THE EFFECT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ATTRIBUTION PROCESSES ON
COPING STYLE OF VICTIMS OF
MOBBING

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ATTRIBUTION PROCESSES ON COPING STYLE OF VICTIMS OF MOBBING

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The aim of the present study was to investigate factors that determine the coping styles used by victims of mobbing. The variables used were locus of control and attribution style, which was further differentiated as attributing the reason of mobbing to the self, perpetrator, or organization. The outcome variable was coping strategies classified as problem focused and emotion focused coping style. Hundred and sixty victims of mobbing participated in the study. The results showed that locus of control of victims of mobbing had a main effect on coping style used. That is, individuals with an internal locus of control were more likely to use a problem focused coping style. Attribution to the self, perpetrator or organization failed to predict the coping style used by the victims. The findings are discussed together with the strength and limitations of the study, and some suggestions for future research are made.

Keywords: Mobbing, Coping style, Locus of control, Attribution

ÖZ

KONTROL ODAĞI VE ATIF SÜRECİNİN MOBING MAĞDURLARININ BAŞ ETME STRATEJİLERİ ÜZERİNE ETKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının kullandıkları baş etme stratejilerini etkileyen faktörleri araştırmaktır. Çalışmanın değişkenleri kontrol odağı, ve mağdurun psikolojk taciz nedenini kendisine, psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısna veya organizasyona atfetmesi olarak atıf şeklidir. Çalışmanın bağımlı değişkeni, baş etme stratejileridir (problem odaklı ve duygusal odaklı baş etme stratejileri). Çalışmaya 160 psikolojik taciz mağduru katılmıştır.

Analiz sonuçlarına göre kontrol odağının, psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının kullandıkları baş etme stratejisi üzerinde bir etkisi bulunmuştur. Buna göre, iç kontrol odağı sahibi olan kişiler problem odaklı baş etme stratejisini daha fazla kullanırlar. Psikolojk taciz nedenini kişinin kendisine, psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısna veya organizasyona atfetmesi mağdur tarafından kullanılan baş etme stratejisini yordamamıştır. Bulgular çalışmanın güçlü ve zayıf yönleriyle beraber tartışılmış ve gelecek çalışmalar için tavsiyeler verilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Psikolojik taciz, Baş etme stratejileri, Kontrol odağı, Atıf

To My Dear Husband…

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Osman is a young professional, an engineer, in a private company in Turkey. He has been subjected to psychological harassment for a long time by his manager. He was forced to resign but he refused. To solve this problem, he once asked for unpaid leave; however, his request was denied. Currently he is experiencing a nervous breakdown and is thinking about quitting his job. But things are not that easy as he has a family, especially a son, to support.

Mobbing is a set of behaviours usually directed by one or more people toward a person and applied in a systematic fashion and long-time manner, making the victim feels defenceless (Tınaz, Gök, & Karatuna, 2010). As a result of prolonged exposure to such behaviors, serious negative consequences for both the victim and the organization are likely to occur. Among these are health problems in the victim, turnover/quitting the job, bad reputation of organization, and even suicidal attempts of the victim (Tınaz, 2011). Although, mobbing has increasingly drawn attention from both researchers and practitioners (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003), to be able to assume a proactive approach, more studies need to be conducted.

Parallel with this view, the present study aims to contribute to the existing literature on mobbing. Although the literature has deeply contributed to our understanding of mobbing behaviors, there is a definite need for further research, especially to

understand the role of individual differences. The paucity of research on coping strategies following victimization is one of the obvious gaps in the reviewed literature. Mobbing is not easy, not fair and not fast. To survive mobbing, victims need to deal with it in healthier ways. That is they need to adapt healthier, functional coping strategies. Coping is defined as thoughts and behaviors that are used by people to manage the demands of stressful situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Since the chosen coping strategy might produce improvements for the person (Aquino & Thau, 2009), it would be helpful to know the coping strategy victims are using in case of exposure to mobbing. According to Conor-Smith & Flachsbart (2007), personality is a critical determinant of how victims act in response to mobbing. Past studies have paid almost no attention to locus of control of victims as well as how victims make attributions regarding the cause of mobbing. It is important to understand individuals' explanations for causes of mobbing since such beliefs influence their responses (Martinko, Harvey, & Dasborough, 2010). Accordingly, both the locus of control of the victims and how victims make attributions regarding the mobbing that they have been exposed to seem to be critical in understanding the coping strategies adapted by the victims. Hence, the main aim of this study was to contribute to the existing literature by investigating the effects of two individual differences variables (i.e., locus of control and attributions) on coping strategies used by mobbing victims.

Conor-Smith and Flachsbart (2007) mentioned that studies related to personality and coping indicate that personality is a factor that may directly facilitate coping. However, there is a need for further understanding of how personality or dispositional variables influence coping behaviours. Meta-analytic studies link optimism, extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to more engagement coping; neuroticism to more disengagement coping; and optimism, conscientiousness, and agreeableness to less disengagement coping (Carver &

Conor-Smith, 2010). Attention to dispositional factors other than the Big Five is needed. Assessment of specific personality facets should provide a more complete picture of how personality relates to coping. To exemplify, the literature does not provide clear guidelines in terms of the effect of locus of control on coping style. Locus of control is a concept that refers to the belief of oneself in his/her ability to control his/her environment (Bono & Judge, 2003) and it has been classified as external and internal locus of control (Rotter, 1966) There are some findings stating that internals are more prone to take actions in case of facing stressful situations (Maltby, Day, & Macaskill, 2007), however such studies are limited. Regarding this view, it would be valuable to pay attention to locus of control as a predictor of coping strategies. Since the present study was conducted on victims of mobbing, investigating this relationship was expected to provide more detailed information concerning the coping styles of victims of mobbing.

Furthermore, people have an innate desire to understand the causes of important events in their lives. Attributions, defined as individuals' beliefs about the causes of such events, influence emotions and behaviors (Martinko, Harvey, & Dasborough, 2010). Bowling and Beehr (2006) indicated that there are at least three categories of causes to explain workplace harassment. In their meta-analysis, these categories are stated as characteristics of work environment, the perpetrator, and the victim. Although their model introduced attribution processes as an important explanatory variable, future research on this variable was recommended. Based on this suggestion, the effects of three types of causal attributions that are toward the self, perpetrator or organization were also examined in the present study regarding victims' use of problem focused coping strategies or emotional focused coping strategies.

Examination of these two variables in predicting coping strategies of mobbing victims is believed to further our understanding of individual differences in the phenomenon of workplace mobbing.

In the following sections, first the existing literature related to mobbing is presented. Next, the relevant literature concerning coping styles, locus of control, and attributions as they relate to mobbing is briefly reviewed. In the last section of this chapter hypotheses of the study are introduced.

1.2 Mobbing

As mentioned previously, the phenomenon of workplace mobbing has received an increased research attention in the literature. The following is a summary of the current literature. It begins with a description of mobbing. After examining the typology and phases of mobbing, studies on the prevalence of mobbing are summarized. Then, the literature on the antecedents and consequences of mobbing are presented.

1.2.1 Mobbing as a form of workplace victimization

Workplace victimization is aggressive behaviors shown by one or more members of an organization toward the intended target. Such aggressive behaviors result in psychological, emotional or physical harm to the target (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Mobbing is stated as an important problem that contemporary organizations face (Hershvovis et al., 2007). Although workplace victimization is a long-standing topic, it is one of the topics that has been hesitated to speak about (Kırel, 2008). Research on workplace victimization appears in the literature under a wide range of terms (Aquino & Thau, 2009). In alphabetical order these terms could be presented as follows (Crawshaw, 2009):

"abuse, harassment, hostile workplace behavior, maltreatment, mistreatment, mobbing, nonphysical aggression, nonsexual harassment, non–status-based harassment, psychological abuse, psychological aggression, psychological harassment, psychological terror, scapegoating, status-blind bullying, status-conscious bullying, unlawful bullying, vexatious behavior, workplace abuse, workplace aggression, workplace harassment, workplace hostility, workplace incivility, workplace psychological violence" (p. 264).

The common point of the different labels specified above is stated as aversive behavior and destructiveness to the intended target (Aquino & Thau, 2009). However, there are still different definitions for all of these terms. For instance, Aquino and Lamertz (2004) defined workplace harassment as "Interpersonal behavior aimed at intentionally harming another employee in the workplace" (p. 1023). On the other hand, workplace aggression is conceptualized as follows: "... efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are currently or were previously employed. This harm-doing is intentional and includes psychological as well as physical injury" (Neuman & Baron, 1997, p. 38). Workplace incivility has been described as indistinct deviating behavior shown to the target in order to harm him/her (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Another label which refers to workplace victimization is mobbing. Originally, the root of the term 'mobbing' was ground on 'mob' meaning illegal violence applied by a crowd. The verb state of mob, which is mobbing, was first used by Konrad Lorenz in 1960s. He used it in order to specify animals' reactions against their adversaries (Filizöz & Ay, 2011). In the 1980s Dr. Heinz Leymann started to use the term mobbing to identify compulsionary, violent and deterrent behaviors in workplace.

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According to Leymann (1990), mobbing or psychological terror is the hostile and unethical communication style in work life. In order to specify activities as mobbing, it should be directed systematically, on a very frequent basis and over a long period of time toward one individual who becomes helpless and defenceless due to continuing mobbing activities. The frequency of the occurrence of the actions is statistically defined as at least once a week. Besides, the longevity of the occurrence of actions is statistically defined as at least six months' duration (Leymann, 1990).

1.2.2 Leymann's typology of mobbing

It is essential to explain the typology of mobbing behaviors for better understanding of behaviors that cause mobbing. Leymann (1992) differentiated five different forms of these behaviors: impact on self-expression and the way communication happens, attacks on one's social relations, attacks on one's reputation, attacks on quality of one's professional and life situation, direct attacks on one's health. Leymann observed forty-five specific behaviors that fall into these groups (as cited in Davenport, Schwartz & Elliot, 2002). These behaviors are specified in Table 1.

Table 1.

Leymann's Typology of Mobbing

Group	Behaviors
Impact on self expression and the way communication happens	Person's opportunity to express or realize him/herself is limited by his/her superiors.
	Person's speaking is always interrupted.
	Person's coworkers limit his/her possibilities to express or realize him/herself.
	Person is shouted or scolded loudly.
	The work of person is always criticized.
	Person is disturbed by telephone.
	Person gets verbal threats.
	The relation of person is rejected via signs and glances.

Table 1.

Leymann's Typology of Mobbing (cont'd)

Group	Behaviors
Attacks on one's social relations	People around the person do not communicate with him/her.
	Person cannot talk to anyone and person's access to others is denied.
	Person is given a workplace that is isolated from others.
	Colleagues are forbidden to talk with the person.
	Person is treated as he/she is not there.
Attacks on one's reputation	People talk badly behind the person.
	False rumours and gossips about the person are around.
	Person is ridiculed.
	Person is behaved as if he/she is mentally ill.
	Person is forced to have a psychological assessment.
	A handicap of person is ridiculed.
	Person's walk, gestures and voice are imitated in order to make fun of him/her.
	Person's political or religious ideas are derided.
	Person's private life is derided.
	Person's nationality is derided.
Attacks on quality of one's professional and life situation	Person is forced to do a work that affects his/her self-confidence negatively.
	Person's effort is judged in a wrong and derogative way.
	Person's decisions are always questioned.
	Person is remembered with humiliating names.
	There are sexual implications.
	Person is given negative tasks that can affect his/her self-esteem.
	Person is given tasks beyond his/her ability to discredit him/her.
	Person is encountered with general damages via financial costs.
	Person's home or office is damaged.
Direct attacks on one's health	Person is forced to do a physically strenuous job.
	Threats of physical violence are made.
	Light violence is used to threaten the person.
	Person is physically damaged.
	Person is directly sexually abused.

Source: Ç. Kırel, 2008

1.2.3 Phases of mobbing

As it is stated before, in order to identify a behavior as mobbing, it should be carried on at least six months in a systematic and continuous fashion. Thus, mobbing is a process of abusive behaviors that the target encounters over time. Although it generally begins with minor acts of aggression, in time it turns into a major action (Reichert, n.d.). Leymann (1990) distinguished this process into five phases:

Phase 1: The original critical incident. It is obvious that somebody does not walk into a situation involving mobbing. There has got to be something triggering it. That is mostly an unresolved conflict. The first phase of mobbing is a conflict phase that starts via a critical incident. However, there is not much information about what details transform a conflict into a mobbing situation related to this critical incident or any triggering situations in work life. The first mobbing phase may be very short.

Phase 2: Mobbing and stigmatizing. The second phase involves aggressive attacks and hostile communications causing damages in the target. Thus, mobbers behave with the desire to punish the person. Attitudes of hostility which are described in Leymann's typology of mobbing are observed in this phase.

Phase 3: Personnel administration. In the third phase, management becomes involved and the situation turns officially into a "case." This involvement may increase target's stress and health injuries from the continued mobbing. Target may be faced up with serious violations of justice. Management may misjudge the situation if they take over the prejudices of mobbers. As a result, instead of being supportive of the target/victim, management begins to isolate the target and this turns the target into a marked individual.

Phase 4: Incorrect diagnoses. The target is branded as difficult, combative or mentally ill.

Phase 5: Expulsion. In the fifth and final phase, the target ends up with negative results like long-term sick leave, employment without any real work, psychiatric treatment, or leaving the organization.

1.2.4 Prevalence of mobbing

Workplace mobbing is a steadily increasing issue in the North America and worldwide. This is proved both by the research done by International Labor Office (ILO) and media. In the research of ILO it is stated that the level of mobbing turned into an epidemic degree (as cited in Chappell & Di Martino, 2006).

Examining the suicide prevalence rates, Leymann (1990) found that10% to 15% of suicides in Sweden over the last 20 years were somewhat related to mobbing. In his research, he also stated that over 50% of Swedish Salaried Staff and Civil Service Staff Union members who resigned with no jobs to go to did so because they could not tolerate to such behaviors anymore. Also, he pointed out the research results in Norway, which indicates that 1% of employees, that is a total number of 20000, experienced workplace victimization or mobbing. According to Leymann, this figure was equal to about 50000 in Sweden and about one million in the United States (1990).

Looking at more recent prevalence rates of mobbing, Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2003) reported that 5–30% of the employees in Europe were subjected to mobbing in workplace. Moreover, in an online study using a convenient sample, the prevalence rate of mobbing was found to be 28% in 403 adults in the United States (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007). On the other hand, in a study conducted with a representative sample consisting of 7740 adults in the United States, the prevalence rate of being mobbed was found to be 37% (Workplace Bullying Institute & Zogby International, 2007 as cited in Sperry, 2009).

In Turkey, the incidence of mobbing is indicated to be between 25-90%. Furthermore, the highest risky jobs for mobbing were suggested to be medicine,

finance, and insurance employees, sales personnel and technical personnel (Gül, 2009). In studies on nurses in Turkey, the prevalence of being victimized by mobbing was reported to be 70%, 84%, and 17% (Khorsid & Akın, 2006). Besides, Gün, the President of Mobbing Victims Association stated that 52.000 victims contacted the association in the last three years (Habertürk, 2013).

1.2.5 Antecedents of mobbing

At work there could be times when workers have arguments, get nervous etc. However, all of such cases could not be seen as mobbing activities. As explained before, to qualify as mobbing, it should be systematic and continuing (Leymann, 1990). When mobbing is observed in workplace, it could lead to different negative results (Tınaz, 2008). In order to prevent mobbing activities and their negative consequences, it is important to state factors that give rise to those activities. In the literature, there are different causes identified by researchers. Among these are victim characteristics, perpetrator characteristics, and situational factors. The present study aims to understand two critical victim characteristics as they relate to coping with mobbing. However, in the following parts of this section brief review of the literature on the perpetrator characteristics and situational factors playing a role in workplace victimization is summarized.

Concerning perpetrator characteristics, in the Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2003) study perpetrators were found to be high on aggressiveness, low on social competence and high on anxiety. Further, it was mentioned that perpetrators show narcissistic and egocentric features (Namie, 2003). Perpetrator characteristics also show differences in terms of demographics. According to Herschovis et al. (2007), one of these individual differences between people who mob and who do not was sex, which is men are more aggressive than women. Similarly, both in studies of

Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2003) and Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2009), it was revealed that males were more prone to be perpetrators than women. Besides, people, who are supervisors or managers, show more mobbing behaviors when compared with subordinates (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001).

A relationship between being exposed to mobbing and being engaged in mobbing behavior was also proposed. According to Aquino and Thau (2009), being a perpetrator is a consequence of being exposed to bullying. Similarly, Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen (2009) explained that people who were mobbed occasionally and on a weekly basis were more likely to become perpetrators when compared with people not exposed to bullying.

Other than these, researchers defined different profiles of perpetrators. Tınaz, a researcher who introduced the concept of mobbing in Turkey, explained these profiles in her book (2008). The most frequently encountered perpetrator profiles are explained in Appendix G.

Research on mobbing has also showed how situational factors might affect the occurrence of such behaviors (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Actually, Leymann (1996) argued that if the right situations are presented, everyone could be mobbed. Thus, he underlined the association between organizational antecedents and mobbing. Similarly, Bowling and Beehr (2006) argued that victims of mobbing may directly attribute the cause of mobbing to organizations. In line with these, many studies have been conducted to identify situational factors effecting mobbing. Hoel and Salin (2003) classified those under five different subthemes. According to them, factor groups affecting mobbing are job design and work organization, organizational cultures and climate, leadership, reward systems, organizational change.

1.2.5.1 Victim characteristics

There is a belief that particular characteristics of an individual may predispose him/her to being a mobbing victim (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000). Some people may be perceived as vulnerable or deserving mistreatment (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). On the other hand, Leymann (1990) argued that the personality differences between victims and non-victims of mobbing occur after the exposure to mobbing. Besides, studies in general indicated that there are no discriminative features of targets, that is all employees could be exposed to mobbing. For instance, the study of Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2007) indicated that most of victims of mobbing are similar with non-victims in terms of personality. So, no general victim personality has been defined. There are also other studies investigating personality characteristics, communication problems, or performance related concerns of victims of mobbing. However, results of these studies are inconclusive as well (Gül, 2009).

However, there are some studies suggesting existence of attributes distinguishing victims from non-victims. Negative affectivity is one such attributes. Negative affectivity is defined as an individual difference variable in experiencing negative and distressing emotionality like hostility, fear and anger (Watson & Clark, 1984). Since people who are high in negative affectivity will react to negative events stronger than people who are low in negative affectivity, any comment by a colleague may be perceived as threatening by such people (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009). According to the perceptions of victimized individuals, people high in negative affectivity indicated themselves as frequent targets of indirect aggression than people who were low in negative affectivity (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000).

Similarly, high neuroticism was found to be in relation with being a victim (Coyne, Seigne & Randall, 2000). The research conducted in Norway (Einarsen, Raknes, &

Matthiesen, 1994) and findings of Milam, Spitzmueller and Penney (2009) supported this idea too. Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen and Einarsen (2007) demonstrated that victims are prone to be more neurotic than non-victims. As in people who are high in negative affectivity, because of the general negative evaluation of neurotic individuals, they may feel like being victimized after events that may seem innocuous to others. Aquino and Bradfield (2000) reported that employees who were highly aggressive perceived themselves as being victimized more than those who were less aggressive. On the other side, a study by Lind, Glaso, Pallesen, and Einarsen (2009) failed to support the effect of neuroticism on being a target. In their study no significant differences were found between the targets and non-targets in terms of neuroticism.

There are different explanations in terms of agreeableness which is associated with being forgiving, good-tempered, cooperative, and unsuspicious (McCrae & Costa, 1987). Results of the study of Milam, Spitzmueller, and Penney (2009) showed that low agreeable individuals experienced more incivility when compared with high agreeable individuals. The authors stated that, since low agreeable people were suspicious and sceptical, they might have perceived any kind of action as workplace incivility even if it was not (Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009). Likewise, in another study low score on agreeableness predicted the status of individuals as targets of workplace bullying (Lind, Glaso, Pallesen & Einarsen, 2009). It is also stated by Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2007) that victims are less agreeable.

Concerning conscientiousness of victims, the results are mixed. While Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall (2003) found no significant difference between the conscientiousness levels of victims and non-victims, Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2007) found the reverse. According to the study of Lind, Glaso,

Pallesen, and Einarsen (2009), high scores on conscientiousness suggested the standing as a victim of bullying. In the same way Coyne, Seigne, and Randall (2000) indicated that victims tended to be more conscientious than non-victims.

Considering the trait extraversion in targets, victimization in workplace was found to be related to low levels of extraversion (Coyne, Seigne & Randall, 2000; Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2007). However, the study of Lind, Glaso, Pallesen, and Einarsen (2009) did not reveal any significant difference between victims' and nonvictims' extraversion levels. Besides, there are some studies yielding different results about less studied variables. One of these studies indicated that victims were less independent and less stable (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000). Zapf and Einarsen (2003) explored that victims were showing symptoms of anxiety and depression even before the onset of mobbing. No significant difference was found on openness dimension (Lind, Glaso, Pallesen & Einarsen, 2009) and with job status of targets and nontargets (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000). In terms of gender, when compared with males, females expressed that they perceived themselves to have been victimized more frequently (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000).

As the above summary indicates, numerous individual differences variables are associated with victimization in mobbing. Yet, research attention has been relatively scarce concerning some other individual differences variables. The present study aims to contribute to this literature by examining locus of control and attribution styles of victims as they relate to coping strategies used in dealing with mobbing.

1.2.6 Consequences of mobbing

Although it is not of primary concern of the present study, it is important to briefly overview the consequences of mobbing as well. Mobbing has negative consequences for both individuals and work organizations.

In their study, Aquino and Thau (2009) have found that being exposed to mobbing is consistently related with negative psychological, emotional and physiological results. People exposed to mobbing are psychologically affected. In their study Herschovis and Barling (2010) found that psychological well-being and job stress were related with mobbing. Similarly, Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994) and Einarsen, Matthiesen, and Skogstad (1998) stated an association between experience of workplace harassment and poorer psychological well-being. According to Barling, Dupre and Kelloway (2009) victims exposed to mobbing showed cognitive distraction and fear. Also the behavior they experienced contributed to the development of a negative mood. When compared to non-victims, victims were found to report higher levels of burnout (Einarsen, Matthiesen & Skogstad, 1998). Samewise, Bowling and Beehr (2006) stated that when the effects of role ambiguity and role conflict were controlled, workplace harassment predicted incremental variance in burnout. Moreover, victims of behaviors such as mobbing, lose their belief in justice. According to Adoric and Kvartuc (2007) when the frequency of such acts gets higher, the belief that the world is unjust gets stronger too.

There are negative physiological results for victims as well. Different researchers demonstrated that mobbing is in association with health outcomes like anxiety, depression, headache, and musculoskeletal problems (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Davenport et al., 1999; Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003; Keashly, 1998; Leymann, 1990; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back (1994) stated mobbing as an antecedent of posttraumatic stress disorder. Also they demonstrated that victims of mobbing showed higher levels of anxiety and depression. Further, Hauge, Skogstad, and Einarsen, (2010) demonstrated that the strongest predictor of anxiety and depression was workplace mobbing when compared with other job stressors. Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) noticed that victims of mobbing reported more mental fatigue, psychological stress and

psychosomatic symptoms than nonvictims. Einarsen and Mikkelsen (2003) showed that there was an association between mobbing and sleep disturbances.

According to Einarsen and Raknes (1997), mobbing resulted in lower levels of job satisfaction. In their study Herschovis and Barling (2010) found that not only job satisfaction, but also coworker and supervisor satisfaction were affected negatively from mobbing. Also, they stated that affective commitment, intent to turnover, and work withdrawal were related to mobbing. Moreover, Tepper (2000) indicated that if there is mobbing in an organization, the level of commitment is lower while the level of perceived injustice is higher. Similarly, Bowling and Beehr (2006) found a negative association between job satisfaction, organizational commitment and workplace harassment. Absenteeism, turnover rate and intention to leave are positively related to mobbing experience (Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2009).

Researchers also claim that that absenteeism, turnover and legal actions caused by mobbing are very costly for organizations (Davenport et al., 1999; Namie & Namie, 2000; Tepper, 2000). "Presenteeism" was introduced by Koopman et al. (2002) as a concept defined as decreased productivity and work quality although the employee is physically presented in his/her job. According to a study conducted in United States, in terms of productivity presenteeism costs about 7.5-10 times more than absenteeism (Ferris, 2009). Further, there are studies suggesting significant declines in organizational citizenship behaviors as a result of mobbing (Batancourt & Brown, 1997). Also, organizational retaliation behaviors and aggression tend to increase after mobbing (Greenberg, 1990). Finally, reputation of the organization where mobbing is experienced is likely to be affected negatively (Ferris, 2009).

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As stated above, the present study focuses on the role of individual differences factors in coping with mobbing. Specifically, locus of control and attributions are believed to be critical in dealing or coping with mobbing. As causal explanations are shown to affect emotions and behaviors (Martinko, Harvey, & Dasborough, 2010), causal attributions of victims are expected to influence their coping with workplace victimization. Thus, the present study focuses on how processes of attributions (to the self, perpetrator, or organization) and locus of control affect victims' coping styles.

In the following sections, first the literature on coping styles is presented. Afterwards, the literature on locus of control and attribution are summarized. Then Bowling and Beehr's (2006) model of reciprocity and attribution is explained as it present a sound theoretical framework for the present study. Finally, the hypotheses of the study are presented.

1.3 Coping Style

Mobbing is for sure one of the extreme stressors in workplace requiring victims develop their own way of coping with it (Olafsson & Johannsdottır, 2004). Coping is often defined as an effort to prevent or diminish threat, harm, and loss (Carver & Smith, 2010). Such efforts change based on factors like personality, culture, prior experience, and environment (Kovacs, 2011). For instance, Cozzarelli (1993) indicated in her study that self-efficacy is a strong, proximal predictor of coping. In the study of Gianakos (2002), four personal attributes (i.e. sex, gender role, social desirability, and locus of control) were examined as predictors of coping with stress. In terms of gender, men found to be more likely to use alcohol while women were more likely to use direct action. Gender role, that is masculinity or feminity, predicted control related coping. Furthermore, higher scores of social desirability

predicted direct action coping. Finally, internal locus of control predicted help seeking and positive thinking while externality predicted avoidance.

In a study on police officers Patterson (2000) reported that demographic factors had an effect on coping response. That is, educational attainment level was positively related with the use of emotion focused coping. Also, the rank was found to be related to the use of emotion focused coping. Amirkhan (1998) searched for application of attribution theory in the field of coping and mentioned that attributions affected distress both directly and by influencing the choice of coping strategy.

There are different taxonomies of coping. For instance, Billing and Moss (1981) proposed three different groups of coping styles: (1) active coping which refers to seeing the positive side or consideration of several alternatives; (2) active behavioral coping exemplified with talking with a friend or trying to find out more about the situation, and lastly (3) avoidance. On the other hand, Higgins and Endler (1995) classified coping strategies as task oriented, emotion oriented, and avoidance oriented. The most known stress and coping theory suggests two kind of coping styles (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984): problem focused coping and emotion focused coping. In problem focused coping, the problem is solved via strategies like information gathering and decision making. On the other hand, emotion focused coping refers to regulation of negative emotions (Folkman, 2010). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) classified emotion focused coping strategies into six: disclaiming, escape-avoidance, accepting responsibility or blame, exercising self-control, seeking social support, and positive reappraisal. In the present study problem-focused vs. emotion-focused classification is adapted.

One of the problem focused strategies is stated as retaliatory aggression (Aquino & Thau, 2006). In their study Mitchell and Ambrose (2007) mentioned that in case of

abusive supervision subordinates reported higher ranges of aggressive behavior directed toward superiors. Another problem focused strategy of victims of mobbing is escaping from the situation. It could be in the form of quitting or a transfer request within the organization (Zapf & Gross, 2001), absenteeism (Kivimaki, Elovainio, & Vahtera, 2000), avoiding the perpetrator and ignoring the behavior of perpetrator (Keashley, Trott & MacLean, 1994). Also, people may seek support from their families, friends, colleagues, organizations or from professional services (Aquino & Thau, 2006). Zapf and Gross (2001) compared the effectiveness of different problem focused strategies in response to mobbing and found that only transferring to another job produced significant improvements among the 14 conflict management strategies (e.g., talking with bullies, calling in the supervisor, taking long term sick leave, fighting back).

In terms of emotion-focused coping strategies, using humour is one of the ways to minimize negative consequences of victimization (Aquino & Thau, 2006). In his study, Grandey (2000) identified surface acting and deep acting as emotional coping strategies. Surface acting refers to the modification of behaviors by suppressing or faking expressions, and deep acting refers to change of cognitions as a result of perspective taking or focusing on positive things in order to regulate feelings.

Alcohol consumption is another kind of emotion focused strategy that victims may choose. According to Rospenda (2002), negative anxiety related emotions and physiological effects of mobbing could be lowered by alcohol use. The last emotion focused coping strategy used to get rid of effects of victimization is forgiveness; however, research in this area is quite limited (Aquino & Thau, 2006).

The preference for different coping styles is very much related with individual differences. For example, Maltby, Day, and Macaskill (2007) found that internals are

more prone to take action to change their jobs. Since taking action to change job is kind of a problem focused coping style, internals may be expected to use problem focused coping strategies more than externals. Similarly, Ng, Sorensen and Eby (2006) stated that because internals have proactive tendencies, they are more likely than externals to engage in problem focused coping behaviors. Also, according to Kelley and Michela (1980), attributions of people result in different emotions and behaviors. In the following section the literature on locus of control as a critical variable in dealing with problems is overviewed. Next, the literature over attribution is presented.

1.4 Locus of Control

The concept locus of control was first introduced to the literature by Rotter (1966) and is thought to be an important personality dimension. It refers to the belief of oneself in his/her ability to control his/her environment (Bono & Judge, 2003). Rotter classified locus of control into two as internal locus of control and external locus of control. While people with an internal locus of control believe that they can control their own lives, people with an external locus of control believe that their lives are controlled by outside influences like other people, or fate (Rotter, 1996).

Although the most well-known application area of locus of control theories is health psychology, it is also a widely used variable or concept in the sports psychology, educational psychology, and organizational psychology literatures (Wallston, Wallston, & DeVellis, 1978; Spektor, 1988).

Locus of control seems to have an important role at work. For instance, Judge and Bono (2001) demonstrated the relationship between locus of control and work outcomes, which are job satisfaction and job performance. They specified that, in

terms of the employees' attitudinal and behavioural approach toward their jobs, the distinction between internal and external locus of control is substantial. On the other hand, locus of control is stated as a predictor of individual's well-being (Judge & Bono, 2001). As a result of this idea, Ng, Sorensen, and Eby (2006) related locus of control with work and personal variables that mirror their well-being. The positively related variables are mental well-being, life satisfaction, physical well-being, job satisfaction, affective organizational commitment, hours worked, attendance and the negatively related variable is turnover intentions. Also, there are findings that locus of control is related with job motivation (Ng, Sorensen & Eby, 2006).

Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitopraki, and McNamara (2005) suggested that: "Locus of control is an important antecedent of the quality of relationships that people develop with their managers" (p.145). Samewise, Ng, Sorensen, and Eby (2006) found a positive relationship between internal locus of control and positive social experiences like social support received, social integration, and relationships with supervisors. Moreover, they specified a negative relationship between internal locus of control and negative task experiences including work role problems, work-family conflict, job stress and burnout.

Similar to the study of Ng, Sorensen, and Eby (2006), Wang, Bowling, and Eschleman (2010) found a relationship between locus of control and some job related variables like job attitudes, employee well-being, job performance, withdrawal intentions, withdrawal behavior, perceptions of the work environment, interpersonal relationships at work and coping behavior. Differently, they focused on work locus of control which is a context specific sub dimension of locus of control. Spector (1998) defined work locus of control as the extent to which people attribute rewards at work to their own behavior. Although [internal] locus of control at work is presented mostly as an optimistic view, it shouldn't be ignored that locus of control

could have negative impacts on work (Ng, Sorensen, & Eby, 2006). For instance, Burger (1989) indicated that psychological conflicts can arise if a person insists on controlling a situation that could not be controlled. Such a situation can results in negative attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. On the other hand, Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997) indicated that internals are more prone to perceive their work environment negatively.

Despite these findings, internals are reported to have better social skills, be more kindly to others, and more impressive than externals. Thus, they possess better interpersonal relationships with their supervisors or co-workers than externals (Ringer & Boss, 2000). Further, when compared with externals, internals were found to be more likely to take positive action to change their jobs, rather than merely to talk about occupational change (Maltby, Day, & Macaskill, 2007). Thus, based on the reviewed literature it is expected that compared to individuals with an external locus of control, individuals with an internal locus of control are more likely to use problem focused coping styles than emotion focused coping styles.

1.5 Attribution

Perception of causation has long attracted the attention of researchers, especially in social psychology. According to attribution theory, people interpret behavior in the view of their comprehension of causation. Consistent with their interpretations of causation, reactions toward the behavior are determined (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Kelley and Michela (1980) expressed the processes of causal attribution as a means of dealing with questions of social perception and exemplified it as follows: "If a person is aggressively competitive in his behavior, is he this kind of person, or is he reacting to situational pressures? If a person advocates a certain political position, does this reflect his true opinions, or is it to be explained in some other way? If a

person fails on a test, does he have low ability, or is the test difficult? In all such instances, the questions concern the causes of observed behavior and the answers of interest are those given by the man in the street" (p. 107).

Kelley and Michela (1980) discussed three groups of antecedents or determinants of attributions. First, attributions are said to be affected by information. Second, the beliefs of the perceiver are important in determining his/her attributions. Third, motivation of the perceiver is critical in making of an attribution.

Regarding consequences of the attributions that people make to explain the causes of events they experience, researchers identified three groups of variables. These are behavior, affect, and expectancy (e.g., Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas, 2007).

1.5.1 Attribution in organizational context

According to Martinko, Harvey, and Dasborough (2010), attribution theory is not well applied in organizational context. They argue that attribution theory could provide a wealth of explanatory possibilities if applied in the correct context with full understanding. As it is explained before, one of the studies related to attribution in organizations is conducted by Bowling and Beehr (2006). In their model, they underlined the reciprocity and attribution processes in workplace harassment. According to them, in condition of workplace harassment, people may attribute the reason of it to themselves, to the perpetrator, or to the organization.

Herschovis and Barling (2010) compared attributions of victims of workplace harassment and victims of sexual harassment. Relying on self-categorization theory, they argued that victims of sexual harassment attribute harassment to the perpetrator's gender group. That is, they think that it is because of the perpetrator's

attitude toward their own gender and blame the perpetrator. On the other hand, even if the perpetrator shows workplace aggression because of the victim's race, gender or any other social group, because workplace aggression is not specific to any of them, victims of workplace aggression do not perceive it like that and they become less likely to make gender-related, external attributions. To the contrary, victims of workplace aggression are more likely to make internal and personal attributions than victims of sexual harassment. Moreover, these authors also suggested that the same behavior may cause different attributions contingent on the context. If either victims of workplace harassment or victims of sexual harassment are in a gender-dominant environment, they are expected to be more likely to attribute it to the attitudes of the perpetrator than victims who are in a gender neutral environment.

To sum up, previous findings show that in case of mobbing, victims may generate a variety of causal explanations. In the present study attributions to different sources (i.e. self, perpetrator, or organizations) were examined as potential determinants of the coping styles used by the victims.. In the following section, Bowling and Beehr's (2006) model of reciprocity and attribution processes in workplace harassment is presented as a partial framework for the present study.

1.5.2 Bowling and Beehr's model of reciprocity and attribution processes in workplace harrasment

In their meta-analysis Bowling and Beehr (2006) examined 90 studies that were conducted between 1987 and 2005 on antecedents and consequences of workplace harassment. Based on this meta-analysis they proposed a model of workplace harassment from the perspective of the victim (see Appendix H for the model).

These researchers identified organizational culture and climate as both direct and indirect causes of workplace harassment. Culture and climate of the organization are

stated to indirectly cause harassment through role stressors, which may be role conflict or role ambiguity. On the other hand, the organization can be seen as the reason of harassment because of its human resource systems. In the model it is argued that the organization's human resource system affect perpetrator and victim characteristics. For instance, perpetrator's presence is linked to selection, training, reward and punishment systems of the organization.

In their model, Bowling and Beehr (2006) also included the consequences of harassment. Among these consequences, there are negative reactions toward the perpetrator. In addition, victim's well-being can be affected negatively. There can also be negative reactions toward the organization, that is the organizational justice perceptions and job performance are also expected to be influenced. In the presence of unpleasant events like harassment, people may make causal attributions. The reciprocity and attribution processes in workplace harassment are also underlined in the Bowling and Beehr (2006) model. According to the model, the victim's perception of the number of perpetrators and victims in the organization is a directive factor in the attribution process of victim. Besides, causal attributions can lead to different outcomes explained above. If victim blame himself/herself, victim's well-being is affected and it results in poor well-being like lowered self-esteem, or increased depression. When the blame is put on the perpetrator, interactional injustice is experienced and negative attitudes and behaviors are directed toward the perpetrator. Lastly, causes for harassment could be attributed to the organization. When it is the case, distributive and procedural injustice will be experienced and individual performance outcomes will be lowered.

In their future suggestions, Bowling and Beehr (2006) addressed the importance of testing of the attribution types as mediating variables between harassment and the outcomes (p. 1007). Similarly, Herschovis et al. (2007) suggested examining the

effects of blame attributions in future research. As a response to these calls, the present study examined the attribution processes of people in mobbing context. How victims make attributions are believed to be important in determining coping styles of victims. So, attributions along with locus of control are expected to be critical in the coping style of victims.

Based on the reviewed literature, the following are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1a. Victims with internal locus of control use more problem focused coping strategies than emotion focused coping strategies.

Hypothesis 1b. Victims with external locus of control use more emotion focused coping strategies than problem focused coping strategies.

Hypothesis 2a. Victims attributing the cause of mobbing to themselves use more emotion focused coping strategies

Hypothesis 2b. Victims attributing the cause of mobbing to perpetrator use more problem focused coping strategies.

*Hypothesis 2c. V*ictims attributing the cause of mobbing to organization use more problem focused coping strategies.

Furthermore*,* locus of control is expected to play a critical (moderator) role in the relationship between attributions (made to self, organization, and perpetrator) and coping style used. However, no hypothesis was proposed. This expected moderation is explored on an exploratory fashion. Besides, exploratory analyses based on the type of mobbing being exposed to are also conducted.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

The targeted population of this study was people who had been exposed to mobbing. Thus, the study was conducted by contacting the members of the Mobbing Victims Association in Ankara, Turkey ("MOBBINGDER" – "Mobbing ile Mücadele Derneği"). The association was established in 2010 with the aim of raising consciousness about mobbing and decreasing the incidence of mobbing. Approximately 200 members of MOBBİNGDER, working in different cities and towns in Turkey in various sectors were contacted via e-mail and also an announcement was placed on the web site of the association with a link to the survey.

Of the 200 people contacted, 160 met the most critical inclusion criterion of having been exposed to mobbing and they constituted the final sample of the study. Of the final sample, 104 were women (65%) and 56 were men (35%). The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 40. In terms of marital status, 85 of the participants were married (53%), 16 were divorced (10%), 59 (37%) were single. Lastly, 57 (36%) had a graduate degree, 66 (41%) had a bachelor's degree, 19 (12%) had a two-year college degree, and 18 (11%) had a high school degree.

Hundred and twenty eight of the participants indicated that they were currently being subject to mobbing. The mean time of exposure to mobbing was approximately 28.7 months (SD = 33.76 months). Among the participants, there were teachers, architects, university staff, accounting and sales personnel, blue color employees,

engineers, nurses, doctors, psychologists, and lawyers. The mean time of their tenure was 10.7 years (SD = 8.34 years). Demographic information characterizing the current sample is presented in Table 2.

Table 2.
Summary Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variable	N	Percentage
Age		
Aged between 20-25	22	13.8
Aged between 26-30	36	22.5
Aged between 31-40	54	33.8
Above age 40	48	30
Gender		
Female	104	65
Male	56	35
Marital Status		
Married	85	53.1
Single	59	36.9
Divorced	16	10
Education		
High School	18	11.3
Vocational School	19	11.9
Undergraduate	66	41.3
Graduate	57	35.6
Working Duration in the Current Workplace		
0-3 years	11	28.9
3-7 years	13	34.2
7-11 years	3	7.9
Above 11 years	11	28.9

2.2 Measures

2.2.1 Coping with Harassment Questionnaire

Coping with Harassment Questionnaire (CHQ) was originally developed by Fitzgerald (1990) to assess participants' coping responses to sexual harassment. The scale is made up of 14 items. Participants were asked to respond to these items on a Yes-No type scale. The scale consisted of 5 subscales; namely, denial, avoidance, negotiation, social coping, and advocacy seeking. Cronbach's alpha estimates for subscales were reported to be .65, .86, .72, and .81, respectively. However, Cronbach's alpha was not reported for advocacy seeking factor. Toker (2011) adapted the scale into Turkish.

In the current study, subscales were classified as emotion focused coping (5 items) and problem focused coping (5 items) (See Appendix C for scale items). Number of items checked/endorsed was used as the scores on emotion and problem focused coping. Higher scores in each of these two subscales indicate having a high level of emotional and problem focused coping style.

2.2.2 Locus of Control Scale

The Locus of Control Scale developed by Dağ (2002) was used in the present study. The scale consists of 47 items rated on a 5-point Likert type scale (1= Strongly Disagree; 5=Strongly Agree). The scale consisted of 5 subscales; namely, internal locus of control/personal control, belief in chance, senselessness of scrambling, fatalism, belief in an unfair world. However, in the present study subscales were not used (See Appendix A for scale items).

Cronbach's alpha reliability of the scale was reported to be .93. Test retest reliability of the scale was .88. The Cronbach's alpha estimates for the subscales were ranged between .61 and .87. On the basis of this high reliability of the scale and its factorial construction it seems as a highly consistent scale. In the current study, internal consistency estimate of the scale was found to be .88. Higher scores in the scale indicate having more external locus of control.

2.2.3 Attribution Scale

Eight items were developed by the researcher to identify attribution style of participants concerning the causes of negative life events (in this case, mobbing). Three of the items were related to attribution of mobbing to the self (e.g., "I know that I will face such problems anywhere"), two were related to attribution of mobbing to the perpetrator (e.g., "The perpetrator will do mobbing to anyone around him/her"), and three items were related to attribution of mobbing to the organization (e.g., "I'm working in such a place where everyone can show such negative behaviors") (See Appendix B for all scale items). All of the items involved rating on a 5-point Likert type scale (1=Strongly Disagree; 5=Strongly Agree). In the current study, participants were asked to answer the scale by considering the situations presented in Mobbing in Workplace Scale. Ratings for the items in each group (self, perpetrator, and organization) were averaged to obtain attribution to self, perpetrator, and organization attribution scores. High scores on each dimension of the scale indicate having high levels of attribution to that dimension. In the present study alpha coefficients for these three dimensions were found to be .64, .76, and .76, respectively.

2.2.4 Mobbing in Workplace Scale

Mobbing in Workplace Scale was developed by Tınaz, Gök, and Karatuna (2009). The scale is made up of 28 items about a participant's experiencing mobbing behaviors in workplace, rated on a 4-point frequency scale (1= Never, 2= Once or twice a month/Rarely, 3= Once a week, 4= Almost every day) (See Appendix D for scale items).

Cronbach alpha estimate of the Mobbing in Workplace Scale was reported to be .93. Also, Tınaz et al. (2009) categorized these 28 items under four factors and reported Cronbach's alpha for each factor, which were job-related behaviors, detracting behaviors, exclusionary behaviors and verbal-written- visual attacks as .87, .83, .80 and .79, respectively. In the current study, internal consistency estimate of the scale was found to b.89, .87, .85 and .84.

High scores on the Mobbing in Workplace Scale indicate high levels of mobbing. Besides the total score, factor/subscale scores were calculated to see the most frequently encountered mobbing types.

2.2.5 Demographic Information Form

A demographic information form was added to the last part of the survey package. The information related to participants' gender, age, marital status, and education were collected via this form. Besides, participants were asked to indicate their jobs, positions and the duration that they performed their jobs.

Participants' current mobbing status was obtained by asking if they were currently exposed to mobbing behaviors or not. Additionally, they indicated the length of exposure to mobbing behaviors (See Appendix E).

2.3 Procedure

Data were collected after receiving the approval of the Human Subjects Ethical Review Board of the Middle East Technical University. Respondents were contacted through MOBBINGDER and the survey package was shared with them either by e-mail or by the announcement in the web page of the association. Participants were informed about the aim of the study and were assured confidentiality of the responses. Although there were no serious immediate risks associated with participating in this study, participants were informed that they could terminate their participation in the study at any time. Besides, it was guaranteed that the information gathered from the participants would be used for scientific purposes only. Brief written instructions were given at the beginning of all instruments. Total administration time of the survey package was approximately 20 minutes (See Appendix F for the Survey Package).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Results of the study are presented in four sections: (1) factor analyses and reliability analyses conducted on the scales; (2) correlations between the study variables and descriptive statistics; (3) hypotheses testing, and (4) exploratory analyses.

3.1 Factor Analyses and Reliability Analyses

In this section psychometric properties of the measures used in the present study are examined. These analyses included factor analyses and/or reliability analyses.

3.1.1 Coping with Harassment Questionnaire

A confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the 14-item scale. Initially the analysis yielded a 5-factor solution which was difficult to interpret conceptually. Hence the analysis was repeated by forcing the number of factors to two. Although none of the items crossloaded, one of the items was loaded negatively. When examined, it was figured out that this item was unrelated with the other items and hence it was dropped from the analysis. Two more items were excluded from the analysis since they did not load under any factor. Lastly, it was realized that two items were asking more or less the same question. Hence, one of them was eliminated. As a result, a total of four items were dropped from the scale, resulting in a two factor structure in which five represented problem focused coping and five items represented emotion focused coping. The total number of items under each coping strategy was used as the respective coping score (Min = 1; Max = 5).

3.1.2 Locus of Control Scale

Since the Locus of Control Scale (Dağ, 2002) was a well-established scale with satisfactory psychometric properties, only internal consistency of the scale was examined. Cronbach's alpha for the 47–item scale was .88.

3.1.3 Attribution Scale

Since the items of the attribution measure were developed by the researcher herself with the aim of understanding whether the mobbing experience is attributed to the self, perpetrator, or the organization, an exploratory factor analyses was first conducted on the eight items of the scale. That is, the items were subjected to a principal components analysis to see if the expected factors were extracted. Originally, only two factors were extracted, which mainly classified the items as related to organization and to non-organizational factors. Another principal components analysis was conducted with varimax rotation by forcing the number of factors to three. The results were in line with the expectations and the extracted three factors cumulatively explained 69.2% of the variance. Factor 1, which accounted for 25.1% of the variance was labelled "Organization" because of its correspondence to the items asking for attributing the reason to the organization. Factor 2 was labelled "Self" because it relates to self-accusation, and it accounted for 22.9% of the variance. Lastly, Factor 3, which accounted for 21% of the variance, was labelled "Perpetrator" due to its inclusion of items related to accusing someone of occurrence of negative experiences. Cronbach's alphas of the factors were .64, .76, and .76, respectively.

3.1.4 Mobbing in Workplace Scale

A principal component analysis using varimax rotation was conducted by forcing the number of factors to four in order to confirm the proposed four factor structure of the Mobbing in Workplace Scale. The four factors cumulatively explained 59.73% of the item variance. Since, item 5 ("My questions and requests are not responded" / "Soru ve taleplerim yanıtsız bırakılır") did not load under any factor, it was dropped. Based on the item content, Factor 1 was labelled "Damage to reputation and self-esteem," Factor 2 "Harm to privacy," Factor 3 "Work related harmful behaviors," and lastly Factor 4 "Exclusionist behaviors." as originally proposed by Tınaz et al. (2009). These four factors accounted for 18.46%, 14.45%, 14.00%, and 12.82% of the variance, respectively.

To further investigate the appropriateness of the factors, a reliability analysis was conducted. The internal consistency estimates for each factor were .89, .87, .85, and .84, respectively.

3.2 Correlations between the Study Variables and Descriptive Statistics

In this section, bivariate correlations between the major variables of the study are investigated. Means, standard deviations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the study variables are also presented along with the correlations in Table 3.

As can be seen from the table, among the demographic variables, there was a significant negative relationship between gender and emotion focused coping ($r = -.22$, $p < .01$), suggesting that women use more emotion focused coping strategies than men. When the correlations among age and other study variables were examined, it was observed that age was positively correlated with problem focused

coping ($r = .19, p < .05$). As age of the participants increased, they reported more use of problem focused coping. Similarly, locus of control had a significant negative correlation with age ($r = -.23, p < .01$). That is, as age increased participants reported less use of external locus of control. Moreover, age was significantly positively correlated with one of the mobbing types, exclusionist behavior. That is as participants' age increased exposure to exclusionist mobing behaviors increased as well.

Interestingly, education was significantly correlated with both current exposure to mobbing and duration of exposure to mobbing ($r = -.18, p < .05; r = .18, p < .05$, respectively). That is, people who were more educated, were less likely to be currently exposed to mobbing but the duration of exposure of mobbing increased as education level increased. Furthermore, duration of exposure to mobbing was significantly positively correlated with attribution to organization ($r = .20, p < .05$). That is, people who had been exposed to mobbing for a longer period were more likely to attribute the reason of mobbing to the organization.

Attribution to perpetrator was positively correlated with emotion focused coping ($r = .17, p < .05$), that is, the more the participants attributed mobbing to perpetrator, the more they used emotion focused coping strategies. However, neither attribution to perpetrator nor attribution to organization was significantly associated with problem focused coping. Furthermore, no significant relationships were observed between attribution to self and emotion focused or problem focused coping.

As expected, locus of control was significantly negatively correlated with problem focused coping ($r = -.28, p < .01$), that is the more the participants reported using problem focused coping strategies, the less they had external locus of control. However, the correlation between locus of control and emotion focused coping was not significant.

Table 3. *Correlations, Means, Standart Deviations, and Reliabilities of the Study Variables*

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Gender	-																
2	Age group	.10																
3	Marital status	-.36**	-.32**															
4	Education	-.25**	.17*	.15														
5	Current exposure to mobbing	.11	-.07	-.06	-.18*													
6	Duration of exposure (in months)	-.00	.34**	-.11	.18*	-.01												
7	Attribution to self	-.01	-.12	.12	.04	.08	.07	**.64**										
8	Attribution to perpetrator	-.09	.04	.02	.03	.12	.02	-.06	**.76**									
9	Attribution to organization	-.04	.11	.05	.10	.12	.20*	.10	.43**	**.76**								
10	Locus of control	-.12	-.23**	-.01	-.04	-.08	-.05	.17*	-.04	-.01	**.88**							
11	Problem focused coping	-.00	.19*	-.08	.10	-.05	.04	-.14	.08	-.03	-.28**							
12	Emotion focused coping	-.22**	.02	.02	.06	-.05	.05	-.09	.17*	.12	.13	0.15						
13	Damage to reputation self esteem[1]	.02	.07	.02	.00	.22**	.08	.09	.34**	.29**	-.08	.06	.11	**.89**				
14	Harm to privacy[1]	.07	.09	.09	.09	.09	.17*	.17*	.12	.24**	-.02	.07	-.01	.60**	**.87**			
15	Work related harmful behavior[1]	.16*	.14	-.03	.02	.21**	.10	.01	.28**	.29**	-.14	.09	-.01	.67**	.62**	**.85**		
16	Exclusionist behavior[1]	.06	.24**	-.05	.13	.07	.11	.08	.16*	.32**	-.09	.09	-.08	.61**	.66**	.63**	**.84**	
17	Mobbing (in total)	.09	.16*	.01	.08	.17*	.13	.10	.26**	.33**	-.09	.09	-.00	.84**	.84**	.87**		
	Mean	-	-	-	-	-	28.7	1.70	4.00	3.8	2.65	3.16	4.28	3.44	2.06	3.28	2.73	2.88
	Standart Deviation	-	-	-	-	-	33.77	0.75	1.07	1.02	0.41	1.63	1.12	0.96	0.96	0.86	1.17	.84

Note. Gender 1 = Women, 2= Men; Age Group 1 = Age between 20-25, 2 = Age between 26-30, 3 = Age between 31-40, 4 = Age older than 40; Marital Status 1 = Married, 2 = Single; Level of Education 1= High School, 2= Two-year College Degree, 3 = Bachelor's Degree, 4 = Master's Degree and higher; Current Exposure to Mobbing 1 = Yes, 0 = No; Attribute to Self-Perpetrator-Organization measured on a 5 point Likert scale 1 = Completely Disagree, 5 = Completely Agree; Locus of Control measured on a 5 point Likert scale 1 = Completely Disagree, 5 = Completely Agree; Problem focused and Emotion focused coping measured on a Yes/No scale 1 = Yes 0 = No; [1]Mobbing types are measured on a frequency scale 1 = Never; 5 = Always. Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in bold. *p < .05, **p < .01

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When the correlation among locus of control and attribution was examined, it was found that there was a significant positive relationship between locus of control and attribution to self ($r = .17$, $p < .05$). That is, the more external locus of control people had, the more they attributed the reason of mobbing to themselves.

Additionally, not surprisingly, two factors of attribution style, namely attribution to perpetrator and attribution to organization were positively related with each other ($r = .43$, $p < 0.05$).

3.3 Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses were formulated to test the main effects of locus of control and attribution types of participants on the coping strategies they used. A series of multiple regression analyses were conducted to test these hypotheses. Locus of control, attribution to self, attribution to perpetrator and attribution to organization served as the predictor variables in those analyses. The outcome variables were problem focused coping and emotion focused coping. To control for the potential effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable, age and gender, which were significantly correlated with problem focused and emotion focused coping, were included in the analyses.

Hypothesis one stated that victims with internal locus of control would use more problem focused coping strategies than emotion focused coping strategies. In testing this hypothesis, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted where problem focused coping was regressed first on the demographic variables (age and gender) and then on locus of control. The results of step one indicated that the variance accounted for (R^2) with the first two predictors (age and gender) was .04 (adjusted $R^2 = .03$), which was significantly different from zero ($F(2,159) = 3.09$, $p < .05$). Age

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entered in the first step, significantly contributed to the prediction of problem focused coping use ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$); but the other demographic variable, gender did not contributed to the prediction of problem coping use. Locus of control entered in the second step accounted for (ΔR^2) an additional 6% of variance, which was significantly different from zero ($F(3, 158) = 5.81$, $p<.01$). The relationship between locus of control and problem focused coping was significant ($\beta = -.26$, $p < .001$). That is, as locus of coping become internal, participants were more likely to use problem focused coping. Thus, Hypothesis 1a was supported.

Hypothesis 1b stated that victims with external locus of control would use more emotion focused coping than problem focused coping strategies. In testing this hypothesis, emotion focused coping was regressed on the demographic variables of age and gender (Step 1) and locus of control (Step 2). Results showed that, demographic variables entered in the first step significantly contributed to the prediction of emotion focused coping ($R^2 =.05$, $F (2, 159) = 4.33$, $p < .05$). However, locus of control entered in the second step did not contribute significantly to the regression equation. Hence, Hypothesis 1b was not supported. Results of analyses testing Hypotheses 1a and 1b are presented in Table 4.

Hypothesis 2 stated that victims attributing the cause of mobbing to themselves would be more likely use emotion focused coping (H2a) and that victims attributing the cause of mobbing to perpetrator (H2b) or organization (H2c)would be more likely use problem focused coping. In testing this hypothesis, two separate hierarchical regression analyses were run. In the first regression analysis, after controlling the effects of age and gender, attribution types (i.e., attribution to self, to perpetrator, and to organization) were entered into the equation as predictors of problem focused coping. The regression analysis results revealed that demographic variables entered in the first step contributed significantly to the prediction of

problem focused coping (R^2 =.04, F (2, 159) = 3.09, $p < .05$); but, none of the attribution types entered in the second step contributed significantly to the prediction of problem focused coping. Examination of beta weights showed that age significantly contributed to the prediction of problem focused coping (β = .19, $p < .05$).

In the second regression analysis, emotion focused coping was regressed on the demographic variables (Step 1) and the attribution types (Step 2). Results showed that demographic variables entered in the first step contributed significantly to the prediction of dependent variable (R^2 =.05, F (2, 159) = 4.33, $p < .05$). However, in the second step, attribution types did not have an effect above and beyond the effects of demographic variables. Only gender was found to predict emotion focused coping significantly (β = -.23, $p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 2a, 2b, and 2c were not supported. Results of the analyses testing Hypothesis 2 are presented in Table 5.

Table 4. *Results of the Analyses for Testing the Effect of Locus of Control on Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping*

		Problem Focused Coping					Emotion Focused Coping				
		Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1.			.04	.03	.04	3.09*		.05	.04	.05	4.33*
	Age	.19*					.05				
	Gender	-.02					-.23**				
Step 2.			.10	.08	.06	5.81**		.07	.05	.01	3.73
	Locus of Control	-.26***					.12				

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 5. *Results of the Analyses for Testing the Effect of Attribution Types on Problem Focused Coping and Emotion Focused Coping*

	Problem Focused Coping					Emotion Focused Coping				
	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1.		.04	.02	.04	3.09*		.05	.04	.05	4.33*
Age	.19*					.05				
Gender	-.02					-.23**				
Step 2.		.06	.03	.02	1.98		.08	.05	.03	2.82
Attribution to self	-.10					-.09				
Attribution to perpetrator	.09					.12				
Attribution to organization	-.08					.06				

Note. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

3.4. Exploratory Analyses

Two groups of exploratory analyses were conducted. First group of exploratory analyses involved the examination of the interaction of locus of control and attribution type on the coping strategy used. More specifically, these analyses were conducted to understand whether locus of control moderated the relationship between attribution type and coping style. A total of six moderated regression analyses (three for each coping style) were conducted for this purpose. In the second group of analyses, participants' scores on the four mobbing types were compared using a repeated measure analysis of variance to understand which mobbing type/types participants were more/less exposed to.

In the first group of exploratory analyses, prior to the analyses, the presumed moderator and the independent variables were centered by subtracting their mean values for each variable in order to control for possible multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). Then, the cross product between them was computed to create the interaction term.

The first three analyses were conducted on problem focused coping by controlling age and gender. In the first analysis, after entering the control variables, the independent variable attribution to self and the presumed moderator locus of control were entered in second step and the interaction term was entered in the third step. As indicated in Table 6, demographic variables explained 4% of variance in problem focused coping, (F (2, 159) = 3.09, $p < .05$). Attribution to self and locus of control contributed significantly to the prediction of the dependent variable ($R^2 =.11$, F (4, 157) = 4.65, $p < .01$); but their interaction was not. Beta weights showed that age had a significant effect ($\beta = .19$, $p < .05$) on problem focused coping, and locus of control had a significant main effect on problem focused coping ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .01$).

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Table 6. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the Relationship between Self Attributions and Problem Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1.		.04	.02		3.09*
Age	.19*				
Gender	-.02				
Step 2.		.11	.08	.07	4.65**
Attribution to self	-.08				
Locus of control	-.24**				
Step 3.		.11	.08	.00	3.70
Attribution to self x LOC	.02				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

In the next analysis, after controlling for the effects of age and gender in Step 1, attribution to perpetrator and locus of control were entered in the second step followed by the interaction term. Again, Step 1 variables explained 4% of the variance in problem focused coping (F (2, 159) = 3.09, $p < .05$). Similarly, the second step significantly contributed to the prediction of problem focused coping (R^2 =.10, F (4, 157) = 4.48, $p < .01$). However, the effect of the interaction of perpetrator attribution and locus of control was not significant. Results are presented in Table 7.

In the third moderator analysis, attribution to organization and locus of control were entered in the second step after controlling for the demographic variables.. Similar to the previous analyses, the results showed that Step 1 and Step 2 significantly contributed to the prediction of problem focused coping (R^2 =.04, F (2, 159) = 3.09, $p < .05$; R^2 =.10, F (4, 157) = 4.44, $p < .01$, respectively). However, the interaction term did not predicted problem focused coping use of victims significantly. See Table 8 for the results.

Table 7. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the Relationship between Perpetrator Attributions and Problem Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1.		.04	.03		3.09*
Age	.19*				
Gender	-.02				
Step 2.		.10	.08	.06	4.48**
Attribution to perpetrator	.06				
Locus of control	-.25***				
Step 3.		.10	.08	.00	3.59
Attribution to perpetrator x LOC	-.03				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

Table 8. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the of Attribution to Organization and Problem Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1.		.04	.03		3.09*
Age	.19*				
Gender	-.02				
Step 2.		.10	.08	.06	4.44**
Attribution to organization	-.05				
Locus of control	-.26***				
Step 3.		.11	.08	.01	3.77
Attribution to organization x LOC	-.08				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

Three additional moderator analyses were conducted for emotion focused coping again by controlling for the effects of gender and age.

In the first regression analyses for emotion focused coping, attribution to self and locus of control were entered in the second step after the control variables and the interaction term entered in the third step. Neither the second step variables (self-attribution and locus of control) nor the interaction term contributed significantly to the prediction of emotion focused coping (See Table 9).

Table 9. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the Relationship between Self Attributions and Emotion Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1.		.05	.04		4.33*
Gender	-.23***				
Age	.05				
Step 2.		.08	.05	.02	3.28
Attribution to self	-.11				
Locus of control	.14				
Step 3.		.08	.05	.01	2.79
Attribution to self x LOC	.08				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

The next hierarchical regression analysis was carried out to see the moderator effect of locus of control on relationship between perpetrator attributions and emotion focused coping. Results revealed the second step contributed significantly to the prediction of emotion focused coping ($R^2 = .09$, $F (4, 157) = 3.86$, $p < .05$). However, there was no significant moderator effect of locus of control on the relationship between attribution to perpetrator and emotion focused coping. Results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the Relationship between Perpetrator Attributions and Emotion Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1.		.05	.04		4.33*
Gender	-.23***				
Age	.05				
Step 2.		.09	.07	.04	3.86*
Attribution to perpetrator	.15*				
Locus of control	.13				
Step 3.		.09	.07	.01	3.25
Attribution to perpetrator x LOC	.07				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

The last moderated regression analysis indicated that only demographic variables entered in first step significantly contributed to the prediction of emotion focused coping ($R^2 = .05$, F (2, 159) = 4.33, $p < .05$). However, the predictor variables (attribution to organization and locus of control) and the interaction term did not contribute to the prediction of emotion focused coping. See Table 11 for the results.

Results of exploratory analyses indicated that locus of control did not moderate the relationships between coping styles and attribution to self, perpetrator, or organization.

Table 11. *Results of the Analyses Testing the Moderating Effect of LOC on the Relationship between Organization Attributions and Emotion Focused Coping*

	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	ΔR^2	*F*
Step 1.		.05	.04		4.33*
Gender	.05				
Age	-.23***				
Step 2.		.08	.05	.03	3.25
Attribution to organization	.10				
Locus of control	.12				
Step 3.		.08	.05	.00	2.58
Attribution to organization x LOC	.01				

Note. * $p < .05$; ** ;$p < .01$; *** $p < .001$; LOC: Locus of Control

As stated above, the second group of exploratory analyses were conducted to investigate potential differences in the exposure to different types of mobbing. For this purpose a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted on the four mobbing types (i.e., *damage to reputation and self-esteem*, *harm to privacy*, *work related harmful behaviour*, and *exclusionist behavior*). The results showed there were differences in the exposure to different mobbing types ($F(1,161) = 16.53$, $p < .001$). Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were conducted using Tukey test at <.05. to examine which pairs of means differed. The significant mean differences are presented in Table 12.

As can be seen in the table, participants of the study were more likely to experience mobbing in the form of damage to their reputation and self esteem and less likely to experience harm to privacy compared to other types of mobbing.

Table 12.

Mean Differences in the Exposure to Different Mobbing Types

Type of Mobbing	M	SD
Damage to reputation and self esteem	3.44_a	.96
Harm to privacy	2.06_b	.96
Work related harmful behavior	3.28_a	.86
Exclusionist behavior	2.73_c	1.17

Note. Means with different subscripts are significantly different from each other
(Tukey's HSD, $p < .05$)

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the evaluation of study findings is provided. After interpreting the results, implications of findings and limitations of the study are discussed, and suggestions for future research are made.

4.1 Evaluation of the Findings

The aim of the present study was to contribute to the literature on mobbing by examining the role of attribution style and locus of control, as two critical individual difference variables, in coping with mobbing. A total of 160 working adults, who were either exposed to mobbing in the recent past or who were currently being subject to mobbing, in different sectors and cities in Turkey, participated in the study. The participants of the study were members of a mobbing victims' association, namely "Mobbing ile Mücadele Derneği" (MOBİNGDER). The association was established in 2010 to support the victims of mobbing either by informing them about their rights or by providing legal support. A major goal of the association is to increase consciousness level of the general public concerning workplace victimization. Victims get into contact with this association and share their experiences, and they receive social and legal support in filing a legal suit.. Besides, colloquiums and seminars are organized by the association and in these seminars professionals from a wide range of occupations (e.g., psychologists, psychiatrists, teachers, academicians, and lawyers) make presentations concerning

different aspects of mobbing. Legislative proposals on mobbing are also prepared by the management of the association. All these indicate that participants of the present study represent a unique group of mobbing victims, probably more conscious and aware than typical mobbing victims.

The overarching goal of the present study was to be able to understand some of the factors contributing to the adaptation of different coping strategies in response to mobbing. As Olafsson and Johannsdottir (2004) stated, mobbing is one of the extreme stressors in workplace and people who are exposed to mobbing behaviors have to deal with it. In psychology, how people manage to deal with stressful situations refers to coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Although existence of quite many different coping strategies have been acknowledged (e.g., Carver & Conor-Smith, 2010), problem versus emotion focused coping distinction (Folkman, 2010) is one of the commonly used distinctions, and this framework of coping is also the one used in the present study.

In the present study, the responses of the participants to a web based survey were analysed to examine whether locus of control and attributions made for mobbing played a critical role in the use of problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies. It was hypothesized that the use of either problem focused or emotion focused coping strategies might be predicted by locus of control. The results of the study yielded support for Hypothesis 1a indicating that locus of control predicted the use of problem focused coping. That is, as expected, participants with internal locus of control were more likely to use problem focused coping strategies. In personality psychology, locus of control, as a relatively stable individual difference factor, is defined as the belief of individuals concerning the extent to which they can control events that affect them (Rotter, 1966). According to Rotter, while people who have

an internal locus of control believe that they can control their own lives; people who have an external locus of control believe that their lives are controlled by outside influences like other people, or fate. The relationship between locus of control and coping strategies observed in the present study is consistent with the findings reported in the literature. For example, Petrosky and Birkimer (1991) reported in their study that direct coping, which refers to problem focused coping, was predicted strongly by internal locus of control and perceptions of the controllability of situations for adolescents. Similarly, Anderson (1977) stated that internals use more task-centered coping behaviors than emotion centered coping behaviors. In fact, locus of control is presented as a construct reflecting internal motivation and effort to reach the desired outcomes. In line with this view, Erez and Judge (2001) reported that internal locus of control is strongly related to task motivation and goal setting motivation. Internal locus of control has been found to be related to some work characteristics, such as autonomy, feedback, performance-reward connections, and job involvement. Furthermore internals were reported as more satisfied with their jobs than externals (Kimmons & Greenhaus, 1976). These findings along with the findings of the present study suggest that people with internal locus of control are more likely to improve their situations, to look for positive outcomes and to adopt healthier coping strategies. Thus, it seems fair to conclude that internal locus of control seems to act like a buffer in dealing with workplace strains like mobbing.

Hypothesis 1b stated that external locus of control would predict emotion focused coping. Results failed to support this hypothesis. There was a positive but insignificant relationship between external locus of control and emotion-focused coping. Srivasta and Sager (1999) examined coping style, locus of control, and self-efficacy relationships in sales personnel and found that participants using emotion focused coping strategies tended to report external locus of control and low self-

efficacy. Similarly, Janoff, and Bulman (1979) stated that external locus of control is associated with increased use of passive, that is emotion focused, coping strategies. In the present study, although the relationship was in the expected direction, it failed to reach statistical significance. One plausible explanation for this contradictory finding could be the fact that in the current study individuals who were currently victimized and those who had been victimized in the past were included in the same sample. These two groups may in fact differ in the use of emotion focused coping depending on their locus of control being external. Another plausible explanation could be the fact that participants of this study reported higher levels (M = 4.28) of emotion focused coping within a narrower range (SD = 1.12), than problem focused coping (M = 3.16; SD = 1.63). This range restriction may have blocked or attenuated the differential relationships between emotion focused coping and locus of control.

As expressed previously, reactions to the behaviors of others are largely determined by the observer's comprehension of causation (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Consistent with this view, Hypothesis 2 stated that attributions for the cause of mobbing would contribute to the prediction of emotion focused and problem focused coping used by mobbing victims. In line with Bowling and Beehr's (2006) study, three potential attribution targets were identified in the present study (attribution to self, attribution to perpetrator, and attribution to organization). Attribution to the self was expected to be associated with the use of emotion focused coping strategies whereas attribution to the perpetrator and attribution to the organization was expected to be associated with the use of problem focused coping strategies. The results showed that none of the attribution types were predictive of problem focused coping or emotion focused coping. This finding is contrary to the expectation and contrary to the literature. For example, Martinko, Harvey and Douglas (2007) said that there is an effect of attributions on expectations, emotions and behaviors, which can be interpreted as

coping styles. On the other hand, even though there was no significant relationship between attribution type and coping style used, it is important to note that both emotion focused coping and attribution to organization were relatively high. This observed relationship may suggest that victims might have hesitated to use problem focused coping strategies more because they may have thought that such an approach could result in more detrimental outcomes because of the existence of a mobbing-supportive organizational climate and culture. Consistent with this interpretation, Bergman et al. (2002) explain the unreasonableness of reporting of sexual harassment. In their model, they argue that reporting harassment worsens negative outcomes rather than improving, due to organizational responses to reports that are exemplified as organizational remedies, organizational minimization, and retaliation. The present contradictory finding may also be related to the use of a new instrument to measure attribution type of participants. It is possible that the attribution measure was deficient in tapping in self, perpetrator, and organization attributions. On the other hand, the results of correlation analyses revealed that there was a significant and relatively high correlation between perpetrator and organization attributions ($r =$ .43, $p < .01$). Thus, future research may consider combining attribution to perpetrator and organization and search for the differences between attributions made to self and to outside resources.

Beyond the main results, the findings of the present study revealed that demographics that were included in the analyses to control the potential effects, has a significant effect on use of coping strategies. First, problem focused coping was significantly predicted by age. As age of the participants increased, they were more likely to use problem focused coping strategies. In fact, this result makes sense because the older the person, the more experienced he/she can be expected to have. It could be argued that with more experience, which comes with age, people develop

more wisdom about what to do and how to manage stress. Even the perception regarding workplace stress could change with experience. Experienced people may become able to find practical ways to manage the work place strains and problems by focussing on. This may be partially as a result of the fact that they have been faced with an increasing number of problems already, and now they have more functional/healthier way to tackle them. Second, a negative and significant relationship was observed between emotion focused coping and gender. That is, women used more emotion focused coping strategies than men. Consistently, Ptacek, Smith, and Dodge (1994) stated that women were more likely to seek for social support and use emotion focused coping more than men, while men were more likely to use problem focused coping more than women. Similarly, Matud (2004) reported that scores of women were higher on emotional and avoidance coping style than scores of men. On the other hand, Brannon and Jess (2009) pointed that there were small differences between coping strategies used by men and women. The higher rate of emotion focused coping use of women could be related to the role of women in the society. Starting from the childhood, men are encouraged to be more individualistic while women are expected to be more interpersonal (Brannon & Jess, 2009). Thus, it makes sense that when women face with problems they are more prone to share their emotions and experiences with people around them and more willing to talk about problems which results in emotion focused use, while men prefer to keep silent.

Comijs, Jonker, Tilburg, and Smit (1999) stated that appraisals of stressful situations were influenced by locus of control. Hence, a series of moderated regression analyses were conducted, on an exploratory basis, to examine the extent to which locus of control moderated the relationship between attributions (to the self, perpetrator, or organization) made for mobbing and coping style (emotion focused or problem focused) used. Results in general failed to support the expected moderator role of locus of control.

4.2 Implications of the Study

Besides enhancing the literature, the present study also aimed to increase the awareness toward mobbing by getting inquiries into the reactions and strategies of mobbing victims. Although the results of the study did not support most of the hypotheses, it is believed that, it still has potential to contribute to our understanding of mobbing in work organizations. This study indicated that mobbing victims with internal locus of control were more likely to use problem focused coping. That is, locus of control, as an individual difference factor, appeared to be critical factor in the use of a healthier coping strategy. One major implication of this finding is that because a lack of internal locus of control appears to be associated with unhealthier behaviors and attitudes, it might be more important to pay special attention to victims with external locus of control. Through mentoring, coaching, training programs or other organizational interventions schemes, organizations may enhance the perceived control of employees over their lives. This may in turn promote healthier coping strategies and behaviors of employees and hence improve their well-being.

Despite the observed protective role of internal locus of control in the use of problem-focused coping strategies, it was found that, on the average, mobbing victims were more likely to use emotion focused coping than problem focused coping. Since the participants of the study were already victims of mobbing, overreliance on emotion-focused coping may in part be a reflection of learned helplessness resulting from prolonged exposure to psychological harassment at work. Experience of one of the participants of the present study, named Sevim, support this interpretation. During data gathering process, Sevim shared her experiences as a mobbing victim in detail. She stated that initially she tried to use more rational problem-focused means to tackle the problem. Mainly, she tried to stay away from

the perpetrator, talked to the managers, and made formal appeals/complaints to the management. Yet, despite all these active attempts she continued to be the victim. Since she had almost no chance to find a comparable job and since she needed her job to support her family, her one-year-old baby, she stayed with the organization, eventually experiencing a nervous breakdown.

There are a number of things organizations can do to deal with this problem and help members to adapt more functional coping strategies in dealing with mobbing before, during and after it happens. In terms of prevention of mobbing, there could be assessment systems estimating the risk of mobbing which could reduce the emergence of psychological symptoms. Preventive policies should be designed and enforced to foster a healthier and more respectful climate and culture within the organization. Through training programs, seminars and other developmental activities, organization can raise the general awareness of organizational members toward mobbing. Other formal mechanisms (such as an ethical review board) can be established to oversee mobbing incidences. Proactive attempts like these may help organizational members be more psychologically equipped to deal with mobbing and also adopt more functional coping strategies.

Mobbing may start as a relatively minor event, but followed by more serious consequences that can reach up to the suicide of the victim. Mobbing has serious negative consequences for organization as well. In addition to consequences such as staff turnover (Herschovis & Barling, 2010), loss of expertise due to intention to resign (Hoel & Cooper, 2001), lower productivity due to presenteeism (Ferris, 2009), it results in bad reputation for the organization (Tınaz, 2011), which was also evidenced in the high mean score on the causal attribution to the organization (M=3.8) in the present study. As can be seen, costs of mobbing are many, thus

attention and effort paid to mobbing preventions strategies will cost less than the negative consequences of mobbing for individuals and organizations.

4.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

As indicated previously, mobbing is an increasingly serious phenomenon and affects millions of workers. Hence, it deserves concerted attention by researchers, practitioners, and public policy makers. Although the literature on mobbing is expanding steadily, the attempts to understand coping strategies used by mobbing victims were less than sufficient. Therefore, the present study was one of the rare attempts examining coping strategies used by victims of mobbing, and also individual differences variables potentially playing a role in the experience of mobbing.

Before making some suggestions for future research, it is worth noting a number of limitations of the current study. First, as acknowledged above, valuable insights may be revealed with a larger and more diversified sample. The participants of the study were contacted through an association for mobbing victims. Hence, they may not be representative of mobbing victims in general. As Namie (2003) indicated, most victims of mobbing do not always take action in dealing with the problem. Namie found that, of the mobbing victims 40 percent took no action, 37 percent informally reported to the organization, 19 percent expressed formal internal or external complaints, and 3 percent filed individual or joined class-action lawsuits. Thus, mobbing could be said to be a silent epidemic. Participants of the presents study, however, as a member of mobbing victims' association, were far from belonging to the larger group experiencing mobbing as a silent epidemic. Therefore, future research could address this limitation by reaching more silent victims of mobbing. Furthermore, the likelihood of finding significance in the suggested hypotheses may

be also impacted by sample size. Increasing the sample size may result in diversity of participants and more valuable insights.

Furthermore, it is possible to design the survey package with different measures. In the current study, coping with mobbing was measured with "Coping with Harassment Scale." One of the problems with the coping scale was that items were rated on a Yes-No type scale. A Likert-type scale could have been more appropriate as it would produce more variations in ratings. Besides, future research attempts may be directed at improving the attribution scale developed by the researcher. The mean self- attribution score was 1.7 while the mean perpetrator attribution and organization attribution scores were 4.00 and 3.8, respectively. It might be that, the wording of the attribution scale was provocative and misleading. Also, it is well known that there are cultural differences and tendencies in attributional processes. As Wang (1993) expressed, living in an individualistic or collectivistic culture affects the attributions made by people. Thus, it is suggested that future researchers should investigate the effects of cultural differences on attributions made for mobbing. Besides, future studies may benefit from incorporation of qualitative studies that could help the development of culturally sounder measures of mobbing, attributions, and even coping styles.

Doubtless, mobbing adds enormous stress to those affected by it. However, in the current study there were two different participant groups as either being exposed to mobbing in the past or being exposed to mobbing currently. Thus, it may be that the perceived stress caused by mobbing to the victims may vary across these two groups. Measuring the perceived stress of victims and including that as a critical variable (a main variable, moderator, or mediator) in the analyses might be useful. Even for locus of control, Ryon and Gleason (2013) mentioned that there were daily variations in the way locus of control was predicted by the anxiety levels or daily hassles of individuals.

Also, it is important to underline that, the present study did not look at the status-relationships between victims and their perpetrators. However, depending on the status or power of the perpetrator, the effect of mobbing is expected to differ for the victim (Einarsen and Raknes, 1997). Thus, future studies should include and examine perpetrator status information.

It is hoped that future research will build upon studies like this and awareness on this subject will increase resulting in significant reductions in mobbing, a serious form of psychological harassment at work.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Items for Locus of Control Scale

1. İnsanın yaşamındaki mutsuzlukların çoğu, biraz da şanssızlığına bağlıdır.

2. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın üşütüp hasta olmanın önüne geçemez.

3. Bir şeyin olacağı varsa eninde sonunda mutlaka olur.

4. İnsan ne kadar çabalarsa çabalasın, ne yazık ki değeri genellikle anlaşılmaz.

5. İnsanlar savaşları önlemek için ne kadar çaba gösterirlerse göstersinler, savaşlar daima olacaktır.

6. Bazı insanlar doğuştan şanslıdır.

7. İnsan ilerlemek için güç sahibi kişilerin gönlünü hoş tutmak zorundadır.

8. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, hiç bir şey istediği gibi sonuçlanmaz.

9. Bir çok insan, rastlantıların yaşamlarını ne derece etkilediğinin farkında değildir.

10. Bir insanın halen ciddi bir hastalığa yakalanmamış olması sadece bir şans meselesidir.

11. Dört yapraklı yonca bulmak insana şans getirir.

12. İnsanın burcu hangi hastalıklara daha yatkın olacağını belirler.

13. Bir sonucu elde etmede insanın neleri bildiği değil, kimleri tanıdığı önemlidir.

14. İnsanın bir günü iyi başladıysa iyi; kötü başladıysa da kötü gider.

15. Başarılı olmak çok çalışmaya bağlıdır; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.

16. Aslında şans diye bir şey yoktur.

17. Hastalıklar çoğunlukla insanların dikkatsizliklerinden kaynaklanır.

18. Talihsizlik olarak nitelenen durumların çoğu, yetenek eksikliğinin, ihmalin, tembelliğin ve benzeri nedenlerin sonucudur.

19. İnsan, yaşamında olabilecek şeyleri kendi kontrolü altında tutabilir.

20. Çoğu durumda yazı-tura atarak da isabetli kararlar verilebilir.

21. İnsanın ne yapacağı konusunda kararlı olması, kadere güvenmesinden daima iyidir.

22. İnsan fazla bir çaba harcamasa da, karşılaştığı sorunlar kendiliğinden çözülür.

23. Çok uzun vadeli planlar yapmak her zaman akıllıca olmayabilir, çünkü bir çok şey zaten iyi ya da kötü şansa bağlıdır.

24. Bir çok hastalık insanı yakalar ve bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.

25. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, olabilecek kötü şeylerin önüne geçemez.

26. İnsanın istediğini elde etmesinin talihle bir ilgisi yoktur.

27. İnsan kendisini ilgilendiren bir çok konuda kendi başına doğru kararlar alabilir.

28. Bir insanın başına gelenler, temelde kendi yaptıklarının sonucudur.

29. Halk, yeterli çabayı gösterse siyasal yolsuzlukları ortadan kaldırabilir.

30. Şans ya da talih hayatta önemli bir rol oynamaz.

31. Sağlıklı olup olmamayı belirleyen esas şey insanların kendi yaptıkları ve alışkanlıklarıdır.

32. İnsan kendi yaşamına temelde kendisi yön verir.

33. İnsanların talihsizlikleri yaptıkları hataların sonucudur.

34. İnsanlarla yakın ilişkiler kurmak, tesadüflere değil, çaba göstermeye bağlıdır.

35. İnsanın hastalanacağı varsa hastalanır; bunu önlemek mümkün değidir.

36. İnsan bugün yaptıklarıyla gelecekte olabilecekleri değiştirebilir.

37. Kazalar, doğrudan doğruya hataların sonucudur.

38. Bu dünya güç sahibi bir kaç kişi tarafından yönetilmektedir ve sade vatandaşın bu konuda yapabileceği fazla bir şey yoktur.

39. İnsanın dini inancının olması, hayatta karşılaşacağı bir çok zorluğu daha kolay aşmasına yardım eder.

40. Bir insan istediği kadar akıllı olsun, bir işe başladığında şansı yaver gitmezse başarılı olamaz.

41. İnsan kendine iyi baktığı sürece hastalıklardan kaçınabilir.

42. Kaderin insan yaşamı üzerinde çok büyük bir rolü vardır.

43. Kararlılık bir insanın istediği sonuçları almasında en önemli etkendir.

44. İnsanlara doğru şeyi yaptırmak bir yetenek işidir; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.

45. İnsan kendi kilosunu, yiyeceklerini ayarlayarak kontrolü altında tutabilir.

46. İnsanın yaşamının alacağı yönü, çevresindeki güç sahibi kişiler belirler.

47. Büyük ideallere ancak çalışıp çabalayarak ulaşılabilir.

Appendix B

Items for Attribution Scale

Attribution to self:

1.   İş yerindeki bu olumsuz olayları ve sorunları yaşamamın sebebi benim.

2.   İş yerindeki bu olumsuz davranışları kendim hak ediyorum.

3.   Nerede çalışırsam çalışayım aynı sorunları yaşayacağımı biliyorum.

Attribution to perpetrator:

1.   İş yerinde bu olumsuz davranışlara maruz kalmamın sebebi bu davranışları yapan kişiden kaynaklanır.

2.   Bu kişi elinden gelse diğer çalışanlara da aynı davranışları gösterir.

Attribution to organization:

1.   Bu davranışlara çalıştığım kurumun uygulamaları yüzünden maruz kalıyorum.

2.   Öyle bir yerde çalışıyorumki herkes rahatlıkla bu tür olumsuz davranışlarda bulunabilir.

3.   Kurum kültürümüz iş yerinde baskı oluşmasına çok uygundur.

Appendix C

Items for Coping with Harassment Questionnaire

Problem Focused Coping:

Hareketi yapan kişiden beni rahat bırakmasını isterim.

Hareketi yapan kişiyi İnsan Kaynakları Bölümü'ne rapor ederim.

Hareketi yapan kişiye, yaptığı davranıştan rahatsız olduğumu belirtmeye çalışırım.

Bu kişinin üzerinde yetkili olan bir kişi ile olay hakkında konuşurum.

Yazılı şikâyette bulunurum.

Emotion Focused Coping:

Hareketi yapan kişiden uzak durmaya çalışırım.

Hareketi yapan kişiyle karşılaşmamaya çalışırım.

Destek bulmak ve anlayış görmek için arkadaşlarımla konuşurum.

Hareketi yapan kişiyle yalnız kalmamaya çalışırım.

Ne yapabileceğim konusunda tavsiye almak için bir arkadaşıma danışırım.

Appendix D

Items for Mobbing in Workplace Scale

Damage to reputation and self esteem

Yaptığım her iş ince ince izlenir.

Yaptığım her iş eleştirilir, hatalarım tekrar tekrar yüzüme vurulur.

Benimle bağırılıp çağırılarak veya kaba bir tarzda konuşulur.

İşe ilişkin kararlarım sorgulanır.

Olumsuz mimik ve bakışlar yöneltilir.

Benimle herkesin önünde aşağılayıcı bir üslupla konuşulur.

İşyerimde yaşanan her türlü problemin sorumlusu tutulurum.

Tehditkar söz veya davranışlar yöneltilir.

Harm to privacy

Özel yaşamımla ilgili konuşulmasını istemediğim hassas konular açığa çıkarılır.

Dış görünüşümle, hal ve hareketlerimle veya kusurlarımla alay edilir.

Özel yaşamımla alay edilir.

Özel yaşamıma ilişkin hakaret boyutuna varan eleştiriler yapılır.

Siyasi ve dini görüşlerim nedeniyle sözlü veya sözsüz saldırılara hedef olurum.

Cinsel içerikli söz ve bakışlar yöneltilir.

E-postama veya ofisime aşağılayıcı, hakaret içeren resim veya yazılar gönderilir.

Work related harmful behavior

Mesleki becerilerimin altında veya özsaygıma zarar veren işler yapmam istenir.

İşimle ilgili yanlış bilgi verilir veya saklanır.

Yetiştirilmesi imkansız, mantıksız görev ve hedefler verilir.

İşle ilgili konularda söz hakkı verilmez veya sözüm kesilir.

Sorumluluklarım daraltılır veya elimden alınır.

İşle ilgili öneri ve görüşlerim reddedilir.

Başarılarım, başkalarınca sahiplenilir.

Ofis içinde veya dışındayken gereksiz telefon çağrıları ile rahatsız edilirim.

Exclusionist behavior

İşyerinde sanki yokmuşum gibi davranılır.

İşyerinin kutlamalarına benim dışımda herkes çağrılır.

İş arkadaşlarım benimle birlikte çalışmaktan, aynı projede yer almaktan kaçınır.

İş arkadaşlarımdan ayrı bir bölümde çalışmaya zorlanırım.

Appendix E

Demographic Information Form

Yaş: 20-25 yaş arası ☐ 26-30 yaş arası ☐ 31-40 yaş arası ☐
40 yaş ve üzeri ☐

Cinsiyet: Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐

Medeni Hal: Evli ☐ Bekar ☐ Boşanmış ☐

Eğitim Durumu: Lise ☐ Yüksek okul ☐ Üniversite ☐
Yüksek Lisans ☐

İşiniz/Mesleğiniz: _____

Ünvanınız (Mevki/Pozisyon): _____

Kaç yıldır bu işi yapıyorsunuz: _____

Şu anda mobbing davranışlarına maruz kalıyor musunuz? Evet ☐
Hayır ☐

Evet ise;

Ne kadar süredir mobbing davranışlarına maruz kalıyorsunuz?
_____

Ne zamandan beri şu anki kurumunuzda çalışıyorsunuz?
_____

Hayır ise;

Ne kadar süre mobbing davranışına maruz kaldınız?
_____

Mobbinge uğradığınız kurumda ne kadar çalıştınız?
_____

Appendix F

Survey Package

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Sayın Katılımcı;

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Kübra Yıkılmaz ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer tarafından yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı mobing davranışları ile karşı karşıya kalmış kişilerin kullandığı stresle başa çıkma yöntemlerini, kontrol odaklarını ve nedensel atıf süreçlerini incelemektir.

Bu kitapçıkta toplam dört ölçek yer almakta olup, her bölümün başında ölçek içeriği ve ölçek sorularının nasıl cevaplanacağına yönelik açıklamalar yer almaktadır. Lütfen her bölümün başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Anketin cevaplanması yaklaşık 15 dakika sürmekte olup herhangi bir süre kısıtlaması bulunmamaktadır.

ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu onayından geçmiş olan bu çalışmaya **katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır**. Anket genel olarak, kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir; ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden dolayı kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemeniz yeterli olacaktır. Lütfen tüm sorulara tek başınıza ve içtenlikle cevap veriniz. Bu çalışmada önemli olan sizin bireysel düşünceleriniz ve yaşadıklarınızdır. **Verdiğiniz yanıtlar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve herhangi bir şekilde bireysel değerlendirme yapılmayacaktır**. Ankete isim yazmanız istenmemektedir. Tüm maddeleri eksiksiz olarak cevaplamanızı rica eder, araştırmaya katılımınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederiz.

İletişim Bilgileri:

Kübra Yıkılmaz   Danışman: Prof. Dr. H. Canan
Sümer

İnsan Kaynakları Uzmanı   ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü

Tel: (0 312) 860 64 24   Tel: (0 312) 210 31 32

E-posta: yikilmazkubra@hotmail.com   E-posta: hcanan@metu.edu.tr

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesebileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

İsim Soyad/Baş Harfler   Tarih
        İmza

_____   ____/____/____

_____

Bölüm 1.

İş Yerinde Olumsuz Davranışlara Maruz Kalma Ölçeği

Bu bölümde kişilerin iş yerinde karşılaştıkları olumsuz bazı davranışlar sıralanmıştır. Sizden istenen her maddede ifade edilen durumla ne sıklıkla karşılaştığınızı beş basamaklı ölçek üzerinde ilgili rakamın bulunduğu kutucuğu işaretleyerek belirtmenizdir. "Doğru" ya da "yanlış" cevap diye bir şey söz konusu değildir.

Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Zaman zaman	Oldukça sıklıkla	Her zaman
1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Zaman zaman	sıklıkla	Her zaman
1.	Yaptığım her iş ince ince izlenir.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Mesleki becerilerimin altında veya özsaygıma zarar veren işler yapmam istenir.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Yaptığım her iş eleştirilir, hatalarım tekrar tekrar yüzüme vurulur.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	İşimle ilgili yanlış bilgi verilir veya saklanır.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Soru ve taleplerim yanıtsız bırakılır.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Yetiştirilmesi imkansız, mantıksız görev ve hedefler verilir.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	İşle ilgili konularda söz hakkı verilmez veya sözüm kesilir.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Sorumluluklarım daraltılır veya elimden alınır.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	İşle ilgili öneri ve görüşlerim reddedilir.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Benimle bağırılıp çağırılarak veya kaba bir tarzda konuşulur.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Zaman zaman	sıklıkla	Her zaman
11.	İşe ilişkin kararlarım sorgulanır.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Olumsuz mimik ve bakışlar yöneltilir.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Özel yaşamımla ilgili konuşulmasını istemediğim hassas konular açığa çıkarılır.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Benimle herkesin önünde aşağılayıcı bir üslupla konuşulur.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Dış görünüşümle, hal ve hareketlerimle veya kusurlarımla alay edilir.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Özel yaşamımla alay edilir.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	İşyerimde yaşanan her türlü problemin sorumlusu tutulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	İşyerinde sanki yokmuşum gibi davranılır.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	İşyerinin kutlamalarına benim dışımda herkes çağrılır.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Başarılarım, başkalarınca sahiplenilir.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	İş arkadaşlarım benimle birlikte çalışmaktan, aynı projede yer almaktan kaçınır.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	İş arkadaşlarımdan ayrı bir bölümde çalışmaya zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Özel yaşamıma ilişkin hakaret boyutuna varan eleştiriler yapılır.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Siyasi ve dini görüşlerim nedeniyle sözlü veya sözsüz saldırılara hedef olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Ofis içinde veya dışındayken gereksiz telefon çağrıları ile rahatsız edilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Cinsel içerikli söz ve bakışlar yöneltilir.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Tehditkar söz veya davranışlar yöneltilir.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	E-postama veya ofisime aşağılayıcı, hakaret içeren resim veya yazılar gönderilir.	1	2	3	4	5

Bölüm 2.

Atıf Süreci Ölçeği

Bu bölümde olumsuz yaşantılarınıza ilişkin algılarınıza yönelik sekiz madde bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenen, bu maddeleri bir önceki bölümde rapor edilen olumsuz durumları düşünerek okumanız ve her bir maddede ifade edilen görüşe ne oranda katıldığınızı beş basamaklı ölçek üzerinde (1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum; 5 = Tamamen Katılıyorum), ilgili rakamın bulunduğu kutucuğu işaretleyerek belirtmenizdir.

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1	2	3	4	5

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1.	İş yerindeki bu olumsuz olayları ve sorunları yaşamamın sebebi benim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	İş yerindeki bu olumsuz davranışları kendim hak ediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

		Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
3.	Nerede çalışırsam çalışayım aynı sorunları yaşayacağımı biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	İş yerinde bu olumsuz davranışlara maruz kalmamın sebebi bu davranışları yapan kişiden kaynaklanır.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Bu kişi elinden gelse diğer çalışanlara da aynı davranışları gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Bu davranışlara çalıştığım kurumun uygulamaları yüzünden maruz kalıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Öyle bir yerde çalışıyorum ki herkes rahatlıkla bu tür olumsuz davranışlarda bulunabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Kurum kültürümüz iş yerinde baskı oluşmasına çok uygundur.	1	2	3	4	5

Bölüm 3.

Kontrol Odağı Ölçeği

Aşağıda sunulan maddeler, insanların yaşama ilişkin bazı düşüncelerini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sizden, bu maddelerde yansıtılan düşüncelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı ifade etmeniz istenmektedir.

Bunun için, her maddeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve o maddede ifade edilen düşüncenin *sizin* düşüncelerinize uygunluk derecesini beş basamaklı ölçek üzerinde belirtiniz. Bunun için de, her ifadenin karşısındaki seçeneklerden sizin görüşünüzü yansıtan kutucuğa bir (X) işareti koymanız yeterlidir. "Doğru" ya da "yanlış" cevap diye bir şey söz konusu değildir.

Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
1	2	3	4	5

		Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
1.	İnsanın yaşamındaki mutsuzlukların çoğu, biraz da şanssızlığına bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın üşütüp hasta olmanın önüne geçemez.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Bir şeyin olacağı varsa eninde sonunda mutlaka olur.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	İnsan ne kadar çabalarsa çabalasın, ne yazık ki değeri genellikle anlaşılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
5.	İnsanlar savaşları önlemek için ne kadar çaba gösterirlerse göstersinler, savaşlar daima olacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Bazı insanlar doğuştan şanslıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	İnsan ilerlemek için güç sahibi kişilerin gönlünü hoş tutmak zorundadır.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, hiç bir şey istediği gibi sonuçlanmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Bir çok insan, rastlantıların yaşamlarını ne derece etkilediğinin farkında değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Bir insanın halen ciddi bir hastalığa yakalanmamış olması sadece bir şans meselesidir.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Dört yapraklı yonca bulmak insana şans getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	İnsanın burcu hangi hastalıklara daha yatkın olacağını belirler.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Bir sonucu elde etmede insanın neleri bildiği değil, kimleri tanıdığı önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	İnsanın bir günü iyi başladıysa iyi; kötü başladıysa da kötü gider.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Başarılı olmak çok çalışmaya bağlıdır; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Aslında şans diye bir şey yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Hastalıklar çoğunlukla insanların dikkatsizliklerinden kaynaklanır.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Talihsizlik olarak nitelenen durumların çoğu, yetenek eksikliğinin, ihmalin, tembelliğin ve benzeri nedenlerin sonucudur.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	İnsan, yaşamında olabilecek şeyleri kendi kontrolü altında tutabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Çoğu durumda yazı-tura atarak da isabetli kararlar verilebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	İnsanın ne yapacağı konusunda kararlı olması, kadere güvenmesinden daima iyidir.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	İnsan fazla bir çaba harcamasa da, karşılaştığı sorunlar kendiliğinden çözülür.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
23.	Çok uzun vadeli planlar yapmak her zaman akıllıca olmayabilir, çünkü bir çok şey zaten iyi ya da kötü şansa bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Birçok hastalık insanı yakalar ve bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, olabilecek kötü şeylerin önüne geçemez.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	İnsanın istediğini elde etmesinin talihle bir ilgisi yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	İnsan kendisini ilgilendiren birçok konuda kendi başına doğru kararlar alabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Bir insanın başına gelenler, temelde kendi yaptıklarının sonucudur.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Halk, yeterli çabayı gösterse siyasal yolsuzlukları ortadan kaldırabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Şans ya da talih hayatta önemli bir rol oynamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Sağlıklı olup olmamayı belirleyen esas şey insanların kendi yaptıkları ve alışkanlıklarıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	İnsan kendi yaşamına temelde kendisi yön verir.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	İnsanların talihsizlikleri yaptıkları hataların sonucudur.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	İnsanlarla yakın ilişkiler kurmak, tesadüflere değil, çaba göstermeye bağlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	İnsanın hastalanacağı varsa hastalanır; bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	İnsan bugün yaptıklarıyla gelecekte olabilecekleri değiştirebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Kazalar, doğrudan doğruya hataların sonucudur.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Bu dünya güç sahibi bir kaç kişi tarafından yönetilmektedir ve sade vatandaşın bu konuda yapabileceği fazla bir şey yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	İnsanın dini inancının olması, hayatta karşılaşacağı bir çok zorluğu daha kolay aşmasına yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Bir insan istediği kadar akıllı olsun, bir işe başladığında şansı yaver gitmezse başarılı olamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	İnsan kendine iyi baktığı sürece hastalıklardan kaçınabilir.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
42.	Kaderin insan yaşamı üzerinde çok büyük bir rolü vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Kararlılık bir insanın istediği sonuçları almasında en önemli etkendir.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	İnsanlara doğru şeyi yaptırmak bir yetenek işidir; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	İnsan kendi kilosunu, yiyeceklerini ayarlayarak kontrolü altında tutabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	İnsanın yaşamının alacağı yönü, çevresindeki güç sahibi kişiler belirler.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Büyük ideallere ancak çalışıp çabalayarak ulaşılabilir.	1	2	3	4	5

Bölüm 4.

İş Yeri Olumsuz Davranışlar ile Başa Çıkma Ölçeği

Bu bölümde, iş yerinde Bölüm 1'de rapor edilen olumsuz davranışlara maruz kaldığınız takdirde, aşağıdaki tepkileri verme ihtimalinizi "Evet" veya "Hayır" diye belirterek değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir.

1.	Kendime yaşadığım şeyin çok da önemli olmadığını söylerim.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
2.	Hareketi yapan kişiden uzak durmaya çalışırım.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
3.	Hareketi yapan kişiden beni rahat bırakmasını isterim.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
4.	Güvendiğim birisi ile olay hakkında konuşurum.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
5.	Hareketi yapan kişiyi İnsan Kaynakları Bölümü'ne rapor ederim.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
6.	Olayı unutmaya çalışırım.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
7.	Hareketi yapan kişiyle karşılaşmamaya çalışırım.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
8.	Hareketi yapan kişiye, yaptığı davranıştan rahatsız olduğumu belirtmeye çalışırım.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
9.	Resmi bir şikayette bulunurum.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____
10.	Destek bulmak ve anlayış görmek için arkadaşlarımla konuşurum.	*Evet*_____	*Hayır*_____

11.	Hareketi yapan kişiyle yalnız kalmamaya çalışırım.	Evet_____	Hayır_____
12.	Ne yapabileceğim konusunda tavsiye almak için bir arkadaşıma danışırım.	Evet_____	Hayır_____
13.	Bu kişinin üzerinde yetkili olan bir kişi ile olay hakkında konuşurum.	Evet_____	Hayır_____
14.	Yazılı şikayette bulunurum.	Evet_____	Hayır_____

Bölüm 5.

Demografik Bilgiler

Yaş: 20-25 yaş arası ☐   26-30 yaş arası ☐   31-40 yaş arası ☐

                     40 yaş ve üzeri ☐

Cinsiyet: Kadın ☐   Erkek ☐

Medeni Hal: Evli   ☐   Bekar ☐   Boşanmış ☐

Eğitim Durumu: Lise   ☐   Yüksek okul   ☐   Üniversite   ☐

                  Yüksek Lisans   ☐

İşiniz/Mesleğiniz: _____

Ünvanınız (Mevki/Pozisyon): _____

Kaç yıldır bu işi yapıyorsunuz: _____

Şu anda mobbing davranışlarına maruz kalıyor musunuz? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evet ise;

Ne kadar süredir mobbing davranışlarına maruz kalıyorsunuz?
_____

Ne zamandan beri şu anki kurumunuzda çalışıyorsunuz?
_____

Hayır ise;

Ne kadar süre mobbing davranışına maruz kaldınız?
_____

Mobbinge uğradığınız kurumda ne kadar çalıştınız?

_____

Katılım Sonrası Bilgi Formu

Bu çalışma daha önce de belirtildiği gibi Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden Kübra Yıkılmaz ve Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim görevlilerinden Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer tarafından yürütülmektedir. Aşağıda bu çalışmaya yönelik biraz daha ayrıntılı bir bilgi sunulmaktadır.

İş yerinde yıldırma, bezdirme zorbalık vb. anlamına gelen mobing (ya da psikolojik taciz) üzerine yürütülen bu çalışmada mobing davranışları ile karşı karşıya kalmış kişilerin kullandığı stresle başa çıkma yöntemleri incelenmektedir. Bunu yaparken de, kişilerin kontrol odağı (olaylar üzerinde öz-kontrol olduğuna ya da dış kontrol olduğuna yönelik temel inanış) ve atıf süreçleri (olaylara yönelik nedensel atıfların nasıl yapıldığı) de incelenmektedir. Bu çalışma aracılığı ile belirli kişisel özelliklerin mobinge maruz kalmış kişilerin bu durumla baş etme yöntemleri üzerindeki etkisinin ne olduğunun saptanması da hedeflenmektedir.

Veri toplanma esnasında *"İş Yerinde Olmusuz Davranışlara Maruz Kalma Ölçeği"* karşılaşılan mobing davranışlarını belirlemek, *"Atıf Süreci Ölçeği"* mobingin nedeninin kime/neye atfedildiğini saptamak, *"Kontrol Odağı Ölçeği"* katılımcıların yaşama ilişkin düşüncelerini iç kontrol odağı ve dış kontrol odağı olarak belirlemek, *"İş Yerinde Olmsuz Davranışlarla Baş Etme Yöntemleri Ölçeği"* ise katılımcıların mobing olgusu ile hangi yöntemleri kullanarak baş ettiği hakkında bilgi edinmek amacı ile kullanılmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın Haziran 2013 itibari ile tamamlanması planlanmaktadır. Verdiğiniz bilgiler toplu olarak değerlendirilecek olup, kişisel bazda herhangi bir değerlendirme yapılmayacaktır. Elde edilecek veriler sadece bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılacak olup, tez çalışması kapsamında sunulacaktır. Çalışma hakkında daha detaylı bilgi edinmek veya çalışmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek için sorularınızı aşağıda

iletişim bilgileri yer alan araştırmacılara yöneltebilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katıldığınız için tekrar teşekkür ederiz.

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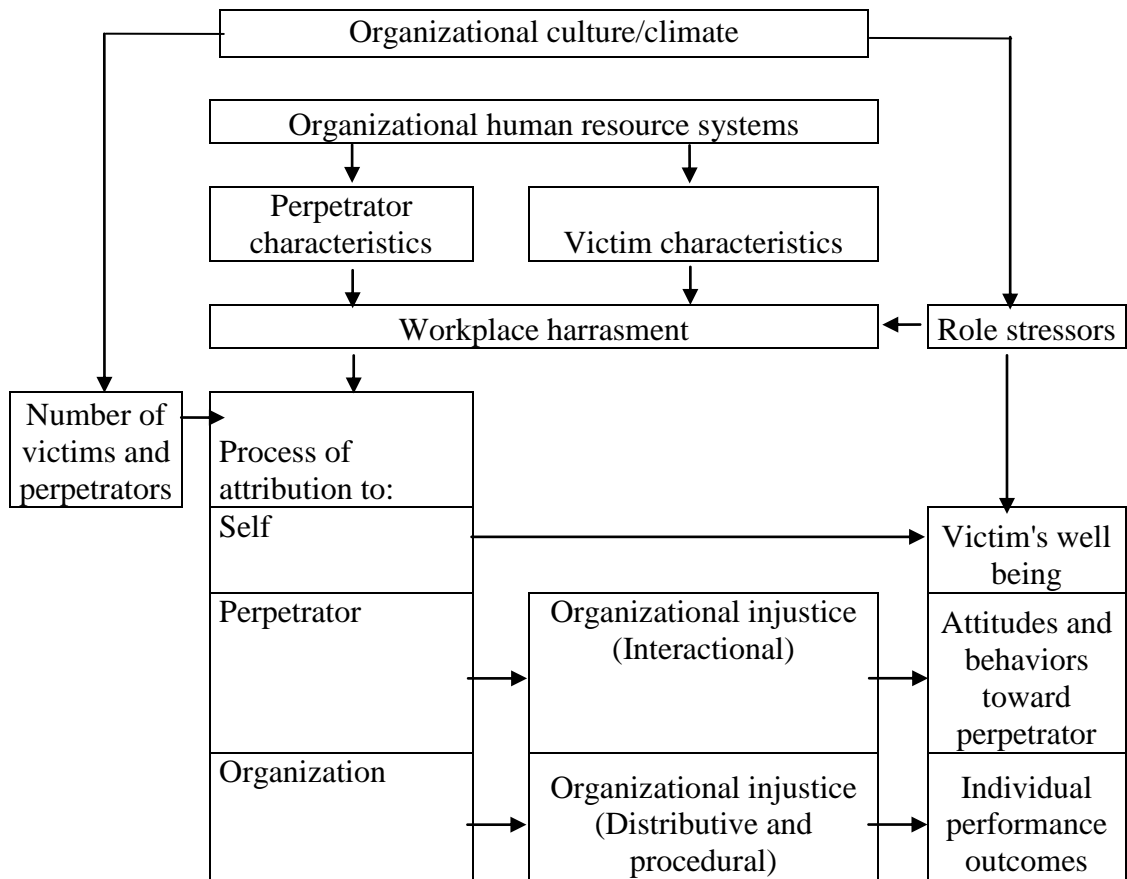
Appendix G

Perpetrator Profiles

Type of Profile	Definition of Profile
Mischievious mobber	Someone looks for malignancy, tries to hurt others by slanders.
Lurker mobber	She/he is in the observer position. Although she/he does not attack apparently, she/he does not try to stop the mobbing behavior directed toward the victim.
Angry mobber	Because of his/her characteristics he/she is impulsive, always yelling, and in the mood of maledicting. He/She turns the workplace into an insufferable place due to his/her nervous behaviors.
Megalomaniac mobber	Perceives him/herself superior than everybody else. He/She reflects his inconfidence toward others. He/she reflects jealousy, dislike and assaultiveness. The control of everything belongs to her/him and everybody has to adapt the rules that he/she created.

Type of Profile	Definition of Profile
Sadistic mobber	He/she enjoys with ruining anybody. This individual is defined as aberrant and narssistic. He/she tries everything in order to rise in hierarchical status.
Argumentative mobber	He/she is never satisfied with others' work. He/she always criticize others and cause to an unsatisfied and stressful climate in workplace.
Coward mobber	He/she is in panic because of the idea that others may become more successful than him/her and can get a higher position. In order to protect themselves such people apply mobbing.

Source: P. Tınaz, 2006

Appendix H

Reciprocity and attribution processes in workplace harrasment

Organizational culture/climate

Organizational human resource systems

Perpetrator characteristics	Victim characteristics

Workplace harrasment	Role stressors

Number of victims and perpetrators

Process of attribution to:		
Self		Victim's well being
Perpetrator	Organizational injustice (Interactional)	Attitudes and behaviors toward perpetrator
Organization	Organizational injustice (Distributive and procedural)	Individual performance outcomes

(Source: Bowling & Beehr, 2006, p. 999)

Appendix I

Türkçe Özet

Giriş

Psikolojik taciz ya da mobing, bir veya birden fazla kişi tarafından sistematik bir şekilde ve uzun süreli olarak mağduru savunmasız bırakacak şekilde uygulanan davranışlar bütünüdür (Tınaz, Gök ve Karatuna, 2010). Bu olgunun sonucunda, hem mağdura yönelik, hem de örgütü yönelik olumsuz sonuçlar meydana gelir. Psikolojik taciz olgusundan zarar gören kişilerde psikolojik ve fizyolojik sağlık problemleri, işten ayrılma ve hatta intihar düşünceleri gözlenebilir. Diğer taraftan psikolojik taciz örgütsel sağlığı da tehdit eder ve organizasyon için itibar kaybına yol açar (Tınaz, 2011). Bunun dışında, psikolojik taciz ile iş tatmini, örgüte bağlılık ve aidiyet arasında negatif yönde bir ilişki olduğu (Bowling ve Beehr, 2006); devamsızlık, çalışan devir oranı gibi olgularla ise pozitif yönde bir ilişki olduğu (Hoel ve Cooper, 2001; Hauge, Skogstad, ve Einarsen, 2009) bulunmuştur. İşyerinde psikolojik taciz konusu araştırmacılar için ilgi çekici olsa da, proaktif bir yaklaşım sergileyebilmek için konu ile ilgili daha fazla çalışma yapılması ve bu tür tacizin yordayıcıları, eş değişenleri ve sonuçları araştırmalıdır (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, ve Cooper, 2003). Araştırılması gereken önemli bir nokta da psikolojik tacize uğrayan kişilerin bu olumsuz durumla baş ederken izlediği yöntemler/stratejiler ve bu yöntemleri belirleyen bireysel farklılık değişkenleridir. Diğer bir deyişle, psikolojik taciz olgusuna maruz kalan mağdurların kişisel farklılıkları ile ilgili daha fazla çalışmaya ihtiyaç vardır.

Belirli kişilik özelliklerine sahip bireylerin psikolojik taciz mağduru olmaya yatkınlıklarının daha yüksek olduğuna dair bir görüş bulunmaktadır (Coyne, Seigne,

ve Randall, 2000). Milam, Spitzmueller and Penney (2009) psikolojik taciz mağduriyeti ile yüksek nevrotiklik ve düşük uyumluluk arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu öne sürmüşlerdir. Benzer şekilde, Glaso, Mattthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2007) psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının daha az uyumlu olduğunu söylemektedirler. Cinsiyet farkı açısından incelendiğinde ise kadınların, erkeklere oranla psikolojik taciz mağduriyetlerinin daha yüksek olduğu ifade edilmektedir (Aquino ve Bradfield, 2000).

İlgili yazın incelendiğinde, psikolojik taciz olgusu ile başa çıkma stratejileri konusunda eksiklik olduğu görülmüştür. Psikolojik taciz ile başa çıkmak için kişilerin sağlıklı taktikler uygulaması, yani tacizin temsil ettiği stresle etkin başa çıkma stratejileri izlemeleri gerekmektedir. Başa çıkma, kişinin stres yaratıcı faktörleri önleme ya da üstesinden gelme çabası çerçevesinde kullandığı düşünce ve davranışlardır (Lazarus ve Folkman, 1984). Stresle başa çıkma stratejileri ile ilgili farklı sınıflandırmalar yer almaktadır. Bu sınıflandırmalar içerisinde en çok bilinen/kullanılan sınıflamada iki ayrı başa çıkma mekanizması tanımlanmaktadır. Bunlar, problem odaklı ve duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileridir (Lazarus ve Folkman, 1984). Problem odaklı başa çıkmada, birey bilgi toplama, karar verme gibi aktif stratejiler izler. Duygusal odaklı başa çıkmada ise birey duyguların etkisini azaltmaya yönelik hareket eder ve bu doğrultuda duygularını düzenlemeye çalışır (Folkman, 2010).

Conor-Smith ve Flachsbart (2007) kişilik ve başa çıkma ile ilgili çalışmalarında, kişiliğin başa çıkmayı yönlendiren bir etken olduğunu belirtirler. Bir dizi çalışma bununla ilgili çeşitli bulgulara yer vermektedir. Örneğin, Cozzarelli (1993) öz-yeterliğin başa çıkmayı güçlü bir şekilde yordadığını ileri sürmüştür. Optimizm, dışa dönüklülük, açıklık ve vicdaniyet olguları daha fazla problem odaklı baş etme ile, nevrotiklik daha fazla duygusal odaklı baş etme ile, optimizm, vicdaniyet ve uyumluluk ise daha az duygusal odaklı baş etme ile ilişkilendirilmiştir (Carver ve

Conor-Smith, 2010). Günümüzde büyük beş kişilik özellikleri ile başa çıkma tarzları arasındaki bağıntılar üzerinde geniş ve büyüyen bir literatür mevcuttur. Ancak, büyük beşli dışındaki kişilik özelliklerinin başa çıkma sürecinde etkin olabileceğine yönelik çalışmalara ihtiyaç vardır. Örneğin, bireysel farklılık değişkenleri olarak kontrol odağı ve kişinin atıf (yüklem) odağının, kullandığı başa çıkma stratejileri üzerindeki etkisi ile ilgili çalışmalar son derece kısıtlıdır ve/ya dolaylıdır.

Kontrol odağı tanımı ilk defa Rotter tarafından 1966 yılında yapılmıştır. Kontrol odağı, bireyin etrafında gelişen olayları nasıl algıladığı ve karşılaştığı bu olaylar üzerinde ne kadar kontrol sahibi olduğu hakkındaki inanışını anlatır (Bono ve Judge, 2003). Rotter (1966), kontrol odağını iç ve dış kontrol odağı olarak iki gruba ayırır. İç kontrol odağına sahip kişiler davranışları ile pekiştireçlar arasında bir ilişki olduğuna inanmaktadır. Diğer yandan, dış kontrol odağına sahip kişiler ise pekiştireçlerin kader, şans gibi kendileri dışındaki bazı güçlerin elinde olduğunu düşünmektedir (Rotter, 1966). Kontrol odağının başa çıkma tarzları ile ilişkisi açısından bakıldığında, iç kontrol odağına sahip bireylerin stres ile karşılaşması durumunda aktif aksiyon olmaya daha fazla yatkın olduğuna yönelik bulgular vardır (Maltby, Day, ve Macaskill, 2007). Ancak bu tür çalışmalar kısıtlıdır. Bu anlayışla, bu çalışmanın bir amacı kontrol odağının başa çıkma tarzları üzerindeki rolünü ortaya çıkarmaktır. Bunun yanında, bu çalışma psikolojik taciz bağlamında yürütüldüğünden, kontrol odağı ile başa çıkma tarzları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının başa çıkma tarzları ile ilgili bilgi sağlayacaktır.

İnsanlar, başlarına gelen olayların neden meydana gelmiş odluğunu anlamak isterler. Atıf, kişinin, kendi davranışları da dahil olmak üzere, olayların nedenselliği konusundaki zihinsel çıkarsamaları, olayların nedenlerine ilişkin kişisel açıklamalarıdır ve kişinin davranış ve duygularını etkiler (Martinko, Harvey, ve

Dasborough, 2010). Bowling ve Beehr (2006), işyerinde psikolojik tacizi açıklayan en az üç neden olduğunu öne sürer. Bu üç nedeni yaptıkları meta-analiz çalışmasında, *çalışma ortamının özellikleri*, *taciz eden kişi* ve *taciz mağduru* olarak belirtirler. Bowling ve Beehr'in çalışmasında bu atıf süreçleri açıklayıcı olsa da bu konuda daha fazla çalışma yapılması önerilmektedir. Bu bağlamda, bu üç atıf sürecinin (tacizi, kişinin kendisine atfetmesi, taciz uygulayıcısına atfetmesi ve örgüte atfetmesi) tacizle başa çıkma tarzları üzerindeki etkisi de bu çalışma kapsamında incelenmektedir.

Özetle, bu çalışmada, hem kontrol odağı, hem de psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının psikolojik taciz nedenini neye atfettiğinin, kullanılan başa çıkma tarzı üzerinde önemli rolleri olduğu öngörülmektedir. Bu iki değişkenin incelenmesinin, psikolojik taciz ile etkin başa çıkma üzerindeki kişisel farklılıkları ortaya çıkaracağı düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmanın, kişisel farklılıkları yansıtan iki önemli değişkenin (kontrol odağı ve atıf süreçleri) psikolojik taciz ile başa çıkma tarzları üzerindeki etkisini araştırmasıyla ilgili yazınına bir katkı yapma potansiyelinde olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bu çalışmada aşağıdaki hipotezler öne sürülmüştür:

Hipotez 1a. İç kontrol odağına sahip olan psikolojik taciz mağdurları daha fazla problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanırlar.

Hipotez 1b. Dış kontrol odağına sahip olan psikolojik taciz mağdurları daha fazla duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanırlar.

Hipotez 2a. Psikolojik taciz nedenini kendisine atfeden psikolojik taciz mağdurları daha fazla duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanırlar.

Hipotez 2b. Psikolojik taciz nedenini psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısına atfeden psikolojik taciz mağdurları daha fazla problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanırlar.

Hipotez 2c. Psikolojik taciz nedenini örgüte atfeden psikolojik taciz mağdurları daha fazla problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanırlar.

Bunun dışında, kontrol odağının, kullanılan başa çıkma stratejisi ile atıf süreçleri (kişinin psikolojik taciz nedenini kendisine atfetmesi, kişinin psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısına atfetmesi, kişinin örgüte atfetmesi) arasındaki ilişki üzerinde aracı bir role sahip olduğu öngörülmektedir. Ancak, bununla ilgili herhangi bir hipotez önerilmemektedir.

Yöntem

Bu çalışmanın hedef kitlesi psikolojik taciz mağdurlarıdır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma Ankara'da yer alan "Mobing ile Mücadele Derneği" (MOBBINGDER) üyeleri ile iletişime geçilerek yapılmıştır. Dernek, 2010 yılında psikolojik taciz ile ilgili farkındalık ve bilinci artırmak ve psikolojik taciz vakalarını azaltmak amacıyla kurulmuştur. Çalışmaya, Türkiye'nin çeşitli illerinden, çeşitli sektörlerde çalışan 160 psikolojik taciz mağduru katılmıştır. Katılımcılarla e-posta ve derneğin web sayfasında yayınlanan bir duyuru aracılığıyla iletişime geçilmiştir. Yüzde 65'i kadın olan katılımcıların yaş aralıkları 20 ile 40 arasında değişmektedir. Yüz yirmi sekiz katılımcı hala psikolojik tacize maruz kaldığını belirtmiştir. Katılımcılar arasında öğretmenler, mimarlar, psikologlar, mavi yaka çalışanları, doktorlar, hemşireler ve avukatlar yer bulunmaktadır.

Ölçüm araçları olarak çalışmada, yazar tarafından geliştirilen "Atıf Süreci Ölçeği", Dağ (2002) tarafından geliştirilen "Kontrol Odağı Ölçeği", Fitzgerald (1990) tarafından geliştirilen "İş Yeri Olumsuz Davranışlar ile Başa Çıkma Ölçeği" Tınaz, Gök, ve Karatuna (2009) tarafından geliştirilen "İş Yerinde Olumsuz Davranışlara Maruz Kalma Ölçeği", ve Demografik Bilgi Formu kullanılmıştır.

Temel Bulgular ve Tartışma

Çalışmada öncelikle ölçekler üzerinde açımlayıcı faktör analizleri geçerlilik ve güvenirlik analizleri yapılmıştır. Faktör analizlerinin sonuçları doğrultusunda, İş Yeri Olumsuz Davranışlar ile Başa Çıkma Ölçeği için iki faktör, Atıf süreci Ölçeği için ise üç faktör tespit edilmiştir,. Önceki çalışmalarda görece daha çok kullanılmış olan ve psikometrik özellikleri doyurucu bulunan Kontrol Odağı Ölçeği üzerinde ise faktör analizi yapılmamıştır. Kullanılan tüm ölçeklerin güvenirlik katsayıları yeterli bulunmuştur.

Çalışmanın amacı, psikolojik tacize maruz kalınması durumunda kişilerin farklı başa çıkma stratejilerinin kullanımını etkileyen faktörleri incelemektir. Olafsson ve Johannsdottir (2004)'in de belirttiği gibi, iş yerinde psikolojik taciz, iş yerinde karşılaşılan en güçlü stres kaynaklarından birisidir ve mağdurlar bununla başa çıkmalıdır. Bu bağlamda, ana analizler kapsamında ise, kontrol odağı, atıf süreci ve başa çıkma stratejileri arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermek için regresyon analizleri gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk yapılan regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, sonunda, iç kontrol odağının (yaş ve cinsiyet kontrol edildikten sonra), problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerini anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Diğer bir deyişle, , psikolojik taciz mağduru olan bireyin iç kontrol odağına sahip olması problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımını artırmaktadır. Böylelikle, Hipotez 1a doğrulanmıştır. Elde edilen bu bulgu, literatürde yer alan bazı çalışmalarla da

paraleldir. Örneğin, Petrosky ve Birkimer (1991), iç kontrol odağı ve olayları kontrol etme algısının problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımını yordadığını belirtmiştir. Benzer şekilde, Anderson (1977), iç kontrol odağına sahip kişilerin problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerini duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerinden daha fazla kullandıklarını öne sürmüşlerdir. Erez ve Judge'a (2001) göre iç kontrol odağı, iç motivasyonu ve istenilen sonuçlara ulaşmak için gösterilen eforu yansıtmaktadır. Bunun dışında, iç kontrol odağına sahip kişilerin iş tatmin oranları dış kontrol odağına sahip kişilere göre daha yüksek bulunmuştur (Kimmons ve Greenhaus, 1976). Tüm bu çalışmalar, iç kontrol odağına sahip kişilerin içinde bulundukları durumu iyileştirmeye yönelik hareket ettiklerini, olumlu sonuçlara erişmek için çaba gösterdiklerini ve daha sağlıklı başa çıkma stratejileri uyguladıklarını göstermektedir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmadan elde edilen sonuç doğrultusunda, iç kontrol odağının psikolojik taciz gibi zorluklar karşısında tampon görevi yaptığını söylenebilir.

Hipotez 1b'de ise dış kontrol odağına sahip kişilerin duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerini daha çok kullanacağı belirtilmiştir. Ancak, analiz sonuçları bu hipotezi doğrulamamıştır. Dış kontrol odağı ve duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımı arasındaki ilişkinin gücü istatiksel anlamlılık göstermemiş olsa da, ilişkinin yönü beklenen doğrultuda bulunmuştur. Hipotezin doğrulanamama nedenlerinden birisi, çalışmanın örnekleminin hem psikolojik tacize mevcut olarak maruz kalanlar, hem de geçmişte bu mağduriyeti yaşamış kişilerden oluşması olabilir. Bu iki grubun psikolojik taciz deneyimi zamanlama açısından farklılık gösterdiğinden, mevcut başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımı algısını da etkilemiş olabilir. Ayrıca, çalışmada katılımcıların duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımının daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Bu durum, ranj daralması nedeniyle, duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımı ile kontrol odağı arasındaki ilişkiyi zayıflatmış olabilir.

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İkinci hipotezde ise atıf süreçleri ile başa çıkma stratejileri (problem odaklı başa çıkma ve duygusal odaklı başa çıkma) arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Daha önce belirtildiği gibi, atıf süreçleri, Bowling ve Beehr'in (2006) çalışması doğrultusunda kişinin psikolojik tacizin nedenini kendisine atfetmesi, kişinin psikolojik tacizin nedenini psikolojik tacizi yapan kişiye atfetmesi ve kişinin psikolojik tacizin nedenini örgüte atfetmesi olarak üç ayrı grup olarak incelenmiştir. Kişinin psikolojik taciz nedenini kendisine atfetmesi durumunda duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanacağı, psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısı veya örgüte atfetmesi durumunda ise problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanacağı öngörülmüştür. Bulgular, atıf süreçlerinden hiç birisinin başa çıkma stratejileri ile ilişkisinin anlamlı bir ilişkisi olmadığını göstermiştir. Beklenenin tersi yönde olan bu bulgular, literatürün de aksinedir. Martinko, Harvey ve Douglas (2007) atıf süreçlerinin kişilerin beklenti, davranış ve duyguları üzerine etkisi olduğunu söylemişlerdir. Bu nedenle atıf süreçlerinin duygu ve davranışları gösteren başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımına etkisi olması beklenmektedir.

Duygusal odaklı başa çıkma kullanımı ve psikolojik taciz nedeninin örgüte atfedilmesi ile ilgili ortalama değerlere bakıldığında, her ikisi için de yüksek değerler olduğu görülmektedir. Bu nedenle, katılımcıların problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımından psikolojik tacizi destekleyen bir örgüt ikliminde çalışıyor olmalarından dolayı kaçındığı söylenebilir. Bu çıkarım ile paralel olarak Bergman ve arkadaşları (2002) cinsel taciz ile ilgili ihbar ve bildirimin zorluklarından bahsetmişlerdir. Bergman ve arkadaşları (2002), cinsel tacizin bildirilmesi durumunda örgütün olayı küçümsemesi ve örgütün misilleme davranışı içerisinde bulunabilmesi nedeniyle sonuçların iyileştirici olmaktan ziyade olumsuz sonuçları artırıcı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Diğer taraftan, atıf süreçleri ve başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamış olması atıf süreçlerinin ölçümlenmesi için kullanılan araçtan kaynaklanmış olabilir. Bu nedenle, daha sonraki çalışmalarda Atıf Süreci Ölçeği ile ilgili iyileştirici çalışmalar yapılması önerilmektedir. Ayrıca, korelasyon analizlerinde psikolojik taciz nedeninin psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısına ve örgüte atfedilmesi arasındaki ilişkinin yüksek olduğu görülmektedir. Bu doğrultuda, daha sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda bu iki değişkenin birleştirilerek tek başlık altında incelenmesi önerilebilir.

Yukarıda özetlenen temel bulgular haricinde, ana analizlere dahil edilmiş olan kontrol değişkenleri ile başa çıkma stratejileri arasında anlamlı ilişkiler olduğu da saptanmıştır. İlk olarak, problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımı ile yaş arasında anlamlı bir ilişki görülmüştür. Buna göre, katılımcıların yaşı artıkça, problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımı da artmaktadır. Bireylerin ilerleyen yaşla beraber karşılaştıkları olayların ve deneyimlerinin arttığı, stres ile nasıl baş edecekleri konusunda daha fazla bilgi sahibi olduğu göz önüne alınırsa bu bulgu anlamlı gözükmektedir. İkincisi, duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımı ve cinsiyet arasında negatif yönde ve anlamlı bir ilişki gözlemlenmiştir; kadınlar erkeklere göre daha fazla duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri kullanmaktadır. Bu bulguya paralel olarak, Ptacek, Smith ve Dodge (1994) çalışmalarında kadınların erkeklere oranla daha fazla sosyal destek arayışında olduğunu, duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerini daha fazla kullandığını, erkeklerin ise problem odaklı başa çıkmayı daha fazla kullandığını öne sürmüştür. Benzer şekilde, Matud (2004) çalışmasında kadınların kaçınma davranışını stresle başa çıkma durumunda daha fazla gösterdiklerini belirtmektedir. Çocukluklarından itibaren erkeklerin daha bireysel yönelimli, kadınların ise kişilerarası etkileşim ağırlıklı yetiştirildiği göz önüne alındığında (Brannon ve Jess, 2009), kadınların herhangi bir sıkıntı ile karşılaşmaları durumunda duygu ve deneyimlerini daha fazla paylaşmak istemeleri,

erkeklerin ise sessiz kalarak sorunlarını kendilerinin çözmeye çalışmaları mantıklı gözükmektedir.

Comijs, Jonker, Tilburg, ve Smit (1999) stresli durumlarla ilgili değerlendirmelerin kontrol odağından etkilendiğini öne sürmüşlerdir. Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışmada kontrol odağının (iç ve dış kontrol odağı), atıf süreçleri (mağdurun kendisine atıf, psikolojik taciz uygulayışına atıf, organizasyona atıf) ve kullanılan başa çıkma stratejisi (problem odaklı başa çıkma ve duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejileri) arasındaki ilişkiye etkisini incelemek üzere ilave bir dizi düzenleyici regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Bu analizler, "atıf tipi-baş etme stratejisi" ilişkisinde, kontrol odağının düzenleyici (moderatör) bir rolünün olmadığını göstermiştir.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular, iç kontrol odağına sahip psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımına daha yatkın olduğunu göstermiştir. Yani, kontrol odağı, daha sağlıklı ve etkin başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımında kritik bir bireysel farklılık değişkeni olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, dış kontrol odağına sahip olan psikolojik taciz mağdurlarına daha fazla dikkat gösterilmesi gerektiği çıkarımı yapılabilir. Örgütler, mentorlük, koçluk, çeşitli eğitim programları, ve/veya organizasyonel girişimler ile çalışanlarının yaşamları üzerindeki kontrol algılarını geliştirebilir ve iyileştirebilirler. Böylece, stresle başa çıkma kapsamında daha sağlıklı ve etkin stratejilerin kullanımı teşvik edilir ve çalışanların davranışları ve psikolojik sağlık durumlarında iyileşme görülebilir.

Çalışmada gözlemlenen bir diğer durum, psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımına oranla duygusal odaklı başa çıkma stratejisi kullanımına daha fazla yatkın olmasıdır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları psikolojik taciz mağdurları olduğu için duygusal odaklı kullanım, uzun zamandır süre gelen bir

psikolojik taciz sonucu meydana gelmiş bir öğrenilmiş çaresizlik göstergesi olabilir. Örneklem içinde yer alan bir katılımcının, yaşadığı psikolojik taciz ile ilgili paylaşımı da bu çıkarıma destek oluşturmaktadır. Sevim olarak adlandırılan bu kişi, psikolojik taciz ile karşılaştığı ilk zamanlarda, bu durumla baş edebilmek için problem odaklı başa çıkma stratejilerini anlatan her yola başvurduğunu ifade etmiştir. Sevim, psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısından uzak kalmayı denemiş, yöneticiler ile konu hakkında görüşmüş, şikayetlerini gerek resmi, gerek gayri resmi olarak defalarca dile getirmiş, dilekçeler yazmıştır. Ancak, denediği her yol bir çıkmaz ile sonuçlanmıştır. İçinde bulunduğu koşullar gereği, benzer bir iş bulma şansı çok düşük olduğundan ve ailesine, özellikle bir yaşındaki oğluna, maddi destek sağlaması gerektiğinden iş yerini değiştirme şansı olmayan Sevim, yaşadığı bu durum neticesinde ağır bir psikolojik rahatsızlık yaşamıştır. Sevim'in deneyimlerinden de gözlemlendiği gibi, iş yerinde psikolojik tacizin bireyler üzerinde olumsuz etkileri çok ağırdır. Bu sorunu çözmek ve psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının daha etkin başa çıkma stratejileri kullanımını sağlamak için, örgütlerin psikolojik taciz öncesinde, psikolojik taciz süresince ve psikolojik taciz sonrasında izleyebilecekleri çeşitli yollar vardır. İş yerinde psikolojik tacizi önlemek için şirket yöneticileri ve insan kaynakları birimleri, insana değer veren, saygı içerisinde, açık ve doğrudan iletişimi destekleyen bir kurum kültürü yaratılmasında öncü rol oynamalıdır. Bu çerçevede, bu olguya yönelik politika, prosedür ve yönergeler oluşturulmalı ve tacize kesinlikle tolere etmeyen bir örgütsel iklim oluşturulmalıdır. Çalışanlar için genel bilgilendirme, farkındalık ve seminer aktiviteleri düzenlenmelidir. İş yerinde psikolojik tacizi sorgulayan, soru ve geri bildirimlerin alınabileceği değerlendirme sistemleri oluşturulmalıdır. Psikolojik taciz yaşanmadan olası risk değerlendirmeleri yapılmalıdır. Psikolojik taciz ve benzeri vakalarla ilgilenmek üzere "akik kişi" benzeri mekanizmalar, etik kurullar oluşturulmalıdır. Bunlar ve bunlara benzer proaktif girişimler, örgüt çalışanlarının psikolojik tacize maruz kaldıklarında daha güçlü ve sağlıklı olmalarını ve daha etkin başa çıkma stratejileri kullanmalarını sağlayacaktır.

Çalışmanın Başlıca Sınırlılıkları ve Öneriler

Öncelikle, çalışmanın kısıtlılıklarından biri örneklem sayısı ve örneklem özelliklerine ilişkindir. Çalışma örneklem sayısı açısından kısıtlı gibi görünmektedir. Ayrıca, çalışmaya katılan psikolojik taciz mağdurları, Mobing ile Mücadele Derneği üyelerinden oluşmaktadır. Bu nedenle çalışmanın örnekleminin, tüm mobing mağdurlarını temsil yeteneğinin kısıtlı olabileceği göz önüne alınmalıdır. Namie (2003), psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının birçoğunun bu olgu ile mücadele etmek üzere aksiyon almadığını belirtmektedir. Namie (2003)'ün çalışmasına göre psikolojik taciz mağdurlarının yüzde 40'ı hiç aksiyon almazken, yüzde 37'si çalıştığı organizasyonu maruziyeti ile ilgili olarak gayri resmi bilgilendirir. Yüzde 19'u şikayetlerini resmi yollarla iletirler ve yüzde 3'ü yasal yollara başvurur. Bu nedenle, iş yerinde psikolojik tacizin sessizce yaşanan bir olgu olduğu söylenebilir. Bu çalışmanın katılımcıları ise işyerinde psikolojik tacizi sessizce yaşayan gruptan farklı olarak bir derneğe üye olarak maruziyetlerini sesli olarak dile getiren kişilerden oluşmaktadır. Söz konusu bu sınırlılık mağdurlara daha farklı platformlar aracılığı ile erişilmesi ile giderilmelidir.

Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın psikolojik taciz mağdurlarından oluşan örneklemi, psikolojik tacizi geçmişte yaşamış ve hala yaşamakta olan kişileri aynı anda kapsamaktadır. Psikolojik tacizin, mağdurların yaşantılarına büyük oranda stres kattığı düşünülecek olursa bu olguyu geçmişte deneyimlemiş kişiler ile hala yaşamakta olan kişilerin stres algılarının farklılık göstereceği öngörülebilir. Ryon ve Gleason (2013) bireylerin kontrol odağı yönelimlerinin günlük karşılaştığı sorunlar sonucunda dahil değişebildiğini öne sürmüşlerdir. Bu kapsamda, mağdurların stres algılarını ölçümlemek ve bu algıyı bir değişken olarak kullanmak faydalı olacaktır. Bundan sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda örneklem sayısı ve özellikleri ile ilgili bu eksiklerin giderilmesi konuya katkı sağlayacaktır.

Bunun dışında, bundan sonraki çalışmalar için, kullanılan ölçekler ile ilgili iyileştirmeler söz konusu olabilir. Bu kapsamda, İş Yeri Psikolojik Taciz ile Baş Etme Ölçeği cevaplama skalası değiştirilmesi ve Atıf Süreci Ölçeği değerlendirme maddelerinin içerik bakımından iyileştirilmesi önerilmektedir.

Kültürel farklılık ve eğilimlerin atıf süreçleri üzerinde etkisi olduğu bilinmektedir. Wang'ın (1993) çalışmasında belirtildiği gibi, bireyci bir toplumda veya toplulukçu bir toplumda yaşamak atıf süreçleri bakımından ayırt edici sonuçlar oluşturabilir. Bu nedenle ileriki çalışmalar kültürel farklılıkların da dahil edilmesiyle yürütülebilir. Bunun dışında, psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısının örgüt içerisindeki statüsü veya gücüne bağlı olarak, psikolojik tacizin etkisi mağdur için değişkenlik gösterebileceğinden (Einarsen ve Raknes, 1997), psikolojik taciz mağduru ve psikolojik taciz uygulayıcısı arasındaki pozisyondan kaynaklı statü farkını göz etmek ve ileriki çalışmalara bu değişkeni dahil etmek faydalı olacaktır.

Genel olarak bakıldığında, iş yerinde psikolojik tacizin gerek örgüt gerekse mağdurlar için yarattığı olumsuz sonuçları engellemek için, bu olgu ile baş etmek üzere bireysel farklılıkların var olduğu ve bireylerin iç kontrol odaklılıkları artırmaya yönelik faaliyetlere ağırlık gösterilmesi gerektiği söylenebilir. İş yerinde psikolojik taciz olgusuna karşı bilinçlilik ve farkındalığı artırmak ve psikolojik taciz vakalarını azaltmak üzere buna benzer çalışmaların ileride de yapılacağı umulmaktadır.

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

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YAZARIN

Soyadı : Yıkılmaz
Adı   : Kübra
Bölümü : Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : The Effect of Locus of Control and Attribution Processes on Coping Style of Victims of Mobbing

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☒   Doktora ☐

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☒

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. ☐

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