying behaviour. In such situations, they may use whatever power they have to regain control (Ashforth, 1994). Those managers are also likely to be defensive and fearful of any voices critical of their regime and end up being harsh to other workers or even bully them. By contrast, people who had neither experienced nor observed bullying taking place reported that disagreements at their workplace tended to be solved by negotiation (Vartia, 1996). Similarly, constructive leadership behaviour has been found to be positively related to psychological well-being as well as negatively related to bullying (Hansen, Hogh, Persson, Karlson, Garde, & Orbaek, 2006).

Further support comes from Vartia (1996) and Einarsen et al. (1994) who found positive correlations between bullying and managers' leadership styles where these included abuse of power, authoritarian styles and poor communication. Less authoritarian management styles with greater focus on problem solving are associated with lower prevalence rates of workplace bullying in Scandinavia, where victims are mostly bullied by colleagues. In contrast, more authoritarian styles are found in the UK where bullying appears more widespread and is mostly done by superiors (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Rayner, 1997).

4.2.3. Changing nature of work. The most industrialised countries have undergone profound changes on the labour market (e.g., globalization, increase in competition, introduction of new forms of work organisation, and technological innovations, restructuring and downsizing). As research evidence suggests, such organisational changes are associated with bullying at work (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Baron and Neuman (1998) identified four categories of changes in the workplace that are associated with aggression: cost cutting, organisational change, job insecurity and social change (increasing diversity in the workforce due to equal opportunities policy). In line with such a view, Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) explained the increase in bullying activities as due to the pressure of unprecedented changes in business (such as globalization, hyper-competition, consolidation, outsourcing,

increased regulation of business, and development of technology); time pressures on managers to accomplish tasks faster; diversity in the workplace; downsizing or 'lean and mean' management putting more workload and pressure to workers than before and reducing the number of supervisors (flattening of the organisation).

Among the changes mentioned by Harvey et al. (2006), increase in workload is one particular factor that is suspected to be associated with workplace bullying (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Salin, 2003). In the early 1990s, the UK workforce experienced a sharp increase in working hours (Bosch cited in Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). Over the following years, the increase rate flattened and the average working hours was once again found to have fallen (Green, 2001). However, despite the reduction in the work hours, a general trend of increasing work intensity was found among employees (Burchell & Fagan, 2004; Green, 2001, 2004). In order to explain why work intensity has increased while the work hours have reduced, Green (2001) distinguished two types of work effort: extensive and intensive. Extensive work effort can be defined by the number of hours spent at work whereas intensive work effort refers to more psychological aspects of work effort such as the need to work fast and concentrate hard. Work intensity usually refers to the latter type of work effort. Even if an employee shows a great level of extensive work effort, it does not necessarily mean he/she is applying intensive work effort. It is possible that the employee is not actually working in many of the hours he/she stays at work. Thus, even if the work hours have gone down, work intensity can still rise.

As mentioned before, work intensification over the years can be explained by the changes on the labour market and business such as globalization, increase in competition, new technology, restructuring and downsizing. Many organisations are adapting the 'lean and mean' management in order to reduce costs while maximising profit (Harvey et al., 2006). Consequently, the amount of workload put upon individual workers increased (Green, 2001). In a UK study of managers, more than half of the managers had experienced large-scale restructuring within the last twelve months, with downsizing forming an integral part of the change process (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). According to McCarthy, Sheehan, and Kearns (in Hoel, Einarsen, & Cooper, 2003),

60% of respondents in a study of businesses undergoing restructuring reported an increase in working hours and a greater pressure to bring work home. Tendering for contracts has also become increasingly common, resulting in more economic risk taking and work-intensification in order to reduce costs (Quinlan, 1999). Introducing market philosophies into areas that did not previously suffer such pressures (e.g., health service and the educational sector) has changed the relationship between managers and staff, resulting in work intensification and increased managerial discretion (Lee, 2000). Ironside and Seifert (2003) also suggest how quasi-business restructuring and reorientation can translate into unit cost reductions, work intensification, and changes in the management of the labour process, which can facilitate workplace bullying.

More evidence can be found to support the claim that workplace bullying also shows a trend of increasing (Harvey et al., 2006) parallel to work intensity. The increase in bullying activities over the recent years was explained by a number of factors among which were increased workload and pressure to workers (Harvey et al., 2006). People with a high workload, time pressure and a hectic work environment report more bullying (Einarsen et al., 1994; Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Intensified feelings of time pressure allow little time for the polite 'niceties' of business life, so increasing the risk for harsh and spiralling interpersonal conflicts (Pearson, Andersson, & Porath, 2000). The effects of stress from work intensification can thus partly be explained by the fact that stress increases job dissatisfaction and lowers aggression thresholds for the concerned individuals, and partly by the fact that it does not allow for time-consuming conflict solving.

However, research has, so far, failed to demonstrate a clear relationship between work pressure and pace of work, and bullying. While Appelberg, Romanov, Honkasalo and Koskenvuo (1991) identified time pressure and a hectic work environment as a source of interpersonal conflict, other studies have in most cases failed to support their findings (Salin, 2001; Vartia, 1996). Nevertheless, the argument remains that the problem of bullying is likely when a high degree of pressure is present in a work environment which offers individuals little control over their own work

(Einarsen et al., 1994).

Yet another organisational change that cannot be ignored is the use of temporary and subcontracted staff. In the modern business world, due to cost reduction policies, a reduction in permanent jobs and an increase in temporary and subcontracted jobs has occurred in many workplaces. When Baron and Neuman (1996) explored the relationship between a range of organisational changes and aggression, the use of part-time workers was among the strongest predictors of aggression. According to Pearce (1998), part-time work creates increasing pressure, upheaval and instability within the workgroup, with the other employees having to update or cover for their colleagues in their absence. This may also lead to disorganisation with increasing role conflict and role ambiguity (Quinlan, 1999). Besides, more taxing aspects of work are often transferred to permanent full-time staff. For that reason, increased use of subcontracted personnel may also contribute to tensions between workers, as subcontracted individuals may be forced to work at a higher pace in order to secure future employment, thereby coming into conflict with core members of staff (Quinlan, 1999).

Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2002) also described a study in which male part-time workers were at greater risk of being bullied than full-time workers. They explained the finding in that males' choice to take on part-time work would be related to their responsibility for home and work, which would violate the norm of prevailing macho culture in the workplace. Hoel et al. (2002) also described a study in which challenging the macho culture at organisation (e.g., going for a drink after work and lack of interest in football) increased men's likelihood of being the victim of aggression. Moreover, by being a part-time worker, they would fall in a reduced social standing amongst their colleagues. In turn, they would be likely to be perceived as easy victims for bullies, in part because colleagues would not support and 'stand up' for them.

The second way in which organisational changes lead to increased bullying can be explained by the employment of coercive management style. The organisational changes may increase workplace pressures and encourage the use of a hard management style such as the use of intimidation and undue criticism of employees

(Baron & Neuman, 1996; McAvoy & Murtagh, 2003; Salin, 2001). Coercive management style is more related to leadership mentioned above but here, it is used as a way of implementing organisational changes. During the changes, the managers may exercise more autocratic management style to bring about the changes. For instrumental reasons, they are more likely to apply coercive strategies in order to fulfil performance objectives or 'getting the job done' (Hoel & Cooper, 1999). In this sense, the need for restructuring may encourage more authoritarian management practices with the effect of lowering thresholds at which inappropriate coercive managerial behaviours manifest in organisational life (Hoel et al., 2003, Sheehan, 1999). With the greater sense of job insecurity (OECD, 1999), employees may also become less resistant to managerial pressure and less likely to challenge unfair and aggressive treatment on the part of managers. With greater autocratic management style on the managers' part and less resistance on the employees' part, bullying is even more likely. The management style overlaps with leadership style presented above but, here, coercive management is the consequence of the implementing organisational changes and the management, in turn, leads to bullying.

Another explanation for the link between rapid and radical changes and bullying involves the concept of 'organisational justice' (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). While the perception of injustice is more of a social antecedent than organisational, here, it is induced by organisational causes. Changes in the organisation lead to reduction in perceived organisational justice. The reduction, in turn, leads to increased level of workplace aggression or bullying. Support can be found from Schminke, Ambrose and Cropanzano (2000) who examined the effect of centralisation and formalisation of organisation on employee perceptions of fairness. Schminke et al. (2000) found that centralisation was negatively related to perceptions of procedural fairness.

Organisational changes usually involved restructuring and downsizing in order to save on costs. Therefore, the hierarchy in the organisations flattened and promotion opportunities were compressed. Due to the reduction in the number of staff, work load increased. With the introduction of temporary staff, job security dropped. For people who have experienced a 'better' working environment and atmosphere, such changes

can lead them to feel that they are no longer treated fairly in the organisation. Seeing their previous colleagues being sacked due to downsizing can also affect the layoff survivors' perception of organisational justice (Bowman & Singh, 1993). Although surviving once, seeing the victims of the 'first' layoff leaves fear of further layoffs among the survivors. This fear would lead them either to work harder so that they would survive again or to lose faith and commitment to the organisation. In the latter case, the employees would be less likely to perceive organisational justice (Brockner, Tyler, & Cooper-Schneider, 1992).

4.2.4. Work environment. Poor working environment, whether physical or non-physical, can create conditions that encourage bullying (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Anderson, Anderson & Deuser, 1996; Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Hoel & Salin, 2003; Leymann, 1996; Vartia, 1996; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002; Zapf, 1999; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b). Vartia and Hyyti (2002) reported, following a study with Finnish prison officers, that negative working conditions to be significant predictors of bullying. Victims of bullying tend to report a more negative work environment than people who have not been bullied (Ashforth, 1994; Björkqvist et al., 1994a; Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003; Einarsen et al., 1994; Vartia, 1996), and the worst work environment is associated with those most severely bullied (Zapf et al., 1996b). For example, work undertaken under noisy, hot (or cold) circumstances or in cramped conditions has been found to be associated with increased feelings and attitudes of hostility (Anderson et al., 1996).

Similar findings were obtained that both victims and observers of bullying reported more negative perceptions of their work environment, more general stress, and mental stress reactions than did non-involved employees (Vartia, 2001). Additionally, bullied employees reported lack of involvement in decision making processes, less clarity of work, unsatisfactory level of information at the workplace, and authoritarian management (Vartia, 1996); communication and cooperation problems, and low morale (Keashly & Jagatic, 2000; Vartia, 1996). Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) also reported that victims of bullying perceived less job control and social contact with colleagues, poorer management style, more role ambiguity, more conflicts

and disagreements among colleagues, and less importance of their work than non-bullied workers.

Based on a large number of interviews with victims, Leymann (1996) concluded that bullying was closely related to poorly organised work environments where rules and command structures were unclear. As an example of such an environment, Leymann (1996) pointed to the situation of nurses in hospital settings. For nursing students, when taking on clinical placements, they need to adjust to tertiary education and a ward environment, which causes significant levels of stress for them. The senior nurses who should provide support to the students are usually busy and overworked, with the consequence that the learning environment becomes highly unpleasant (Foster, Mackie, & Barnett, 2004). Even without having to assist trainee nurses, nurses face high and often conflicting demands from doctors and from nursing managers, with increased pressure and conflicts becoming likely outcomes. As Rayner and Hoel (1997) stated, insufficient control of certain behaviours and high levels of conflict resulting from excessive workloads and unreasonable demands are often precursors to bullying of subordinates.

Role-conflict and role ambiguity are also found to be among the work-related factors linked to bullying (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). This is particularly the case for role-conflict, which describes the extent to which employees perceive contradictory expectations, demands and values in their jobs. In Einarsen et al. (1994), in a survey of Norwegian trade Union members, not only were victims far more likely to report role-conflict than those reporting being victimised, but observers of bullying were also more likely to report higher levels of role-conflict and role ambiguity. Moreover, significant correlations between bullying and role-conflict were found for all seven sub-samples in Einarsen et al.'s (1994) study. In addition, role ambiguity seems to be associated with higher levels of bullying (Einarsen et al., 1994). Thus, bullying seems to thrive where employees perceive their job situation as unpredictable and unclear. In line with this view, victims were found to report less clarity of goals in their work (Vartia, 1996) and assess their environment more negatively than other employees (Zapf, 1999). In Zapf's (1999) study, the fact

that respondents were questioned about their work environment prior to assessing their experience of bullying, appears to strengthen the view of a relationship between a poor work environment and bullying.

Employees who react sensitively to poor working environment may display performance decrements, violate social norms, or project their stress and anger on others (Einarsen et al., 1994; Felson & Tedeschi, 1993). Too many demands and poor working conditions may lead workers to protest. The management, in turn, will give punitive responses, with the effect of initiating and escalating the bullying process. Stressful environments may also elicit interpersonal conflict, with colleague bullying as a possible outcome (Einarsen et al., 1994).

One problem with the studies based on victims' responses is that victims may have negatively biased view of their work environment and people due to their experiences of being bullied. For this reason, Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) claimed that the research should not just focus on the victims but investigate others at work as well. In the analyses of victims' response in comparison to other workers, they obtained evidence that victims have a more negative view of their work and work environment than non-bullied employees. However, Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) also found that, excluding the victims from the analyses, some degree of departmental difference still persisted over the employee's perception of the working environment. Specifically, in departments with high bullying levels, ratings of management style and job demands were poorer than in departments with low bullying levels. This indicates that, although victims' views were, in fact, negatively biased to some extent, their judgements of work environment were fairly reliable. Similarly, Einarsen et al. (1994) also found that both victims and observers reported low quality work environments. In other words, it is not just the victims' own distorted perception but the 'reality' of a negative work environment that leads them to report poor ratings of that environment.

4.2.5. Organisational structure and size. Organisational structure may also promote or tolerate bullying and scapegoating. Within highly hierarchical organisations, bullying is more likely due to the power difference between individuals than in flat structured organisations. The perceived power imbalance may reflect formal power

relationships or the perceptions of powerlessness resulting from the bullying (Vartia, 1996). In the latter instances, conflicts between individuals of equal power may gradually escalate, leaving one of the parties increasingly defenceless. In the former, the focus is on the abuse of power arising from the power structure and associated with control over rewards and punishment. The size of the organisation has also been found to impact on the likelihood of bullying. According to Kelly (2000), a small company may be more prone to violence and aggression. In a big company, conflicts between people stay within those who work immediately around them but in a small company, the conflicts spreads throughout the entire company. Besides, big companies are more likely to have a policy regarding bullying or other health/safety issues whereas small workplaces have less capacity to prevent and control hazards than medium-sized and big companies (Huuskonen, Bergstrom, Lindstrom & Rantanen, 1999). The awareness of small organisations regarding health problems and safety is not always well-developed. As Ferris (2004) mentioned, the types of organisations that usually do not acknowledge the problem of workplace bullying are those 'mid-sized, private' organisations (p. 391).

4.3. Interaction between organisational and individual antecedents. As shown above, research following the individualist approach and the theory/construct-based approach identified the individual and external antecedents of workplace bullying. Different researchers advocated for the role of different antecedents e.g., individual antecedents (e.g., Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000) and external antecedents (e.g., Leymann, 1996). Despite such research, the literature still lacks studies that allow clear cause-effect analysis (Einarsen, 2000; Zapf, 1999; Zapf, Dormann & Frese, 1996a). Bullying is considered to lead to health complaints on the part of the victim and even to possible changes in the personality of the victim (e.g., Leymann, 1996; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996). This has been the explanation of victims' typical personality by the supporters of external antecedents. However, there is a body of research that revealed the initial vulnerabilities of victims prior to being victimised (e.g., Kivimaki, Virtanen, Vartia, Elovainio, Vahtera, and Keltikangas-

Jarvinen, 2003; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001), which allows more weight to the individual antecedents.

Considering the complexities in the interactions of workers within organisations it seems that any one-sided explanation is unlikely. Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla (1996b) also contradicted the view that bullying may be related to monotony and a general work-control deficit. A broad range of potential causes of bullying should be taken into account, which may include the organisation, the bully, the social psychology of the work group, and also the victim (Einarsen, 1999; Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Zapf, 1999). Depending on the bullying cases, the role each of the antecedents play may differ. Indeed, a number of researchers provided evidence that bullying cases differ in the degree to which personality is involved as a potential cause (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Zapf, 1999). Moreover, each of the precursors may be more relevant to certain aspects of bullying than another. For example, while the personality of the victim may be highly relevant in explaining the perceptions of and the reactions to bullying, it may not be as relevant in explaining the behaviour of the bully (Einarsen, 2000). In other words, it is likely that several antecedents together contribute to the development of bullying although one antecedent may sometimes play a dominating role (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). It is also possible that the impact of one antecedent is moderated or mediated by the other. As Ginn and Henry (2002) suggested, while organisational justice (a psychosocial factor) was found to impact on the likelihood of workplace violence (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), the influence of organisational justice may be moderated by employees' internal disposition such as negative affectivity and agreeableness (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999). Similarly, even if the atmosphere and culture of the organisation do not condone bullying behaviours, being the only woman among men may increase the risk of becoming an outsider and the victim of bullying (Schuster, 1996).

Building on the interaction between external and individual antecedents, Harvey et al. (2006) put forward a triangular relationship and interaction between the three antecedents in the bullying event: organisational environment and its impact on the occurrence of bullying activities; the characteristics of bullies, and the characteristics of

victims. The model suggests that it is the interaction between external and individual antecedents that leads to bullying. Within the individual antecedents, bullies' personal characteristics are problematic due to the difficulty of finding bullies' identity. Relying on victims' own perception is likely to produce negatively biased characteristics. Thus, taking bullies' characteristics into account would be difficult. This still leaves external antecedents and victims' characteristics. Although the model would not be perfect without bullies' characteristics, external antecedents and victims' characteristics would play significant roles themselves.

5. Impact of Bullying

While there are factors that contribute to or cause workplace bullying, bullying also contributes negatively to the employees' and the organisation's health. According to Leymann (1996), bullying (or mobbing) can be seen as an extreme social stressor, a form of social stress that is extensive and dangerous. Similarly, Zapf et al. (1996b) considered bullying behaviour as a subset of social stressors that can be conceptualised either as daily hassles or as critical life events. Further support comes from a line of research which suggested that workplace bullying is a major stress factor, in as much as it is accompanied by negative consequences for victims' and witnesses' health and well-being (Björkqvist et al., 1994a; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Niedl, 1996; O'Moore et al. 1998a; Vartia, 2001; Zapf et al., 1996b). Although the influence on the individual employee's health may not be noticeable, it can amount to significant impact on the organisation or even on the society (Vega & Comer, 2005). Alienation, unemployment, disaffection, and court involvement have social implications as well as broad economic implications. Following such views, the impact of exposure to bullying can be assessed at the individual, organisational, and even societal level. The impact at societal level is difficult to measure but, at the individual and organisational level, a large body of literature has looked into the impact.

5.1. Individual level. At the individual level, the impact of bullying can be assessed by the damage to victims' health due to bullying. Previous research suggests that bullying is detrimental to the health of the victim, both physically and

psychologically (e.g., Leymann, 1996; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b; Randall, 1996; Vartia, 2001). Frequently reported physical symptoms include difficulty sleeping, tearfulness, lethargy, headaches, skin rashes, bodily pain and stomach disorders or digestive disturbances (Lewis, 2006a; O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith, 1998b; Quine, 1999; Vaez, Ekberg, & Laflamme, 2004). Lewis (2006b) found, in interviews with professional women, that the physical symptoms were not always recognised as consequences of bullying. Victims often went through long exploration for an explanation of the physical symptoms before bullying was finally identified as the cause of the symptoms. Lewis (2006b) also found that the victims' initial attribution of physical symptoms to their own bodily system could be personally damaging. The attributions reflected power relations in the workplace and could even lead to a further cycle of personal attack or undermining.

The reported psychological symptoms are anxiety, irritability, angry thoughts, depression, poor concentration, lowered self-confidence, mental fatigue, and lack of vitality/energy (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Foster, Mackie & Barnet, 2004; Lewis, 2006b; Leymann, 1990; Niedhammer, David, Degioanni, et al., 2006; Vaez, Ekberg, & Laflamme, 2004; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996b). Bully-victims also reported having a sense of loss of control and felt the need to withdraw (Lewis, 2004). Lewis (2004) explained the need for withdrawal as the evidence for shame and described bullying as the "antecedents to shame" (p. 291). In severe cases, victims were found to show symptoms of post traumatic stress disorder (Leymann & Gustaffson, 1996; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002a). More frequent exposure to bullying behaviours was associated with higher risk of depressive symptoms (Niedhammer et al., 2006).

At the extreme case, bullying may even result in the suicide of the victim. Vega and Comer (2005) reviewed the research evidence that linked bullying to suicide among UK and Norway victims at the most extreme cases. Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994) cited the Leymann's extreme claim that, in Sweden, each year about '100-300 workers commit suicide' as a result of bullying and harassment at work

(p. 382).

The impact of bullying lasts even after the bullying stops (Niedhammer et al., 2006) and extends to people around the victims (Lewis & Orford, 2005). As Lewis (2004) found in his interview study, one of the interviewees felt a sense of terror at facing the bully, even long after the bullying had ceased. In a qualitative study by Lewis and Orford (2005), victims reported that bullying impacted upon their significant others as well as themselves. The impact reduced sources of social support victims could seek for outside work. Moreover, considering that social isolation is used as a bullying behaviour (Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b), bullying can be expected to limit the accessibility and availability of social support at work (Hogh & Dofradottir, 2001). The reduced sources of social support, in turn, would impair victims' ability to cope with the problem and increase the extent of negative impact following bullying. Additionally, the bystanders of bullying were also found to report symptoms of general stress (Vartia, 2001), increased turnover intention (Rayner, 1999), and low job satisfaction (Hauge et al., 2007).

According to Hoel and Cooper (2000), the extent of the impact is greatest in those currently bullied, then those bullied in the past, and then those who witnessed bullying only. Those who neither experienced nor witnessed bullying suffered the least impact. The extent to which one considers oneself to be victimised is also found to influence the extent of impact. Kaukiainen, Salmivalli, Björkqvist, Osterman, Lahtinen, Kostamo, et al. (2001) found that those people who considered themselves to be victimised a lot suffered significantly more problems and somatic symptoms than those who considered themselves to be victimised to a lesser extent or not at all. In addition, the highly victimised group considered their being a victim of aggression as a reason for their psychosocial symptoms and distress (Kaukiainen et al., 2001).

5.2. Organisational level. At the organisational level, the impact of bullying adds up to significant financial costs. Bullying has been shown to be related to victims' turnover/replacement, transfers, reduced productivity, grievance/investigations, absenteeism, and litigation (Pryor, 1987) and loss of trust in the organisation and managers, loss of a sense of identity, belonging and valued participation at work

(Lewis, 2006b). Bullying was also related to reduction in life satisfaction, and organisational commitment, work alienation, counterproductive behaviours, and psychological contract violation (Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

Absenteeism has been frequently reported to be a consequence of bullying. It has been found that absenteeism increases 1.5 times following workplace bullying (Kivimaki, Elovainio & Vathera, 2000). According to Steers and Rhodes (1978), absenteeism is a product of combination of possibility or opportunity to be present at work (illness) and the motivation of the individual to go to work (degree of job satisfaction and pressure to attend). Voss, Floderus, and Diderichsen (2001) found the association between bullying and absenteeism is even higher for women in comparison to men, which reflects women's higher tendency to report health complaints and absenteeism and/or their double work and low earnings.

Productivity can be affected as well, as victims are prone to losing initiative and creativity when subjected to bullying (Bassmann, 1992). The reduction in satisfaction, motivation, and commitment would negatively impact on performance and productivity. Reduction in concentration decreases the output quality and increases the likelihood of an accident. If only one individual suffers such changes, then the cost may not appear significant to an organisation. However, bullying often spreads across the organisation and the impact can amount to a considerable cost.

Furthermore, White (2004) observed that, in a department where there was bullying, employees did not personalise their space around the desk. When interviewed, those employees expressed very little sense of ownership and considered the place to be just a functional space. Such perception may indicate lack of sense of personal involvement with the organisation. Without the sense of personal involvement with the organisation, the employees are not likely to show commitment to the organisation. The lack of commitment poses a great problem. Level of commitment predicts the likelihood of perceiving justice and fairness in the decision of organisation (Brockner, Tyler, Cooper-Schneider, 1992) and showing support to the organisation. Even if an organisation makes a good decision that should benefit all, without the employee's commitment and support, carrying out the decision cannot be successful.

Harvey, Heames, Richey and Leonard (2006) described how organisational productivity could be affected by bullying in four different ways. Firstly, bullying may be targeted to employees who work extra for the firm (i.e. those who violate the production norm). This will discourage employees' organisational citizenship behaviours, which are particularly important in today's dynamic business environment. Secondly, bullies may sabotage other employees excelling in their performance in order to prevent competition. Thirdly, in organisations controlled by bullies, their increased level of control can lessen the firm's flexibility and adaptability. The bullies would be against changes that may not be beneficial for them personally or that may make their bullying behaviour visible to the management. Besides, even if changes do occur, the purpose of changes may be to meet the needs and demands of bullies and protect the bullies from unknown risks. Finally, by repressing employees and change agents, bullies may transmit negative signals about the work environment of the firm to potential future employees. This will lead the competent applicants to be unwilling to join the organisation.

Bullying can also manifest as lower job satisfaction (e.g., Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Hauge et al., 2007; Hoel et al., 2001; Nielsen, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2008). With a large sample of Norwegian employees, Hauge et al. (2007) found that job satisfaction was lowest for victims and bully/victims, followed by bystanders. Bullies and non-involved employees reported highest job satisfaction compared with the other groups. With the reduction in job satisfaction, turnover-intention is likely to increase. Indeed, turnover intention was found to go up following the exposure to bullying (Hoel & Cooper, 2000) or abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000). Zapf and Gross (2001) suggested that leaving the organisation may be the eventual response of many victims of bullying. With frequent mistreatment, it would be a reasonable choice for the employee to leave the job. Djurkovic, McCormack, and Casimir (2004) explained, in terms of the psychosomatic model, how bullying could increase turnover intention. According to the psychosomatic model, bullying produces negative affect which leads to physical health problems. Then the health problems lead to increased intention to leave the job. Support for this argument comes from the

finding that negative affect is a significant predictor of physical health (Dua, 1994, 1995). It is possible that victims of workplace bullying could suffer physical symptoms (e.g., stomach disorders) arising from psychological distress (e.g., high anxiety).

Victims also tend to be moved around the departments where the bully is in a superior managerial role (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). It seems that, in some countries (e.g., Japan), bullying has also been used as a means to drive workers out of the organisation (Meek, 2004). Lifetime employment is within the principle of many Japanese organisations. Thus, the employer or people in superior position may use bullying as a way of non-verbally forcing the worker into resignation. Ogoshi, Akamatsu-Yanase, and Uchida (2008) reported Ogoshi's own experience where bullying was used to drive Ogoshi to resign. While no direct comment demanding her resignation was mentioned, hints were repeatedly thrown at her such as her desk being removed from her office.

As well as competent applicants, qualified personnel within the organisation may leave due to bullying. According to Vega and Comer (2005), the greatest organisational cost for bullying is the loss of qualified personnel. High turnover rate is costly as the organisation requires an extensive hiring and training process for new workers. Sheehan, Barker, and Rayner (1999) estimated that the cost could be up to 100,000 US dollars per each person who was subjected to bullying. Hoel, Cooper, and Faragher (2001) went even further by claiming that the costs of bullying at a national level could reach to 2 billion pounds per annum. As Daniels and Harris (2000) suggest, even small impact at the individual level can amount to substantial effect within an organisation. Some organisations consider the impact of bullying highly serious and use personality evaluations to diagnose psychopathic type leaders in their selection (Harvey et al., 2006). Since individual disposition has been found to contribute to who bullies and who is bullied (e.g. Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Field, 1996; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003), using personality evaluation in leader selection should contribute to reducing bullying to some extent. However, focusing on personality alone is not likely to succeed in tackling bullying problems. If the environment of an organisation facilitates bullying, bullying will occur regardless of the leader's psychopathic tendency.

A good example is nursing industry wherein bullying activity is learned behaviour and even those who do not have the disposition to bully may become bullies by learning others' behaviours (Lewis, 2006a). Therefore, bullying should also be tackled by reducing the risk of bullying in the work environment including the atmosphere at workplace, the organisational culture, and leadership practice (Leka & Cox, 2008). While the intervention may be costly and time-consuming, the high cost resulting from bullying makes it worth focusing attention on the related research into its causes and possible interventions.

So far, this chapter covered a wide range of literature on bullying including the definition, the prevalence rate, the three approaches of research methods in bullying literature, and the impact of bullying. While a large body of literature has been discussed here, there is the unmistakable problem that the focus of the literature has been individualist and only little research looked into collectivist cultures. Findings from individualist cultures do not necessarily apply to collectivist cultures. While there may be a culturally neutral (etic) dimension within workplace bullying, there may also be a culturally-specific (emic) dimension. As cross-cultural researchers suggest, the focus of consciousness differs between individualism and collectivism (Hofstede, 1980) and even the same object can be perceived differently due to the different focus held when observing the object (Nisbett, Peng, Choi, & Norenzayan, 2001). The issue of cultural-difference on consciousness and perception is discussed in detail in the next chapter. Taking from such claims, it can be expected that people of collectivist culture may perceive workplace bullying differently from people of individualist culture. If this expectation were to be right, it would, indeed, suggest that the findings from individualist cultures are not applicable to collectivist cultures and the current workplace bullying literature only explains a part of the picture. This calls for bullying research in collectivist cultures.

One of the traditionally collectivist countries is South Korea. As already mentioned, studies conducted in collectivist cultures take up only a very small part of the workplace bullying literature and the academic interest in South Korea has clearly been minimal. By searching through the journal search engines, (i.e. Zetoc, Web of

Science, PsychInfo, Science Direct and even Google Scholar), no published paper on workplace bullying in South Korea was found and only one paper that simply mentioned it (Kang, 2000). Only one PhD thesis submitted in Australia partially looked into workplace bullying in South Korea (Shin, 2005a) but, even for this thesis, the main focus was shame management not workplace bullying.

With so little known about workplace bullying in South Korea, it is not possible to conduct research at an advanced stage. Hence, the thesis will aim to focus on the four topics that cover the basic, descriptive aspects of workplace bullying research: the prevalence, bully status, the antecedents on individuals, and the impact. However, before testing the main research question, it is necessary to discuss South Korean culture and how the culture may affect the approach that should be taken in the research. Thus, in the next chapter, the thesis gets into detail about South Korean culture and history and how they may be related to workplace bullying.

Based on the influence of culture on workplace bullying discussed in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 will look into the cultural difference in the concepts of and attitudes towards workplace bullying between Korean and UK participants. The study will examine participants' lay definition of bullying, their extent of agreement over the items of European bullying questionnaires being examples of bullying, and their tolerance level of negative acts. Then, in Chapter 4, a qualitative study will aim to develop a bullying scale specific to South Korean culture. Then, the items of the scale will be tested for their applicability to UK participants in comparison to Korean participants in the quantitative part of Chapter 4. Finally, the main study in Chapter 5 will examine the validity and reliability of the scale and illustrate cultural differences and similarities based on the prevalence of bullying, bully status, antecedents, and impact while taking cross-cultural differences into account. The overall discussion will be made in Chapter 6 highlighting the emic and the etic dimensions of workplace bullying.

CHAPTER 2

South Korean Culture and the History

In the previous chapter, the literature on workplace bullying was discussed and the point made that most of the research has been conducted in Europe or North America, with relatively few studies having been conducted in the Far East. Due to the far shorter history of systematic scientific research in the East, far less is known about many different research disciplines including workplace bullying. Nevertheless, the Far East is becoming an increasing focus of social science research with comparisons between East and West being particularly common (e.g., Hofstede, 1991; Lee & Sung, 1997; Weber & Hsee, 1998).

Hofstede (1991) compared different cultures and introduced a number of

dimensional continua to encapsulate and differentiate cultural differences including 'individualism – collectivism', 'feminine culture – masculine culture', and 'high power distance – lower power distance'. The individualism – collectivism dimension has been a particularly important aspect to consider when comparing the West and the East, with individualism being the typical characteristics of the West and collectivism typical of the East (Kim & Nam, 1998). As Hofstede (1991) defined them, "individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose...Collectivism, as its opposite, pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in group..." (p. 51). According to Hofstede (1980), individualism emphasises: 'I' consciousness, autonomy, emotional independence, individual initiative, right to privacy, pleasure seeking, financial security, need for specific friendship and universalism. By contrast, collectivism emphasises: 'we' consciousness, collective identity, emotional dependence, group solidarity, sharing, duties and obligations, need for stable and predetermined friendship, group decisions and particularism. The collectivist nature leads East Asians to be sensitive to others' opinions of themselves and, hence, more prone to be face-saving.

The dimension of feminine culture – masculine culture refers to "the distribution of roles between the sexes which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found" (Hofstede, 1994, p. 3). Characteristics associated with feminine culture are modesty and compassion whereas masculine culture is characterised by competitiveness and assertiveness. Examples of feminine countries include Scandinavian countries and South Korea and, of masculine countries, UK, USA, and Germany.

Power distance can be defined as the extent to which power and authority are centralised. In the high power distance cultures, hierarchy means existential inequality and subordinates are expected to follow the 'command' of the superiors whilst, in the lower power distance cultures, hierarchy merely means an inequality of roles (Hofstede, 1994). Countries in the East including South Korea, Taiwan, and Thailand fall under the high power distance countries whereas Scandinavian countries fall under the low power distance countries.

The importance of cross-cultural studies was highlighted by Nisbett et al. (2001). In comparing the cognitions of East Asians and Westerners, Nisbett et al. (2001) explained how cultural differences influence the system of thought in human cognition. While the 'holistic' East Asians attend to the entire field and assign causality to it, 'analytic' Westerners pay attention to the object, the category, and formal logic. For example, in a study described by Nisbett et al. (2001), Japanese and American participants were presented with animated scenes of fish and underwater objects. Although presented with the same scenes, the first statement produced by Japanese participants tended to address the background of the scenes whereas American participants usually mentioned the focal fish or underwater object of the scenes first. In other words, even the same object could be perceived and conceptualised differently between East Asians and Westerners. Thus, it is also possible that the same behaviours and acts could be perceived differently by people in different cultures.

This has an obvious and profound implication for both the study and management of bullying. Specifically, bullying could be perceived and conceptualised differently for Far East Asians (Korean participants in this thesis) and for Europeans (UK participants in this thesis). If the perception and conceptualisation are different, then, the definition of bullying could be different and the behaviours considered to be involved in bullying could also be different.

Importantly, cultural differences in bullying have been observed even amongst European countries. In Scandinavia, for example, the term mobbing is preferred, whereas in the UK the use of the term 'bullying' predominates. As explored in Chapter 1, there are important differences between these two terms. Similarly there are intra-European differences in the manifestation of bullying. For example, while bullying is predominantly enacted by people in superior positions in the UK (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997), in Scandinavia, mobbing is more closely related to bullying by colleagues (Leymann, 1996; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Vartia, 1993; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002).

Using Hofstede's (1993) cultural dimensions, Einarsen (2000) explained why such differences were found between the Nordic and central European countries.

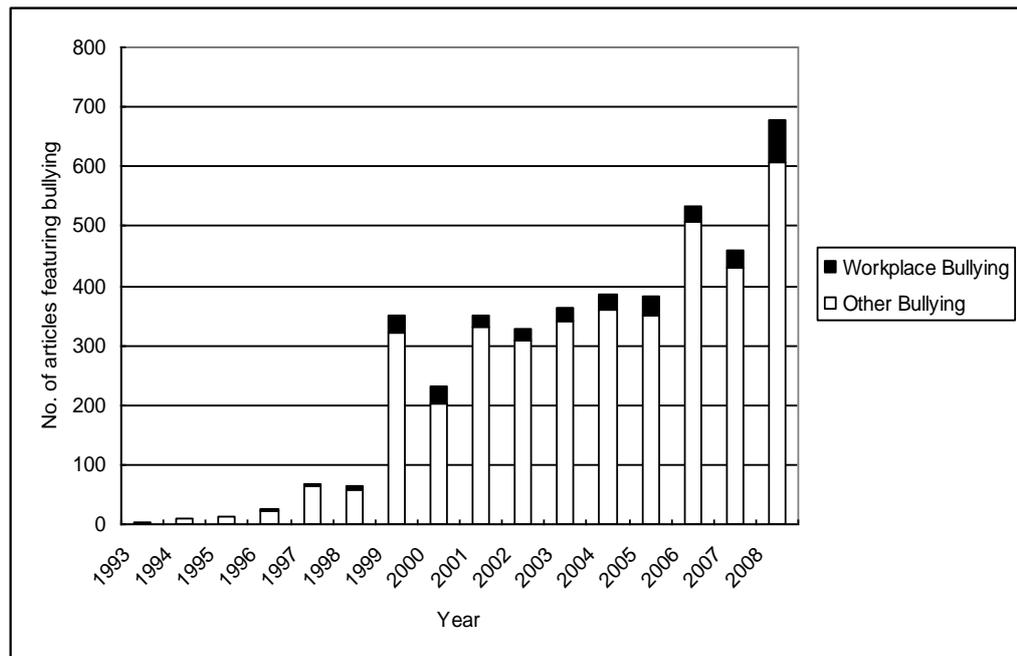
Hofstede's studies suggested that in Scandinavian countries the power difference was low and feminine values prevailed. Consequently, the power difference between supervisors and subordinates is low and bullying by supervisors is much less common than it is in other countries. In contrast, in higher power distance countries such as UK and USA, workers were more accepting to autocratic bosses, allowing bosses and managers more chance to exercise coercive behaviours such as bullying (Vega & Comer, 2005).

Considering the differences in bullying in the workplace observed among European countries, the difference between a European country and a non-European country might well be expected to be greater. One such country is South Korea, which has a very different culture to the UK. However, little consideration has been made in the nature of bullying or aggression from a South Korean perspective. At this point, one can only speculate on the possibility of cultural differences in the definition and understanding of bullying at work based on a review of Korean culture and history. Thus, in this chapter, the cultural atmosphere and the history of South Korea will be discussed and how this may relate to engagement in workplace bullying.

1. Growing Media Coverage on Bullying

Although academic interest on workplace bullying in South Korea has been, and still is minimal (see Chapter 1), public and media interest has been continuously increasing over the recent years. Figure 2.1. shows the annual count of articles that featured the term bullying (workplace bullying and other bullying) from <http://www.chosun.com>, the webpage of one of the largest and oldest Korean newspapers.

Figure 2.1. Annual count of articles featuring bullying in South Korean Media (1993-2008)



As shown from Figure 2.1., the number of articles featuring bullying in Korean media is increasing. With the media interest growing, a number of different terms used to refer to bullying have also been featured in the news articles. Currently, four different terms are being used in South Korea to describe bullying. The earliest term that made its appearance is *tta-dol-lim*. The literal meaning of the term is excluding someone or leaving someone out, although it covers a wide range of behaviours from psychological, subtle aggression to physical violence. This is the original term that is equivalent to bullying in modern Korean language. The term *tta-dol-lim* was found in the articles published in 1993 while the other terms made their appearance on Chosun ilbo in later years.

The next two terms that appeared in the South Korean media and everyday parlance were *ijime* and *wang-tta*. Together with *tta-dol-lim*, these terms are commonly used across various contexts to refer to bullying. *Ijime* is a Japanese word that is equivalent to bullying and, in Japan, it is considered a related phenomenon that involves harassment of colleagues by dominant members of a group (Morita, Soeda, Soeda, & Taki, 1999). The problem of *ijime* at work began to raise its head in the 1990s in Japan. Japanese society places high expectations on people and workers often suffer low self satisfaction (Meek, 2004). Resultantly, supervisors and co-workers began to vent their frustration by bullying their subordinates and colleagues in the

workplace. *Ijime* has also been used as an unofficial means to drive out employees without technically violating the lifetime employment principle. The case of Japanese professor Ogoshi showed how bullying was used to non-verbally force her to resign (Ogoshi, Akamatsu-Yanase, & Uchida, 2008). In its worst instances, *ijime* drove some victims to suicide and resulted in extensive Japanese media coverage, numerous lawsuits brought against employers by employees and/or their families, and the formation of a managers' union in the mid-1990s to help *ijime* victims (Meek, 2004).

The term, *ijime* made its first appearance in Chosun ilbo in 1995. With the term coming from Japan and the several decades of Japanese colonisation put upon South Korea in the early 20th century, an opinion has been expressed in public and media that the 'bullying culture' of South Korea might have come from Japan (Heyman News Report, 2008). Moreover, according to the spokespeople of schools, *ijime* was introduced and spread in South Korea through Japanese comic books (Song, 2004). Korean students began copying the violent and aggressive acts exhibited by the Japanese comic characters, which then became a group pressure to do so among the teenagers and the violence and bullying spread. Soon, bullying among school children and teenagers became a societal issue that could no longer be controlled by the schools (Bahk, 1996). Within the school setting, the bullying problem became so serious that some students were sentenced to a juvenile reformatory for bullying their schoolmate (Jang, 1996).

Following *ijime*, *wang-tta* made its appearance in Chosun ilbo from 1997. Initially, the term was a colloquial term that originated from *tta-dol-lim*. 'Wang' means king or something big in Korean language. It gives an exaggeration to the meaning of the word that follows. From *tta-dol-lim*, the first syllable, 'tta', was taken to form the word *wang-tta*. Thus, *wang-tta* can be considered to be a boosted, exaggerated version of *tta-dol-lim*. Coming from *tta-dol-lim*, its original meaning is exclusion (Shin, 2005a). However, nowadays, it is used to refer to a broader range of bullying behaviours such as inflicting psychological/physical harm to that person with varying severity, spreading rumours about a certain individual; and embarrassing a person in public or treating the person as non-existent. Although it used to be a colloquial term, now, it has become the most

commonly used term to refer to bullying in South Korea. From the count of Chosun ilbo articles in year 2008, *wang-tta* was featured in 396 articles while *tta-dol-lim* was featured 185 articles and *ijime* in 27 articles.

Although not yet featured in Chosun ilbo, a new term also made its appearance in the media that was *tae-wum* or *tae-wu-gi* (Kim, 2006). *Tae-wum* or *tae-wu-gi* literally means 'to burn something' and it is specifically used amongst nursing staff. Within the bullying context, the term refers to physical and psychological abuse inflicted on nurses by superior nurses or doctors. It may involve verbal abuse, sexual harassment, physical violence, socially isolating and undermining the individual, or giving someone an unbearable workload. Those in superior positions within the medical industry often justify such behaviours as a way to increase the staff efficiency (Kim, 2006). However, those acts only give unbearable pain to the subordinates while failing to increase staff performance, hence its meaning 'to burn something'.

What is clear is that over the past two decades or so a number of terms have been introduced in Korean culture to epitomise various actions and behaviours that connote bullying of one form or another. The focus turns now to consider the historical and cultural background of South Korea and how this might influence the definition and awareness of bullying.

2. History and Culture of South Korea

Based on Korean history and culture, two contradicting views might be formulated concerning bullying. One is that bullying would be uncommon in South Korea due to the close bonding among people. The other is that bullying would be common in South Korea due to the hardship individuals experienced in the modern and recent times and the influence of Confucian culture. Here, the view of bullying being uncommon will be discussed first.

2.1. Speculation 1: Bullying will be uncommon in South Korea. The prevalence of bullying may be low in South Korea due to the close social bonds between people. When discussing the relationship among Korean people, the concept of *jeong* cannot be ignored. As Kim (1992) explained, *jeong* is among the most

important emotional concepts that lie within Korean culture. Other important cultural concepts put forward by Kim (1992) were *haan* and *noon-chi* and their implications for bullying will be discussed later. *Jeong* is the affective, close, long-lasting bond that unites and brings group members together (Kim & Choi, 1994). *Jeong* refers to the strong feeling of kinship or interpersonal trust (Kim, Kim & Kelly, 2006). It connotes a powerful emotional bond, one of interpersonal trust and closeness (Kim, 1996). *Jeong* arises from closely knit family and friends who spend a long time together (Choi, Kim, & Choi, 1993). There is no one specific English word equivalent to *jeong*. Rather it encompasses the meaning of a wide range of English terms including feeling, empathy, endearment, affection, closeness, tenderness, pathos, compassion, sentiment, trust, bonding, and love. Characteristics associated with *jeong* are unconditional care, sacrifice, empathy, sincerity and shared experience (Kim & Choi, 1994).

Jeong is a special affection towards an individual that allows the formation of the strong and powerful bond between individuals. It is an essential element of human life for Koreans, promoting the depth and richness of personal relations. In times of crises that could potentially break apart two people, *jeong* would hold them together and stabilise the relationship. The passion and romantic feelings might die out over time, but *jeong* would grow stronger. Without *jeong*, life would be emotionally barren, and people would feel isolated and disconnected from the others. *Jeong* is what makes Koreans say 'we' rather than 'I', and 'ours' rather than 'mine' (Kim, 1994). In many respects *jeong* reflects the very essence of the collectivist nature of Korean culture.

It is important to note that *Jeong* is a feeling and emotion that grows over time. For *jeong* to become strong, it requires a period of incubation (Kim, 1996) or an osmosis-like process (Kim & Choi, 1994). The long incubation leads the relational bonding to become stronger. Through the osmosis-like process, *jeong* circulates among the members to strengthen the relationship between two people and bring them to a sense of togetherness, sharing, and 'we-ness'. Within Korean language, *jeong* is often described as something that sticks and lingers on and the imagery of *jeong* is low-key, quiet, gentle, nurturing, caring, giving, trusting, loyal, considerate, devoted, dependable, and sacrificial (Kim, 1996). The close relationships among society

members and low key affection may protect and prevent Koreans from being bullied and from bullying others.

However, on the basis of the currently available evidence it is not possible to conclude whether bullying in South Korea would be less common in comparison to other countries. In Seo's study (2008), the prevalence of workplace bullying in South Korea was found to be 5.7% or 12.4% depending on the classification methods used. Salin (2001) had used the same criteria and found the prevalence rate of 8.8% or 24.1% within the sample of random Finnish business professionals. Since both Seo's (2008) and Salin's (2001) studies used the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ), one could argue that workplace bullying was less common among Korean workers than among Finnish workers. However, the versions of the NAQ were different. While Salin (2001) used the 31 item version, Seo (2008) used the 22 item version. Therefore, it is not clear how comparable the results of the two studies are. Moreover, the NAQ was developed from Europe and, although Seo (2008) used it in Korea, she did not test for its cross-cultural validity. Given their different cultural characteristics, it is possible that bullying may take different forms in South Korea from European countries. Thus, at this stage, whilst cultural aspects may suggest that bullying would be uncommon, little empirical data exist, which allow researchers to conclude that bullying in South Korea is indeed uncommon.

2.2. Speculation 2: Bullying will be common in South Korea. Whilst the concept of *jeong* and the close relationship among Koreans suggest that bullying may not be common in South Korea, other historical and cultural factors might suggest otherwise, e.g., Confucianism as the chief moral system, political dictatorship, an emphasis on conformity, and the plethora of mixed cultural values and attitudes.

2.2.1. Confucianism as the chief moral system. During the Cho-sun kingdom, the last kingdom of South Korea, Confucianism was employed as the main philosophy of governing the country and the moral system. Under the policy, great importance was attached to the group value and the benefit of the group and members within the group formed strong bonds amongst themselves and worked together for the benefit of the

group. However, on the negative side, an individual's needs were easily sacrificed for the benefit of the group in the Confucian society. What the group decided, the individuals were discouraged or even forbidden to contradict. Within the school environment, group punishment was common even if only one individual caused trouble. Social hierarchy was also clearly established according to the age and the position within the group/organisation and respect for the older individuals and the seniors was expected or even demanded from childhood (Doe, 2000).

Korean children were taught to be quiet and obedient (Bailey & Lee, 1992) and as a consequence, subordinates and younger members of the society were unable to defend themselves in situations where they might find themselves vulnerable. Until the late 1990s, parents would consent to physical punishment of their children if the teachers felt that it would improve their children's performance (Ellinger & Beckham, 1997). The result was that children were exposed to the potential danger of abuse or violence from teachers. In fact, the media in South Korea continuously report cases of abuse or violence by the teachers at high schools (Joh, 2008), at secondary schools (Kim, 2007b), at primary schools (Lee, 2008), and even at kindergartens (Yi, 2008). In most of the cases, the colleagues and superiors of the aggressor (the teacher) underestimated the seriousness of the case or even justified the violence as a method of teaching. The issues are not helped by the fact that many schools prefer to deal with the cases of abuse and violence by removing the targets (almost always the minority) rather than tackling the actual problems. In the 'Milyang Case' in which a group of teenage boys sexually and physically bullied two girls over the course of a year, the victims were required to leave the school while the bullies remained at their school with voluntary work given as their punishment (e.g., MBC After News Report, 2007).

In addition, due to the Confucian influence, the older Korean generation – who usually occupy higher positions in an organisation – tend to consider that a woman's position should be 'in the home' and not at work. While the culture emphasises the importance of women's physical beauty (Jung & Forbes, 2006), their intellectual or professional abilities are undermined (Kiadó, 1988). Thus, when an organisation is

restructuring or downsizing, women tend to be made redundant before men (Chosun ilbo Report, 1998) and women tend to feel less job security than men (Yonhap News Report, 2006). Since management does not value women as much as men, women might be more easily targeted with mistreatment.

With the cultural atmosphere overlooking and being so tolerant to possible mistreatment of individuals, one might hypothesize that the prevalence of bullying will be high in South Korea, particularly bullying that is perpetrated by those who have more authority than the victims. Indeed, studies in other cultures on workplace bullying have consistently identified people in superior positions as bullies (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher., 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). Superiors can easily inflict harm on the individuals using their legitimate positional power to do so. Moreover, reliance on Confucian philosophy also led Koreans to be more accepting and tolerant towards hierarchical relationships than the people in Western culture. During the *Chosun* kingdom, the society was divided into a formal hierarchical system similar to the Caste structure in India. There were *wang-jok* (the royal families), *yang-ban* (the aristocrats), *joong-in* (the intermediary class), *pyoung-min* (the commoners), and *cheon-min* (the canaille) and *no-bi* (the slaves). The formal, strict hierarchy began to collapse towards the end of the *Chosun* kingdom and great changes were made in the early 20th century in the hierarchical system (Hwang, 2007). However, social hierarchy has persisted in South Korea in a less strict and more flexible form. What had been the royal families and aristocrats' positions previously were replaced by the people with wealth, fame, and political power. The polite and courtly attitude for the elders is still encouraged as a human virtue and the hierarchical structure of Korean society is still a prevalent factor in day to day living (Bailey & Lee, 1992). Considering such findings and the hierarchical structure of Korean society, the atmosphere has a fertile ground for bullying to occur.

The concept of 'low-context' and 'high-context' cultures can also be used to describe the cultural influences between Korea and other western countries on the kind of relationship the members of the society may have (Hall, 1976; Kim, Pan, & Park, 1998). According to Hall (1976), a low context culture is characterised by members

who are highly individualized and fragmented and there is relatively little involvement with others. The consequence is that the social hierarchy, as well as society in general, does not impose strongly on individuals' lives. The communication between members of low context society is more explicit and members avoid interfering with the other's personal lives and the sense of loyalty is not so strong so that people move away or withdraw if things are not going well. On the other hand, because of the relational bonds not being so personal, members of low context cultures are less likely to avoid direct and open confrontation at the "expense of expressing and defending self" (Hall, 1976, p. 159) and criticism is more direct and recorded formally. What receives the most attention is what is actually said, not the context and not how it is said (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1993). At the low end of the spectrum lie countries like Switzerland and Scandinavian countries.

In contrast, in a high-context culture (such as China and Korea), people are deeply involved with each other and, because of this high involvement, a person's word binds him or her to do as he/she said. They are expected to be 'a man of his word' in a literal sense. Thus, members of high context cultures tend to be extremely cautious and even reluctant to begin something, particularly in unfamiliar fields or relationships. People also try to avoid direct confrontation to maintain social harmony and intimate bonds (often through repressing their self) which results in criticism being more subtle and non-verbal, as "what is not being said can carry more meaning than what is said" (Czinkota & Ronkainen, 1990, p. 134). In order to avoid open and direct confrontation, they often express themselves "...in a roundabout way, especially regarding issues that might be disagreed upon..." (Hall, 1976, p. 66).

Because of the indirect way of communication prevalent in the high context culture, the concept of *noon-chi* (Kim, 1992) is particularly important in the process of communication in South Korea. *Noon-chi* has a literal meaning of 'measuring with the eyes'. In practice, it is used to refer to an intuitive capacity to size up and evaluate another person or social situation quickly (Kim, Kim, & Kelly, 2006). *Noon-chi* allows Koreans to comprehend and be alert to nonverbal cues, such as gestures, facial expressions, voice, intonation, speech patterns, and body language. Depending on the

status of the person with whom one is speaking, different forms of address, verb endings, and sentence structure are most appropriate. In order to use *noon-chi*, one is required to learn many different contexts and how to behave appropriately in those situations. For that purpose, it is necessary to establish relatively close relationships with people in order to know that a certain person's indirect remark indicates certain things while the same remark may indicate something different for a different person (Kim et al., 2006). This again encourages close personal relationship among people and even if the relationship started for business or professional purposes, it is common for the relationship to become personal.

However, because of the intimate relationships among the in-group members, there also follows strong discrimination against the out-group. High context cultures make a greater distinction between insiders and outsiders than do low-context cultures (Hall, 1976) and can be suspicious or rejecting to strangers or outsiders. Anyone who may appear to be different from the group is easily targeted. Moreover, because of group orientation and value for group-harmony, a member's individuality, minor dissent, and clashes of personality are often ignored or undermined. Displaying disagreement and anger in public can easily result in the loss of control and face. Consequently, the repression of an individual's feelings is encouraged for the protection and maintenance of group harmony. Such atmosphere provides a rich ground for the escalation of bullying because a target of bullying is likely to avoid speaking out for fear of violating the 'harmony'. The bully, taking advantage of the target's awkward situation, may continue to bully without the fear of being revealed. Even if someone else finds out about the bullying situation, the person is again likely to turn a blind eye. This makes the ground of the target weaker and the bullying situation can get worse. Such possibility implies that, in South Korea, bullying can more easily escalate to the degree of extreme severity than in the Western Culture.

Indeed, South Korean media reports of bullying cases give an insight into the extent of workplace bullying in South Korea. One example can be found in the social gatherings of teams that work together. According to a survey conducted by an online recruiting site (www.saramin.co.kr), 54.1% of women and 17.2% of men reported being

sexually harassed during socials at work (Yi, 2005). Despite the high prevalence of the problem, only a small proportion of the aggressors (2.5%) were disciplined by the management (Yi, 2005). A more recent survey by the same online site again reported that 52.3% of women have experienced sexual harassment during socials at work and 51.2% of the respondents did nothing to stop the harassment (Sung, 2008). The reasons given for not taking action included: victims felt their actions would not change anything; they considered they could avoid the harassment without causing tension; they feared they might be disadvantaged in their career progress; everyone else was enduring such treatment; and that the aggressors were older than themselves. It was also reported that only 5.5% of the aggressors were disciplined by the management and only 24.7% of the organisations were found to have a department or personnel to turn to for advice when sexual harassment occurred (Sung, 2008). This provides evidence that many South Korean organisations do not treat sexual harassment as a serious issue or overlook the cases when they occur. Under such a relaxed attitude from the management, sexual harassment could easily be repeated, which could then become sexual bullying.

Another example can be found in the abuse, violence, and mistreatment found in military camps. Within Korean military camps, physical violence and other forms of aggression can occur frequently and – due to the length of military service (2 years currently and 3 years previously) – for a significant duration of time. Thus, violence cases that occur in Korean military camp usually end up as severe physical bullying, not just a one off incident. In 1998, the number of deaths within military camps caught media attention. Initially, these deaths were reported to be the result of suicides or accidents. However, further investigation revealed some of them to be deaths from repeated physical violence from the superior (Yu, 1998; Jeong, 1998; Choi & Park, 1999). More recent media reports also revealed a case in which the captain force-fed human excrement to the subordinate soldiers (Kim, 2005). Although the aggressor was prosecuted in the more recent case, in the earlier cases, the military authority often ‘covered up’ and overlooked them, such deaths typically being reported as the result of suicides or accidents rather than bullying at the hands of a superior officer. This is an

extreme example in which Koreans' value for group harmony backfired.

Now that public awareness has been alerted, extreme violence and bullying are no longer condoned as they used to be. However, cases of explosive anger from the bullied/abused soldiers continue to be reported in the media. One such case was the random gun firing by Private Kim in Yon-chon, South Korea, on 19th of June, 2005, which caused the deaths of eight officers and soldiers with two further personnel injured (Yonhap News Report, 2005). As the investigation revealed, the tragedy was caused by the repeated and enduring inhumane, abusive behaviours inflicted by the superior officers in the army. Even more recently was the bombing by Private Hwang (Kim & Yu, 2008). Private Hwang threw a grenade in the barrack where his comrades were sleeping and injured five of them. Media reports featured him claiming that he did so because he had been repeatedly exposed to the abusive attitudes of his superiors and given a heavy workload for months. It was later reported that Private Hwang was mentally vulnerable (Yu, 2008). Even so, the influence of abuse from the superiors could not be overlooked. All in all, the cases of aggression and violence in South Korean military camps can be considered as an example of a serious consequence of physical bullying.

It is not just within the military camp where such extreme consequences of workplace bullying occur. There has been a reported case in which two nurses working in the same hospital committed suicides within a 5-month period (Kang, 2006). The families of the dead nurses claimed that bullying and abuse of human rights by doctors and superior nurses were the cause of the suicides (Kang, 2006). In a follow up media report, it was revealed that two more staff in the hospital committed suicide, one of which was officially attributed to the relationship issues with the superiors (Yi, 2007). As revealed by the media reports, it is common for superior nurses and doctors to mistreat other nurses (Kim, 2006). Shouting or throwing medical instruments is common and physically hurting them is not so uncommon either, even though the majority of the targets are women and both bullies and victims are highly educated individuals.

In addition, within the South Korean society, there exists an attitude that violence and aggression can be justified when they are a response to frustration or

when the purpose is to enhance work performance in pursuit of work targets (Choi, 2009). Evidence can be found in the survey conducted by Korean Criminal Policy Research Centre (Choi, 2009). According to this survey, two in three medical staff experienced verbal aggression and/or physical violence from the patients and their families when the treatment or the prescribed drugs was not working fast. The targets tended to endure the aggression and violence because they thought the aggressors were upset or frustrated (Choi, 2009). The Korean Criminal Policy Research Centre also conducted a survey of sports players and revealed that 34% of the sports players experienced serious violence. An expert on sport leisure stated that violence was condoned as it quickly enhanced the players' performance (Choi, 2009).

Considering the above media-reported cases, it seems that physical as well as psychological bullying could escalate to an extreme degree even in the cases of adult bullying. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, because of the cultural atmosphere tolerating and overlooking the expression of aggression, it is possible to hypothesise that bullying would be common.

2.2.2. Political dictatorship. Another reason why bullying might be engendered in South Korea comes from the prolonged influence of political dictatorship and its influence upon the educational system. Dictatorship promoted the spread of authoritarian attitudes from the top of the social hierarchy. To understand the political dictatorship in South Korea, one should also look at the Japanese annexation during the first half of the last century. From the end of the *Chosun* kingdom till 1945, South Korea suffered forcible annexation by the Japanese government. After the country regained its independence, it was scarred by the Korean War, following which were decades of political dictatorship by President Park and President Jeon. Even though the political dictatorship itself ended in the 1980s, the effects still linger on.

Korean dictatorship was, in a sense, facilitated by Japanese colonisation and this has been the ultimate cause of the division in the Korean peninsula. During the independence act against Japan, part of the resistance forces continued their acts in Manchuria and were influenced by the communist governments of China and Russia while other parts of the resistance forces were supported by the US. Consequently,

conflicts broke out between the two political parties after independence was regained and the conflict ultimately led to the division of North and South Korea. Following the Korean War, anti-communism and anti-North feelings rose high in South Korea. Such feelings gave a strong ground for the political leaders to employ dictatorship under the claim of protecting the South from the communist North (Shin, 1999). Japanese Colonisation is therefore a key factor to understand in Korean history.

2.2.2.1. Japanese colonisation. Under Japanese colonialism, the aim of the Japanese colonial authority was to make Korea an eternally subordinated colony and the Korean nation cheap colonial labour. The Japanese colonial authority developed a centralised political administration, exercising strong control over the Koreans (Kang, 2002). One example was the Korean educational system being entirely controlled by the Japanese military and all the school textbooks were designed by the Japanese colonial government to be used uniformly across all schools. Koreans were forced to change names to Japanese style and to learn Japanese language and history. The use of the Korean language was forbidden in schools as well as in business and Korean students were treated as subordinate to Japanese students. No objection was allowed and the teachers at school wore swords at their sides to gain complete obedience from Koreans. In the case of resistance from any of the Korean students, the students were whipped by the teachers or jailed (Kang, 2002).

Such a repressive, forcible atmosphere at school continued long after Korea regained its independence and indeed still continues in some parts of Korea although to a less extreme extent. One example is that physical punishment at school has been allowed and accepted until recently, with the Korean Protection Agency reporting in 2000 that 97% of the Korean children it surveyed have experienced physical punishment (see Doe, 2000). Kim, Kim, Park, Zhang, Lu, & Li (2000) also compared the prevalence of teachers' violence against children in South Korea with that in China and reported very large differences in these rates. While only 4.1% of Chinese children reported serious violence against them perpetrated by their teachers, the rate among South Korean children was 43.8%. Nowadays, physical punishment at school is legally forbidden but still continues even if it is no longer an acceptable punishment but rather

seen as 'violence'. Recent media reports revealed a case in which a teenage girl was beaten up by a male teacher until her facial bones were fractured (Kim, 2008).

Exposure to violent physical punishment from a young age can be the precursor of students bullying their colleagues. Studies of school bullying (e.g., Olweus, 1980; Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsay, 1989) have shown that a home environment prone to a high level of aggression is linked to involvement of school bullying. By extension, a school environment prone to a high level of aggression and violence may also trigger bullying among the students, and, as Life Cycle Theory (White, 2004) suggests, the students who have been involved in school bullying or victimisation may become involved in bullying again at later age or even in adulthood. This is even more likely with South Koreans, since South Korean students spend considerably longer time at school than Western students do (Cho, 1995; Lee & Larson, 2000). By the time Korean students reach their final year at high school, they spend 14-18 hours studying (Lee & Larson, 2000). In other words, the influence of the earlier school environment is likely to be heavier on South Koreans than Westerners and the aggression-prone school environment can lead Koreans to be involved in school bullying, and eventually, workplace bullying in adulthood.

In order to understand why such extreme forms of aggression occur in South Korea, it is necessary to look into Koreans' mentality following the Japanese colonisation. Here, the concept of *haan* provides a good insight into Koreans' mentality. *Haan* is a multifaceted indigenous cultural construct (Kim, Kim, & Kelly, 2006) for which there is no single English word translation. It is an emotional scar that does not heal easily and constantly and continuously causes pain and suffering. Suppressed anger, grievance, resentment, indignation, despair, frustration and deep hatred all describe part of the concept. In traditional Korean society, individuals were discouraged from overt expressions of emotion, particularly anger. The anger would be suppressed and hence accumulates over time. The long suppressed anger eventually transforms into the feelings of *haan*. *Haan* tends to be characterised primarily by the passive side of suffering, but the person holding *haan* does not easily forgive and forget. In some cases, *haan* would be passed down to the brothers, sisters, children, or even

grandchildren of the person who initially formed the *haan* when he/she failed to resolve the feeling or to revenge on the *haan*.

In addition to these intrapersonal expressions, there are also historical and collective elements of *haan* (Kim et al., 2006). Korea has a long history of constant invasions and occupation by the neighbouring countries (i.e. Japan, China, and the former Soviet Union), due to its unique geographical location. The Korean peninsula forms the geographical bridge between Japan and the Asian continent and has been used as a strategic bridge by neighbouring countries for military and political invasions. Consequently, Koreans have suffered much persecution and victimisation throughout their history and the suffering led the feelings of *haan* to spread across the nation.

In particular, the annexation by Japan provided a strong reason for the spread of *haan*. Japanese colonisation reached the point of 'cultural genocide' (Matsumura, 2004). The colonial government implemented policies to completely destroy the Korean culture and language. Any attempts at independence – whether armed or unarmed – were suppressed with violence and those involved tortured to death. During World War II, between 10,000 and 200,000 women were sent to the battle zone as comfort women for the soldiers, with the majority being Korean women. Many were kidnapped or recruited under the guise of factory employment (CNN Report, 2001; The Japan Times, 2005). To this date, no proper compensation has been made to the women who suffered this sexual slavery. Due to the inhumane treatment and abuse experienced under Japanese colonisation, the feeling of *haan* spread across the nation and still remains strong after more than half a century since Korean Independence (Rozman, 2002). Although, the vast majority of living Koreans have never experienced the suffering themselves, the *haan* against Japan has been passed down the generations from father to son, and from mother to daughter.

While not only unhealthy for the individual holding the feeling, *haan* is also dangerous for the others around the individual as the unresolved anger may result in displacement, turning the anger towards weaker targets (Vaillant, 1992). Although there is no specific cause to hold *haan* any more, the feelings are widely spread across the older generation. The deeply suppressed anger sometimes manifests itself as

mistreatment of someone in a weaker position. An example can be found in the elderly Korean women who mistreat or even abuse their daughters-in-law (Kim, 2007a). The older members' mistreatment of younger generations may nurture the feeling of *haan* in the younger members. The younger members, in turn, mistreat those who are in more vulnerable positions than they are and a vicious circle is established. Under such an atmosphere, top-down mistreatment is likely to be wide-spread across the society.

2.2.2.2. Post-colonisation periods to present. Even after the Japanese colonisation, South Korea suffered a long hardship due to the Korean War and political dictatorship. After regaining its independence, Koreans tried to build a new nation state that was genuinely independent whether politically, economically and socially. Still, there was a great confusion over the idea of democracy and running of the country without a king and royal family. It was also impossible to erase the lingering influences of Japanese colonisation. Although South Korea began as the new, democratic government independent from Japanese rule, all the pro-Japanese 'elites' remained and were reappointed to the important positions within the government. The government members then just changed from being pro-Japanese into being pro-American (Kang, 2002). After independence, all policy followed Americanisation under the occupation of American troops and there was no scope for Koreans to have true independence. The government urged all the activities for individual rights to be suppressed as pro-Communist or anti-American (Sim, 1986).

While confusion over the concept of democracy prevailed in the society, President Jung-hi Park seized power through the military coup. From then till the 1980s, the South Korean Government had a number of presidents with a strong military background (e.g., Presidents Du-hwan Jeon, and Tae-wu Noh as well as President Park himself). Under their regime, an authoritarian developmental state spread (Kwon & Holliday, 2006). Although South Korea experienced dramatic economic development under the regime of these Presidents, this was achieved by the government forcing its policies through under the name of 'development'. Although such drastic measures might have been necessary for the rapid development from the extreme poverty South Korea was suffering after Japanese colonisation and Korean

War, it was at the cost of side effects (e.g., the pollution and damaged ecosystem in mud-flats due to the *Saemangum* Reclamation Project, and the collapse of *Sung-su* Bridge due to faulty construction) and at the sacrifice of workers who worked long hours with low pay. Human rights activities were also suppressed during this period.

The political situation continued and was particularly strong in the 1970s (Kim, 1989). The Cold War ideology of the dictatorial South Korean government encouraged inflexible anti-communism among the people. It used the division of the nation as a tool for justifying and prolonging its own political power (Kang, 2002; Shin, 1999), making North Korea an imaginary enemy of the people, rather than trying to create peaceful channels for dialogue between the two countries. The government controlled and mobilised people with a state-building ideology based on nationalism. The concepts of freedom of thought and expression or human rights were seen as threats to national security, with democracy conceptualised as anti-communism and pro-Americanism (Kang, 1984). Political repression and forcible regime occurred during this period.

In simple terms, authoritarian military dictatorship was legitimised through the uncritical acceptance of the situation of national division. Owing to the prevailing cold war ideology, the educational system was controlled in line with the political atmosphere for anti-communism (Kang, 1990). As a consequence of the Japanese colonisation and the policy of rapid economic development in South Korea, the education system has become centralised and inflexible. Human rights and individuality were largely ignored and children grew up to be accepting of the dictatorship. Even now, many of the senior members of Korean society still hold the attitude 'Order is an order', which may lead to justification for abuse of individuals' rights.

Moreover, the war between North and South Korea is technically on-going. Following the 3 years of battles in the 1950s, the conflict ended in a truce, not a peace treaty. Thus, South Korea still faces the need for arming against North Korea. Consequently, Korean men are liable for compulsory military service for 2 years (previously 3 years) unless they have a legally justifiable reason to be freed from the obligation (e.g., severe medical conditions or extreme psychological instability). During

the course of their years in the military, the men are trained to show complete obedience to their superiors and grow to expect the same from their subordinates. Such experience is likely to lead Korean men to be tolerant of physical violence and to become authoritarian. With men dominating the senior positions within organisations, authoritarian attitudes readily spread down to the working population. Once again, the organisational and societal atmosphere is rich with potential mistreatment of individuals.

2.2.3. Emphasis on conformity. Confucianism, Japanese colonisation, and political dictatorship can explain top-down bullying or bullying by the superior. However, in a survey study carried out in South Korea (Seo, 2008), superiors were not the most common perpetrators of workplace bullying. In fact, it was bullying by colleagues that was reported to be most common. Bullying by subordinates was also found to be equally as common as bullying by superiors. Leaving the bullying by superiors aside, bullying by colleagues may be explained by the strong value placed on conformity to some extent. Because of Koreans' great familiarity with conformity and value for it, those who do not conform may be considered to be outsiders. The 'outsiders' may be subject to discrimination, or even bullying. Without the power to protect oneself (e.g., high status within the organisation), the 'outsiders' would not be able to overcome the discrimination/bullying problem.

The development of conformity as a core social value in Korean society can be traced back to the country's strong agricultural history. In its agricultural past, the country consisted of small villages. Generation after generation of people married and lived in the same location. Relatives lived closely together and the whole village worked cooperatively in farming even though each household had its own farm. Korean culture became based upon close interpersonal relationships with an extended family orientation and if an individual behaved negatively it would be considered to shame the entire extended family not just the individual involved. This placed great emphasis on the education of adults and children to defer to authority, maintain emotional restraint, live within specified roles, and understand the hierarchical structure of society and families. Specific examples of the trained rules include never raising

one's voice when speaking to others, acting in a formal manner with verbal and nonverbal language, and not openly revealing one's emotions. With such a high value placed on group orientation, many were obliged to follow the group. Even when there was a case of the family or organisation conducting immoral acts, the members were unwilling to speak out in fear of shaming the organisation and being treated as a traitor by the other members. As well as those not conforming to the decision or action, the 'traitors' could be subjected to mistreatment by the other members of the organisations.

Bailey and Lee (1992) also explained the influence of Japanese colonisation in the development of an expectation of conformity. From the period of Japanese colonisation, the educational system became centralised as students were taught the same subjects and were encouraged not to stand out while attending school. Strict rules were put into practice that students all had to wear a uniform and have similar hair style. Under the conformity-valuing and puritan-like atmosphere at school, students grew to accept conformity as 'good' and 'follow' as the majority do. Such educational 'style' has continued after Korean Independence and still persists. Besides, with the number of working mothers increasing, families have become more and more dependent on the day care system. The age at which children enter day care has also decreased, leaving the children exposed to the institutionalised, group education from a very young age. In other words, children are exposed to the conformity-valuing culture from their early childhood.

This might not be a problem provided that the attitudes and values of the majority were 'good' and morally desirable. However, when that is not the case – or at least when this is debatable - then there is a dangerous possibility that even what is 'morally right' can be perceived as 'wrong' if the majority rejects it or vice versa. If the majority sees someone who does not conform, it will seek to 'punish' the 'wrong-doer' by using harm-doing behaviours such as bullying. When the majority 'chooses' to bully a small minority or an individual, people would conform to the majority's behaviour in order to avoid rejection from the majority and becoming the target of the bullying themselves. Indeed, Tubbs (1994) mentioned the danger of strong conformity in Japanese society and how the great value placed on conformity resulted in bullying

and violence at school.

On the other hand, valuing conformity only provides limited explanation of the findings by Seo (2008). It may explain why bullying by colleagues occurs as well as bullying by superiors. However, it still does not explain why bullying by superiors was much less common than bullying by colleagues among the South Korean respondents. Here, the influence of Confucian culture might provide a salient explanation. The culture demands obedience to, and respect for, superiors and the elders. Thus, Koreans may be tolerant to some degree of mistreatment when it comes from their superior. What is perceived as bullying when coming from the colleagues or subordinates may not be perceived as bullying when coming from the superiors.

Now, the relatively high prevalence of bullying by subordinates in South Korea remains unexplained. With Scandinavian studies, in general, superiors and colleagues were found to be equally likely to be bullies while bullying by a subordinate was reported by only a small number (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Considering the influence of Confucianism in South Korea, where respect for elder and superior is expected, bullying by subordinates should be even less common than it is in the European countries. However, in Seo's (2008) study, bullying by subordinates was found to be equally common as bullying by superiors. In order to explain such unexpected findings, the recent changes in the attitudes and values of the younger generation need to be discussed.

2.2.4. Mixed cultural values and attitudes. As mentioned above, South Korea has long been a Confucian, collectivist country. The older members of the society are still under the influence of Confucianism and show the strong tendency of collectivism. However, during recent decades, changes began to show among the younger generation. On one hand, they have exhibited the tendency of moving towards individualism or even egoism. Younger individuals are much less willing to sacrifice their needs for the group in comparison to the older members of the society. At the same time, they are also more self-centred than the older generation. They often show a lack of consideration for other people who may be affected by their behaviour. While they may behave according to their impulses or pleasures, they refuse to take the

responsibility for the consequences. As Roh (2004) expressed, "...young generations have been steeped in inordinate and irresponsible individualism in the process of modernization and westernization..." (p. 268).

Even middle-aged Koreans are also showing a tendency to move away from traditional values. The evidence for such tendency can be seen from the growing need for social services for the elderly (Sung, 2001), which indicates that filial piety is weakening in South Korea. It used to be common to see three or even four generations of families living together in the South Korean household. Parents supported their children until the children grew up and found jobs to support themselves. This support involved great sacrifice on the part of the parents themselves. When the children grew up, the elderly parents were supported and taken care of by them. However, during recent years, the need for public services for elderly people has begun to grow (Sung, 2001) as the current generations of people are increasingly unwilling to live with their parents. Parents still support their children until they find a job and become financially independent. However, the grown-up children are far less willing to take care of their elderly parents than their parents had been for their grandparents.

While the young or middle-aged generations of South Korea are moving away from Confucianism and towards individualism, this does not mean that they are completely free from the influence of the traditional values. While they may be more individualist (or egoist) than the older generation, they still hold some degree of traditional attitudes. As Yoon (2006) found from a study of young Korean's mobile phone use, despite dominant representations of young people's individualisation via the popular use of new technologies, young Koreans internalised and negotiated local norms of sociality emphasising collective harmony based upon self-regulation. In other words, young people's use of 'new' and individualist technology was integrated with the 'old', collectivist contexts.

Further evidence comes from Lee and Sung (1997) who examined Korean and American levels of care giving amongst children whose parents were suffering with dementia. Lee and Sung (1997) found that Koreans, in comparison to Americans, expressed significantly high level of filial responsibility. Similarly, Lee, Park, Kim, and

Tak (2008) studied 600 Koreans and found evidence of respect for their fathers amongst young people due to the sacrifice fathers often made for their children. Respect was also attributed to fathers for their sincerity and for being a role model. For mothers, respect was similarly ascribed on the basis of their sacrifice and sincerity, as well as for raising their children. For grandparents, respect was also given for sacrifice, benevolence and consanguinity.

Kim and Choi (1994) described an ethnographic study, which provided comparable evidence for stronger devotion among Korean mothers compared with Canadian mothers. Here, Korean mothers were found to place a greater weight on their role as caregivers for their children, in contrast to Canadian mothers who assigned equal emphasis to their role as caregivers *and* to their personal development. Korean mothers felt little or no conflict in sacrificing their careers to devote themselves to the children. Canadian mothers, on the other hand, indicated the dual importance of being both a caring mother yet also having some degree of independent autonomy. Since filial piety and respect for the elders are strongly encouraged by the Confucian teaching, it would not be unreasonable to conclude that these traditional values still remain in younger Koreans, at least to some extent.

The remaining traditional values held by younger Koreans can be explained as the consequence of the Korean educational curriculum trying to harmonise traditional values with global values (Roh, 2004). If the curriculum achieves its ultimate aim, one may expect well-balanced traditional and individualist values to co-exist in harmony within the individual. However, so far, the harmony between traditional and individualist values has not yet been achieved. The younger generation readily adapts the 'pleasure' side of the individualist values but denies responsibilities (Roh, 2004). The lack of responsibility from the younger generation earns disapproval from the older generation while the younger generation blames the older generation for repressing individuality. Conflicts are likely to arise due to disapproval and blame made against each other. With a high degree of conflict in the atmosphere, aggression and, eventually bullying, is highly likely (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007).

Moreover, since the older generation, who usually occupy the senior positions in an organisation, hold the more traditional, Confucian attitudes, they still expect obedience and unconditional respect from the younger generation. However, due to the spread of liberal and individualist attitudes among the younger generation, the younger members no longer hold unconditional respect for the elders and superiors. This lack of respect and obedience from the younger generation may lead the older generation to feel that they are being mistreated or even bullied by the younger members. As found in Seo's (2008) survey, bullying by subordinates was as prevalent as bullying by superiors. Since organisational superiors tend to be older than their subordinates, the findings may indicate that the older Korean generation are, rather frequently, bullied by the younger generation.

However, one cannot yet draw a clear conclusion in terms of the 'high' prevalence of bullying by subordinates in South Korea. Considering the remaining influence of the Confucian moral system in South Korea, the possibility cannot be discounted that the older generation and people in superior positions are protected from being bullied by the younger, subordinate people to some extent. Considering the paranoiac feeling of being victimised among the older generations due to having lived difficult times through Japanese annexation and political dictatorship, one may also suspect that the reasonably high prevalence of bullying by subordinate in Seo's (2008) study has been due to such paranoia. Indeed, in Seo's (2008) study, the finding of bullies' status has been based on the participants' self-report. The study did not seek for 'objective' evidence of the superiors being bullied by the subordinate.

The conflicting hypotheses discussed here and the lack of the research evidence both point strongly to the need for more extensive research on workplace bullying in South Korea. This is the ultimate aim of the thesis. As mentioned earlier, despite the recent outburst of public interest in bullying in South Korea, research interest has been minimal. No published study to date has investigated workplace bullying in South Korea and little is known about it. A simple, exploratory study has been reported by Seo (2008). However, the study used the revised version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, &

Notelaers, 2009), which is one of the European bullying questionnaires. Its application to the workplace in South Korea has not been questioned.

The use of the NAQ-R without any underpinning questioning of its items also carries an inherent risk or problem, i.e. the questionnaire may have missed out some of the bullying tactics used in the South Korean workplace. Some of the behaviours that connote bullying might, to some extent at least, be culture specific or at least culturally influenced. For example, practical jokes may be considered merely as a joke in one culture but, in a different culture, they may be considered as more serious offence. In different cultures, the most common bullies can also differ, and resultantly, the bullying tactics can also differ. For example, studies within the UK have consistently identified people in superior positions as bullies (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997) but, in Scandinavia, colleagues are often reported as the major bullies of 'mobbing' (Leymann, 1996). There is a different range of behaviours the bullies can employ depending on their status. For this reason, the list of bullying behaviours would not be free from cultural influence. A lack of a dedicated Korean bullying questionnaire could result in distorted results. There is a need, therefore, for the development of an indigenous, Korean bullying questionnaire.

However, before getting into actually developing the questionnaire, it should first be examined whether the European bullying questionnaires (e.g., Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999) are, in fact, inappropriate for use in South Korea. One approach would be to investigate whether the items in the European bullying questionnaires are considered to be a full and valid representation of bullying in the Korean context. Moreover, as suggested in Chapter 1 and earlier in this chapter, the concept of bullying may differ between Korean and European cultures due to the differences in the focus of consciousness and the style of cognition (i.e. holistic vs. analytic). Therefore, in the next chapter, the aim is to examine Korean and UK participants' concepts of workplace bullying and whether or not they consider the negative acts items of European bullying questionnaires to be examples of bullying.

CHAPTER 3

Cultural Differences in the Conceptualisation of Bullying: Definition, Bullying Tactics and Tolerance to Bullying

1. Introduction

As previously noted, different concepts are used to refer to bullying behaviour in different countries. For example, while the term 'bullying' is used in the UK (Rayner, 1997; Vartia, 1996), 'mobbing' is used in Scandinavian countries (e.g., Leymann, 1990, 1996; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996). In Chapter 2, a number of South Korean terms equivalent to bullying were introduced. These included *tta-dol-lim*, *ijime*, *wang-tta*, and *tae-wu-gi/tae-wum*, with *wang-tta* being the most commonly used term. The point was also made in Chapter 2 that, following Hofstede (1980; 1991) and Nisbett, Peng, Choi, and Norenzayan (2001), the same behaviours could be perceived differently by people in different cultures due to culture-specific styles or patterns of cognition. Hence, one might expect that the conceptualisation or perception of South Korean *wang-tta* would differ from the conceptualisation or perception of bullying or mobbing.

Reflecting the lack of research on South Korean workplace bullying, there is no

South Korean academic definition of workplace bullying available. Arguably the best place to begin exploring the meaning and definition of bullying within South Korea is therefore with the experiences of South Korean workers themselves. A similar study was reported by Saunders, Huynh, and Goodman-Delahunty (2007) who investigated lay definitions of bullying amongst students and workers from across the world. However, Saunders et al. (2007) did not make cultural comparisons in the lay definitions they explored. Therefore, in the current study, participants will be asked to provide their own definition of bullying and the data from a sample of South Korean employees will be compared to that from a sample of UK employees.

From the review of South Korean history and culture presented in Chapter 2, it should be remembered that two contradicting hypotheses were possible: either (a) bullying would not be common in South Korea due to the close bonding among societal members; or (b) bullying would be common due to the hardship experienced throughout history and the tendency to punish any minority who do not conform to majority. Given the lack of research that examined workplace bullying in South Korea, it is not yet possible to answer which of the two hypotheses has stronger support. In one relevant investigation, Seo (2008) showed that the prevalence of workplace bullying was not particularly high in South Korea when compared to the rates found in previous European studies (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Hoel, Cooper, Faragher, 2001; Salin, 2001; Vartia, 1996). However, that study was based on a relatively small sample and the instrument used was the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009) i.e. an instrument designed and developed in Europe. It is possible that the negative acts used in the NAQ-R omitted some acts which might be specific to the South Korean workplace. Equally, some of the commonly used negative acts listed in the NAQ-R might not be considered negative by the South Korean workers. Apart from Seo's (2008) study, cultural differences in the South Korean experience of bullying have been relatively under-researched. Thus, this study further investigates whether the negative acts in the commonly used bullying questionnaires are applicable to a South Korean sample.

Importantly, studies have found that, in the UK, bullying is mostly perpetrated by superiors (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997). Yet, Seo (2008) found that bullying in South Korea was mostly carried out by peers and bullying by subordinates was also unexpectedly high i.e. at the same level as superior bullying. This may have been due to the conflict between seniors with traditional Confucian values and young workers who resist such values (see Chapter 2). Considering that the impact of bullying can differ depending on the status of the bully relative to the victim (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), one can also expect the attitudes towards bullying to differ between UK employees and South Korean workers. In addition, healthy South Korean males are liable for compulsory military service in their early twenties and this experience might lead them to become tolerant to mistreatment and aggression (see Chapter 2). As Choi (2009) reported, within the South Korean society, there exists an attitude that violence and aggression can be justified when it is a response to frustration or when its purpose is to enhance the performance of targets. With such justification for violence and aggression, one might expect South Korean employees to be more tolerant to bullying or other mistreatment than UK employees.

When exploring attitudes towards bullying, one cannot overlook the influence of one's role (or 'profile') in the bullying situation. Previous studies, especially in the school setting, have shown that there are four types of role or profile involved in bullying: bully, victim, bystander and bully-victims (Kumpulainen, Räsänen, Henttonen, Almqvist, Kresanov, Linna, et al., 1998; Sutton & Smith, 1999; Wolke, Woods, Bloomfield, & Karstadt, 2000), with a focus mainly on victims and to a lesser extent bullies in the domain of workplace bullying (see Chapter 1). Martinez (2006) found differences in the attribution of bullying depending on the profile that respondents usually occupied in bullying scenarios, as well as their gender and the situation. For example, respondents who occupied a bully's position tended to justify their behaviours by blaming a victim's provocation and minimised the severity of their action. In contrast, respondents who usually took the role of victims tended to attribute bullying to intentionality, asymmetry of force, and ignorance, which place greater blame on bullies.

Moreover, bullies and victims of workplace bullying can be people of any status relative to the victim: superior, peer, subordinate, or customer. However, the impact may not necessarily be the same. For example, bullying from a superior may be more damaging than bullying from a peer or subordinate since a superior has greater organisational power over the victim. With greater power, a superior is arguably more capable than peers or subordinates of making the victim feel vulnerable, hopeless and helpless which can result in more negative outcomes. Indeed, Einarsen and Raknes (1997) reported that victims bullied by superiors seem to suffer more in psychological terms than victims of co-worker bullying. In addition, research into workplace violence has shown that, depending on the victim's status or position within an organisation, different groups of people can be perceived as more threatening (Santos, 2003). Specifically, police officers reported violence from civilians to be the most threatening, whereas civilian support workers replied that violence from people who work with them was the most threatening. Considering that the same acts can differ in their negative impact depending on the bully's position or status relative to the victim, the perception of negative acts themselves might also be expected to differ depending on the status of the bully.

Gender differences in bullies and victims have also received considerable attention in the workplace bullying literature, with an imbalance towards males found amongst 'bullies' (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996b; Rayner, 1997), but inconsistent results for victims (Björkqvist, Osterman, Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996b; Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Quine, 2003; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002; Smith et al., 2003; Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003; Vaez, Ekberg, & Laflamme, 2004). The gender imbalance among bullies may be a reflection of different attitudes towards bullying between the gender groups. Although one can only speculate at this stage, males may hold a more relaxed attitude and feel more at ease in perpetrating negative acts than females (Eagly, 1987). Therefore, gender differences in attitudes towards bullying should also be explored.

Based on the above literature, three research questions are posed:

- I. How do South Korean employees conceptualise workplace bullying in comparison to UK employees?
- II. Are South Korean employees equally as likely as UK employees to consider the negative acts in European bullying questionnaires to be examples of bullying?
- III. Is there a cultural difference between UK and South Korean workers in their level of tolerance towards negative acts depending on the respondents' assumed profile in a bullying situation (i.e. bully or victim), the organisational status of bullies/victims, and the gender?

2. Methods

2.1. Participants. Convenience sampling was used for the data collection and 93 respondents (50 from South Korea and 43 from the UK) took part in the survey from various occupations and job sectors (e.g., manufacturing, education, and legal sector). Access to the sample was gained mostly through personal contact. Organisations in which the author's family used to and/or currently work in were contacted first and South Korean occupational psychologists were contacted for help to gain access to the organisations they have worked for. Plans for this and later studies (including the number of studies and their purposes) had been made prior to contacting the organisations in order to estimate the required number of participants (or of organisations). Once a sufficient number of South Korean organisations agreed to participate in the research, UK organisations in the same or related industries were sought out from the Yellowpages and also through the author's personal connections. While initiating the permission for research, due to the nature of the research topic, some of the organisations that were contacted earlier asked that their names remain confidential. Afterwards, by assuring confidentiality for the organisations that were contacted later, the chance of gaining access into the organisations increased. After the permissions for research were gained, based on the total number of employees in the participating organisations, the expected number of participants was estimated and appropriate sample sizes were determined for this and later studies in a way that as

many participants as possible could be allocated for the last, main study but the initial two studies would still have a reasonable size of samples.

As the data collection was fully conducted on-line for this study, it was not possible to obtain the response rate. The age range was greater for the UK sample (range: 23 – 63; mean = 39.0, standard deviation = 11.36) although their mean age was similar to the South Korean sample (range: 21 – 55; mean: 38.1, standard deviation = 9.76). When grouped by nationality, a heavy gender imbalance was found, with the South Korean sample consisting of a greater number of males than females (female: male = 28.0%: 72.0%) while the UK sample had greater number of females than males (female: male = 74.6%: 25.4%). T-test and chi-square test revealed that age was not significantly different between the two nationality groups ($t(91) = .037$, $P > .05$) but the gender ratio was significantly different ($\chi^2(1) = 18.0$, $P < .001$).

2.2. Materials. In order to allow statistical comparison between the South Korean and UK cultures, a survey method was chosen, mostly comprising of closed-items. A survey method was also the only method that could be used since the author could not go back to South Korea in person for the data collection and it was necessary to use a online-questionnaire method. A self-devised questionnaire was used to collect the data since there was no available questionnaire which was suitable for addressing the research aims (see Appendices A and B). In the questionnaire, participants were first asked to provide their own definition of bullying. This was the only open-ended question in the questionnaire. The remaining part of the questionnaire contained closed ended questions and was based on the 38 items from the three commonly used bullying questionnaires: the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization (LIPT: Leymann, 1996), Quine's questionnaire (1999), and the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001). The negative acts listed in these three questionnaires were gathered together and, after discounting the repeated items, were reduced to 68 items. Three raters, including the author, put together similar items and rephrased them into a single item. The process was repeated until all of the 68 items were covered. 38 resulting items were produced and were used for the questionnaire. Since these items were re-phrased, their wording was different from the

original items though they described the same behaviours (see Appendix A).

After participants provided their own definition of bullying, they were asked to indicate to what extent they agreed that the 38 negative acts listed were examples of 'bullying' as judged against an academic definition of bullying that was provided to them, i.e. that bullying is a matter of "harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work tasks. In order for the label 'bullying' to be applied to a particular activity, interaction, or process, it has to occur repeatedly and regularly and over a period of time" (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003, p. 15), A six-point rating scale was used for this task, where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 6 = "strongly agree". If the respondent felt the act would never or extremely rarely occur, they were instructed to tick the "never occur" option.

Tolerance to bullying was measured by participants' rating of how tolerable they felt each of the 38 items was. In order to examine differences in attitudes depending on one's profile in bullying situations, half of the participants from each country were randomly selected and were asked to assume the role of bully while responding to the questionnaire ('Bully group', see Appendix A). The remaining half answered the questions with the prompt to consider themselves to be victims ('Victim group', see Appendix B). The respondents' actual profile in bullying situations was not controlled as it would have required selecting people who have been bullied and people who have bullied others beforehand. Since the sample group was already relatively small, selecting actual bullies and actual victims would have almost certainly reduced the 'Bully' and 'Victim' groups to very small numbers. Thus, participants were asked to assume either a bully/victim profile. It is acknowledged that the use of assumed rather than actual profiles carries obvious limitations, e.g., the possibility of social desirability effects. However, given the available sample size, it was simply not possible at this stage to control for actual profile. After the assumed profile was randomly allocated, participants were asked to rate how tolerable they found each of the negative acts to be.

Following Einarsen and Raknes (1997) and Santos (2003), it was hypothesised that people would perceive negative acts differently depending on the organisational

status of the aggressor. Since it was not possible to control for the status of the actual aggressor, the 'Victim group' were asked to indicate their tolerance level to the bullying acts in three different circumstances: when the bully was their superior, their peer, and their subordinate (Appendix B). The 'Bully group' were also asked to indicate their tolerance level of the negative acts in same three different circumstances: when the victim was their superior, their peer, and their subordinate (Appendix A). The tolerance level was rated for each negative act using a 6-point Likert scale where 1 = "definitely tolerable" and 6 = "definitely intolerable".

In order to assess the usefulness of the questionnaire, a pilot study was carried out with seven Korean and eight UK employees. The questionnaire was translated into Korean without using the back-translation method at this stage. Eight of them (four Korean employees and four UK employees) completed the 'Perpetrator' version of the questionnaire and seven completed the 'Target' versions (three Korean and four UK employees). The result from the pilot data did not produce any significant differences but suggested a direction in which the Korean and UK employees might differ in their responses to the questionnaire. Amendments were made to the questionnaire on the basis of the feedback received from the pilot test. Interestingly, some of the participants raised the issue that some of the negative acts listed could not come from subordinates and could not be done to superiors. For these items, the subsequent questionnaire was amended so that participants were only asked to rate their tolerance level under two circumstances i.e. when the bully was a superior or peer for the Victim group and when the target was a subordinate or peer for the Bully group. Similarly, participants in the pilot test also mentioned that one item could only be targeted at subordinates and undertaken by superiors. For this item, the tolerance level was requested only when the target/bully was subordinate/superior to the respondent. As will be mentioned later, the items that were rated only once or twice were removed from the comparison analyses.

It is important to note that the use of the word 'bullying' was avoided in the first part of the questionnaire. Although bullying was mentioned later in the questionnaire, where the task was that of rating the tolerance level of the negative acts, the use of the

word 'bullying' was avoided (see Appendices A and B). This procedure follows the format of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001) wherein the word 'bullying' does not appear until the question wording changes to questioning the participants' subjective feeling of being bullied. The logic behind this procedure is that labelling the negative acts as bullying from the beginning might influence the results from the later part of the questionnaire wherein participants are asked to indicate whether or not they would label listed behaviours as bullying. In line with Einarsen and Hoel (2001) the term, 'negative act' is also preferred and used in the first and last studies reported in this thesis.

Following the refinements of the questionnaire outlined above, it was translated into South Korean (using a back-translation method) and re-written as an on-line version. The use of an on-line questionnaire can be criticised on the grounds that it is difficult to verify the identity of those completing the questionnaire. This problem can be resolved to some extent by the researcher emailing the link of the questionnaires only to a chosen sample of people, thereby making the online questionnaire closed to the general public. While this does not provide control at the individual participant level it does offer some control at the level of the groups or sub-groups sampled. However, should the receiver of the link forward it to other people unknown to the researcher, then any such control over participants is lost. The additional constraint of online questionnaires is that the respondents need to have access to the internet in order to access them. For this reason, the participants of online questionnaires may not be representative of the population. However, with the South Korean sample, the issue is unlikely to have caused too big a problem since 80% of South Korean population are reported to use the internet at least weekly and 88% have access to a PC at home (Ha, 2007). Similarly, the use of an on-line questionnaire in the UK can be defended on the grounds that 65% of UK households had internet access by 2008 (National Statics Omnibus Survey, 2008).

Despite the limitations discussed above, the advantages of using an online survey are numerous, including its global reach, timeliness and speed, convenience in distribution, low administration cost, ease of data entry (Evans & Mathur, 2005), rapid

access to previously hidden populations, and respondent openness (Rhodes, Bowie, & Hergenrather, 2003). Respondents' openness, in particular, was a great advantage over a paper version of the questionnaire in the current case, especially with the South Korean sample. Specifically, the tendency of South Korean employees to value face-saving often prevents them from being honest and direct about their opinions when their identity is known to others unless the others are very close to them. During the author's previous research with South Korean employees, some participants expressed concern over other people recognising their handwriting on the completed questionnaire. However, online questionnaires allowed respondents to be completely anonymous even to the researchers, thereby increasing the likelihood of honest answers from participants. Questionnaires were electronically distributed through the my3q website (<http://www.my3q.com/>). The link was sent to the individual participants to allow them to complete the survey in their own time. Responses were automatically stored as an excel file by the default function of the my3q website.

3. Results

The first aim of this study was to look into South Korean and UK employees' lay definitions of workplace bullying.

3.1. Qualitative analysis of lay definitions. Thematic analysis (Aronson, 1994) was used, the first analytical stage of which was a listing of patterns in the raw data. All data that related to the listed patterns were identified and then, patterns that shared common components were combined into themes. Participants' own words were used to describe the themes and arguments for the themes were built based on the previous literature. Some of the themes were only raised from one nationality group (either South Korean participants only or UK participants only) and some were raised by both groups. The theme agreed by both South Korean and UK employees was that bullying was aimed at harming other people.

3.1.1. Bullying as harming behaviour. In keeping with academic definitions (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003, Leymann, 1996), both UK and South

Korean participants defined bullying as acts that harm the victim. Participants also described bullying as an intentional act, which is in line with Björkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back's (1994a) view that the bully's intent is also important in defining bullying. Examples from the qualitative responses include the statements that bullying has to do with "...the deliberate tormenting of individual(s)..." (B36¹) "...with the intention to cause distress" (B34), to "...intimidate and control..." (B14), and to make them "...feel upset/unwanted/inadequate/humiliated/intimidated" (B1). Bullying was also considered to be "... (an) intentional disruption to work and employee relations due to unreasonable reasons or manipulating the disruption" (K26). In line with Hoel, Faragher, and Cooper (2004), some participants also emphasized the victim's perception of being harmed, e.g., bullying was the "...perception of being harassed verbally and/or physically without any personal control to confront it" (B43) or the feeling of "...being isolated from the other groups within work and disadvantaged in all aspects due to others" behaviours." (K8).

The bullying as harming theme was mentioned by both South Korean and UK employees, illustrating an etic dimension in their conceptualisation of workplace bullying. Emic aspects were also revealed in a number of distinctive themes that came from either one or other nationality group. The themes that came from South Korean employees included 'blame on victims', 'justification for bullying', and 'bullying as group acts'.

3.1.2. Blame on victim. One line of research focuses on the victim's personal characteristics as antecedents to bullying (e.g., Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Niedl, 1995; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) with some even claiming that being bullied is in the eye of the beholder (e.g., Ege, 2008). A group of South Korean participants expressed a similar opinion, suggesting victims chose to be victims by "... making themselves to be a loner..." (K6) or by "...making their relationship with other members of the organisation to be abnormal" (K35). Victims were also suggested to be "... extremely obedient..." (K11) and "... immature..." (K45). While being immature has not

¹ B36 is a code given to a UK participant. South Korean participants were given a code that begins from K.

been specifically reported in the studies that investigated victims' characteristics, the other characteristics identified, including being obedient and lacking in interpersonal skills, have been reported in the literature (e.g., Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003)

3.1.3. Justification for bullying. A number of South Korean participants also expressed a degree of justification for bullying. Specifically, some participants mentioned that bullying could be done "...if there could be the right reason for it, although it is not a good behaviour..." (K18) and that "...bullies could be bullied back ..." (K41). Kim (2006) reported a similar view among senior nurses who often justified their harsh behaviours as a way to increase staff efficiency. Moreover, even without explicitly justifying bullying, the senior management could give the impression of implicit support or approval to bullies (Einarsen, 1999) by overlooking bullying behaviours or not holding a policy against bullying (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002).

3.1.4. Bullying as group acts. The most distinctive theme that came from the South Korean participants was defining bullying as group behaviour. They responded that bullying was done "by abusing the power of the majority, ... punishing the minority that holds different opinions ..." (K23) and that bullying differs from other forms of similar concepts in that "...bullying is a form of group act. Even if an individual within a group was nasty to another person, it would not be bullying." (K3). Another South Korean participant also explained the development of bullying as a group act in explaining that "...while developing negative feelings towards someone, one would realise that others also share the feelings and act together to (bully the target)" (K34). Bullying (or mobbing) in the form of group acts has also been observed in Scandinavia and Germany (Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996b). However, here, one should question how central the group act is to the South Korean definition of bullying. If being a group act distinguishes bullying from other forms of aggression, as one of the participants (K3) has suggested, then bullying in the South Korean sense would be distinctive from other similar concepts used in different countries.

So far the themes that were mentioned only by South Korean employees have been discussed. There were also a number of themes addressed only by UK employees. One such theme was bullying coming from senior members of the organisation.

3.1.5. Bullying from senior members. According to Hoel and Beale (2006), bullying is concerned with aggressive and unwanted behaviour delivered by someone in a superior position towards subordinates. A similar view was found amongst UK employees who considered bullying to be done "...by senior members to less senior members" (B2) and to come from "...superiors abusing their power" (B10). In the UK, bullying is predominantly carried out by people in superior positions (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). The UK employees' opinions could therefore be a reflection of what actually occurs in UK bullying situations.

3.1.6. Power imbalance. Related to bullying coming from superiors, a power imbalance was also mentioned by UK employees. Here, participants observed that the victim might not be "...in a position to defend themselves..." (B3) against abusive treatment, or that there could be "a power differential due to organisational status" (B2). Power imbalance is essential to the academic definition of bullying (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003) and could be a reflection of formal power relationships due to organisational status (Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson, & Wilkes, 2006; Vartia, 1996) or informal power relationships due to the perceptions of powerlessness resulting from the bullying process (Leymann, 1996; Vartia, 1996).

Overall, South Korean participants and UK employees showed similarities as well as differences in their accounts and constructs of workplace bullying, thereby illustrating both etic and emic elements. The principal similarity was that both groups defined bullying as acts that harm the victim. Their differences lay in the South Korean emphasis upon bullying as group acts while UK employees defined bullying primarily as acts coming from senior members of the organisation and being related to a power imbalance. South Korean employees also discussed justifications for bullying and blaming victims, issues which were never mentioned by the UK employees.

3.2. Agreement to items of bullying questionnaire being 'bullying'. In order to investigate whether European negative acts were considered to be negative acts by South Korean employees – and the extent to which these acts are similarly construed by UK employees – respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed that each act was a manifestation of bullying. Adopting from the typical categories of bullying presented in Chapter 1, the 38 items were categorised under the following areas: 'organisational measures', 'attacking the victim's tasks and competencies', 'social isolation', 'attacking the private person', 'verbal aggression', and 'spreading rumours' (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Although physical violence and gender or race related bullying were not as typical as the above categories, some items fell under these categories. Thus, they were included as well.

Univariate ANOVA was employed to test whether South Korean participants differed in their agreement that the given act was bullying. Gender differences and the interaction between gender and culture were also examined. Table 3.1 shows the means and standard deviations of the scores. In order to control for type I errors, the alpha level to judge significant differences was set at 1%. The most conservative method would have been to use a Bonferroni correction but, since there were 38 items, this would arguably have created too conservative an alpha level. Besides, Narum (2006) criticises the Bonferroni correction for being too conservative and diminishing the power to detect differentiation between sample groups. Therefore, a 1% significance level was used instead of the Bonferroni correction.

The tests revealed significant differences on nine items for culture, with the South Korean sample rating each item lower than the UK sample. In short, South Korean workers were significantly less likely than the UK sample to consider these acts to be bullying. These items were: excessive persistent teasing ($F(1, 89) = 6.89, p < .01$); belittling ($F(1, 89) = 15.8, p < .001$); humiliating ($F(1,89) = 14.5, p < .001$); face to face verbal abuse ($F(1, 89) = 17.1, p < .001$), verbal intimidation ($F(1, 89) = 25.8, p < .001$), physical violence or attack ($F(1, 89) = 36.8, p < .001$); sexual email ($F(1, 89) = 7.75, p < .01$); sexual behaviour ($F(1, 89) = 13.5, p < .001$); and unfair treatment on the basis of gender ($F(1, 89) = 11.9, p < .001$).

No significant gender differences emerged, but there was an interaction effect between nationality and gender on six items including being silenced by management ($F(1, 89) = 8.26, p < .01$); sarcasm about work ($F(1, 89) = 7.49, p < .01$); not sharing necessary information ($F(1, 89) = 7.35, p < .01$), excluding or ignoring ($F(1, 89) = 8.63, p < .01$); sarcasm about the person ($F(1, 89) = 7.34, p < .01$), and face to face verbal abuse ($F(1, 89) = 7.90, p < .01$). For most of these items, a consistent pattern emerged in that, amongst females, South Korean employees were less likely to agree that the given is an example of bullying than UK employees whereas the opposite pattern was observed for males (see Appendix C).

Table 3.1

Means and Standard deviations of the South Korean and UK employees' agreement score to the negative act items being bullying

		Female		Male		
		Mean	S.D.	Mean.	S.D.	
		Nationality				
Organisational measures	Refusing application for promotion, training...	UK	4.8	1.37	4.2	1.56
		South Korean	4.3	1.68	4.7	1.17
	Pressure not to claim entitlement (e.g., holidays, expenses)	UK	4.9	1.28	4.6	1.44
		South Korean	4.4	1.56	4.5	1.24
	Actual/threatened unfair use of disciplinary action	UK	5.6	.71	5.0	1.45
		South Korean	4.6	1.51	4.8	1.07
Being silenced by the management	UK	5.2	1.13	4.3	1.79	
	South Korean	4.3	1.83	5.2	.98	
Attacking victims' tasks and competencies	Reducing responsibility without consultation	UK	4.6	1.29	3.9	1.68
		South Korean	4.5	2.00	4.9	1.21
	Undermining work effort	UK	5.2	1.19	4.4	1.68
		South Korean	4.0	1.66	4.6	1.09
	Persistent criticism	UK	5.3	1.22	4.5	1.45
		South Korean	4.1	1.51	4.8	1.08
	Giving little or no work	UK	4.4	1.48	4.1	1.88
		South Korean	4.6	1.65	4.9	1.10
	Giving meaningless task	UK	4.4	1.57	4.3	1.92
		South Korean	4.7	1.62	4.9	1.02
	Giving tasks below level of competence	UK	4.1	1.56	4.0	1.71
		South Korean	4.3	1.45	4.5	1.15
	Continuous excessive workload	UK	4.6	1.52	4.8	1.06
		South Korean	4.1	1.52	4.7	1.26
	Shifting key performance criteria without informing	UK	4.8	1.26	4.3	1.71
		South Korean	4.4	1.49	4.8	1.24
Excessive monitoring	UK	5.0	.90	4.4	1.56	
	South Korean	4.5	1.59	4.8	1.10	
Sarcasm about work	UK	5.2	1.07	4.3	1.66	
	South Korean	4.2	1.80	4.9	1.01	

Table 3.1 Contd.

	Social Use	Not sharing necessary information	UK	4.7	1.33	3.8	2.00
			South Korean	4.3	1.81	5.1	.97
	Social Use	Excluding and ignoring	UK	5.2	.97	4.3	1.71
			South Korean	4.5	1.85	5.3	.97
Attacking the private person		Sarcasm about person	UK	5.4	.75	4.5	1.57
			South Korean	4.4	1.57	4.9	1.02
		Excessive, persistent Teasing	UK	5.3	.90	4.7	1.67
			South Korean	3.8	1.59	4.6	1.30
		Practical joke	UK	5.0	1.27	4.2	1.80
			South Korean	4.1	1.33	4.0	1.50
		Belittling	UK	5.7	.57	5.0	1.60
			South Korean	4.3	1.23	4.4	1.23
		Humiliating	UK	5.9	.34	5.3	1.54
			South Korean	4.6	1.33	4.7	1.08
		Invasion of personal space	UK	4.8	1.23	4.0	1.42
			South Korean	4.2	1.38	4.9	1.16
		False Allegations	UK	5.5	.99	5.0	1.71
			South Korean	4.5	1.15	5.0	1.27
Questioning trustworthiness	UK	4.8	1.22	4.2	1.80		
	South Korean	4.3	1.58	4.7	1.21		
Creating false impression	UK	5.4	1.05	4.7	1.72		
	South Korean	4.8	1.57	5.2	1.22		
Verbal Aggression		Face to face Verbal Abuse	UK	5.8	.52	5.0	1.42
			South Korean	4.0	1.45	4.6	1.23
		Abusive E-mail	UK	4.7	1.32	4.1	1.89
			South Korean	4.0	.99	4.8	1.20
		Verbal Intimidation	UK	5.6	.60	5.2	1.52
			South Korean	4.0	1.40	4.0	1.38
		Sniggering at comments	UK	4.9	1.23	4.4	1.56
			South Korean	4.1	1.57	4.9	1.11
Saying that you cannot be trusted	UK	5.0	1.28	4.2	1.50		
	South Korean	4.2	1.58	4.8	1.11		

Table 3.1 Contd.

Spreading Rumours	Spreading rumours about personal life	UK	5.2	.91	5.1	1.44
		South Korean	4.4	1.31	4.8	.68
Spreading Rumours	Spreading rumours about work	UK	5.2	1.11	4.5	1.83
		South Korean	4.5	1.46	5.0	1.23
Physical	Physical attack	UK	5.8	.43	5.4	1.43
		South Korean	4.0	1.32	4.2	1.20
Gender and race-based bullying	Sexual e-mail	UK	3.7	1.14	3.7	.82
		South Korean	2.9	.88	3.2	1.08
	Sexual behaviour	UK	5.3	1.08	5.0	1.46
		South Korean	3.9	1.22	4.3	1.29
	Comments that contain sexual Innuendo	UK	4.9	1.23	4.2	1.85
		South Korean	4.2	1.56	4.7	1.26
	Racist Treatment	UK	5.7	1.00	5.0	1.66
		South Korean	4.6	1.83	5.0	1.21
Unfair Treatment Based on Gender	UK	5.5	1.11	5.0	1.58	
	South Korean	4.0	1.54	4.3	1.41	

3.3. Tolerance level of negative acts. In order to explore possible cultural differences in tolerance to bullying, the tolerance level scores for the negative acts presented were summed, the means calculated, and a mixed ANOVA employed where the assumed profiles (e.g., bully vs. victim) was the between-subjects factor and victim/bully status (e.g., superiors, peers, and subordinates) the within-subjects factor. Gender was also included in the analyses as a main effect.

In pilot testing it had been suggested that eight out of the 38 negative act items were only applicable to certain organisational role relationships and not to all three levels of status, i.e. superior, peer, and subordinate. These items included: 'refusing to allow talking to others about problems', 'giving little or no work', 'giving meaningless tasks', 'giving work that is below level of competence', 'unfair use of actual or threatened disciplinary acts', 'refusal of application for promotion/holiday/training', 'pressure not to claim entitlement', and 'continuous excessive workload'. These items were removed from this part of the analysis on the grounds that their use in only one or two status conditions might unduly influence their mean score thereby making for unreliability. In other words, the sum and mean of the negative acts were computed for the remaining 30 items only.

3.1.3. Profile Differences. Table 3.2 shows the means and standard deviations of the summed scores in terms of the assumed role or profile in bullying. Here, gender and nationality were entered as independent variables together with profile.

Table 3.2
The means and standard deviations of the tolerance level scores by nationality, profile in bullying situation (bully vs. bullying), and gender

Gender	Nationality	Bully		Victim	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Female	UK	5.7	.22	5.2	.54
	South Korean	5.6	.29	5.3	.32
Male	UK	5.3	.68	5.5	.27
	South Korean	5.0	.65	5.1	.49

Univariate ANOVA revealed that there was no significant effect of nationality ($F(1, 91) = 1.80, p > .05$), profile in bullying ($F(1, 91) = 1.40, p > .05$), or gender ($F(1, 91) = 3.84, p > .05$) on the tolerance scores. For the interactions, only the interaction between profile and gender produced a significant effect ($F(1, 91) = 4.64, p < .05$). While males tended to show a greater level of tolerance when they assumed the profile of bullies compared to when they assumed the profile of victims, female showed a greater tolerance level when they were victims. Figures 3.1 and 3.2 illustrate the gender difference for both the UK and South Korean samples.

Figure 3.1. UK employees' tolerance level to bullying items depending on gender and assumed profile

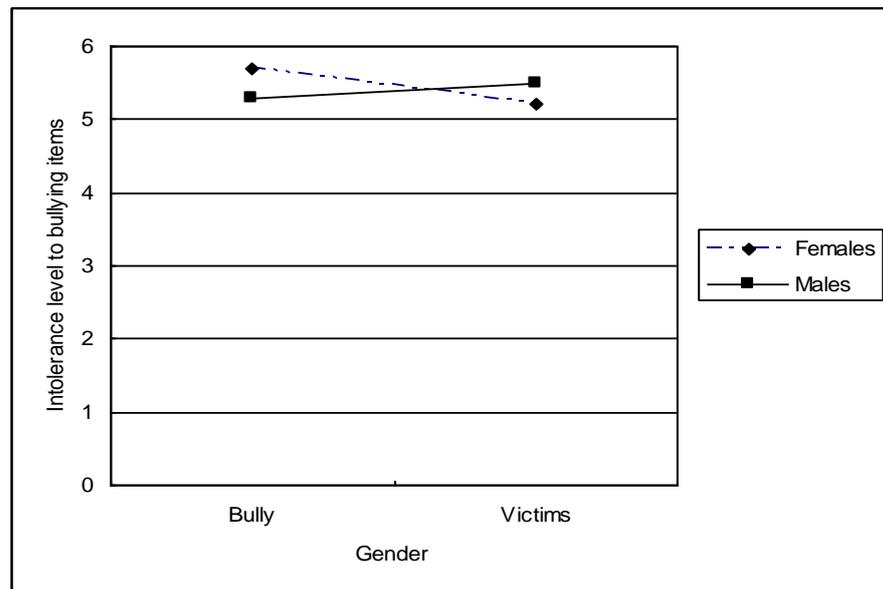
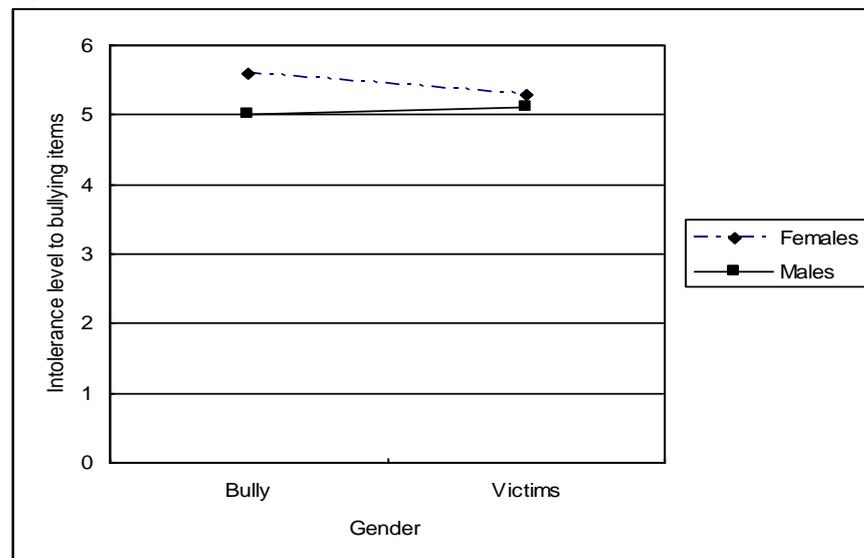


Figure 3.2. South Korean participants' tolerance level to bullying items depending on gender and assumed profile



3.1.2. Status Differences. The respondents in the 'Bully Group' had been asked to indicate their tolerance level of the negative acts in three different circumstances, i.e. when the victim was their superior, peer, and subordinate. Similarly, the 'Victim Group' respondents recorded their answers when the bully was a superior, peer and subordinate . The responses were summed for each status and the means calculated.

3.1.2.1. *Bully Group (the influence of victim status).* Table 3.3 shows the means and Standard deviations of the average tolerance level scores when the victim was a superior, peer, or subordinate. Mixed ANOVA was employed to test for statistical significance. Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was not significant and thus sphericity could be assumed.

Table 3.3
The Bully Group's means and Standard Deviations of the average tolerance level scores according to the status of the victim (Superior, Peer, or Subordinate), nationality and gender

Gender	Victim' Status	UK		South Korean	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Female	Superior	5.8	.21	5.7	.30
	Peer	5.5	.31	5.5	.28
	Subordinates	5.8	.21	5.7	.30
Males	Superior	5.3	.91	5.2	.62
	Peer	5.1	.75	4.9	.78
	Subordinates	5.6	.47	5.1	.61

Significant differences emerged for victim's status ($F(2, 88) = 20.9, p < .001$) and gender ($F(1, 44) = 7.97, p < .01$). Non significant main effects emerged for nationality and any of the interactions. In terms of victims' status, bullying peers was considered to be the most tolerable followed by bullying superiors and bullying subordinates. In relation to gender differences, females were found to be less tolerant of bullying than males.

3.1.2.2. *Victim Group (the influence of bully status).* Table 3.4 shows the victim group's means and standard deviations of the average tolerance level scores according to the status of the bully. Mixed ANOVA was employed to explore the

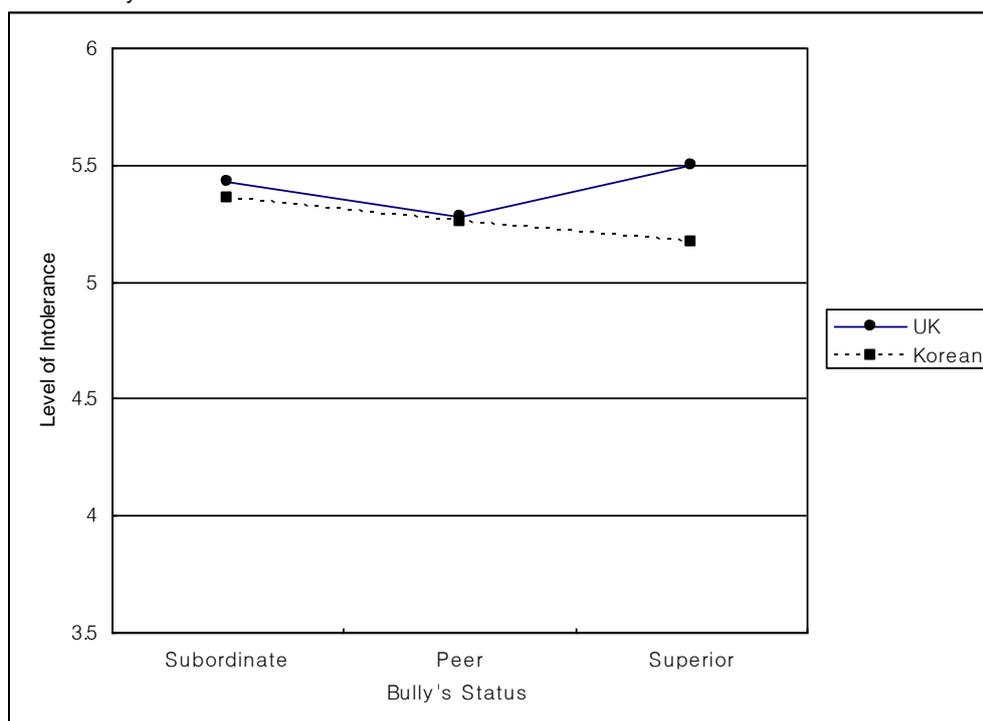
impact of the status of the bully.

Table 3.4
The Victim Group's means and Standard Deviations of the average tolerance level scores by status of the bully (Superior, Peer, or Subordinate), nationality, and gender

Gender	Bully Status	UK		South Korean	
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Female	Superior	5.4	.54	5.4	.37
	Peer	5.0	.57	5.2	.35
	Subordinates	5.2	.63	5.4	.28
Males	Superior	5.6	.32	5.0	.71
	Peer	5.2	.30	5.0	.43
	Subordinates	5.6	.27	5.3	.42

The Mauchly's test of sphericity was significant, thus sphericity could not be assumed and the Greenhouse-Geisser values were used instead. The result showed that bully status produced a significant effect ($F(2, 82) = 12.3, p < .001$) whereas nationality ($F(1, 41) = .777, p > .05$) and gender ($F(1, 41) = .020, p > .05$) did not. The status of bully impacted on the tolerance level in that, overall, bullying by peers was considered to be the most tolerable, followed by bullying by a superior, and then bullying by subordinates. There was also a significant interaction effect between bully status and nationality ($F(2, 82) = 4.22, p < .05$) on tolerance level. As shown in Figure 3.3., the interaction effect was focused on the rating of bullying by a superior. While South Korean employees rated bullying by a superior to be more tolerable than bullying by people at other status levels, the UK sample indicated bullying by a superior to be the least tolerable.

Figure 3.3. The Line graph of the score of tolerance level of bullying according to the bullies' status and nationality



Thus, overall, negative acts by peers were considered to be most tolerable followed by negative acts by subordinates and negative acts by superiors. However, when nationality was accounted for, the two nationality groups revealed a different pattern of results. While the UK sample followed the pattern of the overall result, the South Korean sample reported negative acts by superiors to be more tolerable than negative acts by subordinates.

4. Discussion

This study examined cultural differences and similarities between South Korean and UK employees in the way they construe 'bullying' whether in definitional terms or the kind of acts that they considered to be bullying. Similarities emerged in the general definitions of bullying. Specifically, both cultures viewed bullying as harming behaviours that made someone feel negative or treating someone in the way one would not want to be treated. The bully's intention and the importance of the victim's own perceptions were also emphasized by participants from both countries. These themes resonate with those reported by Saunders, Huynh and Goodman-Delahunty (2007) under the label "perpetration of negative act", "negative and harmful effect on

victims”, “intent” and “the target must label the experience as bullying”. The commonality of the ‘bullying as harming’ theme across cultures reveals the etic dimension in employees’ conceptualisation of workplace bullying.

In contrast, the emic dimension to the appraisal of bullying behaviour was illustrated by the themes mentioned either only by the South Korean respondents or only by the UK respondents. One of the themes mentioned only by South Korean employees was blaming victims. This theme suggested that certain individuals may be prone to being bullied or choose themselves to be victims by “making themselves out to be a loner”. Such an opinion is in line with Zapf’s suggestion that some of the reasons for bullying might be located within the victims themselves (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) or that being paranoid results in some workers claiming to be victims (Ege, 2008). However, this was not expressed by UK respondents. One explanation comes from the South Korean social value of group benefit. This social value might have led them to blame the victims for being victimised. Victims are often a small minority within a group without power. Under an atmosphere where group benefit comes before the protection of individual rights, a small minority’s suffering may easily be overlooked for the harmony and benefit of the group. When an individual speaks up about the issue, they may be victimised even further as a punishment for violating the group harmony. This explanation is even more plausible considering that South Korean employees expressed a degree of justification for bullying in that they mentioned that bullying could be understood if there was a right reason for it. Group benefit may provide the right reason to justify bullying.

What was even more distinctive about the South Korean employees’ responses was that they described bullying as group behaviour. Bullying was seen as a matter of a group of people inflicting harm on a single individual. The reason for such a response might be traced back to collectivism in the South Korean culture. The collectivist tendency led to the belief or assumption that a minority could be sacrificed for the good of the majority. Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) holds that people easily discriminate against those who are ‘different’ and that such discrimination leads to devaluing ‘different’ people (Brown, 1997). If a person did not

act as the majority did, then he/she could be viewed as an outsider and face a greater risk of being a scapegoat (Thylefors, 1987). The fear of becoming a scapegoat and group pressure would lead innocent bystanders to become bullies in order not to be out of favour with the majority. Under such an atmosphere, it is likely that bullying eventually becomes a group act. Indeed, one of the respondents mentioned that bullying was “imposed on those who go against the majority’s opinion”. As Tubbs (1994) pointed out, valuing conformity results in serious bullying problems in collectivist Japanese society. It is possible that the same process occurs in South Korea.

Themes that only came from UK respondents were bullying from superiors and power imbalance. Power imbalance has also been mentioned by the participants in Saunders et al.’s (2007) study in which data were collected across the world (though predominantly in the Western cultures) but defining bullying as acts coming from superiors was a distinctive theme that arose from the UK employees in this study. This theme may reflect the previous findings that, in the UK, superiors are the most common perpetrators of workplace bullying (e.g., Hoel, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). The UK is a high power-distance, masculine country in which an autocratic and coercive management style is common (Vega & Comer, 2005), which explains why negative acts by superiors are more often reported than by other individuals in the UK. As bullies tend to be superiors, UK respondents would be more likely to include negative acts by senior members in their definition.

In contrast, a study in South Korea reported peers to be the most frequently reported bullies (Seo, 2008). Besides, as found in this study, South Korean employees were more tolerant towards negative acts coming from their superiors than towards negative acts from either peers or subordinates. Even if negative acts did come from superiors, they might overlook and justify these acts, but not when the aggressors are peers or subordinates. Thus, unlike the UK employees, it is not surprising that a superior theme did not emerge from the South Korean sample.

The next part of the results tested whether items drawn from European bullying questionnaires were considered to be representative of bullying behaviours by South

Korean workers. Results showed that the appraisal of 9 out of 38 negative acts was subject to significant cultural differences. These items included: 'excessive persistent teasing', 'belittling,' 'humiliating', 'face to face verbal abuse', 'verbal intimidation', 'physical violence', 'sexual email', 'sexual behaviour', and unfair treatment on the basis of gender'. Across all of the nine items, South Korean employees were less likely than UK employees to agree that the given acts were bullying. While the results revealed an etic dimension of bullying tactics for the remaining 29 items, for the 9 items that produced significant difference, their applicability to South Korean culture was questionable. Considering the emic side of bullying tactics used to measure bullying in European questionnaires, questionnaires that consist of such negative acts would not be fully measuring bullying in the South Korean workplace. Therefore, the development of an indigenous bullying questionnaire is necessary in order to examine bullying in the South Korean workplace.

The interaction between nationality and gender also produced a significant effect on six items including 'being silenced by management', 'sarcasm about work', 'not sharing necessary information', 'excluding or ignoring', 'sarcasm about the person', and 'face to face verbal abuse'. Except for 'face to face verbal abuse', South Korean and UK samples showed a consistently different pattern of results. That is, within the female sample, South Korean employees were less likely to consider the given acts to be bullying than UK employees. Within the male sample, on the other hand, the opposite pattern was observed. The finding that males showed the opposite pattern of result was unexpected. One possible explanation might be that South Korean males, due to their experience of military service, were exposed to a wider range of bullying behaviours and recognised them better than UK males who were mostly without such experience. In contrast, neither South Korean nor UK females are subject to compulsory military duty and thus, the result from females would not have been distorted by one group being exposed to a wider range of bullying acts. Consequently, the results from females would have followed the expected pattern. That is, UK employees were more likely than South Korean employees to consider the items as the examples of workplace bullying.

The last part of the results explored cultural difference in participants' tolerance level towards negative acts depending on their assumed profile (i.e. victim vs. bully), the status of bullies or victims (i.e. superior, peer, or subordinate) and gender. Contrary to the hypothesis, cultural differences were not found in the tolerance level of negative acts. In the introduction, it was hypothesised that there would be cultural differences in the tolerance level of bullying since the status of common bullies was different in South Korea and in the UK. While supervisors were the most frequently reported bullies in the UK (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997), peers were the most frequently reported bullies in South Korea (Seo, 2008). However, in this study, participants were asked to rate their tolerance level to the negative acts in all three circumstances, i.e. where the bully/victim was a superior/peer/subordinate. In doing so, the cultural influence in the tolerance level that would have resulted from the most frequently reported bully status seems to have been diminished. Significant results were found for the interaction between profile and gender. While males tended to be less tolerant when they were the victims than when they were bullies, females showed the opposite pattern. At least for males, the finding provided support to Martinez (2006) who found that participants who occupied a bully's role in a bullying scenario tended to justify their behaviours and minimised the severity of their action. However, the results from the female sample did not support Martinez (2006). One explanation for this result could be the influence of social desirability. Women in the bully group might have thought that being tolerant to negative acts would create a bad impression on them whereas women in the victim group did not have to give concern to such issues. Consequently, the female bully group was found to be more intolerant to bullying than the female victim group. Moreover, the fact that only females showed such a pattern of results is in line with the previous suggestion that females were more dependent on their social surroundings than males (Denton et al., 2004). With greater dependency, they would have been more sensitive to others' opinion of them and would have been more willing to avoid giving a negative impression to others.

Analysis of the bully group's responses revealed significant effects of victim

status and of gender. Bullying peers was considered to be the most acceptable followed by bullying superiors with bullying subordinates the least acceptable. Females were, in general, less accepting of bullying than males, which could again be explained by women's greater dependency on their social environment. Analysis of victim group responses revealed a significant effect of bully status and a significant interaction between bully status and nationality. Looking at the results, one consistent pattern emerged: bullying peers and being bullied by a peer tended to be considered more acceptable than bullying others or being bullied by others. This may be explained by the fact that employees are likely to form closer, more personal relationship with their peers than with their supervisors or subordinates. Because of their close relationship, negative acts from/to peers might have been more easily excused or forgiven with their friendship.

When nationality was accounted for, a different pattern emerged from the victim group's data. While the UK sample followed the pattern of the overall results, the South Korean sample reported negative acts by superiors to be more tolerable than negative acts by subordinates or by peers. These results imply that South Korean employees might have been more influenced by status power than the UK sample since they rated negative acts by superiors to be most acceptable. This pattern of responses can be explained by Confucian culture and their experience of military service (Chapter 2). Confucian culture demands and encourages people to respect and obey their superiors. Resultantly, South Korean employees might have been more tolerant of bullying from superiors than bullying from subordinates. In terms of military service, due to the division between South and North South Korea, the South Korean government continues a policy of conscription. During military service, soldiers are trained to become authoritarian and to display unconditional obedience to their superiors. Mistreating subordinates is tolerated to some extent (see Chapter 2). Since males tend to occupy high status jobs in organisations, their attitudes would have spread down to the entire organisation and led other employees to adapt the same attitudes. Therefore, South Korean employees might consider negative acts by their superiors to be more acceptable than negative acts by subordinates.

4.1. Originality and Limitations. The results discussed above fit reasonably well with an expectation based on cultural differences between the UK and South Korea. Such findings were among the strengths and originality of this study. For example, the study was original in that it looked at cultural differences in lay definitions of bullying. Although Saunders, Huynh, and Goodman-Delahunty (2007) reported an extensive study on lay definitions of bullying, they did not compare different cultural groups and analysed the data together as a whole. Although the current study was on a smaller scale, it distinguished different cultural groups and obtained cultural differences in the lay definitions (e.g., 'bullying as a group act' from the South Korean sample and 'bullying from superiors' from the UK sample).

The second original element in the current study is the attempt to investigate cross-culturally workers' feelings towards and appraisals of the bullying items used in previous bullying questionnaires. The 38 negative acts used here to describe bullying behaviours have been widely used to identify victims of bullying (e.g., Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Leymann, 1990; Quine, 1999). However, as shown by the results, some of the 38 negative acts were not considered to be examples of bullying – or never to occur – by a considerable number of UK respondents and by an even greater number of South Korean respondents. Moreover, some of the UK employees produced tolerance ratings that ranged from 1 to 3 (i.e. from definitely tolerable to mildly tolerable) for the bullying items. In other words, some of the respondents considered some of the bullying items to be tolerable to some degree at least.

While the study has a number of original features and strengths, there were also a number of limitations. One limitation was the small number of respondents. Considering that this study used a survey design, 50 South Korean participants and 43 UK employees represent relatively small samples. The answers of 40 or 50 workers do not necessarily represent the opinions of the whole working population in a country, especially since the sample was a convenience sample. This limitation could be overcome in future studies if larger samples can be accessed. By replicating the study on a larger sample, more generalisable and representative results would be

obtained. If further research with better-refined questionnaires and larger samples confirms the hypotheses, then this would give stronger support to the argument that European negative acts are less likely to be considered to be examples of bullying by South Korean employees than Europeans. It would also provide greater justification for the development of a South Korean bullying questionnaire or, at least, South Korean negative acts. Despite the obvious benefits that a bigger sample size brings, it was not possible to achieve one in the current study due simply to the author having only a limited number of organisations through which to access participants. Conducting a large scale survey for the first study would have reduced the number of participants for the last, main study.

The second limitation was the categorisation of assumed profile (i.e. bully vs. victim) instead of actual profile. The use of assumed rather than actual profiles carries obvious limitations, e.g., the possibility of social desirability effects. For example, participants' responses while they were assuming the role of bully might not have been the same as their actual behaviours/thoughts/opinions had they been real bullies. Taking from Martinez (2006), the result should have been that the 'perpetrator' group, in their attempt to explain and justify their negative acts, should have expressed a greater tolerance for the negative acts. While men showed this expected pattern, women did not. The unexpected results from women's responses in their tolerance for bullying acts clearly revealed the limitation of assumed 'profile'. However, as mentioned in the methods section, identifying actual bully and victim groups would have required an initial selection process. The selection process would have resulted in only a small proportion of participants being available from an already small sample. In addition, there is the thorny issue of how one should identify bullies. Self-reported bullies would have been a self-selected group and, in many cases, actual bullies might well not have admitted to being bullies. Thus, for practical reasons, participants were asked to assume a profile but this could have affected the result.

4.2. Conclusion. The main finding of this study was that the concept of bullying itself and the appraisal of the negative acts that are typically used to operationalise it differ between South Korean and UK cultures. Qualitative analysis showed some

distinctiveness between South Korean and UK employees' conceptualisation of bullying in that Korean employees defined bullying as primarily group-based behaviour while UK employees defined bullying as coming from senior levels. The study also provided partial evidence that some of the negative acts used in the European bullying questionnaires (i.e. LIPT, NAQ, and Quine's questionnaire) were less likely to be considered to be negative acts by South Korean employees compared to UK respondents. Gender differences emerged in the tolerance workers show towards bullying behaviour with females showing lower tolerance in general. When the assumed profile was taken into account, females showed an unexpected pattern of results in that they were less acceptable of doing the negative acts than of receiving them. Males showed the opposite pattern of results. Direct cultural differences were not found for tolerance level but an interaction effect was found. While UK employees were most tolerant to negative acts by peers followed by negative acts by subordinates and negative acts by superiors, South Korean employees were most accepting of bullying coming from superiors, followed by negative acts by peers and negative acts by subordinates. The result showed that while the overall tolerance level to negative acts was not significantly different between the two nationalities, when bully status was taken into account, differences emerged, which suggested South Korean and UK employees have different attitudes towards negative acts coming from their superiors.

The first two parts of the results lead to a questioning of the use of European bullying questionnaires on South Korean samples for the purpose of investigating bullying in South Korea. While not all of the items are inapplicable to the Korean culture, using European questionnaires would pose a limit to bullying studies in Korean culture. It follows that an indigenous bullying questionnaire specific to a Korean culture might be necessary in order to explore Korean workplace bullying in greater depth. Knowing the limitations of European bullying questionnaires in their use in South Korean culture, it would not be advisable to continue with their use without attempting to address their limitations. While the continued use in other cultures of questionnaires that were developed on European samples might paint part of the

picture, the evidence presented here demonstrates that there are potentially serious consequences of failing to recognise the importance of cultural context. In simple terms, questionnaires developed in one culture might misrepresent and only partially operationalise the manifestation of bullying in another. This unreliability in measurement could, in turn, give rise to ineffective policy and action. For a thorough investigation of Korean workplace bullying, then, an indigenous bullying questionnaire – or at least a list of indigenous bullying items – is necessary. The next chapter contributes to this development of a list of Korean negative acts.

CHAPTER 4

South Korean bullying tactics: The first step to the development of an indigenous bullying measure

1. Introduction

Chapter 3 questioned whether it would be appropriate to use the currently available European workplace bullying questionnaires in South Korea given that differences in perceptions of bullying items emerged between UK and South Korean samples. For some items, e.g., persistent teasing, belittling, verbal intimidation, sexually toned emails and sexual behaviour, South Korean participants were less likely than UK participants to see these behaviours as manifestations of bullying. Moreover, the conceptualisation of bullying differed between South Korean and UK samples, with South Korean employees emphasising the notion that bullying is a group act while UK employees emphasised bullying behaviour as negative acts coming from senior members of the organisation. One might legitimately speculate therefore that items in the European bullying questionnaires are not wholly applicable to South Korea and that the unquestioned use of such questionnaires in the South Korean context would lead to unreliable research results and – in turn – ineffective action based upon them. Moreover, additional bullying items might be necessary in order to capture any culture-specific manifestations of bullying in the South Korean context.

Of especial importance here is the fact that South Korea is a collectivist, Confucian country, with a corresponding focus on the use of 'we' rather than 'I', and 'ours' rather than 'mine' (Kim, 1994). Such a tendency is clearly distinctive from the individualist perspective dominant in Western European culture. Indeed, in the qualitative analysis of Chapter 3, South Korean participants mentioned bullying to be a group act, a view entirely unmentioned by UK respondents. Bullying in groups could be different from bullying as an individual act and, if bullying in South Korea usually takes the form of a group act, then there may be South Korean-specific negative acts that are distinctive from the list of negative acts used in European bullying

questionnaires. Bullying in the form of a group act can be seen in Scandinavia where the term 'mobbing' is used in place of bullying (Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996b). Thus, bullying in South Korea seems to be closer to the Scandinavian concept of mobbing than the UK concept of bullying. However, in Chapter 3, it was found that some of the bullying items used in the Scandinavian bullying questionnaires (e.g., Leymann's Inventory of Psychological Terror and Negative Acts Questionnaire) were less likely to be considered bullying by South Korean employees than by UK participants (e.g., belittling, humiliating, and persistent teaching).

To the author's knowledge, no indigenous South Korean workplace bullying questionnaire has been developed. Although one accessible PhD thesis looked into workplace bullying in South Korea (Shin, 2005a), bullying was not measured by a validated bullying scale as participants were only asked whether or not they had been bullied by students, parents or colleagues. A definition of bullying was not provided and respondents made their own judgement of what bullying was – or wasn't – while answering the questions. Also, the study ignored the frequency and the duration criteria normally applied when studying bullying (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, Cooper, 2003) and which distinguish it from other similar concepts such as harassment (Matthiesen, 2008).

In realisation of the possible cultural specificity of at least some aspects of bullying behaviour, the second study aims to identify South Korean specific negative acts. Initially, a qualitative method is used to explore participants' opinions about bullying and what kind of behaviours they consider to be bullying. This was followed by a quantitative method in order to test whether the obtained bullying items are specific to a South Korean sample or if there is some cross-over with a UK sample. Therefore, two research questions are posed:

- I. What are South Korean employees' opinions of bullying and what kind of acts do they consider to be bullying?
- II. Are there differences between South Korean and UK samples in their agreement that Korean negative acts are bullying?

2. Qualitative Study Method

2.1. Participants. Forty-two South Korean individuals (15 males and 27 females) who were either currently working or, if not in employment, had previous work experience took part in the study. Participants were drawn from various job sectors including banking, legal occupations, academic and teaching occupations. Access to participants was gained through Korean occupational psychologists who have worked with commercial and public organisations. In other words, the organisations that participated in this study were those that have worked with those Korean psychologists. Participant's ages ranged between 22 years and 60 years (Mean: 36.9, Standard Deviation: 10.82).

2.2. Design. The current study expanded on the qualitative analyses presented in Chapter 3 and aimed to explore South Korean workers' notions of bullying in greater detail and depth. A repertory grid technique was chosen for a number of reasons. First, due to the terms of research access negotiated with the host organisations, sessions had to be with groups rather than with individuals. Second, since South Korea is a high context culture in which group harmony is valued, there is a tendency not to speak up in front of others for fear of causing conflict (Kim, Pan, & Park, 1998). South Korean employees are neither used to - nor comfortable with - expressing their opinions in front of an audience – especially when the given topic is something negative and sensitive like bullying – unless the participants are highly educated individuals. Although some of the participants had received university education up to MA or MSc level, the rest were mostly high school graduates. Thus, data collection had to involve the participants writing their opinions rather than verbalising them.

However, from previous research experience with South Korean samples, the author had learned that open-ended questions did not usually generate a good response unless, as in the case with interviews, the participants were highly educated people, which could be explained by that the education in Korea up to a high school level only encourages people to find the right answer and discourages expression of analytical opinions. Many, women in particular, were unfamiliar with forming their opinions and did not know what to write in the answer section and even feared for not being able to produce the right answer. There still exists in South Korea the view that

women's place is 'in the home' and the value of women's intellectual abilities is undermined (Chapter 2). The old Korean saying 'A hen cries, the family goes to ruin' illustrates how the traditional Korean values discourage women to express their own opinions. Consequently, women have become even more unfamiliar with forming their own opinions than men. South Korean employees also tended to leave out questions or only provide simple, short answers in order to finish the questionnaire quickly. Thus, the author had to be present while participants were responding and interact with them to prompt them to think while the data collection was going on. To serve this purpose, the data collection sessions were designed as informal training sessions in order to introduce them to the method of repertory grid, which was (and still is) a new technique to South Korean employees.

2.3. Procedure. A pilot test was conducted with three Korean psychologists who were also new to the repertory grid technique. They were given a repertory grid pro forma (see Appendix D) and asked to write three situations in which someone experienced workplace bullying (e.g., the scenario and bullying behaviours involved), three cases of unpleasantness that occurred at work, and three cases that were certainly not workplace bullying. Afterwards, the behaviours were grouped in threes systematically in such a way that one situation from each type (bullying situations, unpleasant situations, and non-bullying situations) would be included in each of the three groups. Participants were asked to choose the odd-one out according to their own thoughts and think of the reason why they made such a choice. After the session, the psychologists and the author discussed whether the pro forma was useful in extracting the required data and how it could be improved. Since the data could be a description of the psychologists' own experiences, referring back to the data themselves was avoided. It was agreed in the discussion that the repertory grid pro forma was useful and no further amendments were made on the pro forma.

In the actual data collection, seven repertory grid sessions were run with six or seven participants present in each session. Prior to the sessions, participants were informed that the topic of the repertory grid was interpersonal conflict in the workplace and the data they produce would be used in the author's study. They were also

informed that, should they not wish their data to be used for research, they could refuse to hand in the sheet used to record their responses. Each participant was given the repertory grid pro forma (see Appendix D) and the same procedure as the pilot testing was repeated. This time, they were asked to explain why they made such a choice by recording their own answers on the answer sheet.

3. Qualitative Results

Each participant's answers consisted of the 3 cases of bullying, 3 cases of unpleasant incidents, 3 cases that were not bullying together with participants' opinions about bullying. In analysing the data, simply focusing on the listed acts would have missed out a large part of data obtained. Thus, instead of seeking out the bullying behaviours, typologic analysis was chosen that would analyse the whole set of qualitative data. Specifically, the data were classified using categories drawn from the previous literature. Where the information provided did not fall into the existing categories then new categories were drawn from the data itself. Thus, a hybrid approach was taken employing both a deductive template analytic technique and an inductive thematic analysis technique (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Some of the categories produced a number of sub-categories and thus, taxonomic analysis was used as well as typologic analysis.

3.1. Categories of bullying acts from the previous literature. In Chapter 1, it was concluded that the typical categories of workplace bullying were 'organisational measures', 'attacking the victims' tasks and competencies', 'social isolation', 'attacking the private person', 'verbal aggression', and 'spreading rumours' (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Using these categories as the initial coding frame, a deductive template analytic technique was conducted.

3.1.1. Organisational measures. Data under this category were analysed using a taxonomy method, as subordinate themes emerged while coding was conducted. According to Zapf, Dormann, & Frese (1996a), organisational measures consist of behaviours initiated by supervisors and management. Liefoghe and Davey

(2001) also used the notion of a “pathologized organisation” (p. 375) and described a case study of a telecommunication company in which the organisation acted as the bully.

In the current study, participants reported that supervisors might take advantage of their “...status difference...” (P24²). Status difference was relevant to power imbalance and was central to the definition of bullying (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). Here, the power imbalance reflected formal power relationships (Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson, & Wilkes, 2006; Vartia, 1996) resulting from differences in organisational status. Under the organisational measures category, a number of sub-categories emerged, the first of which was ‘coercion’.

3.1.1.1. Coercion. Supervisors or managers might exercise coercion in the form of “...forced contract, lack of negotiation, forced workshop, or other coercive organisational behaviour...” (P2), or forcing employees to “...relocate...” (P4), or to “...change pension schemes...” (P10). They might also abuse their power by “...moving (the victims) around from department to department...” (P7). Moving a victim around from department to department was also found in the previous cases reported in the bullying literature where the bully is in a superior managerial role (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002).

3.1.1.2. Disruption in Workload and Role Division. Disruption in workload and role division is more related to the individual supervisors and an individual’s job rather than to the notion of a “pathologized organization” (Liefoghe & Davey, 2001, p. 375). Deliberately giving heavy workloads was also mentioned by the participants as bullying acts that could come from managers or supervisors. Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) categorised giving heavy workload under a separate category but as the category system found here is following the typical categories (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003), it was put under the category of organisational measures. Managers may give a heavy workload by “...bombarding one individual with everyone’s work...” (P41), “...shifting responsibility to one person...” (P33), and

² P indicates participants. The participants were labelled with numbers to distinguish them from each other.

“...demanding only one individual to work...” (P41). Employees may also be given unpleasant work that “...no one else wants to do...” (P42). One participant experienced “...5 working days per week and training on Saturday, tight lunch time, extended work hours for training, forced work during national holidays...” (P2). “Frequent overtime...” (P1), “...unbearable workload...” (P24), or “...unreasonable demand...” (P19) were also reported to occur. Although giving a heavy workload has been listed in the NAQ-R, pushing everyone’s workload to one individual has not been found in European studies. Such a bullying tactic could only be used when each individual’s roles are not clearly divided. As mentioned by one participant, she had “...to do whatever jobs have been given to me...” (P41). In relation to the unclear role division, causing role conflict was reported as well in that “... actual work is different from contracted work, and changes (are made) in tasks and responsibility without consultation...” (P4). Some employees were forced to “... deal with boss’s personal matters (e.g., picking up dry cleaned clothes)...” (P9) and to do those chores “...during their work hours...” (P32). “Repeatedly giving one, meaningless task...” (P35) or “... only giving unimportant job...” (P12) were also reported.

3.1.1.3. Not Allowing Holidays. Supervisors may also bully employees by not allowing legitimate holidays. Participants mentioned being “...forced (to) work during national holidays...” (P2), “...not being allowed to take holidays for personal problems...” (P4), or “...not being allowed to take annual leave...” (P5). One participant even mentioned the case in which the employee was not “... (allowed to take her) maternity leave...”. Some degree of putting pressure on the employees can be found in Europe as well. For example, being pressured not to take holiday entitlement has been mentioned in the Negative Acts Questionnaire Revised version (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001). However, the pressure would not be as great as actually not allowing maternity leave since it is illegal to do so in the developed countries of Europe. Yet, South Korean participants described such a case and it raised an issue of how well South Korean employees’ rights are protected. In relation to such an issue, more evidence was obtained from the participants’ responses, which was labelled as ‘violation of employees’ rights’.

3.1.1.4. Violation of Employees' Rights. Participants described bullying behaviours such as "...not allowing (the victims) the chance to defend him-/herself during disciplinary acts" (P18); and "... sacking (the victim) without reasonable cause..." (P7). Such behaviours have not been found in the previous workplace bullying literature. In a case of workplace bullying in Japan, directing implicit hints at an individual to resign has been reported (Ogoshi, Akamatsu-Yanase, & Uchida, 2008) although actual sacking did not occur. Since sacking itself can only occur once, such an act does not fall under the category of bullying. To be a bullying act, the act needs to be repeated for a certain length of time (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2003). The inclusion of such acts by South Korean participants could be a reflection of the fact that employees' rights in South Korea are not as well established as in the UK or in Japan. Alternatively, it might be that they constitute the final bullying act in a series of escalating behaviours on the part of the bully.

3.1.2. Attacking the victims' tasks and competencies. The second category identified from the literature was 'attacking victims' tasks and competencies' (Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Rayner and Hoel (1997) named this category 'threat to professional status' and included behaviours such as open displays of belittling the opinions of the victim, public professional humiliation, and accusation of lack of effort. Harvey et al. (2006) described the process in which bullies use scapegoats to draw attention to the victims or to reduce attention on the bully for a failure of the group.

Unpleasant monitoring was reported as a way of attacking victims' tasks and competencies. The participants mentioned "excessive monitoring..." (P16) or "...only pointing out mistakes without suggesting solutions..." (P13). In addition to the unpleasant monitoring, unpleasant criticism was also reported. Participants reported cases in which the superior was "...being sharp to someone who was not achieving enough..." (P23) or "...pointing out someone's inability..." (P28). Bullying under this category could also occur in the form of embarrassing someone by "...revealing poor results of achievement in public..." (P10), by "...revealing a problematic report..." (P13) of the individual worker in public, or by "...sneering at lack of achievement..."

(P36). Participants also mentioned that, in some cases, bullies might "...steal achievement..." (P36) from their victims and "...claim it as theirs" (P40). Stealing achievement was not mentioned in the previous bullying literature (e.g., Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Harvey et al., 2006; Rayner & Hoel; 1997). Although stealing achievement might also occur in other countries, the fact that participants mentioned the tactics to be bullying was new to bullying literature.

3.1.3. Social isolation. Social isolation was one of the factors found by Zapf, Dormann, & Frese (1996a) in a factor analysis of Leymann's Inventory of Psychological Terror (LIPT). Harvey, Heames, Richey, and Leonard (2006) also suggested a similar category and argued that isolation might take the form of preventing access to opportunities, withholding of information, or physically or socially isolating the individual. One obvious form of social isolation is exclusion.

Participants reported that exclusion could occur in personal relationships among colleagues in their "...outing, visit to a colleague's house, or social meetings..."(P14) or while they were sharing "...gossip..." (P11), going for "...lunch..." (P26) or "...leaving from work..." (P19). Exclusion could also occur in work-related relationships such as being excluded from "...promotion..." (P34), "important meetings" (P9) or "...important decisions..." (P13). The form of exclusion could be verbal such as "...telling others not to hang around with a certain individual..." (P38), or in action such as "...leaving someone alone while leaving from work in groups" (P19) or "...saving seats for everyone (in large social gatherings or conferences) except for one individual." (P17). Another form of isolation is ignoring "...one's opinion..." (P30) or "...greetings..." (P37). Respondents also mentioned undermining to be a bullying behaviour and it could be done by "...using the undermining tone of voice..." (P26), by "...verbal undermining" (P29), by using a "...louder voice or higher tone than when speaking to someone else..." (P31).

As Harvey et al. (2006) mentioned, withholding information could also be a form of isolation. As participants reported, bullies might withhold important information about "...appointments, meetings, projects, presentations ..." (P14) or "... (forcing someone to) attend a training programme that is unnecessary to the person" (P25)

which could also be used as a tactic to bully someone. Together with excluding and ignoring, the acts included under the category of social isolation already appeared in the bullying literature (e.g., Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Harvey et al., 2006) and in the NAQ-R.

3.1.4. Attacking the private person. The category of attacking the private person has been reported by a number of researchers (e.g., Leymann, 1996; Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Zapf, Dormann, & Frese, 1996a). This category has to do with attacking or criticising the individual attributes of the victim and/or his/her private life (Zapf et al., 1996a). Any behaviour by another which threatens the personal standing of the victim would also fall under this category (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Behaviours that fell into this category amongst the South Korean sample included inappropriate contact such as "... (repeated) calls outside working hours, and too much personal attention outside work" (P16). Inappropriate jokes or teasing such as "...joking over one's lack of beauty..." (P40) could also be a form of bullying as well as the situation where the "...careless words and behaviours impact on someone severely" (P27). One participant reported that "... teasing for eating too much..." (P15) could also occur. Such form of teasing could seriously embarrass the victim.

3.1.5. Verbal aggression. Verbal aggression was a category suggested by Zapf, Dormann, and Frese (1996a). Verbal aggression differs from the above categories in that while many different acts and behaviours are subsumed under each of these previous categories – their expression being dependent upon the context – verbal aggression refers to specific acts themselves. In addition, the acts included under this category are more direct and confrontational than those under previous categories. According to the South Korean participants, verbal aggression included "...swearing..." (P28), obvious sarcasm such as "telling someone 'why not try yourself?'" (P41), or "...shouting while the victim could not defend him/herself..." (P18).

3.1.6. Spreading rumours. Although Zapf, Dormann, and Frese (1996a) included verbal aggression and spreading rumours as a single category of bullying behaviour, Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2003) later separated spreading rumours

from other forms of verbal aggression. As with the verbal aggression category, 'spreading rumours' was also related to specific bullying acts. Spreading rumours is not, however, as direct and confrontational as verbal aggression. Participants thus reported that negative rumours could spread "amongst the work group" (P16) or to different organisations in the same industry when "... (the victim) was seeking to move his/her job..." (P8). In some cases, the management or superiors might "...use the media..." within the organisation (P3) in order to force the employees to obey. That is, they might use the internal media or homepage of the organisation and publish "... negative rumours about the person..." (P3) or threaten to do so. While such acts might be placed under the category of organisational measures the specificity of the acts themselves provides the justification for categorising them as 'spreading rumours'.

3.2. New categories of bullying acts. The data above all fell within the scope of the coding frame drawn from the previous bullying literature (see Chapter 1). In addition, however, new themes emerged from the data which seemed to be specific to South Korean culture and were beyond the scope of the framework. Two such themes in particular emerged and were labelled as 'bullying during socials' and 'unfair personnel appointment'.

3.2.1. Bullying during socials. Many of the negative acts listed in the previous bullying questionnaires (e.g., Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999) tend to be context-free. However, the South Korean participants mentioned some acts that could only occur during social gatherings including "...forcing someone to pay for everyone..." (P11), "forcing someone to drink" (P12) or "... (to) smoke..." (P36), and "...forcing someone (especially women) to pour drinks for the others..." (P27). It was reported by the South Korean media that harassment during socials was prevalent in South Korea for both male and female employees (Sung, 2008; Yi, 2005), which could explain the comments of bullying acts that could occur during socials.

3.2.2. Unfair Personnel Appointment. Unfair personnel appointment was mentioned a number of times and one participant referred to it as "...*nakhasan*..." (P1).

Nakhasan is a South Korean word of which the literal meaning is a parachute. Within an occupational context, this word is often used as a colloquial term to describe someone who is appointed to a job (usually a high status job) through the personal connection to someone in the senior management. Although appointing the *nakhasan* itself might not appear to be bullying, the management would do so in order to deliberately "... exclude someone from promotion..." (P34) or to "...interfere with (an individual's) promotion..." (P8).

3.3. Justification for Bullying. In addition to bullying behaviours, participants also expressed an opinion that bullying could be justified, although their opinions of bullying were not specifically asked for. This category supported a finding from Chapter 3. In Chapter 3, only South Korean employees (none of the UK participants) expressed such an opinion. In this study, participants similarly suggested that the acts described might be understandable "...depending on the circumstances..." (P6), "...if people are not in a good mood..." (P17) or if the acts are "...unavoidable..." (P4). One participant also mentioned that it is "...understandable to express unpleasant feelings if the job is not going well..." (P31). Perhaps, such a tendency was found due to the widespread military culture in South Korean society (see Chapter 2). Within a military camp, harsh treatment is often employed to set the discipline and to emphasise hierarchy. In other words, harsh treatment is accepted as a means to achieve certain aims. Most of South Korean men have been subjected to military service for a number of years and such attitudes could have remained with them even after the military service was completed. Moreover, it was reported that, in South Korea, violence and aggression were justified to some extent when the purpose was to enhance the performance of the targets (Choi, 2009; Kim, 2006). It is also possible that, due to South Koreans' value for group benefit and common good (see Chapter 2), they justify aggressive behaviours when they were seen to be beneficial for the group goal. Even in the industries dominated by woman (e.g., nursing), such attitudes exist (Kim, 2006).

In summary, the qualitative analysis confirmed categories found in the previous literature as well as new categories of bullying behaviour. The categories, 'unfair

personnel appointment', 'stealing achievement' and 'bullying during socials' were those most specific to South Korean employees. 'Justification for bullying' was also found to be specific to South Korean employees in this study as it had been in the previous study (see Chapter 3). The categories showed that, while there were categories of bullying acts and triggers of bullying that were applicable to both South Korean and European cultures, there were also categories of bullying acts and opinions of bullying that seemed to be specific to South Korean culture.

4. Quantitative Study Methods

Chapter 3 investigated whether South Korean employees and UK participants differed in their agreement to the European bullying items being bullying. While some items produced significant cultural differences, the majority of the items did not. In other words, some of the bullying items were specific to European cultures while the majority of the European bullying items were as applicable to South Korean culture as they were to European culture. Therefore, this quantitative part of the study also aimed to investigate whether there were differences between South Korean and UK samples in their agreement that the items of the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) were bullying. At the time of data collection, the author could not go back to South Korea for the Korean sample's data collection. Thus, the questionnaire method that could be done via an online survey was chosen. The advantages of using an online survey have been discussed in Chapter 3.

4.1. Participants. Convenience sampling was used to obtain a sample of 76 South Korean employees and 75 UK employees. The sample was accessed through personal contact and via a number of organisations in South Korea and in the UK. South Korean organisations were accessed first and then, UK organisations were matched in terms of the industry or of the characteristics of the organisation. In both countries, the main occupational groups from which data were collected included researchers and office workers. The UK participants also included teachers, lecturers and consultants while the main occupations of the South Korean participants included hospital pharmacists and civil servants. While there are clearly industry differences

between the South Korean and UK samples, it is important to note that all respondents were employed in professional occupations. The mean age of South Korean workers (34.5 years, standard deviation = 10.16) was slightly higher than the mean age of UK workers (33.0 years, standard deviation = 9.24). For UK workers, women were slightly over represented (male:female = 46.7%:53.3%) but, within the South Korean sample, males were over-represented (male:female = 58.1%:41.9%). However, T-test and chi-square analyses revealed that neither age ($t(136) = -.863$, $p > .05$) nor gender ($\chi^2(1) = 1.49$, $P > .05$) was significantly different between the South Korean and UK samples.

4.2. Materials. The items of a bespoke 'Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ)' were developed from the data obtained in the repertory grid study (the full development of the KBAQ is discussed later). Prior to developing the items, it was decided that, for the main study of the thesis (see Chapter 5), the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) would be used as one of the measures of workplace bullying on the grounds of its reported use in many countries including the UK (e.g., Hoel, 2002; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), Finland (e.g., Salin, 2001), Denmark (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001), Italy (e.g., Giorgi, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2006) and even in South Korea (Seo, 2008). Although not all of the above studies contributed to validating the NAQ in the named countries, one version of the NAQ was validated in the UK (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2009) and the version was chosen for the last study.

All of the negative acts generated by the repertory grid procedure were listed and items that were self-evidently similar to each other were discounted. Items generated that also appeared on the NAQ-R were similarly removed from the list. This was done to avoid an overlap with the NAQ-R, since the KBAQ would be used alongside the NAQ-R as a bullying measure in the final study. Moreover, items that appeared on the NAQ-R had already been tested for participants' agreement of them as examples of bullying behaviour (see Chapter 3). Although (as reported in Chapter 3) four NAQ-R items had been identified that South Korean employees were significantly less likely to consider bullying than UK participants – verbal intimidation,

excessive and persistent teasing, humiliating, and physical violence – they were still included in the NAQ-R since the author of that questionnaire advises against any alteration of the measure. Since the items on the NAQ-R had already been tested, it was unnecessary to test further for overlapping items. Thus, the NAQ-R consisted of twenty-two items and South Korean bullying items that were similar to the twenty-two items were removed from the latter list. The full list of ‘South Korean’ items was then given to three South Korean researchers who reduced it down by putting together similar items and rephrasing them into one item through discussion. The procedure produced the 23 items of the KBAQ, which are beyond the NAQ-R items.

From the 23 items, a self-report questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire listed the twenty-three items and asked participants to indicate whether or not they considered each of the KBAQ to be bullying. Items of the NAQ-R were not rated again as their rating was already reported in Chapter 3. Two options were given, allowing the participants to indicate either ‘Yes’ or ‘No’ to the question. The initial version of the questionnaire was translated into English without using the back-translation method and pilot testing was done with six Korean and six UK employees who were the author’s family and personal friends. The produced result indicated a consistent direction of cultural differences though not necessarily significant. Some of the wording of the questionnaire was amended according to the participants’ suggestion. After the questionnaire was finalised (see Appendix E), it was translated into English by the author and translated back into South Korean by a South Korean student.

4.3. Procedure. The questionnaire was distributed in both paper version and on-line version (<http://www.my3q.com/>). For participants who completed the on-line version, a link was provided. All of South Korean participants completed the on-line version. The UK sample was given either an on-line version or a paper version depending on their preference and their access to the internet. With the on-line version, it was not possible to obtain the response rate but, with the paper version, 80 copies were distributed and 53 were returned (response rate: 66.3%).

5. Quantitative Results

In the introduction to this Chapter, it was noted that the second hypothesis questioned whether there were differences between South Korean and UK samples in their agreement that potentially South Korean-specific negative acts were bullying. Table 4.1 shows the contingency table of responses and the results of chi-square tests. As in the first study, the significance level was controlled in order to avoid type I error and a significance level of 1% was adopted.

The items of the KBAQ were categorised according to the typical categories used to analyse the qualitative data in the repertory grid study (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). These categories included: 'organisational measures', 'attacking the victims' tasks and competencies', 'attacking the private person', 'verbal aggression', 'spreading rumours'. None of the items fell under the category of 'social isolation' but some fell into the category of 'bullying during socials', which was a new category found from the qualitative study above. The second new category was 'unfair personnel appointment'. One of the twenty-three items did not match with any of these categories (i.e. having property taken without permission). Thus, this item was recorded without a category. The author and two other psychologists categorised the items in order to achieve inter-rater reliability. They categorised the items separately first and then, compared the categorised list afterwards. There was little discrepancy in the raters' categorisation and the difference was resolved through discussion among them, eventually producing the final categorisation which all three of them agreed upon.

12 out of 23 items produced statistically significant results whereby South Korean employees were more likely than UK employees to consider the items to be bullying. However, for eleven items the UK sample did not differ from South Korean employees in their agreement of these behaviours as manifestation of bullying despite the items being directly drawn from the South Korean qualitative data. These latter items included 'not being allowed to defend oneself in a disciplinary action'; 'repeatedly forced to work extended hours', 'being sneered at or criticised for not being good enough', 'the work you are given is different from that you are contracted to do

(e.g., more difficult and unpleasant); 'not receiving acknowledgement for good work';
'repeated and unwanted calls'; 'being told abruptly rather than asked'; 'being
pressured to drink alcohol during socials'; 'pressure to pay for everyone in socials';
'being forced to smoke' and 'having property taken without permission'.

Table 4.1

South Korean and UK participants' responses to whether the items were bullying and the result of chi-square test

	KBAQ	Nationality	Bullying	Not Bullying	Chi-square	df	p
Organisational measures	Being forced to relocate (e.g., to outside the main branches of the organisation)	South Korean	57	19	39.3	1	<.001
		UK	18	57			
	Being forced to attend unnecessary training programmes	South Korean	39	37	17.7	1	<.001
		UK	14	70			
	Not being allowed to defend oneself in a disciplinary action	South Korean	56	20	2.63	1	Not Sig.
		UK	46	19			
Being forced to deal with boss's personal matters	South Korean	50	26	17.2	1	<.001	
	UK	24	51				
Attacking tasks and competencies	Repeatedly forced to work extended hours	South Korean	45	31	.071	1	Not Sig.
		UK	46	29			
	Being sneered at or criticised for not being good enough	South Korean	68	8	.066	1	Not Sig.
		UK	66	9			
	The work you are given is different from that which you are contracted to do (e.g., more difficult and unpleasant)	South Korean	46	30	6.36	1	Not Sig.
		UK	30	45			
	Having events cancelled at short-notice irrespective of the amount of work you have put into them	South Korean	47	29	16.1	1	<.001
		UK	22	53			
	Being given unpleasant jobs to do (the tasks nobody else wants to do)	South Korean	58	16	15.2	1	<.001
		UK	34	41			
	Having other people dump their work on you	South Korean	67	9	38.1	1	<.001
		UK	30	45			

Table 4.1 Contd.

Attacking tasks and competencies	Having free time curtailed (e.g., being forced to take short lunch break or work through lunch break)	South Korean	50	26	12.2	1	<.01
		UK	28	41			
	Not being involved in important decisions	South Korean	53	23	12.3	1	<.01.
		UK	31	44			
	Not receiving acknowledgement for good work	South Korean	46	30	4.13	1	Not Sig.
		UK	33	42			
Having achievements stolen	South Korean	54	22	13.6	1	<.001	
	UK	31	44				
Attacking	Repeated and unwanted calls at home from work	South Korean	47	29	.159	1	Not Sig.
		UK	44	31			
Verbal	Being told abruptly rather than asked	South Korean	38	38	.060	1	Not Sig.
		UK	39	36			
Spreading	Negative rumours being spread when you are seeking to move to a different organisation in the same industry	South Korean	61	15	8.31	1	<.01
		UK	44	31			
Bullying during socials	Being pressured to drink alcohol during socials	South Korean	48	28	3.51	1	Not Sig.
		UK	36	39			
	Pressure to pay for everyone in socials	South Korean	40	36	.833	1	Not Sig.
		UK	45	30			
	Being pressured to attend socials when you do not want to go	South Korean	47	29	9.07	1	<.01
		UK	28	47			
Being forced to smoke	South Korean	46	30	1.12	1	Not Sig.	
	UK	39	36				

Table 4.1 Contd.

Unfair person	People being promoted unfairly above you	South Korean	44	32	19.5	1	<.001
		UK	17	55			
	Having property taken without permission	South Korean	45	31	.318	1	Not Sig.
		UK	41	34			

6. Discussion

The study aimed to expand on the South Korean's conceptualisation of bullying (from Chapter 3) and identify a list of supplementary South Korean bullying behaviours that could be used to measure bullying in South Korea. It also aimed to investigate whether South Korean and UK participants differed in their agreement as to whether any South Korean bullying items were indeed seen as bullying.

The first aim was investigated by the qualitative, repertory grid study. From the data, three groups of categories emerged: categories that described bullying acts that fell under the typical categories of bullying (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003) including 'organisational measures', 'attacking the victims' tasks and competencies', 'social isolation', 'attacking the private person', 'verbal aggression', and 'spreading rumours'. In addition to the existing typical categories, three new categories of bullying acts were found: 'unfair personnel appointment', 'stealing achievement' and 'bullying during socials'. Finally, the last category was related to the participants' opinions of bullying, namely 'justification of bullying'.

Data under the 'organisational measures' category was further broken down using sub-categories including 'coercion', 'disruption in workload and role division', 'not allowing holidays', and 'violation of employees' rights'. 'Coercion' could occur in various forms including forced contract, forced relocation, forced training, being forced to move around from department to department, or being forced to change pension schemes. The common use of coercion in South Korea could be explained by the compulsory military service in South Korea (see Chapter 2). Healthy South Korean men are subject to the military service in their early twenties and the experience may lead them to become authoritarian (see Chapter 2). Since men usually dominate the senior positions in organisations, their authoritarian attitude would lead them to exercise a coercive management style instead of negotiation or encouragement. Consequently, coercion would be expected to be common in the South Korean workplace (see Chapter 2).

The 'disruption in workload and role division' sub-category consisted of deliberately giving everyone's work to one individual, and was closely related to role

conflict and ambiguity. Based on the participants' responses, pushing everyone's workload to one individual seemed to be related to the unclear role division amongst the staff. Role conflict and ambiguity can be found in the UK as well but, in South Korea, it seems to be rather serious as participants in this study reported that they had to deal with their boss's personal matters or do whatever job was given, without having their roles clearly specified. To some extent, the behaviour of the 'boss' might deliberately contribute to role conflict through their expectation of the completion of non-work role behaviours as part of the job. The issue of role conflict/ambiguity could also be demonstrated by job adverts in South Korea and in the UK. While, in the UK, job adverts usually provide detailed job descriptions, job adverts in South Korea rarely do so. This issue might arise due to South Koreans' cognition being more towards holistic than analytic concerns (Nisbett, Peng, Choi, & Norenzayan, 2001). South Koreans tend to see the whole picture of an object and miss the individual properties. Resultantly, it would be difficult for them to break down the roles and responsibilities required for clear role division. Without the role being clearly specified, role conflict/ambiguity would be highly likely and the role conflict/ambiguity would, in turn, allow a manager to deliberately give everyone's workload to one individual as a means to bully the person.

The third sub-category, 'not allowing holidays' is indexed in the NAQ-R (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001). However, participants in the current study mentioned cases in which employees were not allowed to take annual leave and even maternity leave. In the UK (and other developed European countries), annual leave and maternity leave are accorded legal status. In contrast, some of the South Korean participants were not allowed to take such entitlement. As already mentioned, this raised the issue of employees' rights in South Korea and the fourth category was related to this issue, i.e. 'violation of employees' rights'. Here, participants described cases wherein employees were not allowed the opportunity to defend themselves or were sacked without a reasonable cause. In the UK, employees are protected from such mistreatment by law. Thus, it seems that South Korean employees' rights are not as well protected as UK employees' rights. Without such protection, the mistreatment on

employees might occur more easily and this would contribute to the potential for bullying.

Interestingly, in Seo's (2008) study, neither operational nor subjective victims were highly prevalent among South Korean participants (12.4% and 5.7% respectively) compared to the prevalence rates found in the previous literature (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin 2001; Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). One explanation for Seo's results would be that the use of the NAQ-R missed out on a large part of the picture and underestimated the prevalence of bullying. As observed in this study, many new bullying acts emerged from South Korean participants' responses that were not reported in the previous literature (see Chapter 1). Thus, as repeatedly suggested in Chapter 2 and the current chapter, a bullying questionnaire more indigenous to South Korean culture should be used to measure bullying in South Korea.

The second super-ordinate category was 'attacking the victims' tasks and competencies'. Commonly mentioned behaviours included here had to do with unpleasant monitoring of work and undermining someone for their lack of ability or poor achievement. Both of these behavioural sub-categories are referenced in the NAQ-R. The latter behaviour – undermining someone for their lack of ability or poor achievement – might be a consequence of an individual standing out from the group – and therefore being discriminated against – through their perceived contribution to performance levels. As reported from the previous literature, people who violate existing productivity norms are discriminated from the group (Coyne et al., 2000; Zapf, 1999). Although the commonly reported cases in the literature tend to be of victims with high competency and high qualifications being 'singled out', the same process can legitimately be applied to people with low competency and low qualifications. Through their low productivity, employees can stand out and be perceived to be different. As Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) suggests, once perceived to be different, people are easily discriminated against and targeted with aggression (Brown, 1997; Tylefors, 1987). They can receive less social support from the group (Cohen & Wills, 1984) and become easy prey for bullies (Hoel & Cooper, 2001).

South Korean participants included 'stealing another's achievement' as a manifestation of 'attacking the victim's tasks and competencies'. As already mentioned, 'stealing achievement' did not appear in the previous bullying literature (see Chapter 1) and so raises the speculation that that this might be a component of bullying specific to South Korean culture. 'Stealing achievement' might be related to unclear role divisions in the South Korean workplace (see above). As roles are not clearly divided amongst staff, it would not be clear who completes which task. Under such a work atmosphere, it would be easy for a bully to steal the victims' achievement and claim it as their own. In such situations, the culprit tends to be someone in a superior position or someone who has a closer relationship to the superiors. Taking advantage of the stiff hierarchy and respect to the authority characteristic of South Korean culture (see Chapter 2), the culprit could effectively 'silence' the victim and avoid the consequences. If this behaviour is successfully undertaken once, with no disciplinary consequences for the perpetrator, then the positive reinforcement involved (from the bully's perspective) could contribute to similar behaviour in the future. Over time, 'stealing achievement' therefore becomes an obvious manifestation of bullying.

The third category was 'social isolation' under which the most frequently mentioned bullying behaviour by the South Korean participants, i.e. exclusion, was to be found. The reason for the frequent mentioning of exclusion might be traced to the literal meaning of South Korean terms equivalent to bullying (e.g., *tta-dol-lim* and *wang-tta*) (see Chapter 2). *Tta-dol-lim* and *wang-tta*, in practice, cover a wide range of forms of psychological and physical aggression and violence, but their literal meanings are exclusion. Although there are other terms used to refer to bullying in South Korea, the two terms, *wang-tta* in particular, are the most commonly used. Participants might have been influenced by the literal meaning and hence more likely to report behaviours that are related to it. Moreover, since South Korean bullying can take the form of a group act (see Chapter 3), bullying might often have involved isolating the victim from the group.

Since exclusion is also one of the negative acts listed in the NAQ-R (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), the act itself is not specific to South

Korean culture. However, the context of exclusion appears to show a degree of cultural-specificity. The context referenced by South Korean employees included excluding someone when going for lunch or when leaving from work together. In keeping with the collectivist culture of South Korea, workers usually go for lunch or leave from work together, in social groups. Thus, being excluded in those contexts might constitute a clear sign of being isolated or being bullied to South Korean workers whereas, in individualist cultures, this would not necessarily be the case. In other words, national culture impacts on the types of bullying acts that occur in the workplace. If there are many such bullying acts, then this supports the earlier suggestion that the appropriate bullying act items for a certain culture are likely to be influenced by the culture (see Chapter 2).

The next category was 'attacking the private person'. A wide range of behaviours were categorised here including careless words and behaviours that impact negatively and severely upon someone or inappropriate physical contact. Noticeable items were joking over one's lack of beauty and teasing for eating too much. Both of these items were typically reported by women and this could be explained by the high value placed on women's slimness and beauty in South Korea (Jung & Forbes, 2006). Although such value can be found in other cultures, in South Korea, it is more extreme to the extent that excessive diet and cosmetic surgery are highly common (Jung & Forbes, 2006). South Korean employees' value for conformity might also play a role here in that when the majority went through cosmetic surgery, the rest would also follow. Due to the cultural atmosphere emphasising women's beauty and a slim figure, women without these attributes might be devalued and be subjected to inappropriate jokes.

The remaining categories were 'verbal aggression' and 'spreading rumours'. What was noticeable was that among the behaviours categorised under 'spreading rumours' were rumours being spread to different organisations in the same industry when the victim was seeking to move to a different job. Although spreading rumours appeared among the NAQ-R items, the context referenced there was intra-work group/organisation and not between organisations.. This inter-organisational context

of rumour found in the South Korean sample could be explained by the South Korean culture encouraging the formation of personal relationships even outside of professional relationships (see Chapter 2). People working in the same industries or collaborating organisations might develop a personal relationship through meeting each other for professional purposes. Once a personal relationship is developed, colleagues in different organisations might talk about and exchange information about those they work with or supervise. This information then becomes central to the impression formed of other workers with public perceptions of individuals being communicated on the back of inter-personal communication between colleagues and 'friends'. If an individual employee were to seek a job in a different organisation, then his/her chance might be affected by the impression people in different organisations already hold about him/her based upon what they have 'heard on the grapevine' rather than through actually knowing the individual. Due to the close, personal relationships South Korean employees have with their professional partners or collaborators, 'who one knows' is often more important than 'what one can do'. Consequently, spreading negative rumours about an employee while he/she is seeking to move could be a tactic that could be used to harm him/her.

Acts generated by the South Korean sample that did not fall within the scope of the typical categories seen in European bullying research were labelled under the headings 'bullying during socials' and 'unfair personnel appointment'. Both of these categories appear specific to the South Korean culture. 'Bullying during socials' involves such behaviours as being forced to drink alcohol, to smoke, to pour drinks for others, and to pay for everyone. These acts might reflect the fact that social events in South Korea are different to those that might be commonly found in the UK. Social events in South Korea usually reflect its collectivist and Confucian (or authoritarian) culture, i.e. people share food and subordinates are expected to serve their superiors. This is very different to social events in the UK. When superiors seek to force subordinates to drink, employees cannot easily refuse since to do so might be considered rude. Female employees are often expected to sit next to their male superiors and serve drink for them and, when they refuse to do so, they could be

isolated or treated as someone with a difficult temper. Thus, although socials in South Korean organisations are aimed at raising morale in employees or at celebrating good occasions, for some, they are stressful and involve being harassed by superiors or male colleagues.

It has been reported in the South Korean media that harassment during socials is indeed prevalent in South Korea but that the culprits are rarely disciplined (Sung, 2008; Yi, 2005). As Liefoghe and Davey (2001) reported, bullying might be increased by the lack of any procedures to deal with bullies and by organisations that thereby knowingly or unwittingly condone harassment. Although each of the cases reported by the participants was more of harassment rather than of bullying, the relaxed attitudes of South Korean organisations towards such harassment (Sung, 2008; Yi, 2005) might lead to the harassment being repeated, which might then become bullying.

Despite such negative issues arising from socials, if employees refused to go, then they might be isolated at the workplace. In addition, as mentioned by the participants, employees could be forced to pay for everyone at the socials. In South Korea, this is termed giving '*han-tuk*' and can pose a heavy financial burden on the targeted person since socials in South Korea usually involve both dinner and drinks afterwards in a number of bars. Yet, once asked for '*han-tuk*', it is difficult to refuse because of the prevailing social and cultural pressure. Due to its collectivist nature and the close bonding this gives rise to among group members in South Korea (see Chapter 2), social pressure has a particularly strong influence on South Koreans. What a group expects from or demands on an individual, he/she cannot easily ignore. Ignoring the pressure could earn disapproval and isolation from the group, which would then escalate into a more serious conflict and problem.

The second, new category was 'unfair personnel appointment', which was mentioned in the South Korean word '*nakhasan*'. In order for a '*nakhasan*' to get a place, someone who was supposed to be appointed to the place has to be dropped from consideration for promotion. Thus, it is considered to be a form of bullying to those who were pushed aside for the '*nakhasan*'. Similar to '*nakhasan*' is the unfairness that might be found in reward and punishment. For example, participants

observed that those who were in favour of the management, or their superiors, were not only recognised for their achievement but also benefited by having their errors or mistakes overlooked. The opposite case was believed to occur for those who were 'out of favour' with the management/superiors.

Another category that was irrelevant to bullying behaviours emerged, which was labelled as 'justification for bullying'. This category was related to the participants' opinions of bullying and South Koreans expressed a degree of tolerance and justification of bullying. That South Korean employees might look to justify bullying was explained in terms of the military experience of South Korean men. Harsh treatment is accepted in a military camp and South Korean men may continue to hold such attitudes after completion of their military service. Since men tend to occupy the higher positions in organisations, their attitudes would be reflected disproportionately in the values and norms of the organisation. In turn, the organisational atmosphere would affect the employees in their attitudes towards bullying (Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, & Pereira, 2002; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew, 1996; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). In organisations that are tolerant to bullying and other forms of aggression, bullying could easily become prevalent (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Rutter & Hine, 2005; UNISON, 1997). Besides, in South Korea, there exist the attitudes of tolerating violence and aggression for 'the greater benefit' (Choi, 2009; Kim, 2006) even within women-dominated industries (Kim, 2006).

However, there is also the possibility that the 'justification for bullying' category was a product of demand characteristics. In the repertory grid study, prompts were given to the participants to think of bullying scenarios and behaviours and their own opinions of what bullying was. Due to the strong social pressure and value for group harmony that characterise a collectivist culture (Chapter 2), South Koreans tend to avoid giving negative views of others. Hence, when asked to describe bullying situations, the South Korean participants might have felt the need to provide some justification for the negative situations they were describing in order to avoid only talking about negative aspects of someone else's behaviours. As seen in Chapter 3, South Korean participants expressed justification for bullying even when they were

simply asked for their own definition of bullying whereas the UK participants did not. Yet, as also found in Chapter 3, the overall tolerance level of negative acts did not significantly differ between the UK and South Korean participants either, which seemed to add weight to the suggestion of demand characteristics. On the other hand, Chapter 3 also showed that South Korean participants were more tolerant of negative acts when the aggressor was someone in a superior position than when the aggressor was their peers or subordinates. Therefore, the tendency to justify bullying might have emerged when the bully was a superior.

For the quantitative part of the study, twenty-three items deemed to specify bullying acts potentially specific to the South Korean context were produced and data analysed to see if these items were indeed specific to South Korean employees. The results showed that, for eleven out of the twenty-three items, South Korean and UK participants did not differ significantly in their agreement regarding whether or not the items did constitute bullying. Looking at the items that produced significant differences and the items that did not, there did not seem to be an observable pattern. Non-significant results were produced by seven out of the seventeen items that belonged to the typical categories of bullying found in the existing literature (Zapf et al., 2003) and four out of six items from the new categories that emerged from the qualitative data. Thus, whether or not any of the items produced significant result did not seem to be related to the pre-determined or emerging categories.

However, the overall result seemed to suggest that, although the items were developed from the qualitative study with South Korean participants, some of them might also be applicable to bullying in the UK. In Chapter 3, it was also reported that the majority of the European bullying items did not produce a significant cultural difference either. These results seem to suggest that although there are culturally specific bullying acts, there are also more universal bullying acts that can be applied in different countries, hence revealing both an emic and etic side of bullying acts. Nevertheless, the emic side of bullying acts continues to suggest that using bullying questionnaires developed in a different culture can pose a limitation on research findings since the culturally specific aspects of bullying could be missed out. Thus, the

development of a more culturally specific bullying questionnaire (or at least a list of bullying items) is necessary, which is precisely what this study aimed to deliver.

6.1. Originality and limitations. The development of the KBAQ was the main originality and strength of this study. Although at a pilot study level, the items' applicability to the UK was also tested to some extent. Until now, no workplace bullying questionnaire has been developed in South Korea or in any other countries in the Far East. Therefore, although extensive further research would be required to achieve a validated South Korean bullying questionnaire, developing the KBAQ was certainly the first step towards such a questionnaire.

Despite the originality, there was the undeniable weakness that the sample size of the quantitative part was small for a survey study. Participants were allocated in the different studies so that the majority of the sample would be allocated in the last, main study. Consequently, the number of participants for the other studies needed to be limited. Recruiting more participants for this study would have either reduced the number of participants for the main study or considerably delayed the progress of this and later studies. Due to the limited time available for the PhD completion, it was not possible to spend as much time as desired on recruiting participants.

The KBAQ also had a limitation in that some of the items were specific to contexts while the items used in the previous European bullying questionnaires tended to be more context-independent (e.g., Hoel & Einarsen, 2001; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999). In certain contexts, the items might be considered bullying but, in the other context, they were not. Similar opinions had been mentioned by the South Korean respondents during the repertory grid study. For example, cancelling events at short notice despite the effort put into them had been mentioned by one of the respondents as a way of bullying. At that time when such an act happened, bullying was already in progress direct towards the respondent and the respondent was aware of it. The respondent had spent time and effort to organise an event but the bully, who held the power, cancelled the event at the last minute. Such items pose a problem since the items might be considered to be bullying by some but not by others. Considering that the items in the NAQ or other European bullying questionnaires (e.g., Leymann, 1996)

were fairly independent from the context, using the KBAQ might pose a limitation in measuring workplace bullying. On the other hand, it has been suggested that it is not the nature of the conduct itself that makes the victim suffer (Leymann, 1990). The frequency of the acts together with the situational factors relating to power differences, or the victim's attributions about the offender's intentions may cause as much anxiety, misery and suffering as does the actual conduct involved (Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994). Thus, being context-dependent may not pose too a great limitation as a bullying questionnaire.

In order to clarify this issue, in the next chapter, the validity and reliability of the KBAQ will be examined by comparing it to the NAQ, which is an established bullying questionnaire that has been validated across different cultures (e.g., Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers). Using both the KBAQ and the NAQ as the measures of bullying, the descriptive aspects of workplace bullying, antecedents and health outputs will be examined and their implication in relation to the validity of the KBAQ will be discussed.

6.2. Conclusion. The study was conducted in two phases, qualitative and quantitative. Through a qualitative study, bullying acts that fell under the typical categories (Zapf et al., 2003) and new categories of bullying acts were identified. In addition, some participants expressed a degree of justification for bullying. Based on the qualitative data, the items of the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) were developed and tested for cultural differences in agreement that they do constitute manifestations of bullying. The results showed that the KBAQ had a degree of cultural specificity as well as cross-cultural applicability to the UK. While the KBAQ had limitations as well as strengths, the study was still the first step taken to the development of an indigenous workplace bullying questionnaire applicable to the South Korean workplace. The twenty-three items of the KBAQ have not been validated yet as a bullying questionnaire. However, comparing the KBAQ to the NAQ would provide clues and evidence about whether or not culture-specific bullying questionnaires would be necessary. If the relatively universal NAQ appears to miss out on many aspects of bullying in South Korea, then it would give all the more reason

to develop a bullying questionnaire appropriate to South Korean work settings. With this possibility in mind, the next chapter compared the UK and South Korean samples using the KBAQ and the NAQ-R in terms of the prevalence of bullying, antecedents of bullying and health outcomes.

CHAPTER 5

Application of South Korean Bullying Act Questionnaire (KBAQ) and Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R): The Prevalence, Health outputs, and Predictors of Workplace Bullying

1. Introduction

In Chapter 4, a list of indigenous bullying items was produced based on the data drawn from South Korean employees, which was named the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ). In this chapter, evidence for the validity of this list as a questionnaire of bullying and its applicability to South Korean and UK employees will be sought by comparing the KBAQ with the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) in the context of an examination of the prevalence, health outputs, and predictors of workplace bullying. In addition, cross-cultural aspects of workplace bullying will also be highlighted.

In Chapter 2, two contradicting hypotheses were generated regarding workplace bullying in South Korea. One suggested that, due to the close relationship and bonding common among South Koreans, individuals would be protected from being bullied. The other argued that the culture would be rich with conflict and aggression as a consequence of the hardship experienced throughout history and the conflict between the traditional Confucian values and the resistance to them. It is not possible to draw a conclusion over the two hypotheses yet since there has been only one piece of systematic research into the prevalence of bullying in South Korea (Seo, 2008). Based on the qualitative studies reported in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4, however, one could hypothesise that South Koreans might have a relatively relaxed attitude towards bullying, hence their tendency to justify aggression and violence (Choi, 2009; Kim, 2006), especially when the aggressor was their superior (Chapter 3).

In her examination of workplace bullying in South Korea, Seo (2008) obtained a prevalence rate of bullying of 12.4% using an operational approach and 5.7% using a subjective approach. Using the same criteria of victims but a different version of NAQ-R, Salin (2001) identified 24.1% of operational victims and 8.8% as subjective victims

within her Finnish participants. Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) used slightly different criteria of operational and subjective victims and found prevalence rates of 8–25% and 2–4% respectively within Danish participants. These studies were conducted at different times and the measure or the criteria of being a victim was not always the same. In order to make a direct cultural comparison, data collection should be made in different countries at the same time using the same measure. Thus, the first aim of the current study is to compare prevalence rates in South Korean and UK participants.

Gender differences among victims is another issue to consider while discussing the prevalence rate of bullying since previous studies produced inconsistent results (e.g., Björkqvist, Osterman, Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999, 2003; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002; Salin, 2001; Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Vaez, Ekberg, & Laflamme, 2004). Vaez et al. (2004) explained the inconsistent findings such that women's exposure to aggression was widespread over several occupational groups while men's exposure was more concentrated. Depending on the occupation from which the sample was drawn, different findings would have been obtained. Thus, even if one accepts that the inconsistent findings regarding gender differences among victims would persist, one should still consider the gender effect in the prevalence rate of bullying. Suppose, for example, that a particular industry has a high prevalence of bullying in one gender but not in the other gender. Here, not accounting for the gender would bias the results.

In addition to looking into cultural differences, age group differences within South Korean participants also need to be investigated. In Chapter 2, it was mentioned that South Korean culture was currently moving away from Confucianism and collectivism (e.g., Roh, 2004; Sung, 2001) although the influence of these two traditional values does still exist (e.g., Choi, 1994; Lee, Park, Kim, & Tak, 2008; Lee & Sung, 1997; Yoon, 2006). In line with this cultural change, the younger generation no longer show as deep a respect for the elders and superiors as the older generation used to do. The older generation may view such an attitude from the younger generation as mistreatment. Moreover, it was also argued in Chapter 2 that the older

South Korean population, scarred by the experiences of Japanese colonisation, the South Korean War and political dictatorship, might be more sensitive or even paranoid about being mistreated. Due to this over-sensitivity, older South Korean participants may be more likely than younger South Korean participants to report themselves to have been bullied or victimised. Therefore, when looking into the prevalence of bullying amongst South Korean samples, age differences must be examined.

The status of the bully is a further important aspect of bullying to explore when looking at cultural comparisons. Studies within the UK have consistently identified people in superior positions as the bullies (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). In Scandinavia, however, bullying by peers seems to be as common as (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), if not more common than bullying by superiors (Vartia, 1993; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002). Referring to Hofstede's (1993) cultural dimensions, Einarsen (2000) explained the cultural differences in terms of Scandinavian culture having low power-distance and high femininity characteristics while the UK being a high power-distance country in which autocratic and coercive management styles are more accepted (Vega & Comer, 2005).

South Korea is a high power-distance country but, traditionally, it has been under the prevailing influence of feminine values. On the one hand, therefore, it is likely that bullying by superiors will be common in South Korea, but, on the other hand, it is also possible that bullying by peers will be more common (as reported by Seo, 2008). Moreover, Seo (2008) also found bullying by subordinates to be as common as bullying by superiors. Such a high prevalence of bullying by subordinates has never been found in the UK or Scandinavia. Considering the traditional Confucian values and authoritarian attitudes prevalent in South Korea, the relatively high incidence of bullying by subordinates seems to be counter-intuitive by virtue of the fact that a high level of respect for the elderly and superiors dominant within the South Korean culture should have prevented bullying by subordinates.

As previously discussed, there exists conflict between younger and older generations in South Korea. This conflict – and lack of respect from the younger generation – might have led older, more senior workers to develop a heightened and

overly sensitive awareness of subordinates engaging in negative acts targeted at themselves since it goes against the Confucian values. Alternatively, given the upbringing of South Korean participants, which encourages obedience to superiors and elders (e.g., Bailey & Lee, 1992; Doe, 2000), together with the tolerance of physical punishment (Ellinger & Beckham, 1997) and the military experience of South Korean males (e.g., spread of authoritarian attitudes), one might suspect that the South Korean participants would have been desensitised to any harsh treatment coming from superiors and would not, therefore, consider such harsh treatment to be bullying. Indeed, in Chapter 3, it was found that South Korean participants were more tolerant to negative acts coming from superiors than to negative acts coming from peers or subordinates. Considering the greater tolerance of negative acts meted out by superiors, one could expect some discrepancy in the reported status of perpetrators of negative acts and the reported status of bullies. For example, even if superiors were the principal perpetrators of the negative acts, they would be less likely to be reported as bullies than peers or subordinates since the Confucian and authoritarian attitudes of the people would protect them from being revealed. For this reason, the current study will look at the perpetrators of negative acts (i.e. who actually carries out the negative acts) as well as whom the respondents report as bullies (i.e. who do participants think are bullying them).

In addition to the descriptive aspects of work bullying, the study also aims to look at the impact of bullying. In Chapter 1, it was shown that bullying is detrimental to the organisation (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Lewis, 2006b; Pryor, 1987) as well as to the psychological and physical health of the victim (e.g., Leymann, 1996; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b; Randall, 1996; Vartia, 2001). One possible organisational consequence of bullying is reduced job satisfaction (Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Hauge et al., 2007; Nielsen, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2008). According to Warr (1987), job factors are likely to have a greater influence on job-related mental health (such as job satisfaction), than on context-free mental health, which is related to life in general. Since workplace bullying can be considered to be a workplace social stressor (Leymann, 1996; Zapf et al. 1996b), job-related health measures would be

better measures of the impact of workplace bullying than a general health measure. For this reason, job satisfaction would be a good indicator of the impact of workplace bullying. By the same argument, work-related burnout can also be considered a good measure of the consequences of bullying. Where job satisfaction indexes something of the affective consequences of bullying, burnout references something of the physical consequences e.g., being tired, exhausted and worn-out. Burnout has been used by other researchers to investigate the impact of workplace bullying (Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001).

In order to examine participants' health state associated with bullying, two methods can be used: examining group differences between 'victims' and 'non-victims' (e.g., Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Hauge et al., 2007) and examining the general association between experiences of bullying and health state (e.g., Notelaers et al., 2006). Both methods have repeatedly linked bullying with negative health outcomes (e.g., Einarsen et al., 1998; Hauge et al., 2007; Notelaers et al., 2006). Adapting both of the methods, this study will look into group differences as well as the relationship between bullying and health state. Moreover, taking account of Steensma's (2008) observation that greater frequency of bullying is linked with more negative impact, this study will also examine the difference between two victim groups (i.e. 'frequently bullied' and 'less frequent bullied') as well as the difference between 'victims' and non-victims'.

In addition to the impact of bullying, this study also aims to look at the predictors of bullying. In Chapter 2, predictors of bullying were discussed and many work-related predictors identified. However, it is not possible to test all of the predictors discussed so some sub-sample of predictors has to be selected for testing. Among work-related predictors, role conflict (e.g., Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007) and interpersonal conflict (Einarsen et al., 1994; Hauge et al., 2007) have repeatedly been found to be linked with bullying. In a situation where two parties are in a conflict, for example, if one of the parties acquires a disadvantaged position then the conflict can

escalate into bullying (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Lagerspetz, 1994b). This type of process is referred to as dispute-related bullying (Einarsen, 1998).

Leadership, especially passive/laissez-faire (Einarsen et al., 1994; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Hauge et al., 2007) and coercive/tyrannical (Hauge et al., 2007; Hoel et al., 2003, O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith, 1998a; Sheehan, 1999; Vartia, 1996) has also been linked with bullying. Constructive leadership was also found to be associated with bullying (Hansen, Hogh, Persson, Karlson, Garde, & Orbaek, 2006) although the strength of the relationship was not as strong as the correlation between tyrannical and laissez-faire leadership and bullying (Hauge et al., 2007). If management 'turns a blind eye' to aggression and bullying, or does not deal with it effectively, then this could facilitate the growth of bullying as bullies could exercise negative acts without fear of being prosecuted. At the same time, constructive leadership would lead to effective handling of bullying or aggression in the workplace and bullies would be discouraged to continue with their negative behaviour. Thus, the style of leadership can be an important predictor of bullying.

Job insecurity is another work-related predictor found in bullying literature (e.g., Baron & Neuman, 1998; Hauge et al., 2007). In Hauge et al.'s (2007) study, job insecurity was found to be significantly correlated with bullying. Such a finding could be explained in that, given a greater sense of job insecurity (OECD, 1999), employees would become less resistant to managerial pressure and less likely to challenge unfair and aggressive treatment by managers. Any resistance is likely to cause more conflict and when, eventually, one party loses its ground, the situation is likely to escalate into bullying.

Job demand (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Hauge et al., 2007) and control (Hauge et al., 2007) have also been found to be related to bullying. According to Rayner and Hoel (1997), high levels of conflict resulting from excessive workloads and unreasonable job demands are often precursors to bullying. Control also has been linked to bullying in a considerable body of literature (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, & Allen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 1994; Quine, 2001; Vartia, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996b). The link between perceived low control and bullying is

particularly important in the South Korean context i.e. South Korean participants might be prone to the disposition of perceiving low control. As Tubbs (1994) described things in the Japanese context, the upbringing of many Japanese led them to be disposed to perceive low control and, when bullying occurred, they would easily give up on seeking any active resolution of the problem. By not acting, they would allow the bullies to continue with their behaviour and the bullying problem would easily escalate. The same process may occur in a South Korean culture since South Korea has a relatively similar culture to Japan in terms of being collectivist and Confucian.

As well as work-related predictors, Chapter 1 discussed individual differences as a predictor of bullying. Type A Behaviour Pattern (TABP: Friedman & Rosenman, 1974) is one individual characteristic that has the potential to be associated with workplace bullying. For example, Baron, Neuman, and Geddes (1999) found that participants with higher scores on the measure of TABP reported greater frequency of being exposed to workplace aggression. Although workplace aggression is a broader concept than workplace bullying, it is possible that people high on aggression would be more likely to be targets of bullying or other forms of aggression. In addition, people exhibiting TABP are reported to be significantly more prone to respond aggressively to various forms of provocation than individuals low on this dimension (Type B: Baron, 1989; Baron, Russell, & Arms, 1985; Evans, Palsane, & Carrere., 1987). TABP also covers a range of personalities related to victims of workplace bullying such as being suspicious (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Gandolfo, 1995), being neurotic (Vartia, 1996), being highly conscientious and having difficulty coping with personal criticism (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003), and being more over-sensitive and angrier than other claimants (Gandolfo, 1995). Thus, one can speculate that TABP may be related to the likelihood of being bullied.

Another individual factor to consider is the experience of school bullying. As reported in Chapter 1, school bullying has been associated with workplace bullying (Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Hetland, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2008; Seo, 2008; Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). As White (2004) described in the 'life cycle theory of bullying', victims become victims again (Randall, 1997) and bullies

become bullies again (Rayner, 1999). Therefore, the experience of school bullying will also be examined in the context of this final study.

In line with the above literature, five specific research questions were generated.

The first two concern more descriptive aspects of workplace bullying:

- I. Are there differences in the prevalence rate of bullying depending on the nationality, gender, and age group (old vs. young)?
- II. Is there a difference between South Korean and the UK participants in the status of their main bullying culprit?

The remaining three questions concern the impact and predictors of bullying.

They are:

- III. Is there a difference between frequent and less frequent victim group and non-victims in their work-related health?
- IV. To what extent, does workplace bullying predict work-related health?
- V. To what extent, do work-related and individual factors predict workplace bullying?

By comparing the NAQ-R and KBAQ in terms of the above research questions, the applicability and validity of KBAQ and cross-cultural differences in workplace bullying will be examined.

2. Method

2.1. Participants. Convenience sampling was used, collecting data from participants with various occupational backgrounds. Participants were restricted to those who had work tenure of at least 6 months. Such restriction was implemented in order to allow the time during which negative acts could develop into bullying since bullying is defined as negative acts that have lasted for 6 months or longer (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). The majority of the participants were recruited prior to conducting the first study (see Chapter 3) and additional organisations were contacted in order to make up for the reduced number of participants due to the tenure restriction. For Korean participants, the organisations of the business owners and managers who attended the author's seminar during her stay in South Korea were contacted. These

organisations mostly employed office workers, bank cashiers, and male factory workers. The owners and managers of the organisations were provided with detailed information on the purpose of the study.

In total, 361 participants completed the questionnaire, 194 of them were South Korean and the remaining 167 were from the UK. The ages of the South Korean participants ranged from 23 years to 58 years (mean = 38.7 years, standard deviation = 8.93 years). The age range was greater for UK participants (19 to 66 years) who were also relatively younger (mean = 34.9 years, standard deviation = 10.64 years). The comparison of the two groups using an independent samples t-test showed that this difference in age was statistically significant ($t(359) = 3.68, p < .001$) with South Korean participants older than UK participants on average. The gender ratio of participants was not balanced, particularly when the nationality was taken into account. Among the South Korean participants, males were over represented (male:female = 66.2%:33.8%) but among UK participants, females were slightly over represented (male:female = 41.8%:58.2%). The use of a Chi-square test revealed that this gender x nationality imbalance was indeed statistically significant ($\chi^2(1) = 21.9, P < .001$).

Participants' occupations were relatively matched between the South Korean and UK samples. Access to South Korean participants was first sought while the researcher was visiting South Korea prior to the study. After this, UK participants were matched on occupation by contacting relevant organisations. The main occupational groups from which data were collected included pharmacists, civil servants, private sector office workers, bank cashiers and other finance-related jobs. Within the South Korean participants, manufacturing workers were also included among the participants. However, due to a failure to secure research access to manufacturing factories in UK, an alternative male-dominated industry was sought and access to an IT company was gained. Although the industries were relatively matched, the proportions of full-time and part-time workers were not balanced. While only 7.2% of South Korean participants were part-time workers, among UK participants, 24% were part-time workers.

2.2. Materials. Since one of the aims of the study was to validate KBAQ, a survey method using KBAQ and other scales were chosen. Bullying was measured by three different measures: the 23 items of the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) derived from Chapter 4, the 22 items of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001), and a self-reported bullying measure wherein participants were presented with a definition of bullying and asked how frequently they experienced the circumstances described. Based on the previous two studies, the KBAQ would be more applicable to South Korean participants whereas the NAQ-R would be more applicable to UK participants. In theory, the KBAQ should have been used on South Korean participants while the NAQ-R should have been used on UK participants. However, since the KBAQ constituted a list of workplace bullying items rather than a validated bullying scale, using the KBAQ alone and accepting the results could be misleading as it was not certain how valid or reliable it might be. While the NAQ-R might not be wholly applicable to South Korean participants (Chapter 3) with four items being significantly less likely to be considered bullying by South Korean participants than by UK sample (i.e. physical violence, being humiliated, verbal intimidation, and excessive teasing), it was nevertheless a validated questionnaire that has been widely used (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Hoel, 2002; Giorgi, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2006; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001; Seo, 2008). Thus, the NAQ-R was used along with the KBAQ in order to compare the results from the KBAQ to the results from the NAQ-R. Although four of the items might not be applicable to South Korean culture, the items were not excluded from the NAQ-R since the author did not allow the measure to be altered when the purpose was measuring bullying. It was necessary that the measure had to be used as a whole. The KBAQ had Cronbach's alpha values of .90 with UK participants and .88 with South Korean participants. The NAQ-R had Cronbach's alpha values of .88 with UK participants and .93 with South Korean participants.

Self-reported bullying was included based on the proposition that it is the subjective feeling of being victimised that is more likely to impact on the physical and psychological health of individuals (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). Hauge et

al. (2007) measured self-reported bullying by the reported frequency. Indeed, Steensma (2008) suggested that a higher frequency of bullying was linked with more severe bullying. For self-reported bullying, participants were provided with an academic definition of bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003) and were asked to indicate the frequency of exposure to the behaviour on a scale of: “no”, “rarely”, “now and then”, “several times a week”, and “almost daily”. This was scored on the basis of 1 point given to “no” and 5 points to “almost daily” so that a higher score indicated a greater frequency of being bullied.

There are a number of versions of NAQ available with the number of items varying from nine to 32 (e.g., Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Notelaers & Einarsen, 2008; Salin, 2001). However, the 22-item version (NAQ-R) was used in this study as this version had been validated with UK participants (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2009). Further, as it was used alongside the 23 items of KBAQ, it was felt that having a similar number of items in each bullying measure would make the results more comparable between the two sets.

In order to measure the participants’ work-related health, two measures were used: job satisfaction and work-related burnout. Following Warr (1987) and Melamed, Kushnir, and Meir (1991), job satisfaction was considered to be an indicator of job-related mental health and the ten item Warr-Cook-Wall scale (Chambers, Wall, & Campbell, 1996) measure was used. The scale used a 7-point Likert format with 1 indicating “extremely dissatisfied” and 7 indicating “extremely satisfied”. The scale asked for participant satisfaction levels relating to their physical working conditions, freedom to choose own methods of working, colleagues and fellow workers, the recognition they get for good work, the amount of responsibility they were given, rate of pay, opportunities to use their abilities, hours of work, amount of variety in their job, and their overall satisfaction level. The Cronbach’s alpha was .93 in this study.

For the second health measure, seven items from the Copenhagen Work-related burnout Inventory (Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005) were used. The scales asked participants how often the respondents felt tired. Response

categories were “Never/To a very low degree”, “Seldom/To a low degree”, “Sometimes/somewhat”, “Often/To a high degree”, and “Always/To a very high degree”. Examples of the items included “Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?”, “Are you exhausted in the morning at the thought of another day at work?”, “Is your work emotionally exhausting?”, and “Does your work frustrate you?” One of the items (i.e. “Do you have enough energy for family and friends during leisure time?”) was positively phrased and was reverse-scored in the analyses so that a higher score would indicate greater work-related burnout. Cronbach’s alpha was .83 in this study.

Role conflict was measured by the eight item measure from Rizzo, House, and Litzman (1970). The scale used a 7-point Likert format with 1 indicating “Very False” and 7 indicating “Very True”. Four of the items were stress worded and four comfort worded. Stress worded items included “I work on unnecessary things” and “I have to work on things that should be done differently”. Examples of comfort worded items included “I seldom receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it” and “I usually do not have to ‘buck a rule’ or policy in order to carry out an assignment”. The items that were comfort worded were reverse scored in the analysis so that a higher score would indicate higher role conflict. Cronbach’s alpha was .79 in this study.

Interpersonal conflict was measured by the four item measure of the Bergen Conflict Indicator (From Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007). The scale asked participants to rate the extent of their task-related and person-related conflict with their supervisor and colleagues. Response categories were “Not in conflict”, “To a small degree”, “To some degree”, and “To a high degree”. Cronbach’s alpha was .71 in this study for the overall measure. In the analysis, the measure was separated into two sub-scales in order to obtain the scores of conflict with supervisors and of conflict with colleagues. The scale was separated since conflict with supervisors and conflict with colleagues might have a different impact on the likelihood of being bullied depending on the country in which the data were collected. For example, in the UK, the most commonly reported bully status is a supervisor (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001). In contrast, in South Korea, colleagues were reported to be the most common bullies (Seo, 2008). Conflict with supervisors might therefore be expected to have a greater

impact on the bullying of UK workers while for South Korean workers victimisation should be more related to conflict with colleagues. The scale was therefore divided to explore this possibility, which had not been done previously.

To assess job insecurity Hellgren, Sverke and Isaksson's (1999) three item measure was used. This scale measures the extent to which respondents worry over the possibility of losing their job and uses a 5-point Likert scale where 1 = "strongly disagree" and 5 = "strongly agree". The constituent items are "I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to", "I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future", and "There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come". Cronbach's alpha was .84 in the current study.

In the next part of the questionnaire, job demand and control were measured by items taken from the English version of a Dutch questionnaire, 'Experience and Assessment of Work (VBBA)' (de Croon, Kuijera, Broersenc, & Frings-Dresena, 2004). For job demand, four items referencing the "pace and amount of work" were chosen, as this category of job demands contains the most neutrally worded items that are independent of job type. Since it was not possible to collect data from one specific industry, it was necessary that the items should be neutral with respect to the type of industry from which participants were drawn. Job demand such as physical effort was likely to be specific to certain job industries. Representative items included "Do you have to work very fast?" and "Do you have to work extra hard to accomplish your tasks?" For control, 6 items under the "independence in your work" category were chosen for the same reason. Example items included "Can you freely decide how to perform your tasks?", "Can you take part in decisions affecting your work?", and "Do you have an influence on the pace of work?" Response categories were "Never", "Sometimes", "Quite often", and "Very often/nearly always". Cronbach's alpha was .89 for the demand items and .90 for the control items in this study.

Two types of leadership were measured: constructive leadership and tyrannical leadership. The constructive leadership measure was taken from Ekvall and Arvonen (1991). Six items were used to measure constructive leadership. The questions asked how often the respondents' supervisor 'encouraged thinking along new lines', 'gave

recognition for good work', 'pushed for growth and improvement', 'set clear goals for the work', 'defined and explained work requirements clearly', and was 'flexible and ready to rethink his/her point of view'. Higher scores indicated a more constructive leadership style. For tyrannical leadership, eight items were taken from Ashforth (2003). Two of the items were positively phrased and were reverse-scored so that a higher score indicated greater tyrannical leadership. Sample items included "How often does your supervisor administer organisational policies unfairly?", "How often does your supervisor use authority or position for personal gains?", and "How often does your supervisor force acceptance of his/her point of view?" For both leadership measures, the response categories were "Never", "Sometimes", "Quite often", and "Very often/nearly always". Cronbach's alpha for was .92 for constructive leadership and .77 for tyrannical leadership in this study.

To measure TABP, ten items from the Burns and Bluen (1992) TABP scale were used. In this scale participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with such statements as. "Do you express your anger?", "Do you consider yourself to be hard-driving and competitive?", "Do you get angry when slowed down by others' mistakes?", and "Would people who know you well agree that you tend to get irritated easily?". A 5-point Likert scale was used where 1 = "Strongly disagree" and 5 = "Strongly agree". Cronbach's alpha for the measure was .82 in this study.

Pilot testing was done using six Korean and six UK employees who were among the author's family and friends. The questionnaire was translated into Korean by the author without using the back-translation method. The participants completed the initial version of the questionnaire and provided feedback on the wordings and arrangement of the questionnaire. Their results indicated a degree of cultural difference and the questionnaire was amended according to the feedback received. The amended questionnaire was initially translated into Korean by the author and then, back-translated by another South Korean researcher in psychology. The questionnaire was distributed as both a paper version and an on-line version. The paper version was distributed by the author or by the supervisors of the participants. Some of the participants took both the paper version and the link of the on-line questionnaire so

that they could choose the more convenient option for them depending on their circumstances. However, they were told to respond using only one format. Due to this tendency for some participants to have access to both versions of the questionnaire, it became unclear what the overall response rate was. However, the possibility that some participants might complete both versions was eliminated by checking the demographic information provided by the participants in the questionnaire. No participant was found to have completed the questionnaire using both versions.

3. Results

This study aimed to examine cross-cultural differences – and comparisons – in terms of four aspects of workplace bullying: prevalence, common bully/perpetrator status, health outputs of bullying and the predictors of bullying.

3.1. Prevalence of bullying. Firstly, the prevalence of bullying was examined by identifying both operational and subjective victims. While the KBAQ and the NAQ-R were used to identify operational victims, self-reported victimisation was used to identify subjective victims. Salin's (2001) criteria were used to classify victim status. Employees who experienced weekly exposure to at least one item in the NAQ-R were categorised as the 'NAQ-R operational victims' and to at least one item in the KBAQ as the 'KBAQ operational victims'. Salin's (2001) criteria of subjective victims were slightly altered so that subjective victims were identified as those who have been bullied at least occasionally during the last 6 months rather than 12 months. Salin (2001) had used the 12 months time frame to account for seasonal variations due to the time at which her questionnaire was distributed (i.e. September). As the questionnaire in this study was distributed in April, such alteration was not necessary. Moreover, given that a 6 months period of duration is the criterion more generally used (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), this study also adopted the same time-frame.

In addition, as mentioned in Chapter 1 and in the introduction, this study distinguished 'Frequent' and 'Less Frequent' victims of bullying. Those who satisfied Salin's (2001) operational criteria were categorised as 'Frequent Bullying'. Among the rest, those who have been exposed to any of the bullying behaviours regardless of the

frequency were grouped under 'Less Frequent Bullying'. The remaining participants who had not experienced any of the negative acts were categorised as 'Free from Bullying'. Since Salin's (2001) subjective criteria included occasional bullying as well, it was not possible to divide the subjective victim group further. Thus, subjective victim groups were divided into two groups only: Victims and Non-victims.

3.1.1. Cultural Differences in the prevalence of bullying. Table 5.1 shows the percentages of victims identified by the KBAQ and the NAQ-R according to their nationality.

Table 5.1
The percentages of victims identified by the KBAQ and the NAQ-R according to the nationality

	KBAQ		NAQ-R	
	South Korean	UK	South Korean	UK
Frequent Bullying	16.5	32.3	4.1	26.3
Less Frequent Bullying	78.4	52.7	82.5	62.3
Free From Bullying	5.2	15.0	13.4	11.4

For both the KBAQ and NAQ-R, similar patterns of results were observed. Comparing the prevalence of bullying amongst South Korean and UK participants, UK participants appeared to have a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying while South Korean participants had a higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying. In addition, compared to UK respondents, a lower percentage of South Korean participants were free from the negative acts listed in the KBAQ. Fusing the NAQ-R, on the other hand, a slightly lower percentage of UK participants were free from the acts listed. It was also notable that the KBAQ suggested a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying than the NAQ-R did for both South Korean and UK participants. Chi-square tests were employed to test for nationality difference and revealed a significant difference for groups classified by KBAQ ($\chi^2(2) = 27.3, p < .001$) and NAQ-R ($\chi^2(2) = 36.1, p < .001$). Considering the expected count, UK participants had a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying for both NAQ-R and KBAQ whereas South Korean participants had a higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying than expected.

Table 5.2
Contingency table of victims and non-victims identified by the KBAQ and the NAQ-R according to nationality

	South Korean		UK	
	NAQ-R victim	Non-victim	NAQ-R victim	Non-victim
KBAQ victim	7 (22.6%)	24 (77.4%)	29 (53.7%)	25 (46.3%)
Non-victim	1 (.6%)	162 (99.4%)	15 (13.3%)	98 (86.7%)

The overlap between KBAQ and NAQ-R victim groups is illustrated in Table 5.2 where victims are identified as the Frequent Bullying group (i.e. weekly exposure to the negative acts). The figures indicate that victims identified by the KBAQ are also more likely to be categorised as victims using the NAQ-R. A chi-square test was employed to test their association. With the South Korean sample, there was one cell with an expected value less than five. Thus, Fisher's exact test was used. The results showed strong, significant association between KBAQ victims and NAQ-R victims for both South Korean ($\chi^2(1) = 31.8, p < .001$) and UK participants ($\chi^2(1) = 30.8, p < .001$). The results appear to suggest some validity for the KBAQ.

Table 5.3
Percentage of victims identified by self-reported bullying according to their nationality

	South Korean	UK
Victims	12.9	22.8
Non-victims	86.8	77.2

Table 5.3 shows the percentages of victim groups identified by self-reported bullying according to their nationality. Once again, UK participants had a higher prevalence of self-reported victims. A chi-square test was conducted to test for nationality differences and the result was significant ($\chi^2(1) = 6.07, p < .05$). Considering the expected count, UK participants have a higher prevalence of subjective victimisation level than South Korean participants.

Table 5.4
Contingency table of South Korean operational and subjective victims

		South Korean participants					
		KBAQ			NAQ-R		
		Frequent	Less Frequent	Free From Bullying	Frequent	Less Frequent	Free From Bullying
Subjective victim	Victims	5 (20.0%)	20 (80.0%)	0 (.0%)	1 (4.0%)	22 (88.0%)	2 (4.0%)
	Non-victims	27 (16.0%)	132 (78.1%)	10 (5.9%)	7 (4.1%)	138 (81.7%)	24 (14.2%)

Table 5.4 shows the frequency and percentage of South Korean victim groups identified by using the KBAQ, the NAQ-R and the subjective method. Since both of the KBAQ and NAQ-R contingency tables had 2 cells with expected counts of less than 5, chi-square test was not employed. Still, the pattern seemed to show a better match of subjective victims with operational victim groups identified by KBAQ than with NAQ-R victim groups. While KBAQ victims were more likely to be subjective victims than non-KBAQ victims, NAQ-R victims did not differ from non-NAQ-R victims in their likelihood of being subjective victims. The result revealed an emic dimension of KBAQ in that it seemed to be more applicable than NAQ-R to identifying South Korean victims.

Table 5.5
Contingency Table of UK operational victims and subjective victims

		UK					
		KBAQ			NAQ-R		
		Frequent	Less Frequent	Free From Bullying	Frequent	Less Frequent	Free From Bullying
Subjective victim	Victims	19 (50.0%)	16 (42.1%)	3 (7.9%)	21 (55.3%)	15 (39.5%)	2 (5.3%)
	Non-victims	35 (27.1%)	72 (55.8%)	22 (17.1%)	23 (17.8%)	89 (69.0%)	17 (13.2%)

Similarly, Table 5.5 shows the frequency and percentage of UK victim groups identified by using the KBAQ, the NAQ-R and the subjective method. The UK sample did not show a difference between the operational groups identified by the KBAQ and by the NAQ-R in their match with subjective victims. The 'Frequent' group were consistently most likely to be identified as subjective victims followed by the 'Less Frequent group' and then the 'Free from Bullying' group. A chi-square test revealed significant results for both the KBAQ ($\chi^2(2) = 7.44, p < .05$) and the NAQ-R groups ($\chi^2(2) = 21.3, p < .001$). For both the KBAQ and NAQ-R groups, the victim groups

were more likely to be identified as subjective victims than expected whereas the Less Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying groups were less likely to be identified than expected.

3.1.2. Gender Differences. Table 5.6 shows the percentage of victims identified by the KBAQ and NAQ-R according to their nationality and gender group.

Table 5.6
The percentages of victims identified by the KBAQ and the NAQ-R according to their nationality and gender group

	South Korean				UK			
	KBAQ		NAQ-R		KBAQ		NAQ-R	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Frequent Bullying	10.8	19.4	6.2	3.1	39.2	22.9	30.9	10.0
Less Frequent Bullying	83.1	76.0	84.6	81.4	47.4	60.0	56.7	70.0
Free From Bullying	6.2	4.7	9.2	15.5	13.4	17.1	12.4	20.0

South Korean participants showed a different pattern of results depending on the measure used to identify victims. When the KBAQ was used, males showed a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying whereas females showed higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying. When the NAQ-R was used, females showed a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying. However, the chi-square test revealed that gender differences were not significant for the KBAQ victim groups ($\chi^2(2) = 2.41, p > .05$) nor for the NAQ-R groups ($\chi^2(2) = 2.30, p > .05$) in the South Korean sample. The UK participants showed a more consistent pattern in that females always had a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying. Males tended to have a higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying. However, chi-square analysis revealed that gender differences were not significant for the KBAQ victim group ($\chi^2(2) = 4.95, p > .05$) nor for the NAQ-R group ($\chi^2(2) = 3.20, p > .05$).

Table 5.7
The percentages of victims identified by Self-reported bullying according to their nationality and gender

	South Korean		UK	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Victims	9.4	15.1	22.7	22.9
Non-victims	90.6	84.9	77.3	77.1

When self-reported bullying was used to identify victims, a different pattern of result was observed. Table 5.7 shows the prevalence rate of self-reported bullying broken down by nationality and gender. Within the South Korean sample, males were more likely to be identified as subjective victims than females. Within the UK sample, almost no gender difference was observed. However, once again, the gender difference was not significant for South Korean participants ($\chi^2(1) = 1.16, p > .05$) nor UK participants ($\chi^2(1) = .001, p > .05$).

3.1.3. Age Group Differences. For age group differences, participants were divided into two age groups depending on whether their age was higher or lower than the average age of participants regardless of their nationality (overall mean age = 36.9).

Table 5.8
The percentages of victims identified by KBAQ and NAQ-R according to their nationality and age group

	KBAQ				NAQ-R			
	South Korean		UK		South Korean		UK	
	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old
Frequent Bullying	21.1	12.5	30.8	35.0	7.8	1.0	29.9	20.0
Less Frequent Bullying	72.2	83.7	50.5	56.7	76.7	87.5	57.0	71.7
Free From Bullying	6.7	3.8	18.7	8.3	15.6	11.5	13.1	8.3

Table 5.8 shows the percentages of victims identified by the KBAQ and NAQ-R according to their nationality and age group. South Korean participants showed a consistent pattern in that younger South Korean participants reported a higher prevalence of 'Frequent Bullying' and older South Korean participants had a higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying. However, chi-square analysis revealed that these age group difference were not significant for KBAQ ($\chi^2(2) = 3.72, p > .05$). For the NAQ-R, chi-square was not employed due to the table having two cells with an expected count less than 5. The UK participants showed a less obvious pattern. With the KBAQ, the older UK group showed a higher prevalence of both Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying than the younger UK group. On the basis of the NAQ-R, however, the younger UK group had a higher prevalence of Frequent Bullying and the

older UK group had a higher prevalence of Less Frequent Bullying. Nevertheless, these age group differences were not significant for either the KBAQ ($\chi^2(2) = 3.24, p > .05$) or the NAQ-R ($\chi^2(2) = 3.52, p > .05$).

Table 5.9
The percentages of victims identified by self-report according to their nationality and age group

	South Korean		UK	
	Young	Old	Young	Old
Victim	6.7	18.3	20.6	26.6
Non-Victim	93.2	81.4	79.4	73.3

Table 5.9 shows the percentages of self-reported victims identified according to their nationality and age group. From the data shown in Table 5.9, it can be seen that for both South Korean and UK samples, the older group tended to contain a higher percentage of victims. Chi-square tests revealed a significant difference for South Korean participants in this respect ($\chi^2(1) = 5.79, p < .05$) but not for UK participants ($\chi^2(1) = .815, p > .05$). Taking account of the expected frequencies, the 'older' South Korean group was more likely to report being bullied than the 'younger' South Korean group.

3.2. Bully/perpetrator status. The second research question examined cultural differences in the status of the reported bully. In Chapter 3, it was found that South Korean participants tended to be more tolerant of negative acts meted out by superiors than negative acts perpetrated by peers or subordinates. Given such tolerance, South Korean participants might be less likely to consider their superiors as bullies than their peers or subordinates even if superiors do instigate the same negative acts. This would result in underestimation of superiors among the bullies. However, if directly asked to identify the perpetrator of the listed acts without having to judge and label them to be bullies, South Korean participants would simply report those who did the negative acts to them without necessarily labelling them to be 'bullies'. Thus, participants were asked to indicate actual perpetrators and bullies separately. Differentiating actual perpetrators and bullies was not done in the previous study and this study was the first to do so.

Perpetrators were identified by the question: “If you have experienced any of the negative behaviours listed above, please indicate who the major perpetrator is.” Bullies were identified by the response to the question “Who bullied you?” Thus, ‘perpetrators’ were those who actually did the listed negative acts to the participants and ‘bullies’ who were those individuals whom participants thought bullied them (similar to the distinction between subjective victims and operational targets). While perpetrators could be reported by anyone who experienced the negative acts, bullies would only be reported by those who thought they were bullied. Thus, bully status was reported by a far smaller number of participants than perpetrator status. It should also be noted that all of the UK and South Korean participants who reported bullies/perpetrators reported two or more people as the bullies/perpetrators. Most of them also reported people in a number of different levels as bullies/perpetrators.

Table 5.10
The reported status of perpetrators of negative acts and of bullies in the order of frequencies according to the nationality (in percentages)

South Korean				UK			
Perpetrators		Bullies		Perpetrators		Bullies	
Supervisors	(59.6)	Colleagues	(53.3)	Supervisors	(62.6)	Supervisors	(52.5)
Colleagues	(29.8)	Supervisors	(26.7)	Colleagues	(31.3)	Colleagues	(32.5)
Clients	(11.9)	Subordinates	(10.0)	Clients	(22.9)	Clients	(15.0)
Subordinates	(9.9)	Other Managers	(10.0)	Other managers	(15.3)	Subordinates	(10.0)
Other Managers	(9.9)	Client	(0.7)	Subordinates	(5.3)	Other managers	(5.0)

Table 5.10 shows the reported status of perpetrators and of bullies in the order of reported percentages according to the nationality. Here, percentages were used instead of frequency since the number of people who reported perpetrators was much higher than the number of people who reported bullies. While there was a similar pattern in the responses of UK participants in terms of the reported frequency of perpetrator and bully status; such a match was not found amongst South Korean participants. The UK participants most frequently responded that supervisors were both bullies and perpetrators, with colleagues second under both counts. However, South Korean participants most frequently reported colleagues as bullies but supervisors as the actual perpetrators of the negative acts.

3.3. Health Outputs of Bullying.

3.3.1. Group Difference. The next part of the results tested whether there was any difference in health outcomes between the operational victim groups identified by the KBAQ and NAQ-R. In part, this is to help establish the construct validity of the KBAQ. To this end, group differences in the score of job satisfaction and work-related burnout were tested. Table 5.11 shows the means and standard deviations of job satisfaction scores for the three victim groups categorised by the KBAQ.

Table 5.11
The means and standard deviations of job satisfaction scores of victims identified by KBAQ

	South Korean			UK		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Frequent Bullying	32	4.1	1.48	54	4.3	1.22
Less Frequent Bullying	152	4.5	1.12	88	5.0	1.23
Free From Bullying	10	5.8	.81	25	5.0	1.17

One-way ANOVA revealed significant group differences on job satisfaction scores for both the South Korean sample ($F(2, 191) = 7.23, p < .01$) and the UK sample ($F(2, 164) = 7.19, p < .01$). A Scheffe test was conducted as a post hoc analysis and, for South Korean participants, the comparison produced significant result between Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-1.61, p < .01$) and between Less Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-1.30, p < .01$). Thus, within the South Korean sample, both Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying groups had significantly lower job satisfaction than the Free from Bullying group, which suggests some validity for the KBAQ scale.

For the UK sample, the comparison produced significant results between Frequent Bullying and free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-.749, p < .05$) and between Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying (Mean difference = $-.769, p < .01$). Thus, within the UK sample, the Frequent Bullying group had significantly lower job satisfaction than the Less Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying groups. Since KBAQ distinguished the victims from non-victims with the UK sample as well, the result revealed the etic dimension of the KBAQ.

Table 5.12
The means and standard deviations of job satisfaction scores of victims identified by NAQ-R

	South Korean			UK		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Frequent Bullying	32	3.2	1.26	54	3.9	1.28
Less Frequent Bullying	152	4.4	1.13	88	5.1	1.12
Free From Bullying	10	5.2	1.28	25	5.3	1.06

Table 5.12 shows the means and standard deviations of job satisfaction scores of victim groups identified by NAQ-R. ANOVA revealed significant differences for both South Korean ($F(2, 191) = 10.7, p < .001$) and UK ($F(2, 164) = 16.7, p < .001$) samples. With the South Korean sample, a Scheffe test revealed significant results for all three pairwise comparisons: between Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-2.04, p < .001$); between Less Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-.809, p < .01$); and between Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying (Mean difference = $-1.24, p < .05$). Thus, within the South Korean sample, the Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying groups had significantly lower job satisfaction scores than the Free from Bullying group and the Frequent Bullying group had significantly lower job satisfaction score than the Less Frequent Bullying group. Within the UK sample, the comparison also produced a significant result between the Frequent Bullying and Free from Bullying (Mean difference = $-1.33, p < .001$) and between the Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying groups (Mean difference = $-1.14, p < .001$), with a similar pattern to that found in the South Korean sample.

Overall, the results revealed that, for both South Korean and UK participants, the KBAQ successfully distinguished victims from those who were free from bullying in terms of job satisfaction. The NAQ-R also showed a similar pattern of result as the KBAQ. Thus, the results seemed to provide evidence for the validity of the KBAQ.

Table 5.13
The means and standard deviations of work-related burnout scores of victims identified by the KBAQ

	South Korean			UK		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Frequent Bullying	32	3.0	.79	54	3.1	.70
Less Frequent Bullying	152	2.6	.74	88	2.8	.79
Free From Bullying	10	1.7	.47	25	2.5	.97

Table 5.13 shows the means and standard deviations of work-related burnout scores of victims identified by the KBAQ. Once again, the group differences were significant for both the South Korean ($F(2, 191) = 11.8, p < .001$) and UK samples ($F(2, 164) = 6.12, p < .01$). With the South Korean sample, a Scheffe test revealed significant results for all three pairwise comparisons. The Frequent Bullying and Less Frequent Bullying groups had a significantly higher burnout score than the Free from Bullying group and the Frequent Bullying group had significantly higher burnout score than the Less Frequent Bullying group. With the UK sample, the comparison between the Frequent Bullying and the Free from Bullying was significant (Mean difference = .640, $p < .01$). Thus, within the UK sample, the Frequent Bullying group had a significantly higher burnout score than the Free from Bullying group.

Table 5.14
The means and standard deviations of work-related burnout score of victims identified by NAQ-R

	South Korean			UK		
	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Frequent Bullying	32	3.5	.45	54	3.1	.82
Less Frequent Bullying	152	2.7	.76	88	2.8	.77
Free From Bullying	10	2.0	.50	25	2.6	.98

Table 5.14 shows the mean and standard deviation of work-related burnout scores of victim groups identified by NAQ-R. ANOVA revealed significant differences for the South Korean ($F(2, 191) = 16.9, p < .001$) sample but not for the UK sample ($F(2, 164) = 2.43, p > .05$). As with the KBAQ analysis, post hoc analyses revealed significant results for all three pairwise comparisons in the South Korean sample. The Frequent Bullying group had higher burnout than the Less Frequent Bullying and the Free from Bullying groups and the Less Frequent Bullying group had higher burnout

than the Free from Bullying group.

The overall results from burnout scores suggested that the KBAQ was even more successful than the NAQ-R in distinguishing the victims from the Free from Bullying group. While the NAQ-R failed to distinguish UK victims from the UK Free from Bullying group, the KBAQ succeeded for both South Korean and UK participants. The result again added to the construct validity of the KBAQ scale.

3.3.2. Regression Analysis. After group differences were examined, regression analysis was conducted with bullying measures as the predictors of work-related health. Among the demographic factors, gender (1 = male, 2 = female), age, job type (1 = full-time, 2 = part-time), and work hours were entered into the analyses. Workplace bullying was measured by the KBAQ, the NAQ-R and self-reported bullying (i.e. the frequency of self-reported bullying) (e.g., Hauge et al., 2007). Table 5.15 shows the inter-item correlation coefficients of all the factors in South Korean participants and Table 5.16 shows the coefficients in UK participants.

All bullying measures were found to be correlated significantly to each other. In particular, the KBAQ and NAQ-R had a strong correlation: South Korean ($r = .731$, $p < .001$) and UK ($r = .748$, $p < .001$), which evidenced the KBAQ's convergent validity. Moreover, as mentioned in the method section, the KBAQ had Cronbach's alpha values of .90 with UK participants and .88 with South Korean participants, which suggested a good reliability. Removing any of the items did not improve the value of Cronbach's alpha, which suggested good internal consistency.

The correlation coefficients (see Table 5.15 and Table 5.16) showed that both the KBAQ and NAQ-R were significantly correlated with job satisfaction and work-related burnout for the South Korean and UK samples. Higher KBAQ and NAQ-R scores were correlated with lower job satisfaction and higher burnout, which was in the expected direction. Noticeably, however, the KBAQ correlated more strongly with job satisfaction and burnout for the South Korean sample whereas the NAQ-R did so for UK sample. The KBAQ and NAQ-R scores were also significantly correlated to

self-reported bullying although the correlation was stronger with the NAQ-R score for both South Korean and UK samples. This again suggests convergent validity.

Table 5.15
 Correlation coefficients for South Korean participants (***p* < .001; **p* < .01; * *p* < .05)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. KBAQ	–																
2. NAQ-R	.731***	–															
3. Self-report	.281***	.437***	–														
4. Age	–.075	–.095	.104	–													
5. Gender	–.037	.055	–.057	–.230**	–												
6. Job Type	–.131	–.071	–.016	.126	.316***	–											
7. Work Hours	.202**	.157*	–.031	–.316***	–.222**	–.525***	–										
8. School bullying	.065	.102	.334***	.093	–.127	–.063	–.061	–									
9. TABP	.102	.056	–.052	.012	.050	.014	.107	–.170*	–								
10. Constructive leadership	–.294***	–.279***	–.189**	–.033	–.111	–.049	.046	–.171*	.068	–							
11. Tyrannical Leadership	.247**	.216**	.064	.032	–.161*	–.054	.067	.012	.133	–.388***	–						
12. Conflict with Supervisor	.343***	.277***	.203**	.120	–.180*	–.194**	.076	.089	.198**	–.313***	.199**	–					
13. Conflict with Colleague	.325***	.403***	.250***	.078	–.071	–.122	.018	.121	.139	–.248**	.263***	.587***	–				
14. Job insecurity	.122	.140	.113	.043	–.064	.113	.055	–.017	.127	–.211**	.213**	.243**	.238**	–			
15. Demand	.228**	.194**	.023	–.293***	.099	–.115	.281***	–.084	.421***	.000	.057	.133	–.032	.175*	–		
16. Control	–.165*	–.163*	–.222**	–.081	.060	–.066	.171*	–.261***	.241**	.402***	–.152*	–.116	–.270***	–.132	.239**	–	
17. Role Conflict	.313***	.253***	.142*	–.009	–.260***	–.164*	.095	.006	.203**	–.191**	.306***	.399***	.293***	.146*	.209**	–.133	–
18. Job satisfaction	–.445***	–.391***	–.319***	.011	–.014	.030	.059	–.261***	–.055	.647***	–.362***	–.399***	–.346***	–.218**	–.011	.432***	–.376**
19. Burnout	.504***	.452***	.266***	–.222**	.078	.014	.178**	.365***	.151**	–.400***	.193**	.316***	.256***	.254***	.357***	–.156*	.306**

Table 5.16
*Correlation coefficients for UK participants (***) p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. KBAQ	–																
2. NAQ-R	.748***	–															
3. Self-report	.132*	.479***	–														
4. Age	.029	.062	.088	–													
5. Gender	.013	–.024	.036	–.060	–												
6. Job Type	–.046	–.011	.123	–.066	.221**	–											
7. Work Hours	.223**	.110	–.061	.101	–.233**	–.850***	–										
8. School bullying	.162*	.127	.089	.054	.105	–.091	.087	–									
9. TABP	.096	.088	–.022	–.132	.120	–.081	.061	–.012	–								
10. Constructive leadership	–.182*	–.284***	–.335***	–.107	.031	–.207**	.121	.065	.009	–							
11. Tyrannical Leadership	.204**	.318***	.331***	.114	–.028	.097	–.028	–.055	–.034	–.522***	–						
12. Conflict with Supervisor	.320***	.459***	.429***	.091	.045	.071	–.035	.043	.078	–.342***	.375***	–					
13. Conflict with Colleague	.166*	.251**	.304***	.163*	–.040	.086	–.081	.052	.129	–.235**	.341***	.565***	–				
14. Job insecurity	.258**	.250**	.161*	.001	–.025	.124	–.107	–.042	.053	–.222**	.325***	.354***	.200**	–			
15. Demand	.362***	.285***	.013	.006	–.020	–.213**	.299***	.000	.149	.082	.035	.290***	.065	.136	–		
16. Control	–.215**	–.256**	–.205**	–.048	.009	–.158*	.113	.151	.093	.433***	–.258**	–.260**	–.074	–.316***	.036	–	
17. Role Conflict	.306***	.295***	.236**	–.011	–.101	.038	.127	–.067	–.113	–.272***	.274***	.329***	.117	.192*	.277***	–.313***	–
18. Job satisfaction	–.260***	–.378***	–.514***	–.019	–.038	–.140*	.016	–.121	.139	.513***	–.379***	–.461***	–.244**	–.354***	–.022	.574***	–.389**
19. Burnout	.153*	.250**	.255***	.098	.158*	.100	–.108	.053	.107	–.134	.150	.243**	.097	.121	.139	–.277***	.098

The regression analyses were conducted separately for South Korean and UK samples. The three bullying measures (KBAQ, NAQ-R, and self-reported bullying) were added into the analysis separately. The correlation coefficients in Table 5.15 and Table 5.16 show that the KBAQ score was the strongest correlate of South Korean participants' job satisfaction and burnout scores followed by the NAQ-R score and then self-reported bullying. Self-reported bullying tended to be the strongest correlate of UK participants' job satisfaction and burnout, followed by the NAQ-R score and then, the KBAQ score.

Table 5.17
*The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Job Satisfaction with the KBAQ as the potential predictor (***) p < .001; ** p < .01; * p < .05)*

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1		.010	.010		.058	.058*
Age	.034			-.016		
Gender	-.009			-.022		
Type of Job	.089			-.450**		
Work hours	.115			-.370*		
Step 2		.225	.215***		.103	.045**
Age	.029			-.016		
Gender	-.003			-.010		
Type of Job	.071			-.336*		
Work hours	.201*			-.219		
KBAQ	-.474***			-.227**		

Table 5.17 shows the regression coefficients for models predicting job satisfaction with the KBAQ score as the potential predictor after demographic factors were accounted for. The demographic factors explained only 1.0% of the variance in job satisfaction for South Korean participants and 5.8% for UK participants. It was only in the UK sample that type of job ($\beta = -.450$, $p < .01$) and work hours ($\beta = -.370$, $p < .05$) contributed significantly while none of the factors made a significant contribution for South Korean participants. The result revealed that part-time work and longer work hours were related to lower job satisfaction. When the KBAQ score was added, 21.5% of additional variance was explained for the South Korean sample and 4.5% for UK participants. Work hours ($\beta = .201$, $p < .05$), the KBAQ score ($\beta = -.474$, $p < .001$)

made significant contributions to the job satisfaction score of South Korean participants, with longer work hours and lower KBAQ score being related to lower job satisfaction. For UK participants, the KBAQ score ($\beta = -.227, p < .01$) and type of job ($\beta = -.336, p < .05$) made significant contributions. For both the South Korean and UK samples, the KBAQ score was negatively related to job satisfaction.

Table 5.18
*The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Job Satisfaction with the NAQ-R as the potential predictor (** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)*

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.010	.010		.058	.058*
Age	.034			-.016		
Gender	-.009			-.022		
Type of Job	.089			-.450**		
Work hours	.115			-.370*		
Step 2		.175	.165***		.179	.121***
Age	.026			.001		
Gender	.028			-.025		
Type of Job	.085			-.345*		
Work hours	.183*			-.244		
NAQ-R	-.413***			-.355***		

Tables 5.18 shows the regression coefficients for regression models predicting job satisfaction with the NAQ-R score as the potential predictor. As already mentioned, it was only in the UK sample that part-time work and longer work hours were related to lower job satisfaction score. When the NAQ-R score was added after the demographic factors, 16.5% of additional variance was explained for South Korean and 12.1% for UK participants. For the job satisfaction score of South Korean participants, the NAQ-R score ($\beta = -.413, p < .001$), and work hours ($\beta = -.183, p < .05$) were significant predictors. For UK participants, the NAQ-R score ($\beta = -.355, p < .001$) and type of job ($\beta = -.345, p < .05$) significantly predicted job satisfaction. For both South Korean and UK participants, higher NAQ-R score was related to lower job satisfaction.

Table 5.19
*The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Job Satisfaction with self-reported bullying as the potential predictor (** p < .001; * p < .01; *p < .05)*

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1		.010	.010		.058	.058*
Age	.034			-.016		
Gender	-.009			-.022		
Type of Job	.089			-.450**		
Work hours	.115			-.370*		
Step 2		.113	.102***		.295	.237***
Age	.066			.030		
Gender	-.017			-.014		
Type of Job	.080			-.326*		
Work hours	.109			-.297*		
Self-reported bullying	-.322***			-.494***		

Tables 5.19 shows the regression coefficients for regression models predicting job satisfaction with self-reported bullying as the potential predictor. As already mentioned, it was only in the UK sample that part-time work and longer work hours were related to lower job satisfaction score. When self-reported bullying was added after the demographic factors, 10.2% of additional variance was explained for South Korean and 23.7% for UK participants. For the job satisfaction score of South Korean participants, self-reported bullying ($\beta = -.322$, $p < .001$) was significant predictors. For UK participants, type of job ($\beta = -.326$, $p < .05$), work hours ($\beta = -.297$, $p < .05$) and self-reported bullying ($\beta = -.494$, $p < .001$) significantly predicted job satisfaction. For both South Korean and UK participants, higher self-reported bullying was related to lower job satisfaction.

When comparing the explained variance shown on Tables 5.17 and 5.18 after the bullying measures were added, adding the KBAQ score explained greater variance of South Korean participants' job satisfaction than NAQ-R whereas the opposite pattern was observed from UK participants. In other words, the KBAQ score relates more strongly to South Korean employees' job satisfaction than the NAQ-R and vice versa to UK participants' job satisfaction. The finding again evidences the validity of the KBAQ and points to its emic strength. Additionally, figures shown on

Table 5.19 shows that, for UK participants, self-reported bullying score explained more variance of job satisfaction scores than the two operational measures (KBAQ and NAQ-R) whilst operational measures explained greater variance of South Korean participants' job satisfaction scores.

Table 5.20
*The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Burnout with KBAQ as the potential predictor (** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)*

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.078	.078**		.043	.043
Age	-.164*			.114		
Gender	.045			.144		
Type of Job	.128			.007		
Work hours	.203*			-.080		
Step 2		.308	.230***		.075	.032*
Age	-.159**			.114		
Gender	.039			.133		
Type of Job	.146*			-.088		
Work hours	.114			-.206		
KBAQ	.490***			.190*		

Table 5.20 shows the regression coefficients for regression models predicting burnout with the KBAQ score as the potential predictor. The demographic factors explained 7.8% of the variance in the South Korean participants' burnout scores and 4.3% in the UK participants' burnout scores. Age ($\beta = -.164$, $p < .05$) and work hours ($\beta = .203$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted burnout in the South Korean sample while none of the demographic factors had a significant independent effect amongst the UK participants. For South Korean participants, younger age and full-time work were related to higher burnout scores. When the KBAQ score was added, 23.0% of additional variance was explained for the South Korean sample and 3.2% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, the KBAQ ($\beta = .490$, $p < .001$), age ($\beta = .139$, $p < .01$), and type of job ($\beta = .146$, $p < .05$) added significant variance. For UK participants, demographic factors did not explain significant variance but the KBAQ ($\beta = .190$, $p < .05$) did. Higher scores on the KBAQ score was related to higher burnout score for both nationality groups.

Table 5.21
*The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Burnout with the NAQ-R as the potential predictor (** p < .001; * p < .01; *p < .05)*

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R ²	ΔR^2	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step 1		.078	.078**		.043	.043
Age	-.164*			.114		
Gender	.045			.144		
Type of Job	.128			.007		
Work hours	.203*			-.080		
Step 2		.253	.175***		.118	.068**
Age	-.155*			.101		
Gender	.007			.145		
Type of Job	.132			-.072		
Work hours	.133			-.174		
NAQ-R	.426***			.266**		

Table 5.21 shows the regression coefficients for regression models predicting burnout with the NAQ-R score as the potential predictor. As previously, among the demographic variables, younger age and longer work hours were related to higher burnout score only for the South Korean sample. When the NAQ-R score was added, 17.5% of additional variance was explained for South Korean participants and 6.8% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, age ($\beta = -.155$, $p < .05$) and the NAQ-R score ($\beta = .426$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of work-related burnout. For UK participants, only the NAQ-R score ($\beta = .266$, $p < .01$) was a significant predictor of burnout. Thus, for both South Korean and UK participants, a higher NAQ-R score was related to higher burnout.

Table 5.22

The results of multiple regression analyses of demographic factors and bullying measures on Burnout with self-reported bullying as the potential predictor (** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.078	.078**		.043	.043
Age	-.164*			.114		
Gender	.045			.144		
Type of Job	.128			.007		
Work hours	.203*			-.080		
Step 2		.165	.087***		.100	.056**
Age	-.197**			.092		
Gender	.050			.139		
Type of Job	.135			-.053		
Work hours	.205*			-.115		
Self-reported Bullying	.297***			.241**		

Table 5.22 shows the regression coefficients for regression models predicting burnout with self-reported bullying as the potential predictor. As previously, among the demographic variables, younger age and longer work hours were related to higher burnout score only for the South Korean sample. When the NAQ-R score and self-reported bullying were added, 8.7% of additional variance was explained for South Korean participants and 5.6% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, age ($\beta = -.197$, $p < .05$), work hours ($\beta = .205$, $p < .05$), and self-reported bullying ($\beta = .297$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of work-related burnout. For UK participants, only the self-reported bullying ($\beta = .241$, $p < .01$) was a significant predictor of burnout. For both South Korean and UK participants, a higher self-reported bullying was related to higher burnout.

Comparing the explained variance shown on Table 5.19 and Table 5.20 after the bullying measures were added, it was clear that adding the KBAQ score explained a greater proportion of the variance of South Korean participants' burnout scores whereas adding the NAQ-R score explained a greater amount of the variance in UK participants' burnout scores. The finding again added evidence of the emic strength of the KBAQ. It was also notable that, for UK participants, all three bullying measures explained a relatively similar proportion of variance of burnout although NAQ-R

explained slightly more than other two bullying measures (see Tables 5.19, 5.20 and 5.21). In other words, contrary to the expectation (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003), self-report was not always the strongest predictor of health impact even for UK sample.

3.4. Work-related and individual predictors. The last research question asked to what extent work-related factors and individual factors predict workplace bullying. Based on previous literature discussed in the introduction, role conflict, interpersonal conflict, job demand, job control, job insecurity, and types of leadership were selected as the potential predictors of workplace bullying. In order to take individual differences into account, Type A Behaviour pattern (TABP) was also included as a predictor. Exposure to school bullying was coded with 0 = “no exposure to school bullying” and 1 = “having been bullied at school”. Demographic factors (i.e. gender, age, job type, and work hours) were again entered into the analyses. For gender, 1 indicated male and 2 female. For job type, 1 indicated full-time and 2 part-time. Looking at the correlation coefficients of Table 5.16 and Table 5.17, it seemed that among the work-related factors, interpersonal conflict (with supervisor and with colleagues), leadership types (constructive and tyrannical), and role conflict were usually the strongest correlates to South Korean’s scores of bullying. For the bullying scores of the UK sample, conflict with supervisors, tyrannical leadership, and role conflict tended to be most strongly correlated. Since the factors that were the strongest correlates to the NAQ-R score were also the strongest correlates with the KBAQ score, the figures provided additional support for the construct validity of the KBAQ score.

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed in order to investigate the relative strength of different work-related and individual factors as predictors of the three measures of bullying. Although the study aimed to look at the impact of work-related and individual factors on workplace bullying, the UK and South Korean groups were not controlled in terms of the demographic factors (e.g., gender, age, job type, and work hours). Thus, these demographic factors were entered into the regression at the first step in order to account for any demographic differences.

Then, at the second step, individual and organisational factors were entered into the regression analysis (see Table 5.23, Table 5.24, and Table 5.25).

Table 5.23
Results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses of work-related and individual factors on the KBAQ (** $p < .001$; * $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.042	.042		.124	.124***
Age	-.009			-.002		
Gender	.015			.055		
Type of Job	-.038			.503***		
Work hours	.183*			.663***		
Step 2		.272	.230***		.343	.219***
Age	.005			-.033		
Gender	.049			.035		
Type of Job	.035			.366**		
Work hours	.182*			.491***		
School bullying	.012			.191**		
TABP	-.039			.065		
Constructive leadership	-.129			-.035		
Tyrannical Leadership	.079			.053		
Conflict with Supervisor	.127			.075		
Conflict with Colleague	.160			.033		
Job insecurity	-.060			.123		
Demand	.185*			.232**		
Control	-.095			-.157		
Role Conflict	.134			.050		

When the dependent variable was the KBAQ score, demographic factors (e.g., age, gender, type of job, and work hours) explained only 4.2% of variance for South Korean participants and 12.4% for UK participants. Work hours contributed significantly to the scores of both South Korean participants ($\beta = .183$, $p < .001$) and UK participants ($\beta = .663$, $p < .001$). Type of job contributed significantly to the score of UK participants only ($\beta = .503$, $p < .001$). When TABP, school bullying experience, and work-related factors (e.g., constructive leadership, tyrannical leadership, conflict with supervisors, conflict with colleagues, job insecurity, demand, and control) were added, an additional 23.0% of variance was explained for South Korean participants

and 21.9% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, only work hours ($\beta = .182, p < .05$) and demand ($\beta = .185, p < .05$) were significant predictors, with longer work hours and higher demand predicting higher KBAQ score. However, for UK participants, type of job ($\beta = .366, p < .01$), work hours ($\beta = .491, p < .001$), school bullying ($\beta = .191, p < .01$), and demand ($\beta = .232, p < .01$) made significant contributions. Part-time work, longer work hours, experience of school bullying, and high demand score predicted higher KBAQ score.

Table 5.24
Results of multiple regression analyses of work-related and individual factors on the NAQ-R (** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.035	.035		.039	.039
Age	-.013			.048		
Gender	.100			-.007		
Type of Job	-.013			.296*		
Work hours	.171			.355*		
Step 2		.281	.246***		.330	.291***
Age	-.002			-.005		
Gender	.122			-.032		
Type of Job	.064			.135		
Work hours	.173*			.186		
School bullying	.058			.160*		
TABP	-.084			.070		
Constructive leadership	-.116			-.064		
Tyrannical Leadership	.055			.138		
Conflict with Supervisor	-.008			.270**		
Conflict with Colleague	.344***			-.014		
Job insecurity	-.025			.028		
Demand	.181*			.161*		
Control	-.042			-.142		
Role Conflict	.122			.032		

When the dependent variable was the NAQ-R score, demographic factors explained only 3.5% of variance for South Korean participants and 3.9% for UK participants. Type of job ($\beta = .296, p < .05$) and work hours ($\beta = .355, p < .05$) significantly contributed to the score of UK participants only. Part-time work and longer

work hours were related to higher NAQ-R scores. None of the demographic factors made a significant contribution to the NAQ-R score of South Korean participants. When TABP, school bullying experience and work-related factors were added, an additional 24.6% of the variance was explained for South Korean participants and 29.1% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, work hours ($\beta = .173$, $p < .05$), conflict with colleagues ($\beta = .344$, $p < .001$) and demand ($\beta = .181$, $p < .05$) made significant contributions, with longer work hours, higher conflict with colleagues and higher demand being related to higher NAQ-R score. For UK participants, school bullying ($\beta = .160$, $p < .05$), conflict with supervisors ($\beta = .270$, $p < .001$), and demand ($\beta = .161$, $p < .05$) made significant contributions. Here, experience of school bullying, higher conflict with supervisors, and higher demand were related to higher NAQ-R score.

Table 5.25
Results of multiple regression analyses of work-related and individual factors on self-reported bullying
 (***) $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$)

	South Korean			UK		
	β	R^2	ΔR^2	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1		.013	.013		.031	.031
Age	.095			.018		
Gender	-.028			.024		
Type of Job	-.031			.101		
Work hours	-.023			.071		
Step 2		.189	.177***		.261	.230***
Age	.092			.018		
Gender	.019			.024		
Type of Job	.030			.101		
Work hours	.019			.071		
School bullying	.277***			.093		
TABP	-.071			-.016		
Constructive leadership	-.046			-.120		
Tyrannical Leadership	-.042			.104		
Conflict with Supervisor	.030			.309**		
Conflict with Colleague	.158			.056		
Job insecurity	.034			-.032		
Demand	.100			-.088		
Control	-.079			-.027		
Role Conflict	.072			.075		

When the dependent variable was the score of self-reported bullying, demographic factors explained only 1.3% of the variance for South Korean participants and 3.1% for UK participants. For both South Korean and UK samples, none of the demographic factors contributed significantly to self-reported bullying. When TABP and the experience of school bullying, and work-related factors were added, an additional 17.7% of the variance was explained for South Korean participants and 23.0% for UK participants. For South Korean participants, only school bullying ($\beta = .277, p < .001$) made a significant contribution. For UK participants, only conflict with supervisors ($\beta = .309, p < .01$) made a significant contribution.

4. Discussion

This study was the first to use an indigenous, South Korean bullying scale to examine workplace bullying. This study built on the results presented in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 that revealed cultural differences - as well as similarities - in the concept of workplace 'bullying' and in the types of bullying acts the concept encompassed. Using the Korean Bullying Act Questionnaire (KBAQ) alongside the European, Negative Acts Questionnaire Revised (NAQ-R) together with self-reported victimisation, this study took a more indigenous approach to examining South Korean workplace bullying than any previously known study had done (e.g., Seo, 2008).

Using the three different bullying measures (KBAQ, NAQ-R, and self-report), the prevalence rates of bullying, the status of bullies/perpetrators, the consequences of bullying and its antecedents or predictors were all examined. The analyses compared workplace bullying in South Korea to workplace bullying in the UK. In addition, the results also provided evidence for the validity of KBAQ. In the following part of the discussion, the results will be discussed first with evidence for the validity of the KBAQ then highlighted.

4.1. Prevalence of workplace bullying. The prevalence rate of operational victims was examined using the KBAQ and the NAQ-R while also applying the concept of 'frequent bullying' and 'less frequent bullying' (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Using the KBAQ, 16.5% of the South Korean sample and 32.3% of the

UK sample were identified as victims of frequent bullying. Using the NAQ-R, 4.1% of South Korean participants and 26.3% of UK participants were identified as victims of frequent bullying. Based on the conventional operational bullying criteria (e.g., Leymann, 1990; Salin, 2001), the UK sample had a higher prevalence of operational victims than the South Korean sample whether the bullying measure used was the KBAQ or the NAQ-R.

It was noticeable, however, that South Korean participants consistently reported a higher prevalence of less frequent bullying behaviour than UK participants whether the KBAQ or the NAQ-R was used. Moreover, the percentage of people in the 'free from bullying' group was lower for South Korean participants than for UK participants when the KBAQ was used and was similar for the two nationality groups when the NAQ-R was used. Thus, despite having a lower proportion of conventional operational victims, exposure to negative acts themselves appears as widely spread (if not more in the case of the KBAQ) within the South Korean sample as it is within the UK sample. In other words, although, based upon the usual academic definition of bullying, victimisation appears to be more prevalent among the UK sample, less repetitive and less persistent forms of aggression and negative acts are more prevalent among the South Korean sample. This finding may be explained by that South Koreans justify expression of aggression for emotional or instrumental reasons (see Chapter 2). Resultantly, the general level of aggression would be high in the atmosphere. However, at the same time, due to the collectivist nature of South Korean culture, South Koreans form a close bonding amongst each other (Chapter 2) and this close bonding might prevent the aggression escalating into more serious, persistent form of victimisation.

The pattern of results was more straightforward with regard to subjective victims. Using Salin's (2001) subjective definition (i.e. at least occasionally bullied during the last 6 months), 12.9% of South Korean participants and 22.8% of UK sample were identified as subjective victims. The difference was statistically significant, with the UK sample containing more self-reported victims than the South Korean sample. One possible explanation might have been that the results were due to the

gender imbalance in the two samples, i.e. more men in the South Korean sample and more women in the UK sample. Women have been reported to be more sensitive to their psychosocial surroundings at the workplace (Andre-Petersson, Engstrom, Hedblad, Janzon, & Rosvall, 2007; Denton, Prus, & Walters, 2004) and more accurate in identifying relational aggression (Ostrov, Crick, & Keating, 2005). Since the UK sample was over-represented by women, their greater sensitivity to aggression might have led to the greater perception of aggression and a greater reported prevalence of bullying.

However, this explanation does not seem applicable here, since none of the gender differences in prevalence rates reported here were found to be statistically significant. In short there was an equal risk of being bullied in men and women, a finding corroborated elsewhere (e.g., Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). An alternative explanation has to do with the value of face-saving in the Far East cultures (Kim & Nam, 1998). In South Korea, this social and cultural value is even more emphasised due to the military experience of men, the vast majority of whom have served in military camps. In simple terms, South Korean men are expected to appear strong and stable amongst other men. Admitting that they are being bullied or have been bullied might be considered an admission of weakness. Face-saving is also valued amongst South Korean women. As discussed in Chapter 2, the collectivist tendency among South Korean participants leads them to form close, personal relationships even from professional relationships. Due to these close relationships, privacy is less respected and even personal matters may be discussed among people who are not directly acquainted with the individual. The issue of confidentiality is compromised by the importance of personal relationships. Consequently, South Korean participants might have been unwilling to report themselves as victims of bullying for fear that rumours might spread amongst other people in the organisation.

Moreover, as discussed in Chapter 2, the influence of collectivism and Confucianism still remains in South Korean society (e.g., Kim & Choi, 1994; Lee, Park,

Kim, & Tak, 2008; Lee & Sung, 1997; Yoon, 2006). Group harmony is valued more than the rights of the individual and minorities can be 'sacrificed' for the benefit of the majority. Since bullying may often take the form of group acts in South Korea (see Chapter 3), even when bullying is reported, there is the danger that the victim(s) (the minority) are considered to be the problem and punished in some way, whereas the aggressors (the majority) are pardoned. Indeed, such a case has been reported by the South Korean media in the case of school bullying (MBC After News Report, 2007). Even in the case of workplace bullying, as Sung (2008) reported, many South Korean employees refuse or avoid taking action against harassment or other types of aggression at work either because they feel that their action would not make any material change to the situation or that it would jeopardise their career advancement.

It was also notable that the KBAQ identified more South Korean and UK participants as frequent victims of bullying than was the case with the NAQ-R. The greater identification of South Korean victims was to be expected given that the KBAQ was developed on the basis of a qualitative study with a South Korean sample. The greater identification of UK participants as victims of frequent bullying was, however, unexpected and appears to suggest that the negative acts listed in the KBAQ are more prevalent and more common than the acts listed in the NAQ-R in both the UK and South Korea. In other words, the KBAQ might carry the possibility of overestimating the prevalence of bullying.

However, the prevalence rates found among the South Korean sample were not particularly high. According to Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), the typical prevalence of operational victims (i.e., weekly exposure to one act for at least 6 months) found in the previous literature ranged from 8% to 25%. Although the duration criterion was not applied in this study, the prevalence rate found among South Korean participants was 16.5% with the KBAQ and 4.1% with the NAQ-R. Thus, when the KBAQ was used, the prevalence rate was within the 'usual' range for South Korean participants, but with the use of the NAQ-R it was below this typically reported range. In other words, while the KBAQ carried the risk of overestimating the UK sample's prevalence of bullying, the NAQ-R might equally underestimate the prevalence of

bullying in the South Korean sample. It might be argued here that the KBAQ is therefore a more appropriate tool in estimating the prevalence of bullying, highlighting the emic dimension of the KBAQ.

Another notable result was that, apart from South Korean operational victims, the remaining victim rates tended to be higher than were found previously. The rates of the UK operational victims exceeded the range of operational victims put forward by Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001). This high prevalence might be explained by the fact that, unlike Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), this study did not use the duration criterion to identify operational bullying. Rather, this study followed Salin's (2001) criteria and identified operational (frequent bullying) victims as those who had weekly exposure to at least one negative act without applying the criterion of a minimum duration of 6 months. The duration criteria could not be applied due to the format of the questionnaire. The operational measure was already set within a 6 months time frame and the duration of bullying was asked only after the frequency of self-reported victimisation. It was likely then that the prevalence of operational victims increased without the duration criterion.

The South Korean and UK samples' rates of self-reported victimisation (12.9% and 22.7% respectively) were also higher than the range of 2-4% suggested by Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001). The rates were even higher than the 8.8% found by Salin (2001). For the above range of prevalence rates of subjective and operational victims, one possible explanation could be that civil servants were among the participants. As has been found in the previous literature, workplace bullying is particularly prevalent within the UK public sector (including social and health sectors) (e.g., Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Hoel, Faragher, & Cooper, 2004; Lewis, 1999; Quine, 1999; Unison, 1997). Although industrial differences were not investigated in this study due to the small number of participants in each industry, the number of participants from the public sector could have disproportionately contributed to the high prevalence of victims.

Yet another possible explanation could be that participants in this study were restricted to those who had tenure of 6 months or longer. Such a restriction on

participants has been rarely implemented in previous studies and even when it has been, it was for a shorter period, i.e. 3 months or longer (e.g., Niedhammer, David, Degioanni, et al., 2006). The restriction was applied in the current study for two reasons. Firstly, in line with much current thinking on the nature of bullying, it was defined and operationalised as negative acts that were repeated frequently for 6 months or over (Einarsen et al., 2003). Secondly, due to the format of the questionnaire used, a 6 month criterion could not be applied to identifying operational victims. Participants' tenure was used instead to make up for the duration criteria. Due to the 6 months or longer tenure, participants might have had a greater chance to be exposed to negative acts and the negative acts could develop into bullying and become more serious. Consequently, a greater percentage of participants were identified as operational and subjective victims.

When gender differences were examined, inconsistent and non-significant results were found. For South Korean participants, the KBAQ showed males to have a higher prevalence of frequent bullying while females reported a higher prevalence of less frequent bullying. The NAQ-R, on the other hand, showed South Korean females to have a higher prevalence of both frequent bullying and less frequent bullying. With self-reported bullying, South Korean males again figured more highly as victims. For the UK sample, females had a higher prevalence of frequent bullying while males tended to have a higher prevalence of less frequent bullying regardless of the measure. With self-report, no gender difference was observed. Despite the different patterns of results found from different nationality group and different measures, the results did not reveal any statistically significant gender differences. It seemed to provide support for the previously reported finding that the risk of being bullied is more or less equal between the two genders (e.g., Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Leymann, 1996; Quine, 1999; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). As Zapf et al. (2003) noted, gender and gender-related conflict was not the central feature of research on bullying and the findings presented in this thesis added further strength to this observation.

When age group differences were examined within each nationality group, a

significant result was found only from South Korean participants in their prevalence of their being subjective victims. Specifically, the 'older' South Korean group had a higher prevalence of victimisation than the 'young' South Korean group. This age group difference in self-reported victimisation was found despite the lack of any significant differences in operational bullying. The results might indicate that the 'older' South Korean group considered themselves to be bullied without actually experiencing the listed negative acts more frequently than 'younger' South Korean participants. This explanation is in line with the idea discussed in Chapter 2 that 'older' South Korean participants might be over-sensitive to mistreatment. During a large part of the last century, South Korea suffered hardship due to Japanese colonisation, the South Korean War, and political dictatorship. Having suffered and been victimised so much in these times, the older South Korean participants might have become 'paranoid' about being mistreated. In contrast, younger South Korean participants are free from such hardship and are less likely to show such a tendency. In addition, South Korea is currently experiencing considerable cultural change as it moves away from Confucian values. The unconditional respect and obedience for elders and superiors can no longer be expected from the younger generations. However, the older generation still holds the traditional, Confucian attitudes and may have considered the lack of respect and obedience from the younger generation as bullying.

These two explanations are in line with Seo's (2008) earlier finding that bullying by subordinates was reported as commonly as bullying by supervisors among South Korean workers. Seo's (2008) finding came from the participants' self-reporting of the status of the bully. Since older workers tend to be working in more senior positions within an organisation, the unexpectedly high prevalence of bullying by subordinates could have come from the older workers being 'paranoid' about being mistreated and being over-sensitive to the lack of unconditional respect shown to them by members of the younger generation. This over-sensitivity might have led them to consider even relatively 'neutral' behaviours to be mistreatment and so report that they had been bullied.

The data on prevalence rates also highlights the applicability of the KBAQ in

South Korea. Firstly, the KBAQ provided a more realistic estimate of operational victims among South Korean participants compared to the NAQ-R. To elaborate, the rate of South Korean operational victims identified by the NAQ-R was even lower than the prevalence of South Korean self-reported victims (12.9%). According to Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), operational methods tend to produce a higher percentage of victims than subjective methods. Thus, the NAQ-R appears to underestimate the operational 'frequent bullying' victims among South Korean participants. The results seemed to suggest that the KBAQ was more applicable to South Korean participants whereas the NAQ-R was arguably more applicable to UK participants. For South Korean participants, the KBAQ produced a percentage of operational, 'frequent bullying' victims that were within the range put forward by Mikkelsen and Einarsen's (2001) in their review of bullying trends and experiences. For UK participants, the NAQ-R provided a percentage that was closer to the commonly reported range than was found with the KBAQ. Such differences might be attributed to the culture in which the NAQ-R and the KBAQ were developed. The NAQ-R was developed in Scandinavia and was subsequently validated in the UK (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). In contrast, the KBAQ was developed from the data obtained directly from South Korean participants (see Chapter 4). Thus, both instruments produced more realistic prevalence rates for the sample drawn from the cultures in which they were developed. This evidences the emic dimension of the KBAQ and NAQ-R. Moreover, for each nationality group, a high percentage of overlap was found between the KBAQ and NAQ-R victims. In other words, a high percentage of the NAQ-R victims were also KBAQ victims. Chi-square analyses revealed strong, significant association between being the KBAQ victim and being a NAQ-R victim, suggesting some construct validity for the KBAQ.

Further evidence was obtained when the likelihood of being an operational victim was examined in relation to the tendency to self-report bullying. With the UK sample, chi-square test revealed a significant match. Operational victims were significantly more likely to be subjective victims than non-operational victims were. The result was consistent whether the KBAQ or the NAQ-R was used to categorise

the operational groups, yet the statistical significance was greater when the NAQ-R was used. With the South Korean sample, only those operational groups identified by the KBAQ showed such a pattern. The NAQ-R victims were almost equally likely to be subjective victims as the non-NAQ-R Victims. In other words, within the UK sample, being a NAQ-R victim was more strongly associated with being a subjective victim than was the latter with being a KBAQ victim. In contrast, within the South Korean sample, the opposite result was found. This adds further weight to the notion that there are culture-specific as well as non-culture specific general bullying behaviours and to get a complete feel for workplace bullying within a culture, one should consider the emic as well as the etic dimension of workplace bullying.

4.2. Bully/perpetrator status. The next part of the results compared the most commonly reported bully and perpetrator status between the South Korean and UK samples. Results revealed that, for the UK sample, there was a match between the most commonly reported bully status and the most commonly reported perpetrator status. However, for the South Korean sample, such a match was not found. From the UK sample, supervisors were the most commonly reported bullies as well as the perpetrators of the negative acts, followed by colleagues. However, within the South Korean sample, while supervisors were reported as the most common perpetrators of negative acts followed by colleagues, colleagues were most commonly reported as bullies followed by supervisors.

According to Einarsen (2000), the status of those commonly held to be responsible for bullying can be explained by the cultural dimensions suggested by Hofstede (1993). In this respect, the UK has a relatively high power difference and masculine culture (Einarsen, 2000) in line with which supervisors are consistently reported to be the most common bullies at the workplace (e.g., Hoel & Beale, 2006; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). In contrast, Scandinavia has a low power difference and more feminine culture within which colleagues are the most commonly reported bullies (Einarsen, 2002; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996b; Hoel & Beale, 2006; Vartia, 1993; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002).

The result of bully status reported in this thesis confirm Seo's (2008) earlier

finding that colleagues were the most commonly reported bullies in the South Korean workplace, followed by supervisors. However, it was expected that supervisors would be the most frequently reported bullies given the high power difference of South Korean culture (Hofstede, 1993) and reflecting the persisting influence of Confucianism within South Korean society (e.g., Bailey & Lee, 1992; Doe, 2000; Kim & Choi, 1994; Lee, Park, Kim, & Tak, 2008; Lee & Sung, 1997). However, looking into the most commonly reported status of bullies (i.e. colleagues), the result seemed to be counter-intuitive for a high power difference culture.

One could refer back at this point to the distinctiveness found in the South Korean lay definition of bullying (see Chapter 3) to help explain this discrepancy. Specifically, South Korean participants were commonly referred to bullying as being a group behaviour and often distinguished bullying from other forms of aggression in that sense. In contrast, the UK sample did not specify any distinctive quality of bullying that marked it off from other forms of aggression. Considering the cultural differences in the conceptualisation of workplace bullying (Chapter 3), what might connote bullying to the UK sample might not have been seen as bullying – at least to the same extent – to South Korean participants. If this hypothesis is correct then the format of the South Korean bullying questionnaire should be altered to take this criterion of ‘groupness’ into consideration. If the group act reported in Chapter 3 is, indeed, the defining feature of bullying in South Korea, then it is important to note a possible source of measurement error and unreliability in most contemporary assessment instruments, none of which specifically reference group acts. Although most of the participants who reported bullies or perpetrators in this study reported more than two bullies/perpetrators, they could have encountered a different, individual aggressor on different occasions, in which case the number of bullies/perpetrators would not indicate group acts. Thus, alteration of the questionnaire would be necessary if one was to explicitly set out to target the measurement of group acts. However, due to the lack of an agreed South Korean academic definition of bullying at this point in time, such alterations could not be made in this study. Moreover, the latter explanation does not seem overly plausible since it fails to explain why only supervisors were under-

represented among bullies despite being the most common perpetrators.

More valid explanations could be found in that the high power difference in South Korean culture worked in a different way from how it worked in the UK. High power difference in the UK might have allowed the supervisors to have more power to bully others which then leads them to become the most common bullies. On the other hand, the distance seemed to have protected supervisors from their negative acts being revealed in South Korea. This could be explained by the fact that South Korean males were liable for a military service, unless they are physically or psychologically unfit to serve. Within the military camp, authoritarian culture prevails. People do as they are ordered by the superior without questioning the order. Physical and psychological abuse is sometimes common within the military camp. Such abuse has often been overlooked in the past. Even when the consequence was death, the cases were often covered up by the authorities in the military camp (Yu, 1998; Jeong, 1998; Choi & Park, 1999). The soldiers, themselves, did not speak out against the cases of violence and bullying. Under such an atmosphere, South Korean participants might have become used to 'covering up' for superiors' mistreatment and might not consider it to be bullying while the same behaviour coming from peers or subordinates would have been considered bullying.

Moreover, for a number of decades, South Korea has been ruled under the regime of presidents with strong military backgrounds (see Chapter 2). From President Park to President Noh, South Korean presidents have been drawn from the military. Due to this strong military background, an authoritarian culture has spread across South Korean society together with the government's economic development plans. This historical background could also have contributed to the finding that supervisors were not reported to be the most common bullies although they were the most common perpetrators of negative acts. In other words, the prevailing authoritarian attitudes might have protected the supervisors from being reported as bullies even if they did bully others. Indeed, as found in Chapter 3, South Korean participants were more tolerant to negative acts coming from superiors than negative acts from colleagues or subordinates, which adds strength to the explanation, thus, revealing

another emic dimension of workplace bullying in South Korea.

The low percentage of subordinates being reported among bullies' and perpetrators reported by South Korean participants was also notable in this respect. This result seems to contradict Seo's (2008) earlier finding that subordinates were equally as likely as supervisors to be reported as bullies among South Korean participants. However, the size of the South Korean sample in this study was equal to the sample size of Seo (2008). With the number of participants just below two hundred, only a few tens of participants self-reported being bullied and only those participants were asked to report bully status. Consequently, even the responses of a few participants could have made a noticeable change in the percentages in which subordinates (or any other organisational status) were reported as bullies. Therefore, a larger scale survey would be necessary to draw a clearer conclusion on this matter.

4.3. Health Outcomes of Workplace Bullying. The next part of the results analysed the link between workplace bullying and health outcomes. The health outcomes were investigated in two ways: by examining the group differences (similar to Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007) and by examining the relationship between the scores of bullying measures and the scores of health measures (Notelaers, Einarsen, De Witte, & Vermunt, 2006).

Before considering the association of the KBAQ and NAQ-R scores with health outcomes, a comment on the statistical properties of the KBAQ is warranted, in particular regarding the evidence for its reliability and validity. The KBAQ score had a strong correlation with the NAQ-R score, which suggests convergent validity. Cronbach's alpha for the KBAQ was high with the removal of items adding nothing to improve its value. This demonstrates the good internal consistency of the KBAQ. Thus, despite the potential limitations of the KBAQ discussed in the previous chapter, the context-dependency of some of the KBAQ items does not seem to hinder the validity of the scale. An evidence of the validity of the KBAQ can be found in its relationship with health outcomes (these further demonstrating construct validity).

4.3.1. Group Differences. In order to examine whether the KBAQ could

distinguish victims from non-victims in terms of their health outcomes, group differences in health-related scores were explored. The results revealed that both the KBAQ and the NAQ-R distinguished the victim groups from non-victims in terms of their health scores, with the KBAQ being even more successful than the NAQ-R in doing so. Specifically, the KBAQ consistently distinguished the groups for both the UK and South Korean samples while the NAQ-R failed to do so for the UK participants' burnout score. Since a similar pattern of results emerged for both the KBAQ and the NAQ-R groups, the results provide additional support for the validity of the KBAQ.

In addition, the results also provide confirmatory support for the reported finding in the literature that a higher frequency of workplace aggression is linked with greater negative impact (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Steensma, 2008). Given that the same pattern of results was observed here in South Korean participants, the results seem to suggest cross-cultural consistency in the finding that a higher frequency of bullying is linked with greater negative impact. Moreover, since the less frequent bullying group within the South Korean sample consistently showed significantly lower job satisfaction and higher burnout than the free from bullying group, they should not be overlooked when investigating the impact of bullying. As suggested by Hoel and Cooper (2000), even bystanders can suffer the negative impact of bullying, including symptoms of general stress (Vartia, 2001), increased turnover intention (Rayner, 1999), and low job satisfaction (Hauge et al., 2007), although the impact might not be as great as it is for victims (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). These earlier studies suggested a ripple effect of any form of workplace aggression that extends even to those who are not direct victims of bullying and the findings of this study provide further support for that effect.

The results also suggested cross-cultural consistency in two additional findings: that workplace bullying is linked with diminished job satisfaction (Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Hauge et al., 2007; Hoel et al., 2001; Nielsen, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2008) and increased burnout (Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998; Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001); and that a higher frequency of bullying is linked with a greater negative impact (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Steensma,

2008). In other words, the results revealed the etic dimension of workplace bullying.

4.3.2. Regression Analysis. The results of the regression analyses also served to highlight the emic dimension of workplace bullying. Examination of correlation coefficients first revealed that the KBAQ was the strongest correlate of job satisfaction and burnout scores for the Korean sample, followed by the NAQ-R score and finally self-reported bullying. In contrast, for the UK sample, self-reported bullying tended to be the strongest correlate followed by the NAQ-R and then the KBAQ. The pattern of results observed in the Korean sample was expected since the KBAQ was developed directly from the responses of Korean participants. The result that the NAQ-R was more strongly correlated than the KBAQ to the health outputs of the UK sample was also expected for the same reasons and provided additional support for the construct validity of the KBAQ.

It was also notable that self-reported bullying and not the NAQ-R score was the strongest correlate of health outcomes for the UK sample while the KBAQ and NAQ-R scores correlated more strongly to Korean participants' health outputs than self-report. The result from UK sample was expected since the subjective feeling of being victimised would be more likely to impact on the health of the individuals (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). However, the result from Korean sample was counter-intuitive. One might explain these differences in terms of cultural differences in cognition. South Korea is still under the influence of a collectivist culture although the current atmosphere seems to be moving away from it (see Chapter 2). In contrast, the UK is an individualist country. As Hofstede (1980) suggested, individualism emphasises: 'I' consciousness whereas collectivism emphasises 'we' consciousness. An individualist's cognition is likely to be more centred on him-/herself, while a collectivist's cognition would be centred on others in the group. Therefore, for the UK participants, their own perception of being bullied (i.e. what they, themselves, thought) was more strongly related to health outputs whereas, for Korean participants, what others did to them (i.e. negative acts) was more strongly related.

In the regression analyses, entering the KBAQ score explained a greater variance of job satisfaction and burnout scores of the Korean sample than was the

case when the NAQ-R score was entered. In contrast, for the UK sample, adding the NAQ-R score explained more variance than adding the KBAQ score. The results confirmed the previous findings that bullying is associated with impaired negative health of victims, both physically and psychologically (e.g., Leymann, 1996; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b; Hoel et al., 2001; Quine, 2003; Randall, 1996; Vartia, 2001). Moreover, although the NAQ-R score also added significantly to the health outputs of Korean participants, KBAQ score added even more of the variance explained. The results suggested that KBAQ was a better predictor for Korean participants' health outputs and the NAQ-R for UK participants' health outputs. This suggests that the KBAQ has stronger construct than the NAQ-R for the South Korean sample.

It was also interesting to find that, for UK sample, self-report was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction amongst the three bullying measures whereas, for burnout, all three bullying measures explained a relatively similar amount of variance. Perhaps, self-report is more closely linked to the respondent's cognition than the operational bullying measures and thus, it is more strongly related to job satisfaction, which is an indicator of psychological health, than the NAQ-R. In contrast, burnout is more of a physical indicator of health and is less related to cognition and self-report. However, this is a speculative explanation and further research that examines more of psychological and physical health impact of bullying is required to provide a clear-cut answer. If self-report continues to be more strongly related to psychological health impact than operational bullying measures, it would confirm the above explanation.

4.4. Predictors of workplace bullying. The validity of KBAQ can also be evidenced in the last part of the analysis which examined the extent to which work-related and individual factors predicted workplace bullying. Prior to conducting hierarchical regression, correlation analyses revealed that, for both nationality groups and for all bullying measures, leadership types, interpersonal conflicts, and role conflict tended to be the strongest correlates of bullying. This confirms Hauge et al.'s (2007) findings. The fact that the KBAQ had similar links with variables as seen in the NAQ-R again demonstrates the construct validity of the scale. However, when hierarchical regression techniques were used in order to control for demographic

factors, the strongest correlates often failed to make significant contribution to the explained variance of bullying scores. Only interpersonal conflict added significantly to some of the bullying measures. Conflict with supervisors added significantly to the UK samples' NAQ-R and self-reported bullying scores and conflict with colleagues did so for South Korean participants' NAQ-R score. One possible explanation for the cultural difference could be that the result reflected the status of most commonly reported bullies. Studies in the UK consistently report supervisors to be the most common bullies (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). Therefore, conflict with supervisors would predict bullying better than conflict with colleagues within the UK sample whereas conflict with colleagues would predict bullying better within the South Korean sample.

The most consistent significant contributor to the bullying scores was demands, which significantly contributed to both the South Korean and UK samples' KBAQ and NAQ-R scores. Demand as a predictor of bullying provides support for the previous literature in which job demand was associated with bullying (e.g., Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004). According to Rayner and Hoel (1997), insufficient control of certain behaviours and high levels of conflict resulting from excessive workloads and unreasonable job demands are often precursors to bullying of subordinates. Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) also found that employees working in a high bullying department scored their job demands significantly higher than employees working in a low bullying department. Since this study also found work/job demand to be a significant predictor of workplace bullying, the finding provides support to the literature.

Work hours and school bullying were the second most consistent contributors. Work hours significantly contributed to South Korean participants' KBAQ and NAQ-R scores and the UK participants' KBAQ scores. Unlike the intensity aspect of job demand, length of work hours has not received particular attention in the workplace bullying literature. However, potential victims working longer hours could have opened up greater opportunities for the bullies to bully them. If there was already a conflict between a potential victim and a potential bully, then the potential bully might express

his/her aggression when the opportunity arises. Seeing the potential victim more often and being in the same place for a long time would give him/her more chance to do so. This might contribute to the situation escalating into a more serious case. Moreover, having to work for long hours might work as a stressor and increase the residual or baseline aggression level in workers. The high aggression in the workplace atmosphere might evolve into bullying (Einarsen, 1999) when one side ends up in an inferior position (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). Moreover, the stronger relationship work hours had with the KBAQ score could be explained also by the inclusion of 'being repeatedly forced to work extended hours' in the KBAQ, which would have inflated the relationship.

The experience of school bullying (i.e. having been bullied at school) also appeared to make a significant contribution to the variance of the UK samples' KBAQ and NAQ-R scores and of the South Korean sample's self-reported bullying score. These findings confirm the previous claims in the literature that school bullying is associated with workplace bullying (e.g., Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Hetland, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2008; Smith, Singer, Hoel & Cooper, 2003; White, 2004). However, at this point, one should highlight the different pattern of results that emerged in the UK and South Korean samples. For the UK sample, the experience of school bullying significantly contributed to the variance of operational bullying measures whereas, for the South Korean sample, it contributed to the variance of the self-reported bullying score. The results from the UK sample seemed to indicate that exposure to school bullying was related to greater risk of being targeted with negative acts, which adds strength to the previous finding that victims' personal vulnerability contributed to bullying (e.g., Smith et al., 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001). However, the results from South Korean participants also suggest an alternative explanation, i.e. that past experience of victimisation led South Korean participants to become more sensitive to being mistreated. As discussed in Chapter 2, through the historical hardship they have experienced, South Korean participants have become 'people of *haan*' (Kim, Kim, & Kelly, 2006) who experience pain, sorrow, injustice, grievances, and suppressed anger. As the concept of '*haan*' suggests, South Korean participants

do not easily 'forgive and forget' (see Chapter 2). Past experience of victimisation would not easily be removed from their memory such that South Korean participants might have developed a tendency towards 'paranoia' about being mistreated. Thus, the experience of being bullied at school would be more strongly related to the South Korean participants' self-reported bullying score than to their operational bullying scores.

For the UK sample, job type (e.g., full-time vs. part-time) also continued to make a significant contribution to the explained variance of KBAQ score. Part-time workers were prone to higher bullying scores than full-time workers. This finding provides support to previous studies which have reported that temporary and subcontracted jobs may be associated with an increased likelihood of bullying (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Knorz & Zapf, 1996; Pearce, 1998; Quinlan, 1999). The link between job type and bullying score was only found in the UK sample but not in the South Korean sample. The results could be explained by the greater use of temporary or part-time staff in UK than in South Korea. In South Korea, the use of temporary or part-time staff is limited to certain industries (e.g., service related occupations). These are the kind of industries where harassment from customers would be more prominent than bullying by peers/superiors/subordinates. Although this study included a number of participants from those industries, the vast majority of participants were people working in larger organisations wherein part-time workers are rarely employed. However, in the UK, temporary and part-time staff can be found across industries and across positions in organisations.

As Quinlan (1999) suggested, with the increasing employment of temporary or part-time staff, the working environment would become disorganised with increasing role conflict and role ambiguity. Such conflict and ambiguity might well increase staff stress levels and contribute to the likelihood of interpersonal conflict occurring among the staff. Moreover, the temporary and part-time staff would have lower job security than full-time permanent staff and the latter might take advantage of the unequal situation and feel more at ease to bully the former. As found in this study, role conflict was among the strongest correlates of bullying scores for both the South Korean and

UK samples and job insecurity was also significantly correlated to the bullying scores for the UK sample. This study did not look into how the employment of temporary or part-time staff would exactly contribute to increased role conflict or how bullies might take advantage of the less secure positions of temporary/part-time staff. However, it seems to be clear that part-time workers are at greater risk of being bullied and it would be worth investigating the process beginning from the employment of temporary/part-time staff through to any subsequent experiences of bullying in order to identify potential and necessary interventions.

Analysis of predictors of bullying showed cultural differences as well as similarities. Most of the significant predictors were shared by the UK and South Korean samples, although not necessarily for the same bullying measures. The most distinctive cultural difference in the predictors was that conflict with supervisor added significantly to UK participants' NAQ-R score whereas conflict with colleagues added significantly to Korean participants' NAQ-R score. The result was interpreted in terms of the cultural difference in the status of the most commonly identified perpetrator of bullying behaviour, i.e. the supervisor in the UK and colleagues in South Korea.

So far a discussion of the results has been presented. The focus now moves on to the strengths and weaknesses of the study.

4.5. Strengths and limitations. This study was the main study of the thesis and attempted to provide answers to the questions raised in Chapters 1 and 2. The study examined the cultural comparison between UK and South Korean samples in terms of (a) the prevalence of bullying, (b) who actually bullied and perpetrated bullying behaviour (i.e. the status of the bully and perpetrator), (c) the health outcomes of bullying victimisation and (d) individual and organisational predictors of bullying. The study also repeatedly provided evidence of the validity and reliability of the KBAQ, suggesting the potential of the KBAQ as an indigenous workplace bullying questionnaire. This was one of the most significant and original points of the study. Moreover, the KBAQ was used alongside the NAQ-R. Not only was the KBAQ the first, indigenous bullying scale to be developed from the people of the Far East, applying

such a bullying measure to a European sample had never been done in previous research. In using the KBAQ, the study also highlighted the emic and etic dimensions of workplace bullying. The use and validation of the KBAQ is not only the strength of this study but also the strength of the thesis overall. Thus, it will be discussed more in detail in the next and final chapter.

In addition to the use of KBAQ, the study also developed an idea put forward by Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2007) pertaining to the identity of the bully. Specifically, this study divided the interpersonal conflict measure into two factors: 'conflict with supervisors' and 'conflict with colleagues'. The division was made in order to take into account that, in South Korea, bullying by colleagues was reported to be most common (Seo, 2008) whereas, in the UK, supervisors were most frequently reported to be bullies (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). Such division has not been done previously and the results showed that, for the UK sample, conflict with supervisors was a better predictor than conflict with colleagues and vice versa for Korean participants' bullying scores. Thus, by dividing the measure into two factors, the study again highlighted the emic dimension of workplace bullying.

In addition to these stated strengths, there were also certain limitations that should be noted. One was the relatively small sample size for the study. Although participants were allocated so that the majority of them would be used in this study, due to the restriction of six months' tenure, the sample size was considerably reduced. Although additional participants were recruited to make up for the numbers, the total number of participants was still not high. However, this could not be avoided since recruiting even more participants would have delayed the data collection considerably. Due to the limited time available for the PhD completion, it was not possible to spend as much time as desired on recruiting participants.

The second limitation was that only Type A Behaviour Pattern (TABP) and one question that asked for school bullying experience were used as measures of individual differences. TABP covers a range of personality types that are associated with bullying such as being suspicious (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Gandolfo, 1995), being neurotic (Vartia, 1996), being highly conscientious and having difficulty

coping with personal criticism (Coyne, Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003), and being over-sensitive and angry (Gandolfo, 1995). However, TABP itself was only weakly correlated to the various workplace bullying measures. Although school bullying added more to the workplace bullying scores than TABP did, the measure was too simplistic. Participants were simply divided into victims and non-victims of school bullying for the regression analysis. Consequently, the impact of having been involved in school bullying with a different profile (e.g., bullies, bully/victims, and bystanders) could not be examined in this study. Other profiles could not be taken into an account in the regression analyses.

Moreover, although the study attempted to take an indigenous approach to examining workplace bullying in South Korea, a South Korean definition of bullying was not taken into consideration to measure workplace bullying. The operational measurement of bullying followed the format of the NAQ-R, which was developed in Europe where the academic definition of bullying was 'negative act(s) repeated frequently for a certain time period' (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). Although the lay definition of Korean employees was examined in Chapter 3, there is currently no agreed Korean academic definition available. For workplace bullying, research interest in South Korea has been minimal and there has been no attempt to establish an indigenous academic definition.

A layperson's definition might not necessarily overlap with an academic definition of bullying. As shown by Saunders, Huynh, and Goodman-Delahunty (2007), lay definitions only made a limited acknowledgement of bullying being a repetitive act even though their sample was predominantly Westerners and the Western academic definition of bullying was negative acts that were repeated for a certain duration (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). The themes more frequently mentioned by lay people in Saunders et al.'s (2007) study included "perpetration of negative behaviour", "harmful effects on target", "power imbalance", "unprofessional conduct" and "intent" (p. 349). Although academic definitions tend to cover most of the themes, one or two of them have not been specifically mentioned in the previously published academic definitions (e.g., Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back, 1994a; Einarsen et al., 2003;

Olweus, 1996; Quine, 2003). Similarly, although bullying as group act has been mentioned by the lay definition, the theme may not be included in the Korean academic definition of bullying. This was the reason why the questionnaire used for this study was not altered to measure group acts. For this alteration, it would be necessary to establish an agreed Korean academic definition of bullying.

4.6. Conclusion. The study, while exploring workplace bullying in South Korea, provided substantial evidence for the validity of KBAQ scale. The figures of prevalence rate revealed that the KBAQ provided more realistic figures of prevalence for the South Korean sample than the NAQ-R and South Korean KBAQ victims seemed to have a better match than NAQ-R victims with subjective victims. The opposite pattern of results was obtained from the UK sample. Such a pattern of results was expected since the KBAQ was developed from qualitative study with Korean participants whereas the NAQ-R was developed in Europe. The results suggested some validity for the KBAQ and illustrated the emic dimension of workplace bullying.

The prevalence rates reported here also reveal clear cultural difference and at least a degree of age-group difference. The UK sample clearly had more operational bullying victims (at least in conventional sense) and self-reported victims. Yet, Korean participants had a higher prevalence of less repetitive negative acts. Age group differences were only found from Korean participants in the prevalence rate of self-reported victims in that older Korean participants had more self-reported victims than young Korean participants. The cultural difference and South Korean participants' age group difference was explained in terms of the cultural values in South Korean society (e.g., face-saving, collectivism, Confucianism, military culture and etc.), which again revealed emic dimensions of workplace bullying. It was also notable to find the unusually high prevalence rates of operational bullying from the UK sample and of self-reported bullying for both nationality groups in comparison to the range suggested by previous studies (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). The high prevalence rates were explained by the restriction set on participants (i.e. a minimum of 6 months tenure).

The analysis of common perpetrators and bullies also revealed a degree of cultural specificity. The most notable result was that, while the UK sample consistently

reported supervisors to be the most common perpetrator and bullies, the South Korean sample produced a mismatch and reported supervisors to be the most common perpetrator and colleagues to be the most common bullies. The mismatch in the South Korean sample was interpreted in two ways. One was that the high power difference in South Korean culture protected the supervisors from being reported for engaging in their negative acts. The other was that South Korean participants defined bullying differently from the UK sample and something other than negative acts were required for them to judge a situation to be 'bullying' and to identify bullies.

Health outcomes of bullying were examined by analysing group differences and through the regression analysis. Evidence for construct validity and reliability was found in this part of analysis. In the analysis of group differences, the KBAQ showed a similar pattern of results to the NAQ-R, but was even more successful than the NAQ-R in distinguishing victims from the Free from Bullying group in terms of their health scores. It was also notable that the KBAQ was strongly correlated to the NAQ-R and achieved a high Cronbach's alpha value which indicates convergent validity and good reliability respectively. The KBAQ showed the same pattern of results as the NAQ-R did in the analyses of health outputs and was even more strongly related to the health outcomes for the South Korean sample. The NAQ-R did the same for the health outcomes of the UK sample. The results suggested a degree of universality of the two bullying measures (etic dimension) as well as a degree of cultural specificity (emic dimension). Both assessment instruments could be applied in the UK and in South Korea but they are even more applicable in the culture from which they were developed: the KBAQ to South Korean culture and the NAQ-R to European culture. Furthermore, the results also provided support for the assumed link between more frequent bullying and more severe negative impacts (Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999; Steensma, 2008) and also for the ripple effect suggested by Hoel and Cooper (2000) that bullying negatively impacts on those who were not direct victims of bullying as well as the direct victims.

In the analysis of predictors of bullying, the KBAQ again showed similar pattern of results to NAQ-R. The KBAQ score was most strongly correlated to the factors that

were also most strongly correlated to the NAQ-R score (i.e. interpersonal conflict, role conflict, and leadership). These findings add strength to the construct validity of KBAQ. The analysis also revealed some cultural specificity. For example, while conflict with supervisors added significantly to the variance in the UK sample's bullying scores, conflict with colleagues did so for the South Korean sample. The result was explained in terms of the cultural difference in the status of common bullies. While supervisors were the most common bullies in the UK, colleagues were the most common bullies in South Korea. Thus, conflict with supervisor would have predicted UK bullying better while conflict with colleagues would have predict South Korean bullying better. Other significant predictors added to the bullying measures of UK and South Korean samples, which suggested the etic dimension of bullying predictors.

Overall, this study revealed a degree of cultural difference in the descriptive aspects of workplace bullying (i.e. prevalence and status of bullies/perpetrators) and its antecedents or predictors. Evidence for the validity and the reliability of the KBAQ was found and the etic and emic dimensions of KBAQ and NAQ-R were considered. Through the findings reported, the study not only highlighted the cultural differences and similarities in aspects of workplace bullying between South Korea and UK but also suggested the potential value of the KBAQ as an indigenous measure of workplace bullying.

CHAPTER 6

Discussion

The overall purpose of this thesis was to address the etic and emic dimension of workplace bullying by comparing two different cultures, the UK and South Korea, and to develop and validate an indigenous South Korean bullying questionnaire. The thesis began by reviewing the extensive literature on workplace bullying in general (Chapter 1) and raised the issue of how little research has been undertaken on South Korean workplace bullying despite its history and culture providing a potentially rich ground for bullying (Chapter 2). Given both the lack of research on workplace bullying in South Korea and the country's social, cultural and political history, the study took the approach of comparing and contrasting UK and South Korean participants. Chapter 3 illustrated that the conceptualisation of bullying is different in South Korea than in the UK such that some of the bullying acts seen in previous European bullying questionnaires might well not be fully applicable in a South Korean context. Chapter 4 investigated the South Korean concept of bullying in more detail and developed a set of indigenous South Korean bullying items, which was named the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ). In the final and more extensive study (Chapter 5), the application of the KBAQ was examined alongside the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R: Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009) with cultural differences and similarities being addressed together with evidence for the construct validity of the KBAQ. The development and validation of the KBAQ in a manner addressing the emic and etic dimensions of workplace bullying were the main novel elements of the thesis. Hence, it is these issues which will be the main focus of the following discussion.

1. Development and Validation of Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ)

1.1. Conceptualisation of bullying. The development of the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) scale began from the finding that the conceptualisation of workplace bullying differed to some degree at least between the UK and South Korean

employees. In Chapter 3, qualitative data investigating respondents' own definitions of bullying were collected, with the data revealing a similarity between South Korean and UK participants in that they both considered bullying to involve negative acts that would have a negative impact on the target. However, a number of cross-cultural differences also emerged. For UK participants, for example, bullying was defined in terms of acts emanating primarily from superiors. This was expected as the predominant perpetrators of bullying consistently reported in the research literature focused upon workplace bullying in the UK are supervisors or someone in a more superior position than the target (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Hoel & Beale, 2006; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997).

What was distinctive about South Korean participants' responses was that they defined bullying as a group act, a construal which is closer to the Scandinavian notion of mobbing (Leymann, 1996; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996b) than to the UK notion of bullying. That the South Korean definition of bullying emphasised the notion of a group act arguably reflects the influence of collectivism in South Korean society. While the current South Korean cultural atmosphere is moving away from collectivism (e.g., Roh, 2004; Sung, 2001), the school environment (Roh, 2004) and men's compulsory military service encourage the idea of a person being a member of a group rather than an individual. Hence, bullying might occur in the form of group acts in South Korea more often than it takes the form of individual acts. In that case, the commonly used bullying tactics in South Korea could also be different from the tactics used in the UK and other European countries.

However, this possibility was only partially supported by the finding reported in Chapter 3 that only 9 out of the 38 European bullying items were less likely to be considered to be bullying by South Korean participants than by UK participants, i.e. excessive persistent teasing, belittling, humiliating, face to face verbal abuse, verbal intimidation, physical violence or attack, sexual email, sexual behaviour, and unfair treatment on the basis of gender. The nine items were mainly individual- and personal-related acts that attack and undermine a victims' private person. It is possible that the 'individual' focus of the acts led South Koreans to be less likely to consider

them to be bullying than UK participants, since South Koreans are more group-oriented and do not value individuality as much as UK nationals may do (Chapter 2).

Nevertheless, the findings suggested that at least some of the European bullying items might not be applicable to South Korean culture and, in the second study (Chapter 4), it was decided to investigate the South Korean concept of bullying in more detail and develop a list of indigenous South Korean bullying behaviours.

1.2. Validation of Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ). From the qualitative data obtained from the second study (Chapter 4), the 23 items of the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ) were developed. The items were independent of the bullying items used in the NAQ-R (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). These items were tested for their specificity to South Korean culture by asking South Korean and UK participants to indicate whether or not they considered each of the acts specified to be bullying. The results revealed cross-cultural applicability for 11 out of the 23 KBAQ items, these being those where South Korean and UK participants did not significantly differ in their agreement that they constituted 'bullying'.

In the final study (Chapter 5), the KBAQ was used alongside the NAQ-R as an operational measure of bullying. Although the items were mutually exclusive, a high correlation was found between the NAQ-R and KBAQ in both the South Korean and UK samples. Such a strong correlation (South Korean: $r = .731$; UK: $r = .748$) points to the convergent validity of the KBAQ. The NAQ-R is a validated bullying questionnaire (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2009) which has been validated in the UK (Einarsen et al., 2009). Cronbach's alpha for the KBAQ was high (South Korean: .88; British: .90) such that removing any of the items did not improve the value, which suggests a good internal consistency of the KBAQ.

Additional evidence for the construct validity of the KBAQ can be found in the fact that the KBAQ victims were consistently distinguished from participants free from bullying in terms of their health outcomes. A similar pattern of results was found from the NAQ-R victims as well but with a lesser degree of consistency. Although the NAQ-R also distinguished victims from those who were free from bullying, the difference

was not always significant. In other words, the KBAQ was even more successful than the NAQ-R in distinguishing victims from those who were free from bullying.

It was also notable that, among the examined predictors, the strongest correlates of the KBAQ score also tended to be most strongly correlated to the NAQ-R score. For South Koreans, the strongest correlates of the KBAQ and NAQ-R scores were role conflict, interpersonal conflict, and leadership. For UK participants, the strongest correlates were conflict with supervisor, role conflict, and demand. The fact that the KBAQ had similar links with antecedents as seen in the NAQ-R, again attests to the construct validity of the scale. In addition, these results also illustrate the emic dimension of workplace bullying in that bullying, regardless of the culture and the bullying measure, was related to similar factors in the psychosocial work environment.

Moreover, there was a high percentage of overlap between victims identified by the KBAQ and victims identified by the NAQ-R with the same pattern of results being found for both South Korean and UK samples. The strength of association between the two groups of victims was highly significant, which provides further evidence of the construct validity of the KBAQ. Moreover, for South Korean participants, the KBAQ yielded a better match of victims with those identified by the subjective (definitional) method than the NAQ-R. With the UK sample, a chi-square test also revealed a significant match, with operational victims being significantly more likely to be subjective victims than non-operational victims. While this result was consistent whether the KBAQ or the NAQ-R was used to categorise the operational groups, the statistical significance was greater when the NAQ-R was used. In other words, within the UK sample, NAQ-R victim identification was more strongly associated with subjective victim identification than with that resulting from the use of the KBAQ. In contrast, within the South Korean sample, the opposite pattern of the results was found. These results point to a degree of cultural specificity for both the KBAQ and the NAQ-R. In short, the KBAQ would be a better measure of bullying for a South Korean sample and the NAQ-R for a UK sample.

The cultural specificity of the KBAQ to a South Korean sample is evidenced again by the prevalence rate of South Korean victims identified by the KBAQ

compared to the NAQ-R. Specifically, the rate of Korean NAQ-R victims (4.1%) was lower than the prevalence of Korean subjective victims (12.9%). Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001), suggest that operational methods tend to produce a *higher* percentage of victims than subjective methods. Here, the prevalence rate produced by the NAQ-R is *lower* than that produced by the subjective method. Thus, the NAQ-R appears to underestimate the prevalence of operational victims among South Koreans. On the other hand, the KBAQ produced a figure for Korean operational victims (16.5%) that was higher than the rate of South Korean subjective victims and was also within the typical range of operational victims put forward by Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) in other samples. For UK participants, the NAQ-R provided a percentage (26.3%) that was closer to the 'usual' range than the KBAQ did (32.3%). All in all, these results suggest that the KBAQ produced a more realistic figure of operational victims for the South Korean sample, whereas the NAQ-R was more realistic for the UK sample. This attests to the emic dimension of bullying tapped into by both the KBAQ and the NAQ-R.

The KBAQ also explained a greater percentage of variance in South Korean participants' health outcome scores, while the NAQ-R explained more of the variance in UK participants' health outcome scores. Such differences might be attributed to the culture in which the NAQ-R and the KBAQ were developed. The NAQ-R was developed in Scandinavia and was validated in the UK (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). In contrast, the KBAQ was developed from the data obtained directly from South Korean participants (Chapter 4). Therefore, it was expected that the KBAQ would be more applicable to the South Korean sample and NAQ-R to the UK sample. This adds further weight to the notion that there are culture-specific as well as non culture-specific bullying behaviours and that, to get a complete picture and assessment of workplace bullying within a culture, one should give due weight and consideration to the emic dimension of workplace bullying.

The greater application of the KBAQ to the South Korean sample and of the NAQ-R to the UK sample is a good illustration of the emic dimension of workplace bullying. At the same time, the etic dimension was also evident in that, to some degree

at least, the KBAQ and the NAQ-R could be applied interchangeably to South Korean and UK participants. However, the emic dimension of bullying is further illustrated by other results reported in this thesis which will now be commented upon in more detail.

2. Further illustration of the emic dimension of workplace bullying

2.1. Prevalence Rates. Using operational (i.e. KBAQ and NAQ-R) and subjective (i.e. self-report) measures, the prevalence rate of victims was examined. For operational bullying victims, the classifications of 'frequent bullying' and 'less frequent bullying' (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003) were also applied. Whether operational or subjective measures were used, the UK sample consistently had a higher prevalence of victims but less frequent bullying was more prevalent among South Korean sample. In other words, victims were more prevalent among the UK sample but less repetitive and less persistent forms of aggression and negative acts were more prevalent among the South Korean sample.

The obvious explanation for such a finding might be that the repetitive, persistent forms of bullying were genuinely more prevalent in the UK than in South Korea. However, this explanation seems to contradict the expectation based on the generally high level of aggression in South Korean Society (Chapter 2). Violence from teachers towards young students still persists in South Korea despite the law prohibiting such acts. In military camps and nursing occupations, aggression and violence frequently occur and even result in death of victims, whether from the violence itself (Yu, 1998; Jeong, 1998; Choi & Park, 1999) or from the victims resorting to suicide (Kang, 2006). It might be here that, although the expression of aggression is prevalent in South Korean society, it does not usually take a repetitive, persistent form of bullying. Moreover, there is also the possibility that South Koreans might have underestimated the prevalence of bullying due to their culturally influenced representation of the concept. As mentioned in Chapter 2 (and elsewhere), there is a tendency in South Korean cultural and societal atmosphere to justify aggression for emotional or pragmatic reasons. Such justification might have led South Koreans not to recognise a bullying situation as a problem – or indeed as an example of bullying –

and so underestimate the prevalence rates of reported bullying. Indeed, as found in Chapter 3, South Koreans expressed a degree of justification for bullying, which adds strength to this possible explanation. In other words, due to the difference in the concept of bullying, the South Korean sample might have been less likely than the UK sample to view themselves as being bullied although they face just as many negative acts.

Moreover, as discussed in Chapter 5, South Koreans value face-saving (Kim & Nam, 1998). Men are expected to appear strong and stable due to their military ways of thinking and admitting to being bullied may be considered weaknesses on the victims' part. South Korean women are also prone to face-saving and may show reluctance in revealing being bullied in case rumours might spread (see Chapter 5). Due to the influence of collectivism and close, personal relationships amongst social group members (see Chapter 2), individuality is not as valued in South Korean culture as it is in more individualist countries. Neither is confidentiality as well protected. Personal matters about someone can be divulged to and discussed with others who are not directly acquainted to the individual. In order to avoid such rumours, South Koreans would be likely to avoid revealing negative issues in which they were involved.

The influence of collectivism might also work in a different way in that to maintain group harmony, individual suffering might easily be ignored (see Chapter 2). Victims, themselves, would be reluctant to violate the group harmony and others would be prepared to sacrifice minorities for the majority. In some cases, the victims might be considered to be the problems and be ostracised or excluded from the group (MBC After News Report, 2007). Such issues might lead South Koreans to become reluctant to act against any aggression imposed on them (Sung, 2008) in case they were further disadvantaged in the group. In turn, this reluctance might lead them to avoid reporting being bullied even if they were being bullied, thereby resulting in the underestimation of the prevalence of bullying among the South Korean sample. Hence, the finding seems to illustrate an emic dimension in that cultural factors specific to South Korea play an important role in the reported prevalence rate of bullying.

2.2. Bully/Perpetrator Status. The emic dimension of workplace bullying was

further evidenced in differences in bully and perpetrator status. In Chapter 5, bullies were distinguished from the perpetrators of negative acts. While a bully was identified as someone whom participants thought bullied them, a perpetrator was defined as those individuals who actually meted out the identified negative acts. The result from the UK sample was as expected, i.e. supervisors were found to be the most commonly reported bullies and also the most commonly reported perpetrators. This finding was explained in terms of Hofstede's (1993) cultural dimensions, as suggested by Einarsen (2002). The UK has a high power difference and masculine culture within which supervisors are reported to be the most common bullies both in this study as well as in previous studies (e.g., Hoel & Beale, 2006; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997).

For South Korean participants, on the other hand, colleagues were the most commonly reported bullies while supervisors were the most commonly reported perpetrators. This result from the South Korean sample is both interesting and challenging since it is counter-intuitive to the high power difference culture that exists in South Korea. The Confucian culture and military experience of men would – it might be suggested – have made the power difference high and yet, the South Korean sample predominantly reported colleagues to be the bullies. This is similar to the research based in Scandinavia where the culture is low power-difference (Einarsen, 2002; Hofstede, 1993). Conversely, the most commonly reported actual perpetrators were supervisors, which better matches the high power difference culture.

One explanation given in Chapter 5 came from the South Koreans' distinctive lay definition of bullying (Chapter 3). South Korean participants consistently reported bullying to be group behaviour and distinguished bullying from other forms of aggression on these grounds. The UK sample mentioned no such criteria as a distinguishing feature or characteristic of bullying. In other words, while repeated negative acts would have been enough to be defined as bullying to the UK sample, this is not the case for South Koreans. It was suggested in Chapter 5 that, if this hypothesis is true, the format of any Korean bullying questionnaire (including the KBAQ) should be altered to account for this group-act oriented South Korean

definition of bullying.

However, as shown by Saunders, Huynh, and Goodman-Delahunty (2007), lay definitions do not necessarily match academic definitions. Although the South Korean sample in Chapter 3 provided a unique definition of bullying as a group act, it was not certain how this might correspond with an academic definition. Since there was no South Korean academic definition of bullying available, the questionnaire used in Chapter 5 had to follow the format of European bullying questionnaires that measured bullying according to the European academic definition (i.e. repeated, persistent negative acts). However, this could not explain why only supervisors were under-represented among bullies while colleagues were over-represented.

Hence, the second, more likely explanation is that, although the most common perpetrators are found to be supervisors, the high power difference in South Korea might work in such a way that supervisors are protected from being revealed as bullies. As found in Chapter 3, South Koreans reported a higher tolerance of negative acts when the aggressors were supervisors rather than when they were colleagues or subordinates. Most South Korean men have experienced military culture, which would have shaped their attitudes towards being authoritarian. In the military camp, aggression from superiors prevailed but was often covered up (Chapter 2). South Korean men might be behaving the same way in the workplace after their military service is completed. This explanation seems plausible since there are more men in the South Korean sample and thus, their attitudes have a greater impact on the result than South Korean women's attitudes.

2.3. Predictors of Workplace Bullying. The last cultural difference was seen in the analysis of work-related predictors of workplace bullying. The predictors took up a large part of the literature review in Chapter 1 and, based on the extensive literature, Chapter 5 analysed a list of predictors and their relationship with workplace bullying (i.e. KBAQ, NAQ-R, and self-report). The results revealed that, for both nationality groups and all bullying measures, leadership type, interpersonal conflict, and role conflict tended to be the strongest correlates of the bullying measures. This confirms Hauge et al.'s (2007) earlier findings. The fact that the KBAQ had similar links with

variables as seen in the NAQ-R again points to the construct validity of the scale.

However, in hierarchical regression analyses, the strong correlates often failed to add significantly to the variance in bullying scores once the demographic factors were accounted for. Only interpersonal conflict added significantly to some of the bullying measures and here another cultural difference emerged. In particular, the UK sample revealed a consistent pattern of results wherein conflict with supervisors was a significant predictor of bullying measured by NAQ-R and self-report. However, the South Korean sample did not reveal such a consistent pattern of results. While conflict with colleagues was a stronger correlate to and a significant predictor of South Korean participants' NAQ-R score, conflict with supervisors was a stronger correlate to South Korean participants' KBAQ and self-reported bullying score. In the regression analyses, conflict with colleagues added significantly to South Korean participants' NAQ-R score whereas conflict with supervisor failed to add significantly to any of the bullying scores. In other words, only conflict with colleagues made a significant contribution to the explained variance of South Korean participants' bullying scores even if to a limited extent.

The UK results could easily be explained by the fact that supervisors are most frequently reported as bullies (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). In Chapter 5 of this thesis, supervisors were again reported to be the most common bullies and perpetrators. Thus, conflict with supervisors should have been more strongly related to workplace bullying measures than conflict with colleagues. In contrast, colleagues were reported to be the most common bullies by South Korean workers in Seo's (2008) previous study and in Chapter 5. Thus, conflict with colleagues would be expected to add more to the South Koreans' bullying scores than conflict with supervisors.

Another cultural difference was observed in the fact that job type only added to the bullying score of the UK sample and not to the bullying score of the South Korean sample. Within the UK sample, being a part-time worker was related to a higher bullying score. This is in line with the reported finding that temporary, subcontract staff are at higher risk of being bullied (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Knorz & Zapf, 1996;

Pearce, 1998; Quinlan, 1999). The difference is explained by the greater use of temporary or part-time staff in the UK than in South Korea. In South Korea, the employment of part-time staff is limited to certain industries including the service sector and the South Korean sample in the last study comprised only a small number of part-time workers. In contrast, in the UK, temporary and part-time staff can be found across a range of industries and the UK sample consisted of more part-time staff.

Some predictors were found to be applicable to both the South Korean and UK samples, including demand, school bullying experiences, and work hours. These results provide support to previous studies that have identified these predictors: demands (e.g., Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004) and school bullying experiences (e.g., Harvey, Heames, Richey, & Leonard, 2006; Hetland, Notelaers, & Einarsen, 2008; Smith, Singer, Hoel & Cooper, 2003; White, 2004). The issue of work hours has not previously received particular attention in workplace bullying literature. Overall, these final results suggest that certain predictors of workplace bullying have cross-cultural validity.

3. Strengths and Weaknesses

As shown above, the thesis produced a number of findings that illustrate cultural comparisons in workplace bullying and also provide evidence for the validity and reliability of the KBAQ. The first, obvious strength of the thesis is the direct cultural comparison between the UK and South Korea. Although workplace bullying has been investigated separately in the UK (e.g., Hoel et al., 2001; Hoel, 2002; Rayner, 1997) and in South Korea (Seo, 2008), no study has – as far as the author knows – directly compared workplace bullying in those two countries. This thesis consistently looked into cultural comparisons and, in the last study in particular, data were collected from both South and South Korea UK workforces using the same measuring instruments while matching the jobs and industry as much as possible. This makes direct comparisons possible. In the workplace bullying literature, such an approach has not been frequent despite research being conducted across the world (e.g., Cowie, Jennifer, Neto, Angula, Pereira, & del Barrio et al. 2000; Einarsen, 2000;

Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Keashly, Hunter, & Harvey, 1997; Leymann, 1996; Mackensen von Astfeld, 2000; Niedl, 1995, 1996; Rayner, 1997; Sheehan, 1999; Sheehan, Barker, & Rayner, 1999; Zapf, Knorz, & Kulla, 1996b).

As well as conducting direct cultural comparisons, the author has attempted to go further in the thesis by taking into account cultural differences in the conceptualisation of workplace bullying and bullying tactics. Although a limited number of studies (e.g., Shin, 2005a) have conducted direct cultural comparisons in workplace bullying, they either have not used a validated bullying measure or have tended to use bullying measures developed in Western cultures instead of developing indigenous measures for the Eastern cultures observed. In that sense, the development and use of the KBAQ was a particularly distinctive feature of the present thesis. As reported in Chapter 5 and discussed above, evidence for the construct validity of the KBAQ was repeatedly found and the KBAQ also appeared to be more applicable to South Korean employees than the NAQ-R. Developing the KBAQ was the first, important step taken to develop an indigenous workplace bullying questionnaire that has never been done in the Far East before. Therefore, this thesis makes a significant contribution to the literature investigating workplace bullying in the Far East.

In addition to its strengths, there are also some obvious and important limitations. Firstly, the thesis did not wholly account for the South Korean definition of bullying while measuring workplace bullying (Chapter 5). Even between Scandinavia and the UK, differences can be found in bullying research in that the concepts of 'bullying' and 'mobbing' common in each are not the same (Chapter 1), while the most frequently reported bullies are supervisors whereas mobbing tends to be done by colleagues (e.g., Hoel & Beale, 2006). Yet, both bullying and mobbing are distinguishable from other forms of aggression in terms of their repetitiveness for a certain period of time. Thus, similar research methods and a similar format of questionnaires could be used in both cultures. However, as found in Chapter 3, there was a degree of difference between UK and South Korean participants in their lay definition of bullying. For example, South Korean participants defined bullying as to do

with group acts and one participant even distinguished bullying from other forms of aggression in that bullying was group acts while other forms of aggression were not. Since a South Korean academic definition of bullying is not yet available, it is not certain how central group acts are to the definition of workplace bullying. However, supposing that group acts are, indeed, the defining factor of South Korean bullying, then the format of the questionnaire should be adjusted to measure bullying as a group act.

Although South Korean specific bullying items (i.e. KBAQ) were used to measure bullying, the format of the questionnaire still followed the format of the NAQ-R, a European bullying questionnaire. While the frequency and duration criteria could be measured by the format, group acts could not. One might justify this limitation in that all of the South Korean participants identified at least two or more people as perpetrators and/or bullies and thus, reporting a group of people as the perpetrators/bullies should have measured bullying as a group act. Yet, it was also possible that individual bullies/perpetrators were the aggressors in different situations. Most of the bullying items (even in the KBAQ) could be carried out either by an individual or by a group and it was not possible to measure group acts. Thus, group acts, if they really distinguish bullying from other forms of aggression in South Korea, should be more clearly differentiated from individual acts.

Another weakness was related to the validation of the KBAQ. Although the convergent validity of the KBAQ was explored through its correlation with the NAQ-R and the work-related antecedents, its divergent validity was not examined. Divergent validity can be defined as not being related to factors it is not supposed to be related to. Thus, in order to test divergent validity, it would have been necessary to first establish the factors that are not supposed to be related to the score of a bullying measure. However, these factors could not be identified since the literature on workplace bullying focuses on the factors that are related to workplace bullying. Consequently, it was not possible to test for divergent validity.

The last weakness to note is the gender imbalance in the South Korean and UK samples, which is repeatedly observed in the reported studies. While the South

Korean sample had a greater proportion of male participants, the UK sample comprised more women participants. One possible explanation for this imbalance is related to the extent of gender segregation in industries in South Korea. Leymann (1996) similarly mentioned gender segregation in labour markets in explaining his results. If the industries in South Korea in which the data collection was conducted are dominated by males, then males should be over-represented in the South Korean sample.

At least for the last study, the above explanation is likely considering the characteristics of the town in South Korea where the data collection was carried out. In that town, females tend to work in shops and small businesses whereas males tend to work in the larger organisations. In the last study, larger organisations were targeted for data collection and, consequently, the sample consisted of more males than females. Possible industrial differences in South Korea clearly need to be explored. However, they could not be investigated in the current thesis as the number of samples in each industry was too small. Gender differences were, however, taken into consideration in statistical analyses for all three studies when considered necessary. This ought to compensate for the gender imbalance in the sample to some extent. The results revealed little by way of a gender effect. Indeed, a significant gender effect was only found on the tolerance level of workplace bullying. Thus, gender imbalance would not appear to have had much of a confounding effect on the findings.

4. Suggestions for Further Study

Based on the limitations mentioned above, South Koreans' definition of bullying was not taken into account in measuring workplace bullying in the study reported in Chapter 5. The measurement of bullying followed the format of NAQ-R, which was developed in Europe where the academic definition of bullying focuses on the frequency and duration of the acts as well as power imbalance of the involved parties (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001). However, it was not certain how bullying should be defined in South Korea as there was no South Korean academic definition available. Hence, establishing the agreed,

academic definition would be one possibility of a future study. The research would require working with South Korean researchers who have experience and knowledge of bullying research since lay definitions could differ from any academic definition (Saunders, Huynh, & Goodman-Delahunty, 2007).

The second suggestion for further research would be to validate the KBAQ in other East Asian countries. In this thesis, evidence for validity and reliability of the KBAQ was repeatedly found for both UK and South Korean samples. The evidence suggested the potential of the KBAQ as a reliable and valid bullying measure. Moreover, the KBAQ added more to South Koreans' health outcomes than the NAQ-R did while the NAQ-R did so for UK participants' health outcomes. This points to the cultural specificity of the two bullying measures. In other words, the KBAQ has a greater applicability to South Korea and the NAQ-R to the UK. It would be interesting to examine whether the KBAQ has a greater applicability to other East Asian countries than the NAQ-R. If so, it would suggest the greater applicability of the KBAQ than the NAQ-R in East Asian cultures outside South Korea, adding strength to the KBAQ as an indigenous bullying questionnaire.

Further research could also usefully explore more advanced aspects of workplace bullying in South Korea. Prior to the thesis, little was known about workplace bullying in South Korea. Hence, the thesis focused on the descriptive aspects of workplace bullying, together with a cross-cultural comparison of bullying as a concept, the development of a list of indigenous negative acts, identifying the perpetrators of negative acts and bullying, as well as the prevalence and consequences of bullying. The results showed that, although there was a degree of similarity between the UK and South Korean samples, cultural differences also persisted. These differences were explained using South Korean culture and history, thereby illustrating the emic dimension of workplace bullying. Using the indigenous knowledge gained through the thesis, research in South Korea can progress into other, more advanced areas of research within workplace bullying. One area would be to develop or examine ways in which bullying could be prevented in South Korea. Considering the influence of Confucian, collectivist culture and men's military

experience found throughout the thesis, bullying prevention applied in the UK or other individualist cultures might not work as effectively in South Korea. Using the KBAQ as the indigenous, valid measure of bullying for South Korean culture before and after the application of any bullying intervention, the extent of success of existing bullying prevention methods could be examined and further development made.

In addition, one should consider that aggression is rich in the societal atmosphere of South Korea (Chapter 2) and yet, South Koreans had a lower prevalence of repetitive, persistent forms of bullying than the UK sample. Instead, they had a higher prevalence of less, repetitive, persistent forms of aggression. In view of this finding, different forms of aggression in South Korea other than bullying should also be given more research attention. Aggression is often overlooked or tolerated in South Korea for emotional reasons such as being frustrated or pragmatic reasons such as achieving a goal (Chapter 2). How these issues might be examined and tackled would be another point to consider for further research.

5. Practical Applications

Although the studies reported in this thesis had some limitations, it cannot be denied that they highlighted the importance of an indigenous approach for conducting studies in different cultures. As the studies showed, South Korean participants did not necessarily construe bullying in the same way UK participants did. There was a degree of cultural difference in their lay definition of workplace bullying and the type of bullying acts they considered 'bullying'. The difference between the UK and South Korean participants suggested that, in order to examine bullying while taking into account the specific culture in which the study is conducted, the items of bullying acts used in the bullying questionnaire and the format of the questionnaire should be modified.

The cultural differences in the definition and the types of bullying acts also have an implication for the type and style of interventions to be implemented to tackle workplace bullying in different countries. For example, in a behavioural intervention of workplace bullying that targets the reduction of specific bullying acts, the targeted

behaviours in the intervention should differ according to what kind of acts were considered to be 'bullying' within the culture. In addition, supposing that being a group act is indeed a defining feature of workplace bullying in South Korea, the intervention should aim at breaking down negative group acts or interfering with the development of negative group acts. In a collectivist culture, a group holds a great power (Chapter 2). Considering that the impact of bullying differs depending on the status/power of the perpetrator relative to the victim's own status/power (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), bullying in the form of a group act is likely to have a highly damaging impact on the targeted person. Thus, preventing negative group acts should be one of the aims of bullying interventions in South Korea.

Another practical implication suggested by the thesis is the need to take the characteristics of the sample into account in the research method. As shown in Chapter 4, the characteristics of the sample were taken into account when deciding the appropriate research method to be used for the data collection. In specific, taking into account South Korean's unwillingness to speak up their opinions (particularly about negative issues), research methods in which participants could write down their answers were considered (i.e. open-ended questionnaire and repertory grid technique) instead of focus group interviews. Between the open-ended questionnaire and repertory grid techniques, the latter was chosen because South Koreans were unfamiliar with forming or verbalising their own opinions and a method in which prompts for answers could be used was necessary. Research in the social sciences domain often overlooks the characteristics of the sample groups and uses the same research method regardless of the samples. This is an important issue to consider since the insensitivity to different cultures and characteristics of the sample may affect the quality of the data produced. Not only the national culture but also the characteristics of the group within the culture (e.g. ethnic minorities) should be considered in determining the research method in order to collect quality data.

6. Conclusion

Prior to this thesis, the research interest in South Korea on workplace bullying

has been minimal and little was known about workplace bullying there. Hence, the thesis first aimed at examining South Koreans' concepts of workplace bullying and developing a list of indigenous bullying acts that could be used to measure bullying in South Korea. This measure was labelled the Korean Bullying Acts Questionnaire (KBAQ). Then, using the KBAQ alongside a validated European bullying measure (i.e. the NAQ-R) and self-report, the thesis looked into the descriptive aspects of South Korean workplace bullying and examined its predictors and impacts.

The most striking finding of the thesis was the evidence for validity and reliability of the KBAQ, and for the greater applicability of the KBAQ for the South Korean sample. The evidence suggested the potential of the KBAQ as an indigenous bullying questionnaire for East Asian culture where Confucian and collectivist values continue to influence society. The application of the KBAQ revealed something of the etic dimension of workplace bullying but, in particular, showed the cultural specificity of bullying measures and highlighted the emic dimension of workplace bullying.

The emic side of bullying was also illustrated by the participants' conceptualisation of bullying, the prevalence rates observed, the organisational status of bullies and perpetrators, and the predictors of bullying. The cultural difference in the conceptualisation of bullying suggested that the European concept of bullying and the format of European bullying questionnaires might carry the risk of failing to measure the full concept of bullying as perceived by South Korean employees. In terms of prevalence, it has been shown that using the NAQ-R to measure bullying in South Korea could underestimate the actual incidence of bullying. The results for bully/perpetrator status suggest differences between UK and South Korean employees in their attitudes towards negative acts coming from superiors. The analysis of predictors also revealed a degree of cultural difference regarding which of the work-related factors were the strongest predictors of workplace bullying. Facing such cultural differences, examining bullying in South Korea according to the European methods and concepts would only investigate bullying in the European sense not in the South Korean sense. In order to avoid posing such limitations and to continue with the indigenous approach, a South Korean academic definition of bullying

should be established clearly and the research method adjusted accordingly. This thesis was the first to attempt an indigenous approach in bullying research in South Korea and should provide the stepping stone for much future research.

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Appendix A. Questionnaire for the ‘Bully group’

Tolerability of Behaviours at Work

My name is Yoojeong Nadine Seo. I am currently reading PhD Applied Psychology in University of Nottingham. As part of my research, I am investigating tolerability of various behaviours that can occur within work setting. To help with this project, I would be grateful if you would complete this questionnaire. The answers you give will be treated in total confidence. I need to ask you for some personal information, but I do not need your name or any other important details – I will have no way of knowing who filled out this questionnaire. No information from individual questionnaires will be revealed.

There are no “right” or “wrong” answers, so please answer the items as honestly as you can. Please answer all questions. If you have any queries, please feel free to contact me by e-mail XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX or phone XXXX XXX XXXX.

Thank you so much for participating.

Section 1: Background Details

1. Which year were you born?
2. Your gender is: Male / Female
3. What is your nationality?
4. What is your occupation?
5. Which type do you consider your occupation to be? Blue collar/ White collar
6. How can you describe your position in the organisation?
 - You have no subordinates
 - Line manager/supervisor
 - Senior manager and board members
 - Owner of the organisation
7. Have you ever worked or lived in Asian (or Non-Asian if you are an Asian) countries (except travelling)?
Yes / No
If so, how long have you lived in there?

Section 2: Your Tolerability

Imagine that you are doing the following behaviours to the listed people below. Please rate how tolerable you think the behaviours are, ranging from

1 (= ‘Absolutely Tolerable’) to 6 (= ‘Absolutely Intolerable’).

Sending emails with sexual nature						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Face-to-face verbal abuse (e.g. shouting, swearing)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Verbal threat/intimidation (e.g. if that happens again, you will have to find another job.)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her person and personal life						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Excessive, persistent teasing						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her work (e.g. attitudes, competence)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Taking away areas of work responsibility from someone without consultation						
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about work						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Ignoring/excluding						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusing to allow someone to talk to people						
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humiliating						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undermining someone's work effort						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of gender						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving meaningless tasks						
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Actual/threatened, unfair use of disciplinary action against someone						
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure not to claim someone's entitlement (e.g. sick leave, holiday, travel expenses)						
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Continuous, excessive workload						
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undue, excessive monitoring of his/her work progress						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creating a false or distorted impression of someone						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of physical attack (e.g. pushing, hitting, shoving...)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sending e-mails with inappropriate, abusive words (e.g. swearwords)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of inappropriate sexual behaviour (e.g. touching, flashing)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Showing negative gestures when someone speaks or gives a view (e.g. sniggering, sneering, snide remarks)						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Invasion of personal space						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of race						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Making comments towards someone that he/she would see as containing sexual innuendo						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about person						
Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not sharing necessary work information							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Belittling							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having someone as the subject of practical jokes (e.g. hiding one's property)							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Persistent criticism of someone's work							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving little or no work							
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving tasks to someone below his/her level of competence							
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusal of applications for such things as promotion, training							
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Telling someone he/she cannot be trusted							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shifting key performance criteria without his/her knowledge							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
False allegations made against someone							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questioning someone's honesty/trustworthiness							
	Doing it to your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Doing it to your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 3. Your View

1. How would you define bullying in the workplace? (Please provide detailed description)

2. Bullying can be defined as 'a situation where individual(s) persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from person(s), 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.

Based on the given definition, please rate whether you think the following behaviours are bullying or something that is not bullying.

1 represents 'Definitely not Bullying' and 6 represents 'Definitely bullying'.

In addition, if you have never experienced/observed any of the behaviours or think the behaviour occurs extremely rarely, then rank it as Ø ('Never/rarely occurs') as well.

Behaviour	Rating						
Sending emails with sexual nature	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Face-to-face verbal abuse (e.g. shouting, swearing)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Verbal threat/intimidation directed to someone (e.g. if that happens again, you will have to find another job.)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her person and personal life	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Excessive, persistent teasing	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6

Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her work (e.g. attitudes, competence)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Taking away areas of work responsibility from someone without consultation	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ignoring/excluding someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusing to allow someone to talk to people	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humiliating	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undermining someone's work effort	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of gender	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving meaningless tasks	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Actual/threatened, unfair use of disciplinary action against you	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure not to claim entitlement (e.g. sick leave, holiday, travel expenses)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Continuous, excessive workload	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undue, excessive monitoring of one's work progress	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creating a false or distorted impression of someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of physical attack (e.g. pushing, hitting, shoving...)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
E-mails with inappropriate, abusive words (e.g. swearwords)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of inappropriate sexual behaviour (e.g. touching, flashing)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Showing negative gestures when someone speaks or gives a view (e.g. sniggering, sneering, snide remarks)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Invasion of personal space	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of race	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having comments made towards someone that he/she would see as containing sexual innuendo	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about person	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Not sharing necessary work information	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Belittling	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having someone to be the subject of practical jokes (e.g. hiding one's property)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Persistent criticism of someone's work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving little or no work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving tasks to someone below his/her level of competence	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusal of applications for such things as promotion, training	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Telling someone that he/she cannot be trusted	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shifting key performance criteria from someone without his/her knowledge	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
False allegations made against someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questioning someone's honesty / trustworthiness	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B. Questionnaire for the 'Victim group'

Tolerability of Behaviours at Work

My name is Yoojeong Nadine Seo. I am currently reading PhD Applied Psychology in University of Nottingham. As part of my research, I am investigating tolerability of various behaviours that can occur within work setting. To help with this project, I would be grateful if you would complete this questionnaire. The answers you give will be treated in total confidence. I need to ask you for some personal information, but I do not need your name or any other important details – I will have no way of knowing who filled out this questionnaire. No information from individual questionnaires will be revealed.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, so please answer the items as honestly as you can. Please answer all questions. If you have any queries, please feel free to contact me by e-mail XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX or phone XXXX XXX XXXX.

Thank you so much for participating.

Section 1: Background Details

1. Which year were you born?
2. Your gender is: Male / Female
3. What is your nationality?
4. What is your occupation?
5. Which type do you consider your occupation to be? Blue collar/ White collar
6. How can you describe your position in the organisation?
 - You have no subordinates
 - Line manager/supervisor
 - Senior manager and board members
 - Owner of the organisation
7. Have you ever worked or lived in Asian (or Non-Asian if you are an Asian) countries (except travelling)?
Yes / No
If so, how long have you lived in there?

Section 2: Your Tolerability

Imagine that you are doing the following behaviours to the listed people below. Please rate how tolerable you think the behaviours are, ranging from 1 (= 'Absolutely Tolerable') to 6 (= 'Absolutely Intolerable').

Sending emails with sexual nature						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Face-to-face verbal abuse (e.g. shouting, swearing)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Verbal threat/intimidation (e.g. if that happens again, you will have to find another job.)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her person and personal life						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Excessive, persistent teasing						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her work (e.g. attitudes, competence)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Taking away areas of work responsibility from someone without consultation						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about work						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Ignoring/excluding						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusing to allow someone to talk to people						
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humiliating						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undermining someone's work effort						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of gender						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving meaningless tasks						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Actual/threatened, unfair use of disciplinary action against someone						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure not to claim someone's entitlement (e.g. sick leave, holiday, travel expenses)						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Continuous, excessive workload						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undue, excessive monitoring of his/her work progress						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creating a false or distorted impression of someone						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of physical attack (e.g. pushing, hitting, shoving...)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sending e-mails with inappropriate, abusive words (e.g. swearwords)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of inappropriate sexual behaviour (e.g. touching, flashing)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Showing negative gestures when someone speaks or gives a view (e.g. sniggering, sneering, snide remarks)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Invasion of personal space						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of race						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Making comments towards someone that he/she would see as containing sexual innuendo						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about person						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Not sharing necessary work information						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Belittling						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having someone as the subject of practical jokes (e.g. hiding one's property)						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Persistent criticism of someone's work						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving little or no work						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving tasks to someone below his/her level of competence						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusal of applications for such things as promotion, training						
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Telling someone he/she cannot be trusted						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shifting key performance criteria without his/her knowledge						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
False allegations made against someone						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questioning someone's honesty/trustworthiness						
Done unto you by your superiors	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your peers	1	2	3	4	5	6
Done unto you by your subordinates	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 3: Your View

1. How would you define bullying in the workplace? (Please provide detailed description)

2. Bullying can be defined as 'a situation where individual(s) persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from person(s), 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.

Based on the given definition, please rate whether you think the following behaviours are bullying or something that is not bullying.

1 represents 'Definitely not Bullying' and 6 represents 'Definitely bullying'.

In addition, if you have never experienced/observed any of the behaviours or think the behaviour occurs extremely rarely, then rank it as \emptyset ('Never/rarely occurs') as well.

Behaviour	Rating						
Sending emails with sexual nature	\emptyset	1	2	3	4	5	6
Face-to-face verbal abuse (e.g. shouting, swearing)	\emptyset	1	2	3	4	5	6
Verbal threat/intimidation directed to someone (e.g. if that happens again, you will have to find another job.)	\emptyset	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her person and personal life	\emptyset	1	2	3	4	5	6
Excessive, persistent teasing	\emptyset	1	2	3	4	5	6

Having gossip/jokes spread about someone on the grounds of his/her work (e.g. attitudes, competence)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Taking away areas of work responsibility from someone without consultation	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ignoring/excluding someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusing to allow someone to talk to people	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humiliating	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undermining someone's work effort	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of gender	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving meaningless tasks	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Actual/threatened, unfair use of disciplinary action against you	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure not to claim entitlement (e.g. sick leave, holiday, travel expenses)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Continuous, excessive workload	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Undue, excessive monitoring of one's work progress	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creating a false or distorted impression of someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of physical attack (e.g. pushing, hitting, shoving...)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
E-mails with inappropriate, abusive words (e.g. swearwords)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Any form of inappropriate sexual behaviour (e.g. touching, flashing)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Showing negative gestures when someone speaks or gives a view (e.g. sniggering, sneering, snide remarks)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Invasion of personal space	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Unfair treatment on the basis of race	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having comments made towards someone that he/she would see as containing sexual innuendo	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving sarcastic comments about person	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Not sharing necessary work information	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Belittling	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having someone to be the subject of practical jokes (e.g. hiding one's property)	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Persistent criticism of someone's work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving little or no work	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Giving tasks to someone below his/her level of competence	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Refusal of applications for such things as promotion, training	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Telling someone that he/she cannot be trusted	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Shifting key performance criteria from someone without his/her knowledge	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
False allegations made against someone	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questioning someone's honesty / trustworthiness	Ø	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C. Figures of the interaction between nationality and gender in the agreement to the negative acts items being bullying

Figure 1. Being silenced by the management

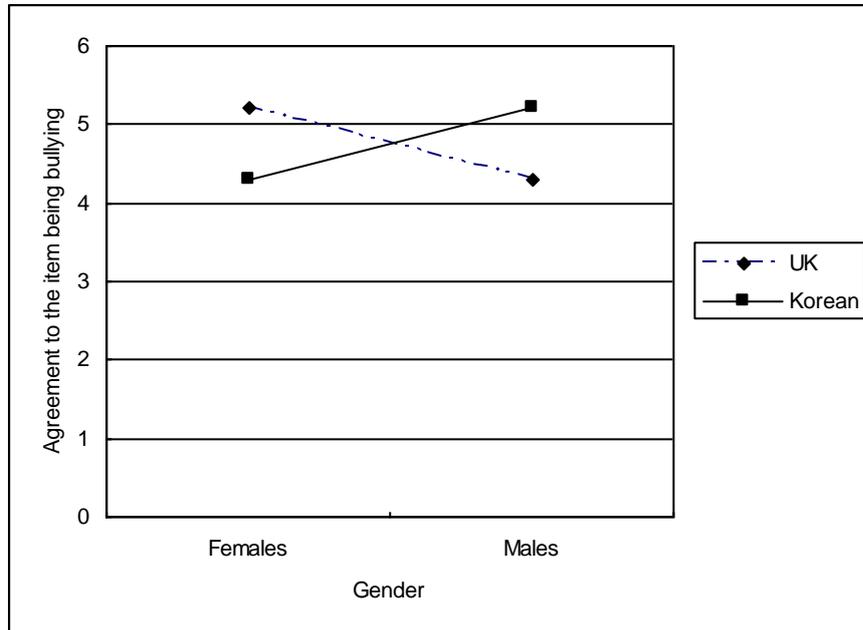


Figure 2. Sarcasm about work

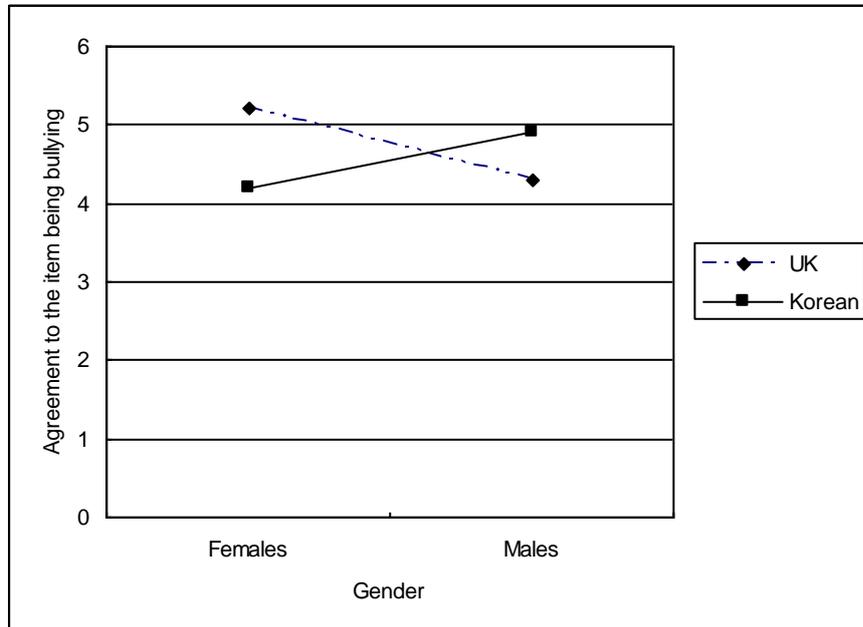


Figure 3. Excluding/Ignoring

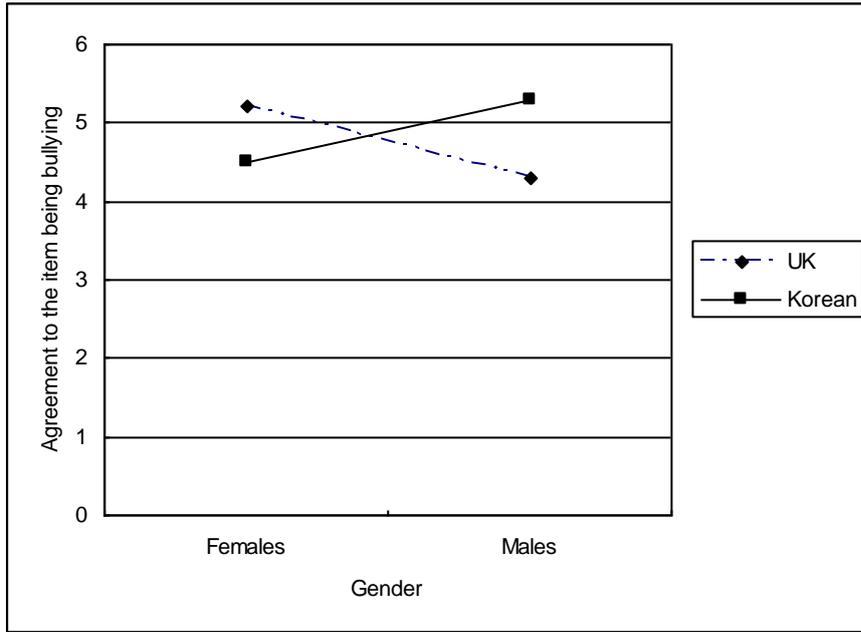


Figure 4. Not sharing necessary information

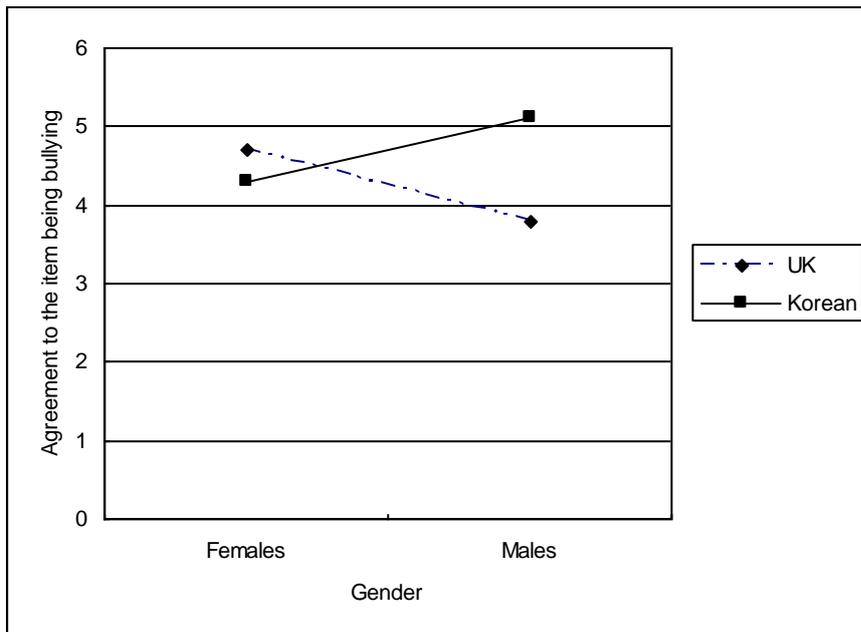


Figure 5. Sarcasm about the person

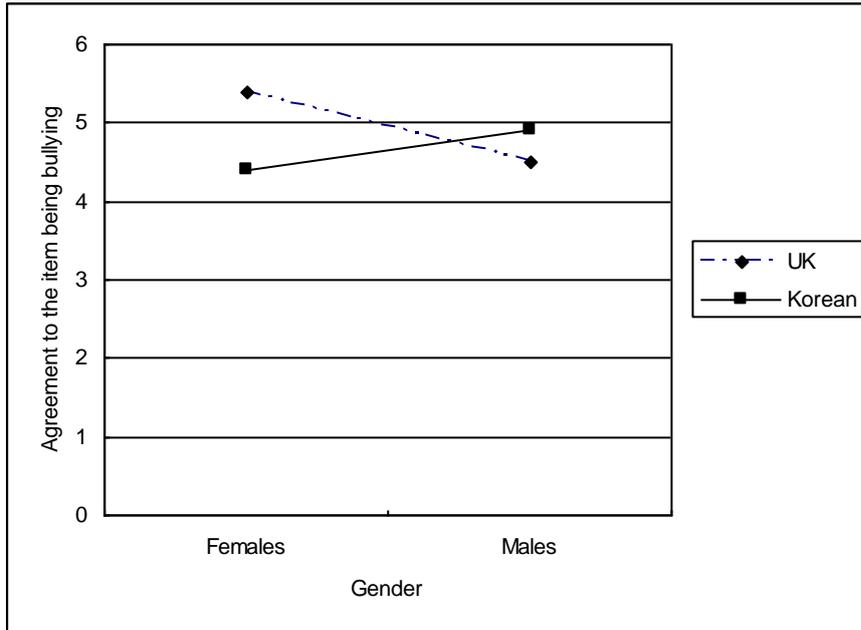
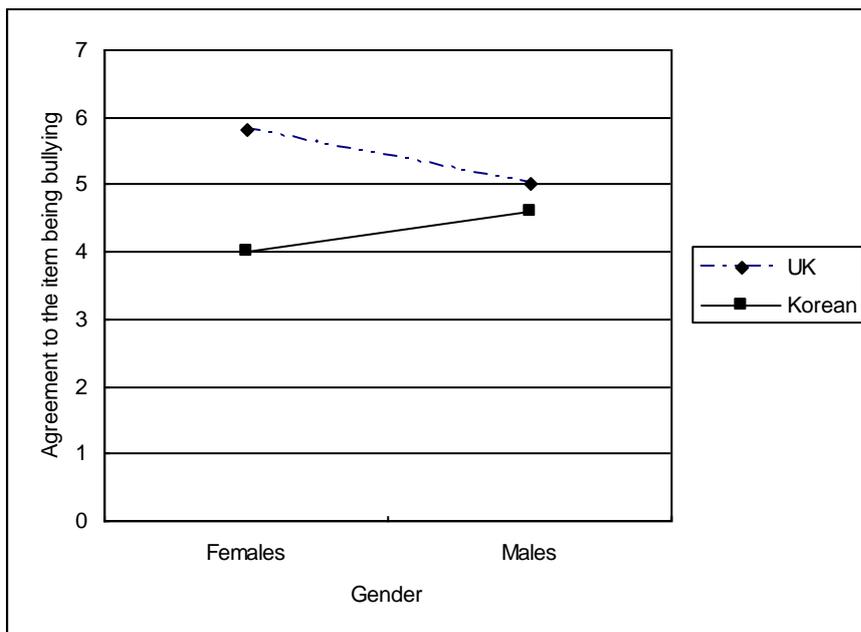
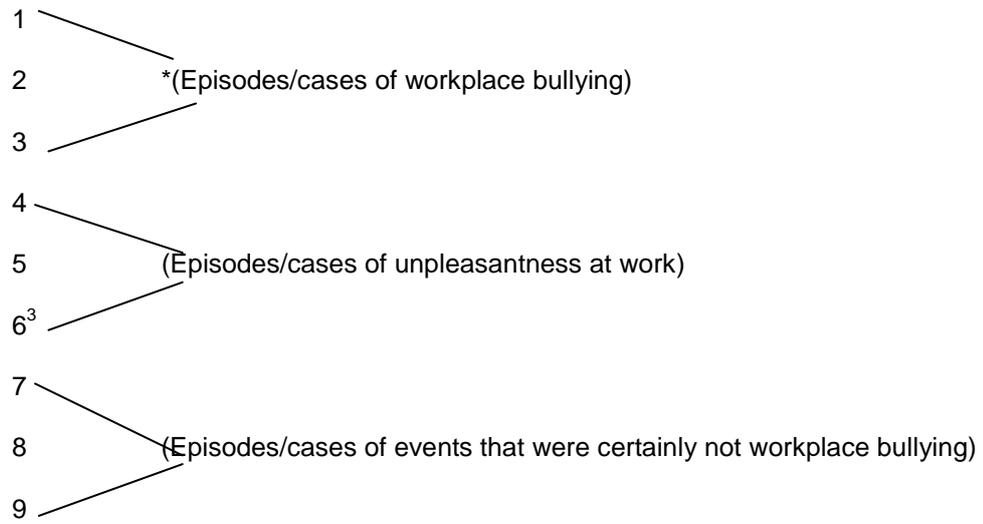


Figure 6. Face to face verbal abuse



Appendix D. Repertory Grid Format



Sort	Reason
1 6 7	
1 4 9	
1 5 8	
2 4 7	
2 5 9	
2 6 8	
3 4 8	
3 5 7	
3 6 9	

³ Words in brackets and the lines did not appear on the sheet given to the participants

Appendix E. Bullying or Not Questionnaire

Bullying or Not

My name is Yoojeong Nadine Seo. I am reading PhD Applied Psychology in University of Nottingham. As part of my research, I am investigating what kind of behaviours are considered to be bullying by British workers. To help with this project, I would be grateful if you would complete this questionnaire. The answers you give will be treated in total confidence. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, so please answer the items as honestly as you can. If you have any queries, please feel free to contact me by e-mail xxxxx@xxxxxxxxx.xx.xx.

Thank you very much for your participation.

Section 1: Background Details

1. Which year were you born?
2. Your gender is: Male / Female
3. What is your occupation?

Section 2: Your Opinion

Bullying can be defined as 'a situation where individual(s) persistently over a period of time perceive themselves to be on the receiving end of negative actions from person(s), 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.

Based on the given definition, please indicate whether you think the following behaviours are bullying or something that just produce negative feelings.

	Behaviours	Yes, bullying	No, not Bullying
1	Being repeatedly forced to work extended hours		
2	Being put under pressure to smoke when with work colleagues		
3	Not being allowed any involvement in important meetings and decisions		
4	Not receiving any praise or an acknowledgement for what you do		
5	Being forced to attend unnecessary training programmes		
6	Not being given the opportunity to defend yourself if/when facing disciplinary action		
7	Getting repeated and unwanted phone calls at home from people at work		
8	Where the work you are given to do is different from that you are contracted to do (e.g. more difficult and unpleasant job)		
9	Having negative rumours spread about you when you are looking to move to another organisation in the same sector		
10	Having your property taken without permission		
11	Having your achievements stolen by someone else who claims your achievement as theirs		
12	Being put under pressure to drink alcohol when socialising with work colleagues		
13	Being sneered at or criticised for 'not being good enough'		
14	Being forced to move/relocate to a different worksite		
15	Having events cancelled at short-notice irrespective of the amount of work you have put into them		
16	Being pressured to pay for everyone at social gatherings		
17	Having other people "dump" work on you		
18	Being pressured to attend social gatherings even when you don't want to go		
19	People being unfairly promoted above you		
20	Being forced to deal with a boss's personal matters		
21	Being given the unpleasant jobs to do (i.e. the tasks nobody else wants)		
22	Having your free time curtailed (e.g. being forced to take short lunch breaks or even work through breaks)		
23	Being told abruptly what to do rather than asked		

OCCUPATIONAL STRESS SURVEY

My name is Yoojeong Nadine Seo. I am currently undertaking my PhD in Applied Psychology at University of Nottingham. As part of my degree, I am investigating peoples' experiences of work, particularly any factors related to workplace stress. To help with this project, I would be grateful if you would complete this questionnaire. The answers you give will be treated in total confidence. The identity of the respondents will also be kept in strict confidence. You will remain anonymous at all times. No information from individual questionnaires will be revealed.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers, so please answer the items as honestly as you can. You have the right to withdraw at any moment. I would like to ask you to take care not to miss out any questions. If you have any queries or are upset by any part of the questionnaires, please contact me by e-mail lwys1@nottingham.ac.uk or phone **** * ** *.

Thank you for helping with this project.

Section 1: Background Details

1. Which year were you born?
2. Your gender is: Male / Female
3. What is your occupation?
4. Your job is: full-time/part-time (delete as appropriate)
5. On average, how many hours per week do you work?

Section 2: Your Experience

The following behaviours are often seen as examples of negative behaviour in the workplace. How often have you been subjected to the following acts at work? Please tick the box that best corresponds with your experience.

Items of behaviour at work	Never	Now & then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
6	Being repeatedly forced to work extended hours				
7	Being put under pressure to smoke when with work colleagues				
8	Not being allowed any involvement in important meetings and decisions				
9	Not receiving any praise or an acknowledgement for what you do				
10	Being forced to attend unnecessary training programmes				
11	Not being given the opportunity to defend yourself if/when facing disciplinary action				
12	Getting repeated and unwanted phone calls at home from people at work				
13	Where the work you are given to do is different from that you are contracted to do (e.g. more difficult and unpleasant job)				
14	Having negative rumours spread about you when you are looking to move to another organisation in the same sector				
15	Having your property taken without permission				
16	Having your achievements stolen by someone else who claims your achievement as theirs				
17	Being put under pressure to drink alcohol when socialising with work colleagues				
18	Being sneered at or criticised for 'not being good enough'				
19	Being forced to move/relocate to a different worksite				
20	Having events cancelled at short-notice irrespective of the amount of work you have put into them				
21	Being pressured to pay for everyone at social gatherings				
22	Having other people "dump" their work on you				
23	Being pressured to attend social gatherings even when you don't want to go				
24	People being unfairly promoted above you				
25	Being forced to deal with a boss's personal matters				
26	Being given the unpleasant jobs to do (i.e. the tasks nobody else wants)				
27	Having your free time curtailed (e.g. being forced to take short lunch breaks or even work through breaks)				
28	Being told abruptly what to do rather than asked				
29	Someone withholding information which affects your performance				
30	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work				
31	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence				
32	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks				
33	Spreading of gossip and rumours about you				
34	Being ignored, excluded or being 'sent to Coventry'				
35	Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life				
36	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)				
37	Intimidating behaviour such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way				
38	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job				
39	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes				
40	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach				
41	Persistent criticism of your work and effort				
42	Having your opinions and views ignored				
43	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with				
44	Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines				
45	Having allegations made against you				
46	Excessive monitoring of your work				

47	Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)						
48	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm						
49	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload						
50	Threats of violence or physical abuse						

51. If you have experienced any of the negative behaviours listed above, please indicate who the major perpetrator is (You may tick more than one category if you cannot choose one answer).

- Subordinate/Subordinates Supervisor/line manager Other Manager
 Colleague/Colleagues Clients, customers, students, service recipients

52. How many people did the above negative behaviours to you? (If you have ticked more than one category in question 68, please give the number for each of the categories. i.e. If you have ticked colleague and supervisor Colleague - Supervisor -)

53. 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 at question 58) Yes, but only rarely Yes, now and then
 Yes, several times per week Yes, almost daily

54. When did the bullying start?

- Within the last 6 months Between 6 and 12 months ago
 Between 1 and 2 years ago More than 2 years ago

55. Who bullied you? (You may tick more than one category).

- Subordinate/Subordinates Supervisor/line manager Other Manger
 Colleague/Colleagues Clients, customers, students, service recipients

56. How many were bullied?

- Only you You and several other work-colleagues Everyone in your work group

57. Have you observed or witnessed bullying taking place at your workplace over the last 6 months?

- No, never Yes, but rarely Yes, now & then Yes, often

58. During your school days, were you ever:

- a bully only a victim only a bully as well as a victim
 an observer only None of these

59. While you are employed, have you ever been:

- a bully only a victim only a bully as well as a victim
 an observer only None of these

The following set of items deals with various aspects of your job Use the scale below to indicate how satisfied you are with your job. Give your first and natural answer by working quickly but be accurate.

Aspects of your work	Extremely Dissatisfied					Extremely Satisfied	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60	The physical working conditions (e.g. temperature, noise...)						
61	The freedom to choose your own methods of working						
62	Your colleagues and fellow workers						
63	The recognition you get for good work						
64	The amount of responsibility you are given						
65	Your rate of pay						
66	Your opportunities to use your abilities						
67	Your hours of work						
68	The amount of variety in your job						
69	Taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job?						

The following deals with whether or not you experience conflict over your roles. Please choose the answer that best corresponds with your experience at work.

Experiences		Very False				Very True		
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70	I have to work on things that should be done differently.							
71	I work on unnecessary things.							
72	I seldom receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.							
73	I work with several groups that operate quite similarly.							
74	I receive assignments without adequate resources and materials to complete them.							
75	I usually do not have to "buck a rule" or policy in order to carry out an assignment.							
76	I seldom receive incompatible requests from two or more people.							
77	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person but not accepted by others.							

The following deals with whether or not you are experiencing conflict with your supervisor or co-workers. Please indicate your answer that best describes your current situation.

To what degree are you nowadays in the following situations?	Not in conflict	To a small degree	To some degree	To a high degree
79	Task-related conflicts with your supervisor?			
80	Task-related conflicts with your co-workers			
81	Person-related conflicts with you supervisor			
82	Person-related conflicts with you co-workers			

Please indicate your answer with respect to how strongly you agree/disagree to the following statements.

Statements	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
83	I am worried about having to leave my job before I would like to.				
84	I feel uneasy about losing my job in the near future.				
85	There is a risk that I will have to leave my present job in the year to come.				

Please choose the answer that best corresponds with your experience at work.

	Never	Some-times	Quite often	Very often/nearly always
86	Do you have to work very fast?			
87	Do you have to work extra hard to accomplish your tasks?			
88	Do you work under time constraints?			
89	Do you have to hurry your work?			
90	Can you freely decide how to perform your tasks?			
91	Can you take part in decisions affecting your work?			
92	Can you decide on your own the order in which you carry out your work?			
93	Do you have an influence on the pace of work?			
94	Do you have an influence on what is taking place at work?			
95	Do you have an influence on how work is divided between you and your colleagues?			

Please choose the answer that best corresponds with your physical and psychological condition.

	Question	Always / To a very high degree	Often / To a high degree	Sometimes / somewhat	Seldom / To a low degree	Never / To a very low degree
96	Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?					
97	Are you exhausted in the morning at the thought of another day at work?					
98	Do you feel that every working hour is tiring for you?					
99	Do you have enough energy for family and friends during leisure time?					
100	Is your work emotionally exhausting?					
101	Does your work frustrate you?					
102	Do you feel burnt out because of your work?					

The following deals with your immediate supervisor's behaviour towards you or your colleagues. Please indicate the answer that best corresponds to the behaviour of your immediate supervisor.

Your immediate supervisor ...	Never	Sometimes	Quite often	Very often/ nearly always
103 encourages thinking along new lines				
104 gives recognition for good work				
105 pushes for growth and improvement				
106 sets clear goals for the work				
107 defines and explains work requirements clearly to you				
108 is flexible and ready to rethink his/her point of view				
109 administers organisational policies unfairly				
110 uses authority or position for personal gains				
111 looks out for the personal welfare of the group members				
112 is friendly and approachable				
113 forces acceptance of his or her point of view				
114 will not take no for an answer				
115 is often displeased with your work with no apparent reason				
116 frequently reprimands you without letting you know why				

The following deals with your behaviour or attitude when facing work or other people. For each question, please indicate the answer that best corresponds to your behaviour or attitudes.

Questions	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
117 Do you express your anger?					
118 Do you argue with others?					
119 Would people who know you well agree that you tend to get irritated easily?					
120 Would people who know you well agree that you tend to do most things in a hurry?					
121 Do you consider yourself to be hard-driving and competitive?					
122 Would people who know you well agree that you take your work too seriously?					
123 Do you feel infuriated when you do a good job and get a poor evaluation?					
124 Do you get angry when slowed down by other's mistakes?					
125 Do you feel that, to be a real success, you have to do better than everyone you come up against?					
126 Is it important for you to perform better than others on a task?					

127. Do you have any comments to make? (e.g. the particular reasons for your stress, if there are any.) Feel free to leave it blank if you have no comment to make.

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire.

This study aimed at looking at the relationship between work stress and negative behaviours at work. The initial expectation was that work stress factors (work demand, role conflict...) would increase the prevalence of negative behaviours at work among workers and the increased negative behaviours would lead to poorer health of workers.

Based on the idea that person factors might moderate stress response, a set of questionnaire that asks for a person's dispositional tendency was also included. This study, as mentioned at the beginning of the questionnaire, is part of my PhD degree and will be included in my thesis. Again, I assure you that you, as an individual, remain completely anonymous. There are a fair number of other organisations that are also taking part in the study. The individual data gathered will not be revealed to anyone.

Your help is greatly appreciated. If any part of the questionnaire upset you in any way, or you have any further queries about the study, please feel free to contact me (Nadine) by phone **** * ** or email (lwys1@nottingham.ac.uk).