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Workplace Bullying on Human Resources Management Performance in Correctional Facilities

OLIVER ONYEKA EHIAHURUIKE
Walden University

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College of Management and Human Potential

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Oliver Ehiaturike

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2023

Abstract

Workplace Bullying on Human Resources Management Performance in Correctional

Facilities

by

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BSc, University of Uyo, Nigeria, 1994

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Management

Walden University

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Abstract

Workplace bullying, as part of a hostile work environment, impacts human resources management (HRM) work outcome metrics, employees' attitudes toward their job, organization, and behavioral intentions that collectively affect organizational goals. Addressed in this study are the problems of workplace bullying of corrections employees, which negatively affect HRM outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. Homans's social exchange and Bourdieu's social capital theories were used in this study. The research questions concerned the relationships between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (dependent variables) among corrections employees in Texas. Survey data were collected from 114 adult participants recruited via SurveyMonkey, LinkedIn, and snowball sampling who were correctional employees for six months or more to determine the significance of workplace bullying on the dependent variables. The correlation analysis results only indicated a significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment. The multivariate analysis results of variance were not significant between the independent and the dependent variables. This study's results may help HRM in correctional facilities to identify training needs, improve employee retention, and create a harmonious work environment and profitable organization for the owners, thus contributing to positive social change.

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Dedication

I wish to dedicate the completion of this dissertation to my children (Agnes, Theresa, and David), who were my biggest supporters during the entire Ph.D. degree process, especially to Theresa (Nwanyi obi oma - because you cared so much!). My children, you have never stopped loving me, believing in me, and giving me the support, faith, prayers, and sacrifice I needed to accomplish my personal goals. I will forever be grateful to you, and I pray that God will readily bless you beyond this academic height. Amen.

To God be the ultimate glory! In Unum Luceant!

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To God be the ultimate glory! In Unum Luceant!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Existing research in corrections revolves primarily around offender-based issues with the effort to identify characteristics of offenders that impact a variety of correctional outcomes, such as recidivism, institutional adjustment, reintegration into society, risks and needs assessment, and gender responsiveness. However, emerging trends point to the need for researchers to examine other subjects within correctional settings that impact organizational goals, such as workplace bullying. The research on staff issues and, more specifically, workplace bullying that can create a hostile work environment (Schwartz & Bjorklund, 2019) and retention problems (Hegarty & Moccia, 2018) are such goals. Of the 16 million workers in the United States in 2019 (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019), 37.4%, on average, have experienced bullying. The statistics are accurate, of 10.25% on average in Norway, 24.7% in Britain, 12.8% in Spain, and 33% in Canada (Ciby & Raya, 2015; León-Pérez et al., 2021). Gutshall et al. (2017) determined that the quality and the outcome of human resources management in correctional settings are relevant concerns for employee management and achieving organizational goals. These will ensure employees' positive attitude in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and staff retention (Gutshall et al., 2017). In this chapter, I discussed the research questions, the background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose, and the theoretical framework. This chapter also includes information on the nature of the study, definitions of notable terms used in the study, assumptions, scope delimitations, and limitations. I also examined the study's significance and the potential contribution to research literature and social change.

Background of the Study

The research on workplace bullying can broaden the knowledge and understanding of correctional staff's motivations, values, and commitments at all levels of the organization for improved performance and a harmonious work environment.

Therefore, researchers have focused on the importance of improving workplace bullying through the utilization of effective management (Ferris et al., 2021), implementation of appropriate workplace rules, policies, and procedures (Hutchinson et al., 2010; Rayner & Lewis, 2020), the necessity of legal means to enforce compliance (Muller et al., 2019), and the importance of educating individuals involved in the workplace bullying. In addition, workplace bullying did have some impacts on a host of issues important to organizations, including organizational ramifications (Rockett et al., 2017) and influence on employee-level metrics such as physiological (Rajalakshmi & Naresh, 2018), psychological (Ansoleaga et al., 2019), and emotional influence (Humair & Ejaz, 2019).

Ansoleaga et al. (2019) explained that female workers were more exposed to workplace vulnerability and displayed a higher prevalence of psychological distress than their male counterparts. One in every three vulnerable women (30.8%) expressed psychological discomfort, which was higher than among men (16.5%). Ansoleaga et al. also claimed that (a) workers exposed to workplace vulnerability were more likely to be bullied, (b) workers who perceived high workplace vulnerability were more likely to be psychologically distressed, and (c) workers exposed to workplace violence were more likely to be distressed psychologically than those who were not exposed. Rajalakshmi and Naresh (2018) posited that transparency to employees and a hands-free work

environment could increase productivity and high performance and decrease workplace bullying.

Rockett et al. (2017) posited that through training in social skills like stress management, conflict resolution, communication, team building, and leadership, human resource leaders must: (a) make staff members aware of workplace bullying, (b) offer clear guidelines on how to report and handle incidents, and (c) clarify management's position concerning bullying. Bullying in the workplace impacts job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational commitment, the organizational climate of trust, anxiety, depression, and increased absenteeism due to sickness (Humair & Ejaz, 2019; Magee et al., 2017). Ahmad and Kaleem (2020) proposed that exposure to workplace bullying causes turnover intentions in cross-cultural and national contexts and harms affective well-being. However, national culture modifies these impacts, making it so that for societies like those in Pakistan and China that value collectivism, the negative consequences of workplace bullying on well-being and inclinations to quit are less pronounced. Conversely, the negative consequences of workplace bullying are more pronounced in societies like those in the United States and Australia, which value individualism. Also, research has shown that a lack of management support has a direct link between workplace bullying and turnover intentions for the police (Farr-Wharton et al., 2017). Frontline managers in the public sector, particularly in policing, are also said to use bully for strategic goals (Farr-Wharton et al., 2017). Einarsen et al. (2017) indicated that workplace bullying is related to increased unfavorable effects and decreased job commitment. Tailoring intervention plans to address job turnover while

keeping at-risk and vulnerable groups in mind can enhance effectiveness in increasing job commitment (Humair & Ejaz, 2019). Employers can accomplish this by emphasizing emotional and social well-being in workplace wellness programs.

Certain types of workplace bullying were associated with higher absenteeism, and the mechanisms behind these correlations differed (Magee et al., 2017). Human resources professionals must customize the techniques to handle workplace bullying to avoid negative consequences on mental health, employee engagement, and absenteeism. Personality variables like the five-factor model (FFM) traits, personality disorder indicators, and moral disengagement are related to bullying. Claybourn et al. (2019) believed that of the FFM traits, agreeableness was a predictor of being bullied. Furthermore, conscientiousness predicts the bullying of others. Moral disengagement often results in bullying.

Kivimaki et al. (2000) revealed one harmful impact of bullying on employees: body mass increase. Hallberg and Strandmark (2006) suggested medical treatment concerns. The effects will range in length from short to long-lasting (Brousse et al., 2008; Hallberg & Strandmark, 2006). Brousse et al. (2008) stated that short-term effects ended after 1 year. Hallberg and Strandmark believed that the long-term effects manifest in individuals feeling scarred from perpetual workplace bullying. According to Srivastava and Dey (2020), workplace bullying has a negative correlation with toughness and a positive correlation with job burnout. Hardiness is inversely correlated with job burnout, which explains how human resource managers might assist staff in coping with

workplace pressures. One of these strategies is distinguishing the mechanisms of anxiety, loss of self-control, and strategic choices.

Wu et al. (2020) specified that anxiety is the decisive perspective for choosing between passive resistance and ignoring rebuke. In this study, I focused on the gap in knowledge and understanding of workplace bullying in corrections. Even though researchers have looked into the issue of workplace bullying, and some findings have had a significant impact on employee job outcomes, there has not been much research done to date regarding the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction because 80% of the problems related to employees' job satisfaction and product are attributed to workplace bullying (Anjum et al., 2018). The work environment is a significant determinant of employees' expressive actions.

In this study, I examined the effects of workplace bullying on human resources management performance in correctional facilities. I also investigated attitude, personality, and organizational variables that may be associated with variations in levels of staff commitment, the turnover intention on employee retention, and job satisfaction/work engagement. The knowledge gained from this research may, among other variables, inform two primary areas of staff development: recruitment and training. In human resources management, research on workplace bullying may improve the match between an applicant and the work environment throughout the hiring process. Individuals well-suited to correctional work need recruitment to build and sustain a

committed and well-motivated correctional workforce. The findings may also benefit tailoring staff training programs to current human resource needs. In addition, applying the results may be relevant to the design of pre-service employment training programs and ongoing in-service training endeavors. Finally, a greater understanding of these dynamics of workplace bullying may positively influence correctional management's procedures to supervise the large complement of staff who work directly with offenders, which may result in positive social change.

Problem Statement

Workplace bullying is difficult for management, who must try to make the office environment less toxic and more peaceful. Organizations incur billions of dollars in losses due to claims and low productivity resulting from a toxic work environment (Winn & Dykes, 2019). The situation or issue that prompted me to search the literature is that approximately 79.3 million Americans suffered workplace bullying, impacting organizational effectiveness within 6 months in 2020 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020; Namie, 2021). Some employees decide not to endure bullying through voluntary turnover, while others adopt coping mechanisms or seek legal redress (Rockett et al., 2017). For example, bullying may relate to Texas correctional facilities' employee job turnover of 35% on average among first-year corrections officer recruits despite financial incentives and bonuses (Texas Department of Criminal Justice, 2016). The social problem is that organizational bullies exhibit antisocial behavior toward performing employees, causing them verbal and emotional distress, which has a negative impact on human resource management outcome measures such as turnover intention,

organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction (see Arifin et al., 2019; Gadi & Kee, 2018). Therefore, workplace bullying is an issue of concern to human resources management.

Even though researchers have looked into the issue of workplace bullying, and some findings have had a significant impact on employee job outcomes, there has not been much research done to date regarding the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction because 80% of the problems related to employees' job satisfaction and product are attributed to workplace bullying (Anjum et al., 2018). The specific research problem addressed in this study is that workplace bullying of corrections employees negatively affects human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction (see Abbas & Khan, 2021). The current study can extend the body of knowledge, contribute to the literature, and may lead to positive social change as the research recommendations are adopted.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The study was grounded in social exchange theory and social capital theory to determine the relationships between the variables. I used these theories to provide details on relationships and human behavior. The independent

variable was workplace bullying. An independent variable was altered or controlled in a research study and denoted the cause or reason for an outcome. A variation in the independent variable directly causes a difference in the dependent variable. A dependent variable is tested in a research study and relies on the independent variable. In research, the dependent variable is the one measured. The dependent variables measured in the study are turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. I collected data in a Likert-type survey completed by participants employed at correctional facilities in Texas. The study instrument consisted of using validated survey instruments from the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R; Einarsen et al., 2009); the Weiss et al. (1967) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire; the Roodt (2004) Turnover Intension Scale; and the Meyer and Allen (1997) Organizational Commitment Scale. Before using them, I secured permission for the authors' survey instruments (see Appendix F). The findings included information on how to mitigate workplace bullying in organizations by contributing to filling the gap in the literature on the impact of workplace bullying on human resources management performance in correctional facilities.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The three research questions (RQs) and related hypotheses for this study are the following:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas?

Null Hypothesis (H_0 1): There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{a1}): There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

Research Question 2 (RQ2): What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas?

Null Hypothesis (H_02): There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{a2}): There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

Research Question 3 (RQ3): What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

Null Hypothesis (H_03): There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_{a3}): There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Theoretical Foundation

The theories I used to ground this study include Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory. Several theories were required to

understand bullying's complexity. These ideas cover the detrimental effects of bullying and detail how organizations might lessen the incidence of bullying. I also used these theories to address relationships, human behavior, and the importance of interpersonal connections between organizations, including shared values, norms, trust, networking, and reciprocity. In his social exchange theory, Homans examined relationships and human behavior around workplace bullying. Therefore, social exchange theory was the most appropriate framework for this study because it is beneficial to understanding social costs versus benefits.

Putnam (1995) opined that social, economic, and cultural capital are the three forms of capital. Putnam referred to social capital as the advantages derived from interpersonal connections. The lack of social capital among workplace bullying victims makes their victimization experiences more intense and prolonged. Social capital takes the form of friends or acquaintances who can shield harassed workers from negative experiences. Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory can be used to understand workplace relationships concerning bullying, linking, bridging, and bonding. Bourdieu examined relationships between employees at companies and between companies, including trust, reciprocity, shared values, networking, and norms.

Bullying victims typically have few friends or social connections, which limits their social capital and keeps them in their victim role (Evans & Smokowski, 2015). I used social capital theory in this study to better understand the causes of bullying, how victims are affected negatively, and how organizational culture contributes to bullying. Bullies frequently use intimidation and humiliation tactics to rise to leadership within

their groups (Pellegrini et al., 1999). When a group gains social power, its members take advantage of it and work to keep it, even if it means using bullying to stay in charge and gain popularity. Because it reveals that peers perceive bullies as having power and social prestige, perceived popularity is a measure of social status and social capital. Having power keeps bullies from becoming victims and makes it more likely that their peers will support them.

Nature of the Study

I used a correlational research design in this study with one independent variable and three dependent variables. The independent variable was workplace bullying. The dependent variables were turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The correlational research design was appropriate for this study to examine the relationship between two or more nonmanipulated variables (Vogt & Johnson, 2011) and to determine the degree to which one variable predicts another (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Correlation coefficients express the degree of relationships.

The coefficients lie between +1.00 and -1.00. Higher correlations indicate more solid links (coefficients nearer to +1.00 or -1.00). Positive correlations show that the variables linked to the other variable increase in value as those linked to the first variable do. In contrast, negative correlations show that as one variable's values increase, the values of the other variable decrease (Apuke, 2017). Quantitative research is employed to promote valid generalization of study findings. Quantitative research includes hypothesis testing and using data drawn randomly from the target population (Ragni et al., 2018; Vispoel et al., 2018). Billberg et al. (2018) claimed that the quantitative approach is used

through reliability and validity testing to collect accurate and reliable self-reported attitudes, views, and behaviors.

Standardized questionnaires and good data collection processes limited the potential for bias and measurement errors (Kleiner et al., 2009). I used a focused approach with validated questions and unbiased analysis with numerical metrics (Neuman, 2009). I examined the association between workplace bullying and human resource management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among Texas correctional staff. The results of this study could show one or more positive correlations, one or more negative correlations, or even no correlation between the independent and dependent variables. Pearson correlation coefficient (r), t -test, F -ratio, and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) are statistical data analysis methods for addressing each research question.

I used linear regression analysis for the correlation coefficient (r) to establish the relationship strength between the dependent and independent variables (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). Correlations between workplace bullying and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention could be researched in a correctional context in the United States over time to see if the association changes. On the other hand, a longitudinal design was too time-consuming for the current investigation. Researchers use quasi-experimental techniques in quantitative and observational studies (Bärnighausen et al., 2017). However, internal validity and randomization are lacking in the quasi-experimental designs (Handley et al., 2018). Because there were no

observations or pre- and posttests in this investigation, a quasi-experimental design was inadequate.

Definitions

The definitions presented here include terms and variables used in the study.

Bullying: Bullying incidents usually are repeated, lengthy, persistent, and hostile. Bullying might involve disparaging someone's work, threatening them, or spreading rumors about them. Bullying is one-on-one aggression and does not include the process of ganging up by multiple actors (Duffy & Yamada, 2018; Salin, 2015).

Cyberbullying: Repetitive mistreatment meant to hurt someone, which can occur online or offline via information and communication technologies (Corcoran et al., 2015).

Downward bullying: Acts of bullying perpetrated by a superior on a subordinate (Parchment & Andrews, 2019).

Horizontal bullying: Acts of bullying that one peer perpetrates on a peer or nurse of equal rank (Parchment & Andrews, 2019).

Job satisfaction: A pleasant or positive emotional state that results from an appraisal of one's employment or work experiences is known as job satisfaction (Brodsky, 1976).

Mobbing: Mobbing is a destructive social process facilitated by ganging up or group aggression against a target. Organizational culture, climate, and leadership can play a central role in mobbing (Duffy & Sperry, 2012, 2014).

Organizational commitment: To perform better, organizational commitment (OC) measures how strongly a person identifies with and participates in a specific organization (Mowday et al., 1979).

Turnover intention: The intention of an employee to seek alternative employment or leave the firm in the future is known as turnover intention (Dwivedi, 2015).

Upward bullying: Bullying perpetrated by a subordinate on a superior is known as upward bullying (Parchment & Andrews, 2019).

Workplace bullying: Workplace bullying is a recurring issue of negative workplace behaviors that target another person. These actions can include humiliation, intimidation, or other unpleasant work-related activities (Akella, 2016; Gardner et al., 2016). Reasonable management action conducted does not constitute workplace bullying.

Assumptions

Assumptions are unconfirmed truths believed to be accurate, which may help ensure the validity of the research (Thomas, 2017; Wolgemuth et al., 2017). Participants and the correlation between variables, which is uncontrollable, are both included in the assumptions for this quantitative correlational study. The following assumptions five were made when designing this study: (a) that participants would be interested in it; (b) that they would read the instructions carefully, take their time, and understand the questions as they were meant to be understood by the survey designers; and (c) that they would be truthful in their responses; (d) that participants were representatives of correctional facilities in Texas, and (e) that the participants participated at-will and without bias. During the analytical phase, to look at the assumptions, the data were

examined for consistency. During the analytical phase, to look at the assumptions, the data were examined for consistency. Lipps et al. (2019) highlighted the importance of various incentives in getting a high survey response rate. Making the respondents feel unique in the opening letter, keeping the survey relevant, and letting them know they could exit the poll at any point without repercussions were all part of the study incentives. The study's results would have been adversely affected had sufficient responses not been returned due to a lack of interest in the survey.

Scope and Delimitations

In collecting data from various spectra within the correctional facilities, the study included both uniformed and non-uniformed correctional staff, regardless of their professional backgrounds. In this correlational study, multiple analyses of variance (MANOVA) were used to examine the relationships, if at all, existing between workplace bullying and turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. The scope of participation was based on adult individuals employed in Texas correctional facilities for at least 6 months. To provide more great advice in separating actual bullying from isolated disorderly behavior, Britain and America created a definitional criterion indicating that bullying happens when the behavior is ongoing and regular, occurring for almost 6 months, at least once per week (Namie & Namie, 2009; Sepler, 2015). Only the survey data in this study provided rich content and was more accurate with a higher response rate. The sampling is essential to ensure the responses reflected workplace bullying in correctional facilities. Participants' and facilities' names and identities were de-identified to ensure privacy and respect. Because the study's data was restricted to

U.S. correctional workers, generalizing its findings to facilities outside the country may present difficulties. Field (1996), Namie (2020), and Robert (2018) have identified workplace bullying as stressful, unethical, immoral, and invaluable, bringing a negative image to organizations and a stunt to organizational growth.

The theoretical frameworks for this study were Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory. Social exchange theory suggests that individuals weigh the benefits of their interactions. According to the theory, individuals will stay in relationships when the benefits outweigh the cost. Also, individuals will not stay in relationships when the benefit is less than the cost. The application of social exchange theory to this study is based on the concepts of justice, psychological contract breach, and perceived organizational support (Parzefall & Stalin, 2010). These concepts shed light on the perceptual and subjective issues of workplace bullying. According to the theory analysis, social exchange theory sheds light on the mechanisms through which bullying has terrible results for both targets and bystanders and how bullying is experienced. The need for quick and proper reactions to workplace bullying was highlighted by perceived organizational support, which was the final point.

Another theoretical foundation for this study is Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory. Social networks, civic involvement, reciprocity rules, and generalized trust are central to the social capital hypothesis (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). According to Pihl et al. (2017), workplace bullying correlates significantly with organizational social capital. The reason for the correlation is that workplace bullying, both self-reported and observed, is far more likely to be associated with low vertical and horizontal social

capital experiences at the workplace. Bourdieu's social capital theory is relevant to the current study because high social capital can prevent the development of bullying. Hasle and Moller (2007) opined that (a) high social capital is a resource that can aid organizations in challenging times, (b) serves as a buffer that contains negative or ambiguous actions from being perceived as bullying, and (c) acts as a stopgap to allow early and successful dispute settlement.

Similarly, low social capital could increase workplace bullying risk, for example, through inadequate conflict resolution. The concept of social capital, which includes organizational trust, justice, and shared norms of cooperation, provides complementary insights into the bullying process. The concept enhances group or corporate communication and interaction dynamics. The concept enhances group or corporate communication and interaction dynamics.

Limitations

This study did have some limitations. First, the research was limited to United States employees in correctional facilities. Second, the study did not include employees younger than 18 years old, working outside Texas correctional facilities, or spending less than 6 months full-time. Third, findings from this correlational research may not be generalizable to different geographical regions. Fourth, this study only focused on employees from one profession, corrections, rather than various occupations to investigate workplace bullying. Fifth, several individuals perceived abuse, bullying, and victimization differently. To prevent misinterpretation, I defined the terms to prospective participants as they appeared in the informed consent form with the study's title. Finally,

because the study relied on self-reported data, it is inevitably vulnerable to common method variance problems. Common method variance is the difference attributed to the measurement technique rather than the constructs (Doty & Glick, 1998; Reio, 2010). Common method variance is problematic because it may inflate or deflate the correlation among the research variables threatening the validity of the conclusions drawn about the relationships between the measures of different constructs. Using Likert-type questionnaire items can create problems (Kline et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Spreading out measurements, introducing a time lag between the measurement of the predictors and the criterion variables, and using more than one person to rate the effect and the outcome will reduce the common method variance in research.

Biases may be evident in the research since the survey was conducted in the same profession as the researcher. However, there was no personal knowledge of the survey participants, and they were not in the same facility where the researcher works. Research bias happens when the researcher skews the entire process toward a specific research outcome by introducing a systematic error in the sample data (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2010). Bias in research refers to the action of a researcher consciously or unconsciously influencing the course of a systematic investigation. Research bias can come from the respondent and the researcher. The respondent biases are (a) the acquiescence bias (Baker et al., 2015), (b) the social desirability bias (Dodou & de Winter, 2014), (c) the habituation bias (Schmid et al., 2014), and (d) sponsor bias (Lexchin, 2012). Researcher bias does manifest in the areas of confirmation bias (Nickerson, 1998), cultural bias (Peguero & Bondy, 2011; Powell, 2017), question-order bias (Mads et al., 2021), leading

question and wording bias (Choi & Pak, 2005), and the halo effect bias (Rasmussen, 2008).

Acquiescence bias is the tendency for respondents to behave the way the researcher wants them to, which could have demand effects (Baker et al., 2015). Societal norms and survey fatigue may predispose to acquiescence bias because it is more polite to agree than to disagree, even when untrue. To reduce acquiescence bias, the researcher should reevaluate and revise any questions that could lead to a positive response., including binary response formats such as: Yes or No, True or False, and Agree or Disagree. Respondents who exhibit social desirability bias will answer questions in a way that they believe will increase their chances of acceptance and popularity (Dodou & de Winter, 2014). Finally, when questions are repeated or worded similarly, respondents may experience habituation bias (Schmid et al., 2014). Habituation bias reduces assertiveness by causing respondents to give answers based on queries like those already presented. To prevent this, researchers must differentiate the question wording and use an engaging tone to alert each respondent.

Sponsorship bias arises from the researcher's institutional affiliation or financial support (Lexchin, 2012). Sponsorship bias is reduced by erecting a firewall between the money, the researchers, and the data analysts, if the researcher is not the data analyst. Sponsorship bias is not common in students' research as interest groups rarely sponsor such research. Another approach is to develop an entirely separate funding source that is independent of the industry conducting the research. Confirmation bias is the propensity to look for or analyze evidence favorably considering preexisting expectations, beliefs, or

hypotheses (Nickerson, 1998). Cultural bias in research is ignoring the differences between cultures and imposing understanding based on studying one's culture on other cultures (Peguero & Bondy, 2011; Powell, 2017). Cultural bias can impact minority groups adversely. Leading questions and wording bias are elaborating a respondent's answer by putting words in their mouth. While leading questions and wording are not types of bias, they lead to or result from bias (Choi & Pak, 2005). Leading inquiries and wordings are employed in research to support a hypothesis, establish a relationship with the respondent, or exaggerate their comprehension of the response (Bell et al., 2018; Malhotra et al., 2006). Sutton and Austin (2015) and Babbie (2020) wrote that summarizing what the respondents said in their own words and taking it further by assuming a relationship between a feeling and behavior is not a good research practice.

Bias caused by the halo effect manifests when researchers and respondents tend to see something or someone in a particular light because of a single positive attribute (Rasmussen, 2008). To counteract the halo effect in research, researchers must answer all questions about a specific issue before asking for feedback on a second issue. When asked to rate two issues back-to-back, respondents are more prone to extrapolate their opinions from one attribute to the overall situation. The objective of bias reduction is to guarantee that questions are intelligently phrased and delivered in a way that permits respondents to share their feelings without distortions rather than to make everything and everyone the same. As I declared earlier in this section, the current survey was also conducted in my profession. Therefore, I did not have any personal knowledge of the survey participants, and the survey was not conducted in the same facility where I work.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it focused on a gap in knowledge and understanding of workplace bullying in corrections. Even though researchers have looked into the issue of workplace bullying, and some findings have had a significant impact on employee job outcomes, there has not been much research done to date regarding the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction because 80% of the problems related to employees' job satisfaction and product are attributed to workplace bullying (Anjum et al., 2018). The concern is a gap that I intend to address in my research. In addition, the findings of this quantitative correlational study may add to existing knowledge, theory, and understanding of how workplace bullying affects productivity and the extent to which workplace bullying influences employee performance, and the overall functions of human resource management.

Mokgolo and Barnard (2019) supported the inquiry into workplace bullying and its impact on human resources management and discussed the dilemma faced by human resources practitioners. Mokgolo and Barnard found that a lack of decision-making power and a lack of management's and policy's apparent support disabled the functionality of human resource practitioners in addressing workplace bullying. In addition, most researchers conducted studies focused on the victims, leaving a gap in the effect on human resources job success metrics (Mokgolo & Barnard, 2019). The results of this investigation may be helpful to organizations because it may raise leadership

awareness of gaps in comprehending the phenomena of workplace bullying and related challenges. This research can also benefit the creation of training or intervention programs to prevent workplace bullying and boost employee productivity while decreasing attrition.

Significance to Theory

Social exchange theory and social capital theory are appropriate for this study. The reason is that a gap exists in the literature concerning the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures like turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction. After all, 80% of the issues associated with employees' job satisfaction and productivity are related to the workplace environment (Anjum et al., 2018). Research has shown that these theories explain workplace bullying appropriately (Cropanzano et al., 2017; Pihl et al., 2017). Branch et al. (2018) revealed that the social exchange theory could be used to explain turnover intention, employee commitment, and job satisfaction.

Organizations that use social exchange theory and social capital theory tend to generate a more effective workforce because these theories help people understand relationships well and why some relationships work. In contrast, others fail and explain communication and interaction and the factors governing interaction in humans. Homans (1958) suggested that these interaction factors are profit, cost, reward, and net outcome. Baillien et al.'s (2008), Salin's (2015), and Hallberg and Strandmark's (2006) studies in social capital theory have demonstrated links between workplace bullying and poor

communication, poor social climate, low trust, and inclusivity, as well as experiences of inadequate cooperation and injustice, high levels of interpersonal disputes, and professional and value conflicts.

Significance to Practice

Research on workplace bullying benefits professional practice in understanding its impact on human resources management success, fosters efficiency, helps victims recognize the perpetrators and seek redress through enlightenment and awareness and helps organizational management improve workplace culture (Brower, 2013). Workplace bullying negatively affects the individual bullied and the organization. Excellent turnover rates, lower productivity, higher healthcare expenses, higher absenteeism, lower morale, a lack of faith in management, and higher litigation costs are observed in workplaces where bullying is endemic (Kline, 2019). Excellent turnover rates, lower productivity, higher healthcare expenses, higher absenteeism, lower morale, a lack of faith in management, and higher litigation costs are observed in workplaces where bullying is endemic (Kline, 2019). The study findings on workplace bullying and human resource management performance in correctional facilities may assist organizations by providing training options, developing coping mechanisms, creating a culture of trust and respect within the organization, implementing an anti-bullying policy, giving a fair hearing to the victims, and holding bullies accountable to their actions. Correctional facilities' employees might benefit from the proposed study findings to foster positive social change by encouraging better communication practices and cordial relationships in corporate workplaces. Effective communication and respect for one another might

increase productivity and job engagement, leading to corporate profit. In addition, the correctional facilities' employees' efficiency could make society safer for habitation and business. This study may contribute to the current organizational management literature on workplace bullying.

Significance to Social Change

Workplace bullying, a challenging ethical dilemma, can be a severe, damaging, and debilitating experience for the victims (Edmonson & Zelinka, 2019; Edwards & Blackwood, 2017). Addressing workplace bullying can add value to workers' quality of life and contribute significantly to the body of knowledge on the subject. However, the consequences of workplace bullying can cause a debilitating ripple effect on the victims, bystanders, families, and society (Hurley et al., 2016). This study may add to positive social change when policymakers formulate 21st-century organizational management policies that can mitigate workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2016; Pastorek et al., 2015). Mitigating workplace bullying may improve workplace safety, satisfaction, and organizational culture.

Organizational management must recognize the value of a business in non-bullying cultures (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2016). The findings of this study may contribute to positive social change by expanding information and awareness regarding workplace bullying and influencing attitudes and perspectives. This study may result in positive social change by raising awareness of workplace bullying among employees, companies, and society and presenting potential solutions for reducing harmful conduct. This study's

findings could help human resource managers and organizational leaders create a better work environment for their workers and lower the number of bullied victims.

Summary and Transition

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. Included in Chapter 1 are the background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the nature of the study, and the theoretical framework that underlies the study. Also included in Chapter 1 are the assumptions, scope, delimitations, and significance of the study to practice, theory, and social change. Even though researchers have looked into the issue of workplace bullying, and some findings have had a significant impact on employee job outcomes, there has not been much research done to date regarding the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction because 80% of the problems related to employees' job satisfaction and product are attributed to workplace bullying (Anjum et al., 2018). This gap that I addressed in my research included adult participants of ages 18 years and above who worked for correctional facilities for at least 6 months in The State of Texas. The second chapter provided an extensive literature review on the key variables: workplace bullying, turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The chapter provided a comprehensive presentation of the theoretical foundation. In

addition, I described the gap identified in the literature and the rationale for my study while explaining the social change considerations of the research on workplace bullying.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

I conducted this study because, within 6 months in 2020, about 79.3 million American workers were affected by workplace bullying, impacting organizational effectiveness (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020; Namie, 2021). Some employees decide not to endure bullying through voluntary turnover, while others adopt some coping mechanism or seek legal redress (Rockett et al., 2017). Bullying may relate to Texas correctional facilities' employee job turnover of 35% on average among first-year corrections officer recruits despite financial incentives and bonuses (Texas Department of Criminal Justice, 2016). The social problem is that organizational bullies exhibit antisocial behavior toward performing employees, causing them verbal and emotional distress, which has a negative impact on human resource management outcome measures such as turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction (see Arifin et al., 2019; Gadi & Kee, 2018). Workplace bullying is an issue of concern for human resources management.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. Marescaux et al. (2013) identified human resources outcomes to include attitudes toward the job, such as job satisfaction and work engagement, attitudes toward the organization regarding organizational commitment, and behavioral intentions on turnover intention relating to employee retention. Celik (2018) suggested that workplace bullying negatively impacts employee turnover intention, which

results in employees being less engaged in their work and creates a challenge for human resource professionals (Pelletier, 2016). Although Hadadian and Zarei (2016) posited that stress and negative leadership undermine employee outcomes, other researchers (Einarsen et al., 2017; Kantor, 2017; Mokgolo & Barnard, 2019) postulated that workplace bullying majorly undermines organizational employee outcomes. Workplace bullying is an essential consideration for individuals and organizations, given the severe consequences for victims' well-being as on organizations' profits. Workplace bullying affects human resources management effectiveness (Ariza-Montes & Rodriguez, 2013). Gumbus and Lyons (2011) submitted that bullying costs are high to individuals and organizations when measured in terms of lost productivity, employee turnover intention, witness distraction, and the targets' physical and emotional impacts. Workplace bullying costs significantly increase even as the potential lawsuit for unjust dismissal, workers' compensation, and disability also increase.

The current literature review critically analyzes and synthesizes the relevant literature on the dependent and independent variables. It includes information about the theoretical framework for the study: Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory. Homans's and Bourdieu's theories address how workplace bullying affects human resources outcome measures. Even though researchers have investigated the issue of workplace bullying, the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction have not been studied. In the current study, I discussed the historical overview of workplace bullying,

identified global cultural perspectives on bullying, explained the ecological model, and discussed the social change considerations for workplace bullying.

Literature Search Strategy

I accessed Walden University Library databases and discovered 5,368 scholarly peer-reviewed journals on workplace bullying. In correlational studies, Google Scholar showed 17,900 articles that were the most up-to-date on workplace bullying. The literature I searched focused on workplace bullying in correlational studies with quantitative bias, historical undertone to impacts, effects, and remedy to gaining job satisfaction, turnover intention, and affective commitment of staff to the organization. The key search terms to locate scholarly peer-reviewed articles on workplace bullying and all other articles included: *workplace bullying, employee performance, turnover intention, job satisfaction, correctional facilities, work engagement, human resources management, litigation, bullying theories, bullying model, bullying outcomes, and correctional institutions.*

The literature I reviewed for this study came from the databases accessed through the Walden University Library. I used the Microsoft Edge platform and Google search engines to search for scholarly literature on the research topic.

The additional databases I used included Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, Directory of Open Access Journals, ProQuest Central, and Science Direct to locate 23,268 publications of peer-reviewed journal articles, focusing on the articles published between 2016 and 2020. When I used workplace bullying as the search term, the results yielded 289; 205; 17,900; 3,738; 2,352, and 1,136 publications for Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Google Scholar, Thoreau, ProQuest Central, and Science Direct. These results from the search term are too broad; therefore, I narrowed the search to the area of research by introducing the search term: workplace bullying AND human resources management.

The search terms workplace bullying AND human resources management results yielded as follows: Academic Search Complete, 22; Business Source Complete, 28; Google Scholar, 8,410; Thoreau, 153; ProQuest Central, 1,141; and Science Direct, 367. The latter results I received were much better than the former as relevant articles were found. Some historical topics and informative contributions made it necessary to go back more than 5 years to locate crucial materials. I saw large volumes of information on workplace bullying during the literature search. I found 10,111 publications on workplace bullying and human resources management when I combined key search terms.

Workplace bullying is toxic to the work environment and negatively impacts organizational outcomes such that Ahmad and Kaleem (2020) advised that it triggers employee intentions to leave the workplace. Humair and Ejaz (2019) emphasized that workplace bullying negatively affects individuals' emotions and job commitment. Bullying at work has no boundaries, and it has been identified as one of the significant

workplace stressors, with adverse effects on individual employees, groups of employees, and the entire organization (Gillen et al., 2017). Farr-Wharton et al. (2017) found that some frontline managers in the public sector, and policing particularly, turn to subordinates who are bullies to meet strategic goals. In meeting the strategic objectives with these unconventional means, organizations face an increased risk of skill depletion and absenteeism, leading to loss of profit, potential legal fees, and tribunal cases. Farr-Wharton et al. explained the direct linkage between lack of management support, workplace bullying, and higher turnover intentions for police. The same scenario is prevalent in other law enforcement and public safety establishments.

Theoretical Foundation

Social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) and social capital theory (Bourdieu, 1986) are the two theories on which I grounded the foundation of this study. The theories are to understand better the motivations behind bullying, bullying's adverse effects on victims, and how organizational climate and culture play a role in the prevalence of bullying (Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Gutshall et al., 2017; Putnam, 1995). The social capital theory concerns nature, structure, and resources embedded in a person's network of relationships. Social capital is a social structure that creates value and facilitates individuals' actions (Coleman, 1990). Seibert et al. (2001) posited that career success and job satisfaction to the net benefit of access to information and resources to an individual's social power. Network benefits also include improved organizational reputation and perception of more influence resulting in further promotions throughout one's career. Social exchange theory concerns the quality of interactions within an employee network

(Brandes et al., 2004). Social exchange theory is related to work outcomes regarding relationships with supervisors and co-workers.

Social Exchange Theory

Homans's (1958) social exchange theory is a highly influential paradigm for understanding employee behavior in the workplace. Homans suggested social behavior as an exchange because it was grounded on the understanding that the relationship between an employer and employee is created through cost-benefit analysis. Homans' social exchange theory is also a metric designed to determine the effort put in by an individual in a person-to-person relationship. Measuring the pluses and minuses of a relationship may produce data that can determine if someone is putting too much effort into a relationship. The theory is unique since it does not measure relationships on emotional metrics but rather on mathematics and logic to determine balance within such a relationship.

Social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations of give-and-take in a relationship (Emerson, 1976). These interactions are interdependent and contingent on another person's actions (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory addresses the understanding that these interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships. Because the theory suggests that workplace bullying is a result of low-quality relationships, therefore, social exchange theory's explanatory value is felt in such diverse areas as social power (Molm, 2003), networks (Brass et al., 2004; Cook et al., 1983), board independence (Westphal & Zajac, 1997), organizational justice (Konovsky, 2000), psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1995), and leadership

(Liden et al., 1997; Rai & Agarwal., 2018), among others. The use of social exchange theory to explain workplace bullying is framed around the concept of fair exchange, which depends on reciprocity and negotiated rules.

The rule of reciprocity suggests that one should be treated according to how one treats others. Negotiated rules are a detailed and documented set of rules and obligations between the participating parties (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Emerson, 1976; Homans, 1958). Other exchange rules include altruism, group gain, status consistency, and competition (Ngo-Henha, 2017). Homans (1958) espoused that employees connect by a network of ties whose strength influences their intention to keep or leave their jobs. Also, from the perspective of social exchange theory, turnover intention is a consequence of the non-respect of implicitly or explicitly agreed-on rules by management or colleagues. Social exchange theory implies that management's concerted efforts to reinforce implicitly or explicitly agreed-upon rules are considered an organizational retention strategy to keep its workforce, especially the talented employees.

Employees develop a relationship with their employer through reciprocating rewards and benefits; this norm increases favorable employee attitudes as trust comes in (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). However, employees may also negatively adapt their attitudes and behaviors when considering the unfavorable exchange (Robinson, 1996). Available research lacks analyses of whether bullying affects such evaluations (Magee et al., 2017; Parzefall & Stalin, 2010), but it is known that bullying is likely to cause its targets to blame the organization (Kakarika et al., 2017). People tend to attribute the causes of unpleasant events to others, even if this assignment of responsibility depends on

perceived control (Weiner, 1986) and is not always accurate (Davis, 2017; Jones, 2017).

In workplace bullying, the employer is perceived as more responsible than the bully because organizations have a high potential to control the situation. Homans's (1958) social exchange theory revolves around three premises: (a) exchange, (b) rewards, and (c) inequality. Exchange is a social behavior that often involves social exchanges and where people are motivated to attain some valued reward for which they must forfeit something of value: cost. Social exchange can be visualized as exchange equals trade of something of value (cost) for something needed/valued (reward). An exchange occurs when an economically valuable resource like time, effort, or skill is exchanged for another economically valuable resource like income, goods, or services.

A reward is a tangible or visible payment or prize given to an individual for achieving something with his valuable resource. Employers and employees seek profits in their exchanges such that rewards are more significant than the costs. The reward premise is visualized as: Rewards equals Outcome plus Costs. Positive outcomes (profits) and Negative outcomes (net loss) are prominent rewards outcomes. Inequity is a perceived injustice or fairness due to disparities in income or opportunities. Employers and employees are disturbed when there is insufficient equity in their exchanges or when others are rewarded more for their incurred costs (Wilkie, 2017). The inequity premise is visualized as: Inequity = Cost > Reward or My Costs > Your Costs or My Rewards < Your Rewards. Homans's (1958) social exchange theory premises are propositions on which the argument of reward was based and a conclusion drawn.

Social Capital Theory

Social scientists use the social capital theory to explain workplace bullying. The interest in social capital theory stems from its appeal as it integrates sociology and economics and combines several ideas, including civics and social cohesion. The social capital theory was clearly defined by Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1990), and Putnam (1995). Bourdieu addressed structural constraints and unequal access to institutional resources based on class, gender, and race. For Bourdieu, social capital is manifested through benefits derived from social networks. Claridge (2018) differentiated that the source of social capital stems from social, economic, and cultural structures that create differential power and status for specific individuals and not others.

Coleman (1990) stated that social capital facilitates individual or collective action generated by networks of relationships, reciprocity, trust, and social norms. Coleman's idea of social capital was to import the economists' principle of rational action to analyze social systems without discarding social organization. Where Bourdieu (1986) saw social capital as reproducing social inequality, Coleman treated social capital as universally productive, used by actors to achieve ends that would have been impossible without social capital. Putnam (1995) defined social capital as social organizations' features, such as networks, norms, and trust, facilitating action and cooperation for mutual benefit. Putnam follows Coleman's belief that social capital is a quality that can facilitate interpersonal collaboration. In Putnam's view, such a feature can be considered an aggregate trait to such a degree that it can become automatically comparable across cities, regions, and even countries.

Three perspectives have been particularly influential in literature on social capital. These are the thoughts of Bourdieu (1986), Coleman (1990), and Putnam (1995). Bourdieu concluded in his definition that resources provide access to group goods to secure economic capital. The emphasis of Bourdieu was on individuals in the class competition. Coleman's definition was on the aspects of social structure that actors can use as resources to achieve their interests and to secure human capital. Its emphasis was on individuals in family and community settings. Putnam's definition of the social capital theory was on trust, norms, and networks that facilitate cooperation for mutual benefit and to secure effective democracy and economy. Finally, the emphasis of Putman's social capital theory was on regions in national settings.

Despite the variations in specific characteristics of social capital, all perspectives have three common features (Claridge, 2018). These three features of social capital are (a) bonding, (b) bridging, and (c) linking. Bonding social capital refers to the strong ties connecting family members, neighbors, close friends, and business associates. While bridging social capital implies horizontal connections to people with broadly comparable economic status and political power. Finally, linking within social capital refers to the vertical ties between poor people and people of influence in organizations.

In developing sustainable social capital, the approach addresses the problem of exclusion from the places where significant decisions relating to welfare are made. Pihl et al. (2017) analyzed the various ways in which organizational social capital and bullying in the workplace could potentially be related to high social capital and may prevent the development of bullying. Increased social capital can be seen as a resource that can aid

organizations in hard times, as a buffer that contains negative or ambiguous actions from being perceived as bullying, or as a buffer that enables the effective resolution of conflicts in the bud (Svendsen & Svendsen, 2006). In organizations with high social capital, relations between employees and leaders show trusting cooperation, shared goals and interests, and effective conflict resolution (Hasle & Moller, 2007). Svendsen and Svendsen (2006) expressed that the employees in organizations with high social capital trust each other's intentions and decisions. Trust is to avoid or minimize speculations of negative intentions behind actions, perceptions of injustice, confidence breaches, and mistrust that could lead to suspicions and counteractions with personal and economic consequences.

A high degree of social capital can increase the risk of bullying in an organization, especially when bonding is high; social capital may increase the risk of bullying by excluding group members that do not conform to rigid group norms. High levels of bonding social capital may result in the group closing in on itself and developing a sense of opposition to others that will degenerate into bullying. In reciprocity, bullying degrades the organizational social capital, as targets may lose their confidence and trust in coworkers and managers and the organization's ability to manage hostile acts and injustices. Woolcock and Narayan (2000) described social capital as a double-edged sword. Social capital can represent an asset for an employee's economic and well-being improvement. Exclusive solid ties and a strict sense of obligations, however, might be, at a certain point, a cost without related benefits for the individual employee. The cooperation among members of a particular group does not necessarily

imply that the goal is the benefit of the common good. While group members can benefit from shared resources, the non-members are excluded and, under certain circumstances, isolated by creating an environment of general distrust (Field, 2008; Portes, 1998). Sciarone (2002) disclosed that very inclusive social networks sometimes give individuals little freedom within an organization.

The social capital theory is about relationships, and the quality of the social capital exchange contributes to employees' performance and turnover intention. Organizational leaders and employees should build strong relationships to benefit the leadership, employees, and organization (Osman & Nahar, 2015). Liao et al. (2019) postulated that leader and employee contributions are a social capital relationship and reciprocate the contributions. A workplace without bullying builds trust, improves performance, and reduces employee turnover intention (Byun et al., 2012). Bullying breaks the trusting relationship between organizational management and employees, damaging the employees' well-being and increasing employee turnover intention (Liao et al., 2019). Bullying adversely impacts the workplace, with workers taking sick leave and being less productive (presenteeism), which damages productivity.

Literature Review

Bullying harms individuals, human resources management, and organizations (Ariza-Montes & Rodriguez, 2013). When assessed in terms of lost productivity, employee turnover intention, witness distraction, and the physical and emotional repercussions on targets, Gumbus and Lyons (2011) claimed that bullying costs are considerable for individuals and organizations. Even while a lawsuit for wrongful

termination, workers' compensation, or disability will not be ruled out, and the expense of workplace bullying rises dramatically. Other costs that are harder to calculate and negatively impact human resources management outcomes include absenteeism, errors, reduced work quality, poor reputation, and poor customer relationships resulting from the lack of commitment and loss of work focus. Bullying-incurred cost is even more critical for correctional institutions whose employees perform complex tasks in close contact with offenders. In the context of safety and security, workplace bullying assumes the form of a Marxist perspective, typical in day-to-day management. Still, workplace bullying leads attention to the sources, meanings, and dynamics originating from power inequality in the workplace (Ironsides & Seifert, 2003). Power inequality encourages workplace bullying that comes with consequences for the organization.

Workplace bullying is essential for business and politics, given the severe consequences on victims' health and organizations' profits. Employees are the most significant capital resource of any organization, and an organization's success depends on the employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and employee retention (Mokgolo & Barnard, 2019; Pelletier, 2016). Workplace bullying does not encourage employee outcomes; therefore, human resource professionals have the challenge of focusing employees on the job and creating a person-environment fit (Einarsen et al., 2017; Giorgi, 2012; Kantor, 2017). Workplace bullying was brought into public cognizance in 1990 by Scandinavian psychologist Heinz Leymann. It was made famous through an English journalist, Andrea Adams, in a series of radio documentaries (as cited in Tarallo, 2017). Lane et al. (2020) articulated that workplace bullying is variously defined and named in

different countries and sometimes by other organizations, thus, making it problematic in academia to establish the extent of its perniciousness.

The Germans and Scandinavians call it mobbing (Leymann, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996); Americans describe it as harassment (Björkqvist et al., 1994), while Austrians and Europeans know it as workplace bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Rayner, 1997; Rockett et al., 2017). Some others call it victimization (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) or psychological terror (Leymann, 1990). However, they all seem to refer to the same phenomenon, namely the systematic mistreatment of a subordinate, a colleague, or a superior, which, if continued, may cause severe social, psychological, and psychosomatic problems in the victim (Espelage et al., 2003). As distinct from bullying, mobbing is a harmful activity employed by two or more people against one person or a well-defined group. The perpetrators interact and reinforce each other without any negative intentions other than the persecution of their victims. The act of persecution suggests that mobbing is a goal (Pepler et al., 2006; Pikas, 1975), whereas bullying is a relationship problem because it is a form of aggression that unfolds in the context of a relationship in which one asserts interpersonal power through aggression over another.

Based on the classification suggested by Einarsen et al. (2010), Lebreton and Cristini (2019), and Zaitseva et al. (2016), the key factors influencing workplace bullying between the bully and bullied are work organization; leadership; organizational culture, and social climate; reward system; organizational change; and mental processes. Survival is an instinct that develops at the onset of life. Survival instinct is the competition for resources against other species. The survival instinct and a competitive atmosphere have

remained the same as humanity has evolved (Donegan, 2012). Donegan (2012) further espoused that the constant drive to surpass others and surmount obstacles was an ideology developed where bullying was unintentionally instilled as a survival tactic from a very young age. As a result, people quickly learn unethical ways to outshine others in organizations' highly competitive corporate and social environments.

An unethical survival strategy is treacherous because individuals can construct a lifestyle from them once they realize its effectiveness. These bullying tactics may include spreading social rumors, verbal comments that could mentally hurt or isolate a person in the workplace, and harmful physical contact. Bullying tactics also include repeated incidents or a pattern of behavior intended to intimidate, offend, degrade, or humiliate a particular person or group of people to take advantage and control. Workplace bullying in organizations is becoming a significant problem worldwide, and many studies are conducted yearly. However, one issue remains unsolved: the definition of bullying (Dragoti & Ismaili, 2017). The contextual definition of *bullying* is a first step toward eliminating bullying on a zero-tolerance basis. The word *bully* dates to the 16th century and originated from the word *boele*, appearing thus to have Dutch and German roots, evolving from words for *lover* and *friend* (Harper, 2020; Koo, 2007). The initial meaning of the word, *bully*, was positive. The word *bully* was a term of endearment and familiarity, originally applied to either sex (Oxford University Press, 2011). Koo (2007), bolstered by Peters (2010), disclosed that the term later applied to men only, implying friendly admiration: good friend, fine fellow, gallant.

In the 1600s, the word bully began splitting into more negative meanings closer to today's bullies. "Bully" started to mean "A blustering 'gallant,' 'a bravo, hector,'" or "swashbuckler" (Peters, 2010, para. 5). Only in the 17th century did bullying gain the meaning it holds today. Bullying is a term formed from a word or phrase suitable for conversation and informal situations in English. Generally, bullying has no clear meaning in the lexical words of other languages. In France, bullying refers to *faits de violence*, meaning violent actions, including violent informal settings and disrupting behaviors interfering with organizational activity (Cornali et al., 1999). France's perception of the word, bullying, seems to appear even in Poland (McGuckin & Lewis, 2003) and Germany (Lösel & Bliesener, 1999), where the direct translation of the word bullying is impossible, and discussions usually emerge within the framework of violence in school.

Ortega and Mora-Merchan (1999) had difficulty translating the term bullying and reported problems defining it within their cultural context in Spain. The difficulty is because the concept of violence/assault did not exist in school; hence, they faced a lack of social understanding and indifference. The Italian word *prepotenza* and –violence- emphasize more on physical attacks. Smith et al. (2002) studied the problem of the compatibility of terms in 14 different countries and 13 languages. Results showed extreme diversity, so they thought the evaluation of bullying frequency in some countries, such as Italy, could be exaggerated due to an approximate translation of the term. There seems to be an essential incompatibility related to the perception of defining the term – bullying- in different cultures, which raises the issue of whether comparing data and frequency in foreign countries has any meaningful conclusion. According to an article by

UNICEF Annual Report (2017) for the Balkans, including Albania, there is no such term to describe the bullying phenomenon in their dictionary. The lack of a specific term for this problem makes it difficult to discuss and examine findings and comparisons. In South-Eastern Europe, Albanians prefer to describe bullying as *ngacmim bashkëmoshatar*, but researchers think that the term fails to include all characteristics of bullying. Some of the most prominent researchers in this field suggest a unified term for all non-English-speaking countries and compare findings and results, which is currently very difficult. The inconsistent definitions used to measure bullying and the evidence that bullying differs from other types of aggression highlight the need for a uniform definition. Smith (2016) disclosed that international studies have tried to funnel the problem of defining bullying by adapting and translating the Olweus questionnaire, keeping the basic word –bully-, and adding the English suffix: ing, hence adapting it to the language of the place where it translated. The translation process requires extra caution for any study and further explanation of bullying.

UNESCO (2016a, 2016b) used the term violent extremism to refer to bullying. UNESCO defined violent extremism as the beliefs and actions of people who support or use ideologically motivated violence to achieve radical ideological, religious, or political views. Violent extremist views manifested in various issues, including politics, religion, and gender relations. UNESCO further said that no society, religious community, or worldview is immune to such violent extremism. Violent extremism manifested through denying different views, overestimating the exclusivity of personal thinking, refusing differences, negating diversity, and imposing personal opinions, all using violence.

Holders of extremist views use violence to achieve political, religious, or social goals (Dragoti & Ismaili, 2017). According to the Oxford English Dictionary, “extremist” is a person with extreme political or religious views, especially one who advocates illegal, violent, or extreme action (Simpson, 2010; WordNet 3.0, 2012). One meaning of ‘radical’ is representing or supporting an extreme section of a party.

Field (1996) believed that most people eventually become bullies or targets in environments where bullying prevails. Participating in workplace bullying is about survival. People adopt bullying tactics to avoid becoming targets. To oppose bullying, they risk being targeted, victimized, or used as a scapegoat until they quit their job, have a stress breakdown, take ill-health retirement, are fired based on capability, or are arbitrarily selected. Workplace bullying often reveals a predictable order pattern of isolation, control, suppression, and elimination due to power imbalance or dysfunction (Madden & Loh, 2018). In poorly managed organizations where bullying escalates, the best, brightest, and most popular employees leave their jobs. The sensible ones realize they are in a no-win situation and quit before they are fired or relocated. Most employees tolerate the intolerable for 2 years or more, but the company loses over 70% of its most competent staff from bullying (Namie, 2003). Bullies are rarely held accountable for their actions. Their outreach and network account for their non-prosecution. Bullies should be liable for their victims' violent activities since they are partially responsible for some of their victims engaging in the horrific deeds they do. Due to the circumstances surrounding the crimes committed and the lack of physical evidence, the chances of bullies being held responsible for the devastation created by their torment are slim to

none. Namie (2003) disclosed that fewer than 13% of bullies ever lose their jobs because of their bullying ways, and fewer than 4% stop bullying after punishment or sanctions.

Bullying is a complex phenomenon where the severity of the incident(s) is misunderstood and can be subjective or objective. Subjective bullying addresses a definite awareness of bullying by the victim, that is, the actual bullying, while objective bullying addresses that there is external support for bullying (Brodsky, 1976; Jennifer, 2000). Not every administrative action in a workplace is workplace bullying. The Interagency Round Table on Workplace Bullying (2007) indicated that the following measures are not considered workplace bullying: First, a reasonable action is taken politely by an employer to transfer, demote, discipline, counsel, retrench or dismiss an employee. Second, a decision by an employer, based on reasonable grounds, not to award or provide a promotion, transfer, or benefit in connection with an employee's employment. Third, appropriate administrative action is taken reasonably by an employer in connection with an employee's work. Fourth, reasonable administrative action is taken politely under an act affecting an employee. These appropriate administrative actions enumerated by The Interagency Round Table on Workplace Bullying are upheld in federal legislation globally.

Workplace Bullying Historical Overview

Bullying is not a modern-day issue but has always been a part of human life. Initially, bullying was a tyranny among boys and girls, from college hazing and school fagging to the nursery in which threats of exposure, injury, or imaginary dangers were the instruments of subjection and control (Burk, 1897). In Burk's assessment, bullying was

expressed in terms of threats that provided how some students could control the behavior of others through their subjection. Seventy-five years later, the Swedish term for bullying (mobbing) appeared first. The term bullying was conceptualized by Heinemann (1987), who drew on the understanding of the English term 'mob' and expressed bullying as a group's collective aggressiveness toward an individual who provokes or attracts its anger (Heinemann, 1987; Horton, 2018). Inspired by the etiological understandings of animal aggression, Heinemann focused on the reactive behavior of groups to perceive outside threats.

Bullying has been a critical issue in formal settings for decades that later became the workplace bullying of today. During the early 18th century, peer-on-peer harassment among students was just as commonly seen as today but with a different societal understanding. Bullies should be held accountable for their victims' violent behavior since they are partly to blame for some of their victims engaging in the heinous acts they perform. Some of today's violent behaviors were not regarded as such in the past. While bullying in schools remains a critical issue, throughout the years, several events and studies have taken place that has made a significant impact on bullying and have expanded its meaning in many ways (Edmondson & Zeman, 2011; Hazelden Betty Ford Foundation, 2007; Koo, 2007). The 18th and 19th centuries' understanding of bullying by the Europeans implied physical or verbal harassment commonly linked with death, intense isolation, or extortion in school children (Koo, 2007). Any aggressive behavior was seen as mischief and a normal part of childhood. Bullying was thought of as an innocent misadventure or misbehavior among schoolboys. For instance, at King's

Boarding School in the UK, a 12-year-old boy was killed for bullying by his older classmates. The schoolboys involved were not held accountable for his death because the school viewed the behavior as a normal misadventure among teens and a part of growing up among children (Koo, 2007). The 21st-century understanding of society regarding bullying would view such conclusions differently. Safety for all in schools and non-aggressive behavior are essential to promoting an effective school environment that increases the students' academic, emotional, and social well-being (Dragoti & Ismaili, 2017). Social orientation is the key to preventing bullying in schools and organizations.

In the U.S. and other nations, the brutality of events has brought bullying incidents to the limelight and public discourse. In 1998, Matthew Shepard, a 21-year-old, was tied to a fence, tortured, and murdered because of how the perpetrators felt about lesbians, gay people, bisexuals, and transgender (Shepard, 2010). In 1999, there was the Columbine High School Massacre (Gilmour, 2012). In 2003 people witnessed the suicide of Ryan Halligan, a 13-year-old victim of cyberbullying (Littler, 2011). In 2006, Megan Meier, another 13-year-old, committed suicide when she became a victim of cyberbullying with a fake MySpace profile (Littler, 2011). Due to violent events like these, laws and new school policies have been passed in the United States to cease bullying by making everyone aware that this issue must be tackled because of the physical and psychological damage it involves to either the victim or the offender (State Anti-Bullying Laws & Policies, 2018). In response to bullying, the U.S. government has created laws to crack down on these behaviors.

The State of Texas, under the leadership of Governor Rick Perry, passed and signed House Bill 1942 (Kelly, 2016), enacting the first anti-bullying measure in the state. With the passage of House Bill 1942, the state sought to define acts of bullying further, create more robust parental notification requirements, and increase accountability (Equality Texas, 2011). The legislation is a subsection of section 1.21.451(d) of the Education Code, which establishes teacher employment and contract guidelines (Texas Legislature Online, 2012). First, the bill highlights establishing a new definition of bullying through electronic means. Secondly, the bill integrates awareness, prevention, identification, and resolution of and intervention in bullying into the health curriculum. Thirdly, the bill allows local school boards to transfer a student bullied by others to another classroom or campus in consultation with the parent or guardian. Finally, the bill requires local school districts to adopt and implement a bullying policy that recognizes minimum guidelines such as the prohibition of bullying, providing counseling options, and establishing procedures for reporting an incidence of bullying. Also, the legislation requires staff development that includes training to identify, respond to, report, and prevent bullying.

Worker abuse is a far-reaching problem in the workplace, for there is no specific federal anti-bullying legislation in the United States, but that does not mean that employers may not be held liable for tolerating bullying in their workplaces. According to the polls conducted in 2017, 19% of Americans have suffered abusive conduct at work; another 19% have witnessed it; 63% are aware that workplace bullying happens, and 37% professed to know nothing about bullying (Namie, 2020). Although workplace

bullying is silent in U.S. laws, harassment, discrimination, and retaliation are not and can create legal liabilities for bullying. Some of these laws are The Civil Rights Acts of 1964 and 1991, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1973 and 1990, The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to enforce anti-discrimination laws in the workplace (Federal Trade Commission, 2021; State Anti-Bullying Laws & Policies, 2018). Workers who are abused based on their membership in a protected class—race, nationality, or religion, among others—can sue under civil rights laws. However, the law generally does not protect against plain old viciousness. Workplace bullying does not have to be an assault to be unlawful. In Texas, state law prohibits the harassment of people with disabilities and people who are elderly, and the law requires that it be immediately reported for investigation (Texas Human Resources Code, Chapter 48). In addition, when directed toward a person with a disability, any form of bullying is prohibited under federal laws as discrimination.

The contemporary conceptualizations of bullying have often been based on the work done by Olweus (1993). However, Olweus shifted the focus away from the group and onto the negative actions of individuals. He asserted that a person is being bullied or victimized when repeatedly exposed to negative actions by one or more others over time. Olweus identified three criteria for determining the presence of a bullying situation: (a) the aggressive intention to harm, (b) the repetitiveness of the actions, and (c) the presence of an asymmetric power relationship, which he equated with an ‘imbalance in strength’ (Horton, 2018; Olweus, 1993, p. 10). Cyberbullying is repeated and harmful interactions

that are deliberately offensive, humiliating, threatening, and power assertive, enacted using electronic equipment such as mobile phones or the Internet by one or more individuals toward another (Campbell et al., 2013). Cyberbullying might continue real-life bullying but can also exist independently (Brandtzaeg et al., 2009). Two individuals got credit for coining the term cyberbullying. Belsey (2019), a Canadian school teacher, is accredited with creating the first online site about cyberbullying at cyberbullying.org. Willard (2003), a lawyer in the United States, also understood cyberbullying to comprise repeated and deliberate use of communication technology and information science to inflict harm on others negatively.

Talpur et al. (2018) are of the view that cyber-bullying is divided into seven sub-categories, namely: (a) text message bullying, (b) picture/video clip bullying, (c) phone call bullying, (d) email bullying, (e) chatroom bullying, (f) bullying through instant messaging, and (g) bullying via websites among which picture/video clip and phone call were perceived to have the most impact (Albdour et al., 2019; Banyard et al., 2020; Chi et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2008). Even though chat rooms, instant messaging, and email bullying were perceived to have the most negligible impact on the victim, the study by Sourander et al. (2010) suggested that the most common technology used by bullies is instant messaging (18%) and email (13.8%). Cyber victimization causes poor grades, emotional spirals, poor self-esteem, repeated school absences, depression, and in some cases, suicide (Chait, 2008; Rao et al., 2019). These outcomes are like real-life bullying outcomes, except that with cyberbullying, there is often no escape. School ends at 3 p.m., while the Internet is open for business year-round. In organizations, Tkalych et al. (2021)

understand cyberbullying as an urgent existential problem that requires legal and organizational ways to overcome, given its complexity.

Definition of Key Variables

My research dissertation likely included terms not widely known outside of the discipline. These terms have theoretical constructs, formulas, and operational definitions that differ from colloquial definitions, schools of thought, and discipline-specific acronyms. This study's working definition of terms consisted of definitions of the critical terms or variables in the dissertation. The definition of terms also explains the technical terms and measurements used during data collection. Since some words have various meanings, it is imperative to clarify to the reader the way they are used in the dissertation. This is done to standardize the study from ambiguity. Unfamiliar or technical words are given exact definitions. A term that is not defined is at the risk of misinterpretation and will not provide the same results and meaning throughout the study.

Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying is a repeated, unreasonable action of individuals or a group of individuals directed toward an employee or a group of employees and intended to intimidate (Muller et al., 2019). Workplace bullying creates a risk to the health and safety of the employee(s), a feeling of defenselessness, and undermines an individual's right to dignity. Workplace bullying involves an ongoing pattern and often involves abuse or misuse of power. *Workplace bullying* is a term used when repeated actions and practices are directed against one or more workers that are unwanted by the victim and may be carried out deliberately or unconsciously (Akella, 2016; Gardner et al., 2016). These

actions cause humiliation, offense, and distress, which may interfere with work performance or cause an unpleasant working environment (Einarsen et al., 2011).

Workplace bullying refers to unwanted negative behavior, actions, and incidents that occur repeatedly and frequently, for instance, weekly and over a while, like 6 months or more, that may potentially cause discomfort on a psychological, emotional, and physical level (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). While Muller et al. (2019) defined workplace bullying as the victim, Einarsen et al. (2011) focused more on the organization. In addition, the explanation by Einarsen and Raknes (1997) emphasized the time frame of the bullying.

Turnover Intention

The turnover intention is the likelihood of an employee leaving their current job (Belete, 2018). Turnover intention is a deliberate willfulness to leave the organization because the individual has the intended goal or determination to end the employment. Turnover intentions may entail expensive consequences for companies because of the high costs involved in recruiting and training new employees (Coetzee & van Dyk, 2018; Wocke & Heymann, 2012) and the lower engagement and productivity of existing staff due to increased workload demands resulting in incidents of burnout and exhaustion and perceptions of workplace bullying (Kumar & Dhamodaran, 2013). Therefore, employers and practitioners continually strive to understand the workplace factors that lead to turnover intention because high voluntary turnover negatively influences organizational growth and success.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an orientation of employees' emotions toward the role they perform at the workplace (Vroom, 1964). Job satisfaction is essential to employee motivation and encouragement toward better performance. Hoppok and Spielgler (1938) defined job satisfaction as an integrated set of psychological, physiological, and environmental conditions encouraging employees to admit they are satisfied or happy with their jobs. Sree and Satyavathi (2017) believed that employees dissatisfied with their job might be militant in their attitude toward management. Dissatisfaction is infectious and will quickly spread to other employees, which will likely affect the morale and working of those employees and the organization's image. Sree and Satyavathi observed further that a dissatisfied worker might seriously cause damage to the reputation and property of the organization and harm its business interest. Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction result from various factors related to the present job situation, such as the work environment, management, reward, and opportunities that can impact fulfillment on the job.

Work Commitment/Work Engagement

Work commitment is the feeling of responsibility that a person has toward the mission, vision, and goals of an organization. Work commitment is the employee's enthusiasm toward the tasks assigned. Lockwood (2007) believed that employee engagement is the extent to which employees commit to something or someone in the organization, those who are loyal and productive. Commitment is the level to which employees are fully involved in and committed to their work, care about their organization and colleagues, and are willing to extend themselves and go the extra mile

for their company to ensure its success (Hough et al., 2015; Sahoo & Mishra, 2012).

When an individual has a job commitment, they are more likely to perform tasks and responsibilities to help an organization achieve its goal.

Affective commitment has the most potential benefit for an organization, directly influencing how employees perform their jobs. Affective commitment is the emotional attachment of an employee to organizational values and how much an employee likes the organization. Continuance and normative commitment are less rated in the administrative management theory's Three-Component Model (TCM). Continuance commitment is a measure of the willingness of an employee to continue working for the same organization. Normative commitment deals with an employee's feelings of obligation or responsibility toward the organization. Affective commitment is an active commitment in which an employee is happy and engaged in organizational activities like participation in discussions and meetings, giving valuable inputs or suggestions to help the organization, and having a proactive work ethic (Slack et al., 2010). Affective commitment is higher when the gap between individual and organizational values is minimal (Slack et al., 2010). The congruence between personal and organizational values in employees can be built and enhanced by strategies and programs to enhance employee understanding and recognition of corporate values. Affective commitment is work engagement, the form most usually measured by organizations.

Human Resources Management

Human resource management is the system of activities and strategies that focus on successfully managing employees at all levels of an organization to achieve

organizational goals (Byars & Rue, 2006). Human resource management focuses on people in organizations. It includes conducting job analyses, planning personnel needs, recruiting the right people for the job, orienting and training, managing wages and salaries, providing benefits and incentives, evaluating performance, resolving disputes, and communicating with all employees at all levels (Belete, 2018; King, 2016; Parameswari & Yugandhar, 2015). In any organizational setting, employees are human resources and the most asset. From the motivation to be at the top of the pack, human resources management becomes a valuable tool for management to ensure success.

Correctional Institution

A correctional institution is where persons are confined for punishment and to protect the public (WordNet 3.0). Correctional institutions are used to detain persons in the lawful custody of the government, whether the accused person is awaiting trial or a convicted person is serving a sentence. A correctional institution is any place designated by law for the safekeeping of persons held in custody under the process of law, or lawful arrest, including state prisons, county and local jails, and other facilities operated by the department of corrections or local governmental units primarily for punishment, discipline, or rehabilitation following the conviction of a criminal offense. The National Institute of Justice (as cited in Garcia & Haskins, 2020) defined corrections organizations as jails, prisons, juvenile residential facilities, and community corrections agencies at the federal, state, local, and tribal levels. Jails are short-term facilities usually administered by a local law enforcement agency and are intended for adults but sometimes hold juveniles before or after adjudication. Jail inmates typically have a sentence of less than 1

year or are held pending a trial, awaiting sentencing, or awaiting transfer to another facility after a conviction. Prisons are long-term confinement facilities run by a state or the federal government that typically hold offenders with sentences of more than 1 year. Juvenile residential facilities include secure and nonsecure facilities where youth are temporarily detained by the court or committed after adjudication for an offense.

Types of Bullying

Bullying can be a learned act disseminated through an organization, even when everyone is bullying one another in the workplace. Suppose someone responds to bullying with bullying instead of a reasonable and assertive response. In that case, they can lose the moral high ground and the right to criticize the behavior they were subjected to in the workplace. For example, someone who responds to name-calling with name-calling and then complains about it will implicitly criticize their conduct when they make their complaint (Field, 1996; Hoke & Demory, 2014; Hemphill et al., 2014; National Centre Against Bullying, 2013). Bullying is overt or covert due to its perceived visibility to others. Crick and Bigbee (1998) expressed that bullying is overt when such behavior is visible to others, such as physically or verbally attacking another person. Bullying is covert when it is not visible to others, such as spreading rumors or deliberately excluding another individual from a social exchange.

In its broadest classification, workplace bullying can be lateral or vertical. Lateral workplace bullying occurs between peers at the same power level in the organization, for instance, employee-to-employee bullying and supervisor-to-supervisor bullying (Griffin, 2004). Vertical workplace bullying can either be top-down (downward vertical) bullying

or bottom-up (upward vertical) bullying (Vessey et al., 2009). Top-down bullying is intimidating and reflects an abuse of legitimate authority. Vessey et al. (2009) posited that this abuse of legitimate power undermines and includes excessive criticism, unreasonable work assignments, and withholding opportunities. Bottom-up bullying, as expressed by Vessey et al., is the abuse of informal power by individuals or cliques of coworkers. For example, bottom-up bullying undermines the work of an informal leader in an organization, such as talking to other employees or members of other departments about the leader in a negative or demeaning manner rather than speaking directly to the leader. Bottom-up bullying also involves influencing others to oppose the leader's direction overtly or covertly.

The broad domains of overt and covert bullying are physical, verbal, psychological, sexual, and cyberbullying (Due et al., 2005; Farrington & Ttofi, 2010; Muller et al., 2019). Physical bullying involves physical abuse like punching, kicking, hitting, pushing, spitting, stealing, or destroying possessions, such as money, tearing, or stealing physical or intellectual possessions. Verbal bullying includes name-calling, insulting, teasing, intimidating, making homophobic or racist remarks, or verbally abusing another person. The main goal of verbal abuse is the degradation of the victim. Psychological or social bullying is a type of bullying designed to harm another person's social reputation or cause personal humiliation, including lying and spreading rumors, hurtfully mimicking behavior, playing nasty jokes designed to cause embarrassment and shame, and damaging someone's social reputation or social acceptance, encouraging others to exclude another person, mobbing socially, and making hostile facial or physical

gestures, menacing or contemptuous looks, toward another (Namie & Namie, 2003).

Sexual bullying is undesired physical or verbal sexual behaviors, which include malicious, explicit sexual statements or sexually discriminating notes and undesired physical contact by someone in the workplace (Field, 1996). Such sexual bullying actions can be discomforting and interfere with organizational outcomes.

Cyberbullying is the misuse of communication technology that involves sending disturbing, worrying, and threatening messages through the telephone or internet, social media, blogs, and other cybernetic means to conduct campaigns of hatred. The impersonality and distance between bully and target make such technology an effective means to cause conflict and hurt (Dragoti & Ismaili, 2017). Cyberbullying can be private in that the target receives text messages, or the public, where the target is defamed and subject to specious or sarcastic allegations of unsavory actions, conduct, or personality traits in front of a broad audience. Donegan (2012) disclosed that a cyberbully could provoke a reaction from their target using email and visibly copying as many people as possible. Cyberbullies possibly do this in the hope that others will join in, but in any case, let the target see that the bully's message is widely visible. Social networking websites are another medium where bullies can show off to a broad audience.

Global Cultural Perspectives on Workplace Bullying

Responsible governments require employers to undertake preventive measures concerning psychosocial risks that lead to work-related stress. Sometimes these psychosocial risks include psychological violence. For example, Poland, Slovenia, France, and Paraguay have specific prohibitions regarding mobbing; the UK, Singapore,

Spain, and New Zealand, have prohibitions on harassment, while Chile, Mauritius, Poland, and Slovenia have prohibitions on bullying. The jurisdictions have enacted these prohibitions (International Labor Organization, 2020). In addition, some national legislation and practice spelled out the scope, prevention, protection, and remedial provisions to manage and eliminate harassment at work.

Asia and the Middle East Perspective

The national government recognizes mobbing and aggression as a problem among schoolchildren in China. However, recognition is absent mainly on the issue of workplace bullying. Though the *Labour Act 1994* includes an employers' general duty clause to ensure the health and safety of their workers at work, the consensus is that it confines physical health while excluding psychological health with one exception: *Special Regulation on Labour Protection for Women Workers 2012* (Living in China, 2009). The legislation mandates employers to prevent and stop sexual harassment against women workers. The victims of workplace bullying who fall under the *protected class* status can sue their employer for damages for employment discrimination. Besides, injuries caused by workplace violence can be regarded as work-related injuries only when such injuries are physical (Labour Law of the People's Republic of China, 1994; Li, 2018). The Promotion Act 2007 is also known as the People's Republic of China Employment Promotion Law (cited in China Daily, 2014). The law was passed at the 29th session of the Standing Committee of the 10th National People's Congress on August 30, 2007, and took effect on January 1, 2008 (China Daily, 2014). The Promotion Act 2007 is based on

equal employment opportunities in China and prohibits discrimination based on gender, race, ethnicity, religion, and migrant workers' status.

Additionally, in reviewing the China Employment Law, Zhong Lun (2020) established that the laws in China did not specifically recognize workplace bullying but anti-discrimination laws. The rules on anti-discrimination are in various laws and regulations, such as the Labor Law of the People's Republic of China and the Law of the People's Republic of China on the Promotion of Employment. However, these rules are very general and impractical. These rules also do not specify what discrimination is, how to determine its existence, how to allocate the burden of proof in establishing it, and what liability is imposed. For example, in China, the Special Rules on the Labor Protection of Female Employees, issued by the State Council in 2012, indicated that employers should prevent and prohibit the sexual harassment of female employees in their workplaces (as cited in Zhong Lun, 2020). Neither of the two laws defines sexual harassment nor contains specific employer duties to prevent and prohibit such harassment.

South Korea has no special law regulating workplace bullying (John & Sookyoung, 2018). The Korean-English/English-Korean Dictionary & Phrasebook has no direct word for workplace bullying but words related to the meaning (National Institute of Korean Language, 2005). The Korean Language Institute admitted that Koreans often use the word *Goerobhim* to make someone feel uncomfortable in mind and body and to distress someone. Koreans also use *Ttadollin* to exclude or keep somebody hated or disliked. Koreans say *Wanta* to dislike someone or cast them out. Koreans also say, *Eumhae* to harm someone secretly or in wicked ways. Finally, Koreans speak *Gubak* to distress by

tormenting someone. When workplace bullying occurs, managing the bullying is difficult unless the victim's damages (such as unfair dismissal, discrimination, and physical/mental damages) are visualized. The issue with workplace bullying in South Korea is that there is no legal definition within its legislation; therefore, it is difficult to recognize the existence/nonexistence of workplace bullying. Thus, when someone is bullied by their boss, the employer is responsible for illegal acts against their employee. The Korean court also judges that the Industrial Accident Compensation Insurance Act's mental illness due to workplace bullying is an occupational disease.

The unusual population demography of the United Arab Emirates (UAE) makes it challenging to understand workplace bullying from the Emirati perspective without exacerbating the population. The UAE nationals constitute a small fraction of the population (Worldometers, 2020). In 2010, the UAE population was estimated to be over 8 million, with 11.5% Emirati and 88.5% non-Emirati (Worldometers, 2020). In 2020 and based on United Nations figures, the population was reported to be over nine million people (Worldometers, 2020). A similar split will be expected between Emiratis and non-Emirati, all things being equal. In such multicultural contexts, the absence of traditional roots leads individuals to form groups with those with whom they feel culturally more alike and connected. The development of out-group and in-group relationships makes workplace bullying more likely, where groups attempt to obtain favorable outcomes for themselves, frustrating the goals of other groups. Such competitive relationships between groups can initiate mutually negative feelings and stereotypes toward the members of other groups.

Unlike in Europe, Japan does not prohibit harassment but has a provision that employers are obliged to take employment management measures to protect both men and women from sexual harassment, which was put into effect in 2007 (Human Rights Watch, 2018). Japan has no direct word for workplace bullying. Instead, it has *ijime*, traditionally viewed as both playing among young men and a way of correcting children by parents during the Edo era of 1603-1866 (Koo, 2007). Stegar (2019) commented that Japan has embarked on a series of reforms to address the problems plaguing its workplaces, including excessively long hours and rigid work arrangements that prompted the government to tackle the scourge of harassment. The social psychologist and entrepreneur Okada Yasuko first coined the term Pawa-Hara in 2003 to give Japan an equivalent term to the English word bullying (Naimi, 2019). Steger's Pawa-Hara was a sign of the prevalence of everyday harassment across different facets of Japan. Pawa-Hara is a portmanteau word for various forms of it, like *mata hara* for maternity harassment, *seku hara* for sexual harassment, and *aka hara* for academic or campus harassment. Japan has recently introduced legislation against harassment based on pregnancy, maternity, parental leave, etcetera in the Equal Employment Opportunity Law (EEOL) and Child Care and Family Care Leave Law. The perception of workplace bullying in Japan and most Asian countries differs from Northern Europe's perspective.

Scandinavia Perspective

The term bullying is not new to Scandinavians. Workplace bullying is a widespread global problem, especially in Scandinavia, and the issue could benefit from the further investigation (Saunders et al., 2007). Most of the research in this specific field

centered in Scandinavia and Northern Europe (Einarsen, 2000). The Scandinavians are at the forefront of research on workplace bullying. The reason is that bullying in the schoolyard has been a research tradition in Scandinavia for the past 30 years (Olweus & Limber, 2009) and has been an observed phenomenon in schools. Einarsen (2000) believed that the Scandinavian interest in harassment at work builds on the assumption and observation that other kinds of harassment exist in organizations that may be as frequent and severe as sexual harassment in terms of individual suffering and organizational costs.

Sweden was the first country to legislate and approve the anti-bullying law. The other Scandinavian countries are also far ahead compared to North America, where Canada was the first to implement a law in 2004 (Saunders et al., 2007). Sweden implemented the Swedish National Board of Occupational Safety and Health Ordinance in 1994 to pioneer anti-bullying legislation among nations (Batur & Wistrom, 2012). Other leaders of Scandinavian countries were encouraged to enact their anti-bullying laws resulting from the Swedish Ordinance in 1994. The anti-bullying laws and regulations in Sweden, Finland, Denmark, and Norway aimed to support every worker's right to a healthy and safe work environment (Leymann, 1996). The Swedish anti-bullying law, workplace victimization, deals with the employer's obligations. The core content is that the employer shall plan and organize the work to prevent workplace bullying to the highest possible degree. The employer shall also clearly state that workplace bullying of employees has zero tolerance in their organization.

Europe Perspective

Most studies on workplace bullying are in the European context and cultural understanding. Bullying, harassment, and mobbing have national legislative enactment in some countries due to cultural influence. International Labor Organization (2020) advised that specific prohibitions regarding mobbing in Poland, Slovenia, and France; harassment in Spain and New Zealand; and bullying in Poland and Slovenia have been enacted in several jurisdictions. International comparisons often assume that mobbing, bullying, and moral harassment are the same but are described differently. The opinion on the hypothesis is contrary (Dragoti & Ismaili, 2017; Field, 1996). Studying the juridical construction of mobbing, bullying, and moral harassment in Great Britain, Sweden, and France is insightful.

Middlemiss (2016) and Scott (2018) believed that New Zealand has: (a) one of the highest rates of workplace bullying in the Western world, (b) one of the highest rates of domestic violence in the Western world, (c) one of the highest rates of child abuse in the western world, (d) a high rate of disrespect of elderly, (e) one of the highest alcohol/addiction-related behaviors in the western world, and (f) serious suicide and mental health issues permeating their social environment. O'Driscoll et al. (2011) have illustrated in their research the importance of developing organizational-level strategies to reduce the incidence of bullying and counteract its negative impact in New Zealand rather than expecting individuals to develop personal strategies to cope with the problem. In Australia, the workplace culture is one in which joking is relatively standard. Human resources professionals apply relevant workplace legislation in determining unacceptable forms of humor (Ballard & Easteal, 2016). The legal component of anti-bullying

legislation, like repeated hostile acts, as well as related discrimination legislation on protected categories such as race, gender, and ethnicity, are used by human resources professionals and employee representatives in determining what forms of humor may be considered bullying (Ballard & Easteal, 2016; Forsyth, 2012). When bullying is established, it is commonplace in Australia for mediation and other dispute-resolution techniques such as private, tribunal, or court-referred mediation and conciliation to assist the parties. Bozin et al. (2019) explained that the alleged targets, perpetrators, and their employers resolve bullying complaints regardless of the legal or other pathways chosen to address the dispute. These dispute-resolution processes are confidential and binding on all parties.

Popular among organizations in Australia is the use of employee assistance programs as a form of alternative dispute resolution to address workplace bullying from the perspective of employees who have experienced a bullying incident. Lockhart and Bhanugopan (2019) proposed the enormous employee dissatisfaction with employee assistance programs and suggested their inadequacy for this task. First, the employee's lack of confidence in the employee assistance programs' ability to deal with issues associated with workplace bullying expresses the lack of confidence. Second, the counselors employed within employee assistance programs are not qualified to assist with serious issues/cases of workplace bullying. Third, assistance within employee assistance programs is typically short-term, even when individuals are directed to outside help (Catley et al., 2017; Farr-Wharton et al., 2017; Joseph & Walker, 2017). These have

important implications for the organizations and employee assistance programs' ability to support employees.

French sexual harassment law traditionally does not view sexual harassment as discrimination (Ginsburg & Koreski, 1977; Law, 1978). In France, the government enacted a statute in August 2012 after the prior sexual harassment law was invalidated in May 2012 (Avocats, 2012). The August 2012 statute expanded the previous definition of sexual harassment, which had focused on coerced sexual conduct, to include harassment that harms the dignity of employees and places them in a hostile situation (Saguy, 2012). The new definition is based on European Directives, which defines sexual harassment as a form of sex discrimination. The French Labor Code prohibits sexist behavior and sexual and moral harassment. The sexual harassment law amendment seems to recognize that some of the harmful behavior that occurs in the workplace against women are motivated by sexism, thus discrimination. However, the French Labor Code maintained the separation of harassment and discrimination. Saguy (2012) thought the French courts have a sex-neutral approach to sexual harassment law, and it has no status-bound prohibition of harassment or workplace bullying.

Albania has ratified, since the 1990s, many necessary international human rights instruments, including the European Convention on Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms; The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, and Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment (United Nations Human Rights, 2021). Dragoti and Ismaili (2017) suggested that there is no unified law on school bullying against children in Albania and that there

is no legal action in place to address bullying and to guide the implementation mechanisms to ensure the protection of children from bullying in any setting, or to deal with the victims and bully. Schools in Albania do not have anti-bullying strategies or anti-bullying policies. School staff, such as teachers, directors, and other members, do not have sufficient information about the phenomenon and do not know how to intervene if bullying occurs in their schools. The ignorance of the school staff is a direct consequence of the absent policies and training regarding anti-bullying policies, which would determine the role of teachers and other actors around the phenomenon. In 2017, the Albanian government recognized bullying with the Law on Child Rights and Child Protection, which defines bullying as violence between children (The Parliament of the Republic of Albania, 2017). The definition does not recognize adult bullying in which workplace bullying is a part but the violence between children in school. Bullying is defined in the law as one type of violence: the violence occurring between children in school. The definition lacks comprehensiveness, as bullying is a form of aggressive behavior and may violate many human rights, not just one of these rights.

North America Perspective

Researchers have started to explore the North American perspective on workplace aggression and the notion of persistent hostility, focusing on understanding isolated incidents or aggregated aggression (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003; Keashly & Neuman, 2010). The notion of persistence is essential conceptually to the field of aggressive treatment in general and bullying because it moves the focus away from hostile acts to negative relationships (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003; Rayner & Keashly, 2005). Now it becomes

crucial to know who the actors and targets are relative to one another and the dynamics of these interactions. The focus on persistent negative behavior within relationships distinguishes the study of bullying from many other areas of workplace research.

Researchers in North America gained momentum on workplace bullying by the end of the 20th century (Ciby & Raya, 2015). Namie (2010) described workplace bullying as a silent epidemic since 50% of US workers reported being either victims or witnesses of bullying in their organizations. No federal law in the U.S. expressly forbids workplace bullying, only harassment (State Anti-Bullying Laws & Policies, 2018). Sexual harassment is prohibited by Title VII of the Civil Rights Act as a form of sex discrimination (State Anti-Bullying Laws & Policies, 2018). Since Title VII applies only to the workplace, it is of little help in addressing sexual harassment outside work (Dayan, 2018; Schulhofer, 1998). For sexual harassment to be unlawful, it must be established that the harassment was caused by sex to meet the discrimination requirement; it is not sufficient that the harassment is sexual (Saguy, 2012). Courts frequently find that the harassment does not meet the ‘because of sex’ requirement and that the harassment is believed to be motivated by the other characteristics of the target of harassment (Bauman et al., 2016). One way the definition of actionable harassment might be expanded is through the recognition of a claim of harassment that does not depend on status discrimination. Harassment that does not depend on status discrimination is often called bullying. Generally, bullying is unlawful in the United States, at least under federal law.

Lippel et al. (2011) suggested that since June 2004, the Québec Labour Standards Act has been promulgated so that every Canadian worker will have the right to a work

environment free from psychological harassment. The Act creates an obligation for employers to prevent harassment and to stop it when it occurs. Quebec case law defines the responsibility to stop harassment as adopting a workplace policy on complaints of psychological harassment (Da Silva, 2018). In Quebec, a tribunal will dismiss a complaint of psychological harassment if the employer shows that the employee did not promptly bring the harassment to his attention (Law Quebec, 2010). On June 12, 2018, the Quebec National Assembly recently adopted Bill 176, entitled An Act to amend the Act respecting labor standards and other legislative provisions to facilitate family-work balance (Assemblée Nationale Du Quebec, 2021). On psychological harassment, the time limit for filing a complaint with the Québec Labour Standards, Pay Equity, Health, and Safety Commission was 90 days from the last manifestation of harassment, under penalty of inadmissibility (Longpré, 2018). This significant extension of the time limit to file a harassment claim will significantly affect Québec employees. The act now requires explicit adopting and making a policy available to employees to prevent psychological harassment and handling complaints.

African Perspective

The experience of workplace bullying in Europe, North America, and Australasia has been frequently examined; however, researchers have explored few studies on workplace bullying in the African context. Nigerian education experts have identified bullying as a problem in Nigerian schools (Aluede & Adegoke, 2010; Egbochuku, 2007; Omoteso, 2010; Owoaje & Ndubusi, 2010). Scholars have identified Nigeria's prevalence, nature, and extent of bullying. Also, the psychological consequences of

bullying on students, contributory factors, and recommendations for intervention measures to prevent bullying in Nigerian schools have been researched by education experts (Egbochuku, 2007). Okanlawon (2017) disclosed that previous studies of bullying in Nigeria have focused on secondary schools and leaving the workplace majorly to a lack of legislative support against workplace bullying and that the high rate of unemployment limits the victim's voice, choice, and actions. Although it is suggested in academic discourse often that employees can leave an organization when they experience an abusive supervisor, most abused employees do not quit (Berthelsen et al., 2011; Einarsen et al., 2016). Van Gordon et al. (2014) intimated that if external aspects of the work environment, like an abusive supervisor, cannot be changed, perhaps one way to cope with this stressful situation is to modify one's internal environment, such as how one thinks about work.

Bullying is not yet a systemic problem understood in Ghana and most of sub-Saharan Africa. The phenomenon, though pervasive, is ignored in the workplace. Religious practices were a central coping mechanism for targets of bullying: the bullying targets, primarily Christians and Muslims, bully one another in the name of religion. The perception of bullying and harassment in Morocco is somewhat likewise most North African countries. Research in sexual harassment, bullying in public places, and workplace bullying is new research topics in Arabic and African countries. In contrast, sexual harassment and bullying have been the subject of much research elsewhere since the 1970s (Gagliardi, 2017; Pina et al., 2009). Sexual harassment and bullying have been recognized as severe problems in western countries (Pina et al., 2009). The literature

shows that frequent harassment of women in public places is a harsh daily reality for women in Morocco (Madan & Nalla, 2016). However, there is little literature addressing sexual harassment in the workplace. Madan and Nalla (2016) determined that women's participation in the workforce would be more viable if Morocco discussed the problem of women's security in the public space on their way to work. Civil society in Morocco, including human rights and women's groups, has repeatedly underlined the importance of addressing sexual violence in all domains, including the workplace. However, as Ennaji (2013) suggested, legislative reforms will not bring about meaningful change in the well-being of Moroccan women unless a societal shift in mentality accompanies them.

South Africa is one of the most diverse countries in the world, and South African organizations are becoming increasingly aware of the differences between employees (Maier, 2005). Researchers have found that intolerance for these differences leads to employee conflict, hurt, competition, and resentment (Cilliers & May, 2002). Employees often react to attempts to address these differences in the workplace with fear and bewilderment. South Africa's history of apartheid and the existing legislation on affirmative action and employment equity play an essential role in how employees perceive each other. The research addresses that harmony and effectiveness could result if employees positively experience diversity in African organizations (Nyambegera, 2002). Departments in organizations willing to work with diversity show cooperation and a more positive attitude toward overcoming these differences.

Latin America Perspective

Most literature on bullying in Latin America centered on youth bullying at school, thus making it a non-adult issue without research. Bullying in whatever form impinges upon many dimensions of work outcomes and school learning (Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education, 2008). Throughout the 16 Latin American countries, the impact of bullying situations on students' performance is disturbing. Available records show differences between countries and levels of schooling in Latin America.

In Brazil, the percentage of students reported as being threatened in public and private schools is repeatedly 30.5% on average, depending on the state (Abramovay & Das Gracias Rua, 2002). For Peru, the data indicate a bullying rate of 47% (Amemiya et al., 2009; Garmendia, 2016). In Chile, 11% of students report bullying in the form of continual threats, discrimination, or both (Abio et al., 2020). The primary forms of aggression reported are psychological (22.2%), physical (17.7%), discrimination or rejection (13.5%), continual threats or harassment (11.1%), attacks on private property (9.6%), assault with a weapon (4.3%), and sexual violence (3%). In Argentina, García (2010) wrote that almost a third of secondary students reported having broken school supplies or other objects they have taken to school (32%). Depending on the grade, 12% and 14% have experienced verbal bullying (shouting, mocking, and insults), 10% say a peer has threatened them, and 8% have experienced social bullying (García, 2010). In Latin America, few studies examine the magnitude of school bullying at the national level and none at the regional level.

The understanding and prevalence of workplace bullying across and within various continents seem to vary due to the influence of national culture. The countries systematically differ in cultural dimensions, such as power distance and masculine/feminine values (Hofstede, 1980). The continents with countries with high power distance and masculine values, like Asia, North America, and Africa, reported a higher prevalence of workplace bullying than countries with low power distance and feminine values, like Scandinavia. Research within each continent also indicates a slight variation in the prevalence rates. The interpretation of prevalence rates within the continents might be due to the inconsistency in measurement methods, tools, and operational criteria (Baguena et al., 2011). The inconsistency makes comparing prevalence rates within the continents extraordinarily complex and challenging. According to Nielsen et al. (2010), the prevalence rates could be manipulated based on the measurement methods, as the self-labeling method produces a lower prevalence rate than the behavioral experience method. European studies have reported similar prevalence rates on measuring with the self-labeling and behavioral experience methods. The other continents show a drastic difference in the prevalence rates using both ways. The reason might be due to the high awareness of the phenomenon among the population of Europe. Ciby and Raya (2015) believed workplace bullying is comparatively highest in Asia and lowest in Scandinavia.

Global Prevalence Rate of Workplace Bullying

Giorgi et al.'s (2013) research with 699 employees in Japan indicated a prevalence rate of 15%, while his earlier research (Giorgi et al., 2011) confirmed a

fluctuating prevalence rate across European countries that averaged 9.5%. Although 4.5% of South European employees experienced some form of bullying at work, the rate is much higher in Nordic and Western European countries, with 13.5% on average (Devonish, 2017). Giorgi et al. (2016) revealed that the prevalence rate varied significantly among countries, with 0.6% in Bulgaria and 9.5% in France. The study among Italian and Spanish employees has a prevalence rate of approximately 15%, and the value is on the operational criteria estimation method. The practical estimation method produces a more accurate and less biased estimate. It uses more objective criteria in which employees indicate how frequently they are exposed to bullying at work without mentioning bullying (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Devonish's (2017) study in the Caribbean revealed an alarming prevalence rate of 54%.

Ciby and Raya (2015) argued that in Scandinavia, Finland has a prevalence rate of 20.7%, Norway 10.3%, and Denmark 19.5%. In other European countries, English nurses, 38%, Britain employees, 24.7%. France, 11.5% on average; Portugal, 13%; Spain, 12.8%; Italy, 19%; Greece, 44.8%; Turkey, 55%; and the Czech Republic, 10.2%, have varying prevalence rates of workplace bullying on average. Ciby and Raya continued to say that in North America, the United States of America has a prevalence rate of 37.4% on average, while Canada has a 33% prevalence rate. The prevalence rates in Australia and New Zealand are 50% and 17.5%, respectively. Among the Asian continent, the prevalence rate in Pakistan is 52%, South Korea is 5.7%, and India is 42.3%. In Africa, the only country surveyed, South Africa, has a prevalence rate of 35.1%. The national culture of a country influences the workplace prevalence rate as it varies within and

across continents (Einarsen, 2000). Countries systematically differ in cultural dimensions, such as power distance and masculine/feminine values (Hofstede, 1980). The continents with countries of high-power distance and masculine values, like Asia, North America, and Africa, are reported to have a higher prevalence of workplace bullying than countries with low power distance and feminine values, like Scandinavia (Ciby & Raya, 2015; Hofstede, 1980). The studies within each continent also showed a slight variation in the prevalence rates. The variation in prevalence rates within the continents might be due to the inconsistency in measurement methods, tools, and operational criteria (Baguena et al., 2011). The inconsistency in measurement methods makes the comparison of prevalence rates within the continents overly complex and challenging.

Identifying a Workplace Bully

Identifying a workplace bully entails considering certain aspects of a person to determine the bully's characteristics, such as age, gender, and mental status (Goldman, 2006; Olafsson & Johannsdottir, 2004). Research indicates that a child from an aggressive family is a central indicator that the child is likely to exhibit aggressive behavior (Radke-Yarrow & Kochanska, 1990). Such aggression is a fundamental trait in a bully; thus, aggressive children are likely to be bullies on the schoolyard playing field and carry this behavior with them through life to become workplace bullies themselves (Branch et al., 2008; Einarsen, 1999). Cook et al. (2010) posited that the typical bully exhibits significant externalizing behavior as defiant, aggressive, disruptive, and non-compliant responses; has internalizing symptoms as withdrawn, depressive, anxious, and avoidant responses; exhibits both social competency and academic challenges. Bullies

come from a family environment characterized by conflict and poor parental monitoring. Negative community factors influence a bully, and they quickly tend to be negatively affected by their peers.

An obvious bully is usually noisy, overly aggressive, and blatant in his attempts to force others to comply with his will (Coetzee & van Dyk, 2018; Gregersen, 2017). In some toxic workplaces, the bully may survive longer than the average employee or even become a high-level executive; however, the bully will get fired for overstepping. Workplace bullies are not just supervisors; a coworker, a customer, or even a visitor to a place of work could be a bully. Bullies use abusive, insulting, or offensive language toward their victims, leaving them out of important work meetings (Keashly, 1998; Zapf et al., 1996). Workplace bullies leave their victims out of social circles or functions at work while giving them an amount of work that is not realistic (Muller et al., 2019; Namie & Namie, 2003). Workplace bullies give out jobs that are impossible to perform within the given period and do not give out information or necessary tools to complete a job.

Workplace bullies are usually opportunists and controlling competitors; they take advantage of the weakness of their victims to propel them in their careers (Namie & Namie, 2003). Workplace bullies change work hours and schedule the hours so that such will be difficult for others. Workplace bullies usually assign pointless tasks that have nothing to do with the job and, most often, unfairly deny personal leave or training. Workplace bullies regularly threaten to reprimand or fire their subordinates. Workplace bullies yell at their staff while criticizing them in front of others and use or threaten

physical violence toward others (Einarsen et al., 2016; Nielsen et al., 2009). Workplace bullies push, shove, trip, or grab others and require others to do humiliating or inappropriate things.

Namie (2003) labeled all bullies as psychopaths and characterized workplace bullies into four toxic flavors: (a) the Screaming Mimi, (b) the Two-headed Snake, (c) Constant Critic, and (d) the Gatekeeper. Lurid and loathsome are the essential characteristics of the Screaming Mimis. They abuse, berate, and humiliate people. Their arrogant notion that others fear them makes the Screaming Mimis thrive. The deception of a co-worker into believing that he is a trusted pal or teammate, whereas such a friend's reputation is destroyed and back-stabbed an earshot away, is the hallmark of a Two-headed Snake. Two-headed Snakes take glory for their colleagues' work. Shredding the sureness of others from end to end and, in most cases, unjustified condemnation is what a Constant Critic does best. Whereas the Two-headed Snake searches for errors in one's work to discredit him, the Constant Critic will alter documents and fabricate fake proof to make somebody look unsuitable. The Gatekeepers wield power over others regardless of whether that power is real or perceived. Withholding information, denying resources, and mismanaging someone else's time to frustrate that individual are the Gatekeepers' trademarks.

Four other characteristics of workplace bullies were identified by Gould (2018), such as the attention seekers, the wannabe, the guru, and the sociopath. Attention Seekers prefer to be at the center of every action around them. Attention Seekers have majorly characterized six ways: (a) being on their superior's good side through sycophancy, (b)

deviously helping new employees, (c) selfish complaints against a co-worker that does not provide the right amount of attention, (d) dramatically exaggerates everything and constantly complains, (e) reap sympathy by relating everything to something not right in their lives, and (f) cajole new employees into releasing personal information that can be used against them. A wannabe overrates himself, pretends to be indispensable, and anticipates recognition of everything. Wannabes compensate for their lousy job delivery by observing more competent workers and looking for areas to complain about smart and professional workers' performance. Wannabes always want their way, even when wrong and inept at innovation.

Gurus are intelligent and professional in their work domains (Field, 1996). Gurus have an endowment in technical proficiency though deficient in emotional maturity. Gurus' wide acceptance as experts create an ego, making them stubborn and closed to criticism. Gurus accept no responsibility for their errors and are careless about the effect of their actions on others. Sociopaths are antisocial individuals who exhibit behaviors and attitudes that comprise manipulation, deceit, aggression, and a deliberate lack of empathy for others. Fields analyzed that though sociopaths are intelligent and charismatic, they are the most destructive and dangerous bullies since they lack emotion and compassion and are always in the corridors of power. Sociopaths always like to have flunkies around them to do their dirty work for the reward of moving up the ranks with them.

Identifying a Workplace Bullying Victim

Workplace bullying targets often have low self-confidence, anxiety, fearfulness, depression, or sad appearance. In addition, they usually have submissiveness, limited

sense of humor, poor social skills, low popularity, few or no friends, and excessive dependence on others. A bully target is someone different in physical or cultural characteristics, who is envied by the bully, or who is competing with the bully for dominance in the social group (Haynie et al., 2001; Kumpulainen et al., 1998; Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1993, 1994). Cook et al. (2010) found that the typical victim is likely to demonstrate internalizing symptoms, engage in externalizing behavior, lack adequate social skills, have lower social competence, are usually rejected by peers, and come from a hostile family environment.

Workplace Bullying and Organizational Management

The reaction of management in an organization during a workplace bullying episode is an essential role of managers. Managers can communicate to all employees that bullying is inappropriate behavior that is not condoned. Poor management training is a precursor of bullying (Lewis, 1999). Salin (2008) advanced the idea that adequate supervisor and immediate superior training will suffice to mitigate workplace bullying. Organizational managers must eliminate factions within the organization, not encourage or reward bullying, and not allow the misuse of authority within the organization (Hutchinson et al., 2010). Multiple leadership styles correlate strongly to workplace bullying (Hoel et al., 2010). Bullying is influenced by leadership style in high-stress work contexts, and employees favor transformational leaders who are helpful and collaborative. On days and in situations when organizational leaders are passive or avoid interfering in and controlling events, workplace bullying escalates. Bullying is rare on days when organizational managers and leaders adopt transformational or participative

leadership styles, even under pressure. Bullying-related harmful acts arise when corporate managers and leaders adopt a laissez-faire leadership style. Adequate intervention is, therefore, needed at the individual and administrative levels (Felbinger, 2008). When management fails to deal with the cancerous workplace bullying properly, the bully is bolstered, and the target dispirited such that future bullying event is encouraged and perpetuated.

Workplace bullies do not run good organizations, for staff turnover and sick leave will be high. At the same time, morale and productivity will be low (Safety & Health Assessment and Research for Prevention Program, 2011). Stress, depression, and physical health problems result in time away from work that is costly in terms of workers' compensation and lost productivity. The health problems experienced by targets of bullying result in a sense of helplessness and negative emotional states. Low self-esteem and a hostile organizational climate suppress creativity and hamper employees' abilities to respond to tricky situations or challenging goals (Salin & Hoel, 2011). The breakdown of trust in a bullying environment means that employees will fail to contribute their best work, do not give different ideas for improvement, do not provide feedback on failures, and are less honest about performance.

Employment practices liability can be substantial. The most vulnerable to bullying in a workplace are the more talented employees driven away to the industry competitors by the bullies. Turnover is expensive when considering the replacement cost and lost productivity time. In addition, increased healthcare utilization can result in higher premium costs employers bear. The costs of bullying generally fall into three

categories: (a) replacing staff members who leave because of being bullied, the cost of training new employees; (b) work effort being displaced as staff copes with bullying incidents; that is, an effort being directed away from work productivity and toward coping, and (c) costs associated with investigations of ill-treatment, potential legal action, and loss of company reputation (Namie, 2003; Safety & Health Assessment and Research for Prevention Program, 2011; Salin & Hoel, 2011; Vartia, 2001). A more innovative business strategy by organizational management is to enact a proactive business decision and avoid any risk management cost associated with bullying by simply not allowing the bully to harass other employees at work.

Workplace bullying affects organizational management regarding absenteeism, turnover intention, productivity, public image, and legal and financial costs (Muller et al., 2019). When considering the costs of absenteeism in the broadest terms, it should be noted that the unpredictability and unexpectedness of such unscheduled acts may represent a particular problem for organizations, interfering with the regular operation of the organization and, where applicable, the quality-of-service provision. Jones (2017) posited that turnover intention refers to the tendency to switch jobs or change one's occupation owing to dissatisfaction with work and is a leading variable for turnover. In providing high-quality organizational management, it is essential to acquire capable managers. Establishing a work environment that prevents burnout and turnover intention caused by violence is crucial in enhancing employees' professional quality of life (Kim et al., 2020). A serene work environment may lead to increased years of service and reduced costs of human resources management.

Workplace Bullying Outcomes

Workplace bullying outcomes are the effects of bullying on the employees or the organization in which it thrives. Workplace bullying harms employees, not just the victim and their co-workers who witness workplace bullying (Robert, 2018). In addition to disrupting the work environment and impacting worker morale, Einarsen et al. (2016) believed that it can reduce productivity, create a hostile work environment, and promote absenteeism, impact workers' compensation claims, resulting in costly and possibly embarrassing legal issues. Workplace bullying could additionally increase the costs to recruit and train new employees, erode employee loyalty and commitment, increase the use of sick leave, health care claims, and staff turnover (Glambek et al., 2015; Salin & Notelaers, 2017), and contribute to poor public image and negative publicity.

Employee Outcome

Workplace bullying is related to a wide range of employee outcomes like high intention to quit, absenteeism, low organizational citizenship behavior, low task performance, job dissatisfaction, work disengagement, low organizational commitment, depression, post-traumatic stress, and psychosomatic complaints (Laschinger & Fida, 2014; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018; Samnani & Singh, 2012; Sheehan et al., 2018). Regardless of the cause of workplace bullying, the consequences can be severe, including physical and psychological symptoms and adverse work-related outcomes such as absenteeism (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). The anti-bullying interventions have a positive effect but mostly in increasing knowledge and awareness about workplace bullying and

changing attitudes and perceptions. In addition, workplace bullying causes poor team dynamics and reduced employee trust, effort, and loyalty.

Organizational Outcome

At the organizational level, bullying is naturalized as part of contemporary work environments where social and job stressors are the main explanatory models (Leymann, 1996; Salin & Hoel, 2011; Zapf, 1999). Salin (2003) indicated that workplace bullying is most prevalent in organizations with weak management control and inadequate human resources policy where aggressors are undeterred from acting. Organizational inaction to control workplace bullying manifests in fear of confronting the bully and when traditional conflict resolution tools are ineffective, such as lack of accountability but endorsements. Muller et al. (2019) posited that fear of lawsuits from the bully, the use of euphemisms to trivialize the issue of bullying, and the constant claim that 40% of employees do not come forward to report bullying incidents are all signs of organizational weak management control.

Bullying in the workplace has some long-term consequences for organizations. According to Bassman (1992), there are direct, indirect, and opportunity costs. Increased disability claims, workers' compensation claims, medical expenses, and lawsuits are all direct costs to the victims. Indirect costs include low productivity, decreased quality of work, high turnover, more absenteeism, dissatisfied customers, and an unstable work environment that can escalate into sabotage by employees. Opportunity costs are related to decreased employee commitment, loss of creativity, and lack of motivation. Bullying can lead to reduced social support and a less hospitable social climate, creating problems

in the flow of information inside organizations (Zapf, 1999). Bullying can exact a heavy toll on organizations.

Workplace Bullying and the Bystander Effect

The ripple effects of workplace bullying are far more reaching to other employees than was earlier thought. Exposure to hostile acts has enormous repercussions on the employee, the bystanders, witnesses to the harmful actions, the families of the workers being bullied, the organization, and society (Bond et al., 2010). In witnessing workplace bullying, research has found that 47% of such workers had suffered from anxiety, depression, stress-related illnesses, headaches, insomnia, skin rashes, and ulcers (Namie & Namie, 2003; Rayner et al., 2002). Namie and Namie (2003) posited in their research that witnessing workplace bullying is just as much of a health problem as being the target of bullying. Vartia (2001) found that the bystanders who witnessed or observed the bullying reported elevated stress levels, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), high absenteeism, low morale, and decreased work engagement. Parzefall and Stalin (2010) determined that the organizational perception of such witnesses may change, specifically, their concern for their well-being.

Rai and Agarwal (2017) suggested that a bystander can get involved in different behaviors in the bullying scenario, like assisting the bully, reinforcing the bully, defending the victim, or staying outside of bullying situations. Distinct types of bystanders can be identified in considering the role of bystanders during bullying situations. The first cluster is a subset of four which Twemlow et al. (2005) profiled as (a) bully bystanders, (b) avoidant bystanders, (c) victim bystanders, and (d) helpful

bystanders. Bully bystanders become involved in the bullying, while avoidant bystanders deny responsibility for the situation. Also, victim bystanders become victimized by bullying, while helpful bystanders attempt to defuse the situation.

The second subset of bystanders was identified by Van Heugten (2011), who profiled three types of workplace bully bystanders to include: (a) allies of the bully, (b) passive bystanders, and (c) hesitant supporters. Backers of the bully help the bully to perpetuate the act of bullying. Passive bystanders do not get involved in the bullying situation. The hesitant supporters covertly support the victim. The severity of workplace bullying events can be lessened or intensified by bystanders as they are essential members of the bullying scenario. The choice of these bystanders to intervene or not gives rise to a new organizational member in the bullying cycle.

Psychological and Physiological Effects of Workplace Bullying

The research addressed that occupational stress contributes to stroke, heart attack, death, and medical disorders reported to physicians (Qureshi et al., 2014). Hauge et al. (2009) said that higher stress on the job leads to higher job dissatisfaction, negative affect, psychological distress, anxiety and depression, and absence from work due to illness, doctor visits, and impaired physical health. Employees with high job stress have lower fitness than employees with low levels of job stress (Qureshi et al., 2015). Workplace bullying is a risk factor for clinical depression (Niedhammer et al., 2006); clinical levels of anxiety (Quine, 2002); suicide ideation (O'Moore et al., 1998); post-traumatic stress disorders (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Nielsen et al., 2010); higher levels of job-induced stress, turnover intention, absenteeism, sick leave, and lower levels

of job satisfaction (Kivimaki et al., 2000; Quine, 2002; Qureshi et al., 2014). Researchers have posited that these associated and individual organizational effects are not restricted to targets (Niedhammer et al., 2006; Rayner, 1999). The witnesses of bullying at the workplace are equally affected and can exert the same effect as the target.

Researchers have suggested that bullying at the workplace is a severe stressor that affects the well-being and health of the targets and has adverse effects on the work organization where it occurs (Hogh et al., 2011). In addition, bullying has severe consequences for the victims as it affects their psychological and physical health (Parkins et al., 2006). For example, Qureshi et al. (2014) explained that some measurable physiological symptoms of bullying include headaches, shortness of breath, indigestion, high blood pressure, and exhaustion. Psychological symptoms may include restlessness, inability to think clearly, and irritability. Behavioral symptoms might also include eating, sleeping, drinking, and smoking changes.

Psychological Effects

Psychological workplace bullying is a serious issue that negatively affects workers and their workplaces and strikes at the heart of an individual's dignity and self-respect. Striking an individual's dignity and self-respect means they cannot effectively participate in their workplace, family, or community. Psychological workplace bullying takes many forms depending on the individuals and the work involved. The World Health Organization (2003) publication entitled *Raising Awareness of Psychological Harassment at Work* indicated that psychological harassment is a form of employee abuse arising from unethical behavior and leading to the victimization of the worker. Psychological

harassment is an increasing worldwide problem, still largely unknown and underestimated. The psychological effect of workplace bullying can produce serious negative consequences on the quality of life and the individuals' health, mainly in the emotional psychosomatic, and behavioral areas.

The effects of psychological harassment and bullying can be devastating. Anxiety reactions, insomnia, irritability, social isolation, ulcers, dermatitis, depression, heart disease, nightmares, aggressive behaviors, hypertension, asthma, joint and muscle pains, hair loss, sexual dysfunctions, eating disorders, increased alcohol, smoking and drug intake, suicide, and violent retaliation are common reactions to this type of harassment (World Health Organization, 2003). Physiological workplace bullying is present in organizations' impaired deteriorations of interpersonal relations and organizational dysfunctions. The factors that give rise to this behavior are discrimination based on gender, religion, ethnicity, age, nationality, disability, economic and social background, sexual orientation, and other diversities.

Physiological Effects

The physiological effects of workplace bullying refer to the natural adjustment of the human body to counter the negative impacts of the psychological effects of workplace bullying to maintain a constant inner state known as homeostasis. Homeostasis is a natural normalization mechanism. The physiological effects of workplace bullying also can be short-term, voluntary, or something that produces permanent changes (Colino, 2017). Short-termed physiological effects can be an increased breathing rate to get more muscle oxygen (Burton et al., 2004). Getting intoxicated is an example of a voluntary

physiological effect. Diabetes, acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS), and cancer produce permanent changes. The absence of physiological effects will lead to the pathological effects of bullying, which are signs of poor health. Colino (2017) asserted that over time, the stress from bullying can be pathological and trickle into thyroid problems, gastrointestinal problems, elevated blood pressure, mood disorders, self-harming behavior, and eating disorders, among other health conditions.

The Ecological Model of Bullying

In understanding the origins and outcomes of workplace bullying, the Bronfenbrenner ecological systems theory is a handy tool (Johnson, 2011). This theory describes a human being's development as the interaction between physical qualities and relationships with different environments that operate at various levels. These levels include the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. More specifically, Lee (2011) articulated that the ecological factors investigated in this multilevel analysis are individual traits, family experiences, parental involvement, school climate, and community characteristics. Johnson (2011) supported that Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory also portrays the work environment as a series of nested, interconnected layers within society. The nested layers in the ecological systems theory are the society (macrosystem); the corporation (exosystem); the co-workers and managers of the bully, and the target (mesosystem). Workplace bullying does not occur in isolation. Elements at each level serve as antecedents to bullying, and the outcomes are manifested at each.

Childhood and Adult Perspectives

Bronfenbrenner (1979) propounded the ecological model of bullying in which he stated that factors shape human development in a nested layer of hierarchical systems and that it is only through an examination of the interaction of these systems that the complexity of human development can be understood. Bronfenbrenner's model describes how today's youths receive the embedded culture of bullying. Bronfenbrenner explained the simultaneous effects of individual traits, interpersonal factors, and circumstantial factors on bullying. Whitted and Dupper (2005) pointed out that youths receive mixed and confusing messages about bullying from adults. The children of school age have a bullying culture in their schools that normalizes bullying within such schools. The onset of physiological and psychological vagaries which characterize early adolescent development brings about the rise, exacerbates the potential for bullying, and explains the rapid increase in bullying in sixth grade, that is, middle school (Hazler, 1996; Rios-Ellis et al., 2000), and the steady decline in later stages.

The ecological model of bullying, drawn from Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1989) classic ecological theory, makes a case for the understanding that children at the center of their ecology are behaviorally molded by their inward traits and external environments. Research indicated that age, prior experience of bullying victimization, dominance, impulsivity, attitude toward aggression, and fun-seeking tendency play some roles in shaping bullying behaviors (Farrington, 1993; Lee, 2011; Nansel et al., 2001; Pellegrini & Long, 2002). Figure 1 is a depiction of Bronfenbrenner's model of workplace bullying. The model consists of four components: (a) microsystem, (b) mesosystem, (c) exosystem,

and (d) macrosystem. Children at the center of their world interact and are influenced by their ecological environments, thus affecting their behaviors.

Johnson (2011) stressed that social scientists had adapted the ecological perspective to explain complex problems such as childhood obesity (Opalinski, 2006), postpartum depression (Garfield & Isacco, 2009), and treatment adherence to human immunodeficiency virus medication regimens (Naar-King et al., 2006). The model has also been used to guide the development and evaluation of public health interventions (Glanz & Bishop, 2010). In occupational health, ecological models have been used to examine factors relating to the use of hearing protection (Tantranont et al., 2009), participation in workplace health promotion programs (Plotnikoff et al., 2005), to examine occupational stress among firefighters (Salazar & Beaton, 2000), and to develop disaster management plans (Beaton et al., 2008). Disaster management focuses on delivering help and interventions to save lives, safeguard health, and protect buildings, animals, and community property.

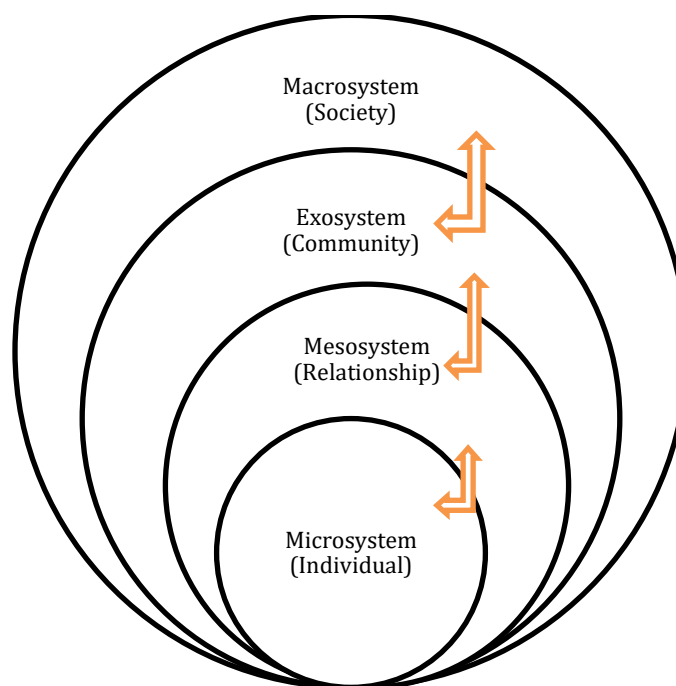
Levels of the Ecological Model

Figure 1 is an adaptation of the ecological model to workplace bullying. The relationship diagram in figure 1 shows the interconnectedness of various levels of Bronfenbrenner's model. These layers are the macrosystem, exosystem, mesosystem, and microsystem. The macrosystem is represented by society, while the corporation or community represents the exosystem. Also, the mesosystem defines the relationship between co-workers and managers of the bully and target. The microsystem is the individual designated by the bully and target. From the perspective of workplace bullying

involving adult workers and applying the knowledge and understanding of the ecological model of bullying, the work environment represents a series of nested, interconnected layers within society.

Figure 1

Self-Designed Model of Ecological Systems Theory of Workplace Bullying



Note: This self-designed model of ecological systems theory of workplace bullying depicts Bronfenbrenner's (1979) classic ecological theory. Bronfenbrenner divided the person's environment into four different systems: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, and the macrosystem. The arrows clarify the complexity of relationships in the ecological system affected by multiple levels of the surrounding environment, from an individual's immediate settings of family, school, and work to broad cultural values, laws, and customs of society.

Microsystem

Lee (2011) suggested that the microsystem refers to a pattern of activities, roles, and interpersonal relationships experienced by children. There are four microsystems around children: (a) experience in the family, (b) experience with teachers, (c) experience with peers, and (d) experience within the school environment. Microsystems such as

peers, family, community, and schools contribute to the rates of bullying perpetrated or experienced by the youths (Espelage, 2014; Gini & Espelage, 2014). First, peers contribute to bullying from socialization during adolescence. Second, the family influences children's bullying when exposed to family violence and lack parental monitoring. Third, the community contributes to children's bullying as the community increasingly exposes children to violence. Finally, the school's impact affects children's bullying, like the teacher's attitudes and climate.

The microsystem consists of the bully and the target. The target can be an employee within the organization (Glaso et al., 2009). Workplace bullying negatively affects targets' careers by limiting opportunities for advancement (Lewis & Orford, 2005; MacIntosh, 2005). Bullies within the workplace could be establishment employees irrespective of the ranking or job assignment (Hoel et al., 2010; Johnson & Rea, 2009). Most workplace bullies are likelier to display narcissistic pride, become domineering and vindictive, tend to displace blame and anger on others, and do not believe their actions harm other persons and the establishment (Braithwaite et al., 2008; Glaso et al., 2009). Some risk factors at this individual level of the ecological framework are personal history and the biological factors that influence how individuals behave and increase their likelihood of becoming either victims or perpetrators of workplace emotional violence. Among these factors are being a victim of child maltreatment, psychological or personality disorders, alcohol and substance abuse, and a history of behaving aggressively or having experienced abuse.

Mesosystem

Mesosystem is the communication and social interactions between the parents, students, teachers, peers, and neighborhoods to create involvement and significantly influence children's bullying by discouraging bullying (Lee, 2011). Mesosystem offers insight into how contexts can exacerbate or buffer experiences for youth involved in bullying; for instance, family support can cushion the impact of peer victimization. Children with higher levels of authoritarian parenting, exposure to domestic violence, and positive parental attitudes toward bullying are likelier to bully other children (Lee, 2011). Teachers' ineffective intervention toward bullying and the lack of moral authority significantly affect the prevalence of school bullying.

The mesosystem consists of the coworkers and the management of the organization. Coworkers partake in the bullying saga by ignoring it or actively encouraging it by supporting the bully over the target, thus creating a power imbalance (Hoel & Beale, 2006). Family, friends, intimate partners, and peers may influence the risks of becoming a victim or perpetrator of violence. Having violent friends may influence a person to engage in or become a victim of violence. Psychosocially, the various acts of gossiping, mockery, role conflict, hostility, backbiting, incivility, role ambiguity, low social support, high job demand, poor work conditions, and low job control are the precursors at the mesosystem level of workplace bullying (Baillien et al., 2009; Tuckey et al., 2009). At the management level, researchers have linked leadership styles characterized by favoritism and autocratic or laissez-faire tendencies with workplace bullying (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Magerøy et al., 2009; Skogstad et al.,

2007). High-stress levels, suicide ideation, and intention to leave the organization get pronounced in the mesosystem.

Exosystem

Exosystem refers to the social setting in which children get influenced. Still, they do not necessarily actively participate, such as the relationship between the home and the parent's place of work or parents' socioeconomic status (Espelage et al., 2003). The exosystem consists of all other support systems found outside the home. The exosystem also covers the social contexts with which the child has a psychological relationship, but not a physical one (Nesdale & Naito, 2005). In the case of the bullying phenomenon, both the laws that defend Human Rights and the media that highlight the fundamental problem of bullying favor the development of children. Children are not actively involved in the defense of human rights. They are not actively engaged in the media highlighting the severe problem of bullying but are heavily impacted by the result of the social settings. Guy-Evans (2020) posited that the world had significantly changed since Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory got introduced in terms of technological developments. Technological advancement influences the exosystem of a child. Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1989) ecological systems theory will be more relevant in the 21st century when the exosystem of a child expands to include social media, video gaming, and other modern-day interactions within the ecological system.

Exosystem represents the community where social relationships occur, such as the organization and unions representing workers. Exosystem also includes a person's workplace neighbors. Some of the risk factors at this level of the ecological framework

are unemployment, population density, mobility, and the existence of a local drug or gun trade. The presence of a rigid, highly vertical organizational structure, chaotic operating procedures, organization-wide restructuring and downsizing, job insecurity, and adversarial and competitive work culture are some of the precursors of workplace bullying at this level (Hodson et al., 2006; Hutchinson et al., 2006; Keashly & Neuman, 2010). At the exosystem level of workplace bullying, the work organization suffers the consequences through various costs and corporate image. Legal fees, poor public image, cost of recruitment and training, overtime payment, and quality staff shortage are some of the organization's concerns.

Macrosystem

The macrosystem forms a societal blueprint for a given culture or subculture that consists of opportunity structures, resources, hazards, life-course options, patterns of social interaction, shared belief systems, and lifestyles (Bronfenbrenner, 1989). Macrosystem refers to consistencies found at the culture's level, including belief systems, norms, or ideology in the child's immediate society. Naito and Gielen (2005) suggested in their research that bullying is more prevalent in collectivist cultures like communist states than in individualistic cultures like capitalist states. The most dominant factor in bullying from either or without is social disorganization, poor integration, and group competition within the cultural setting (Naito & Gielen, 2005; Nesdale & Naito, 2005; Wolke et al., 2001). Children's immediate society shapes their predisposition to bullying, which they later modify to workplace bullying.

Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1989) ecological system theory has enabled the foundational understanding of workplace bullying within the context of multiple factors at various levels and characteristics. The theory has also helped the knowledge of the context in which school bullying is opined by some researchers (Espelage et al., 2003; Farrington, 1993) as part of the development of children. Parents, siblings, and other caregivers provide children examples of learning emotions, regulating emotions, negotiating conflict, problem-solving situations, and developing other life skills. From Bronfenbrenner's (1979) perspective, bullying emerges from a complex intersection of children's personality and disposition, which becomes modified as they enter various contexts across early childhood and adolescence.

Macrosystem is the societal factor that influences whether violence is encouraged or inhibited. Some of these factors are economic and social policies that maintain socioeconomic inequalities between people, the availability of weapons, and social and cultural norms such as those around male dominance over women, parental dominance over children, and cultural norms that endorse violence as an acceptable method to resolve conflicts (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007). Within the workplace, organizational cultural examples of behavior, policies, and laws about workplace bullying are some of the precursors of workplace bullying at this level. At the macrosystem level, neither the target, the bully, nor the management controls the bullying situation. The best that the organization can do is to change its policies and rules regarding bullying. The bullying culture can only be changed by employees' change of attitude and redefining the work outcome in the absence of workplace bullying. Merit, egalitarian, and nonpatriarchal

societies like the Scandinavian countries have an average of 3%. The record shows a significantly lower prevalence rate of workplace bullying than in the individualistic and capitalist states of the U.S. and Western Europe, with an average of 15%. Some Asian communist workers are the most bullied, with about a 50% average prevalence rate (Hoel et al., 2010; Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007; Zapf et al., 2003). Culture impacts the extent to which bullying gets tolerated in the workplace. Positive workplace culture can ensure the health and well-being of the organization's employees and reduce an employer's risk profile regarding its exposure to bullying.

The ecological model helps identify and cluster intervention strategies based on the ecological level at which they act. One of the limitations of the ecological model is the lack of motivation for change in society. Changing norms and cultures that have been practiced for a long time can be extremely difficult. The ecological model addresses what factors contribute to a specific situation; the model does not give insight into the interaction of one effect on another. The lack of interaction of one effect on another makes it difficult for families to uncover which aspect of the model they can focus on more to change their actions. In the U.S., it will be challenging to implement violence prevention programs in cities like Chicago; Baltimore (Gutierrez-Cruz, 2021); and other clusters like St. Louis, Detroit, Memphis, Kansas City, and Milwaukee (Haider, 2019) that have high crime and violence rates.

Social Change Considerations for Workplace Bullying

Social change is how human interactions and relationships transform cultural and social institutions over time by profoundly impacting society. Raising awareness of

potential threats and meaningful societal opportunities is a sound motivational strategy for stimulating social change (Stephan et al., 2016). Social change is a reaction to technological progress because society's consumption and production possibilities get influenced as technology progresses. Technological progress changes individuals' incentives to abide by social customs and mores as people gradually change their behavior to take advantage of emerging opportunities. New traditions and another unconventional way of life will slowly evolve too. Social change manifests as technological advancements in computers and microchips, leading to new ways of life and revolutionizing every aspect.

Ogburn (1947) was precise in his writing about the influence of technology on social change. Ogburn posited that mechanical inventions and scientific discoveries cause social change. Ogburn stressed that steam and steel developed urban life, gunpowder brought down feudalism, and seed-planting destroyed hunting culture and brought settlement and social life. At the same time, the discovery of contraceptives affected the population. Unfortunately, social change is not always positive; workplace bullying, the focus of this research, is not a positive change. Social pressures and personality traits have created a rise in workplace bullying. Bullying has always been prevalent in U.S. culture (Kelly, 2016). Bullying is recognizable through our competitive, capitalistic economy and dominant hierarchy (Donegan, 2014). Stuart-Cassel et al. (2011) believed that attention to bullying has increased across the United States as the negative ramifications of bullying, such as suicide, have heightened. Mitigating workplace bullying is the right thing, as the benefits are endless.

Workplace bullying is a form of interpersonal aggression or hostile, antisocial behavior in the workplace and is a structural problem rooted in societal, organizational, and personal factors (International Labor Organization, 2002; Salin, 2003). Mitigating workplace bullying involves using a strict anti-bullying policy, introducing a zero-tolerance approach to workplace bullying, and giving the employees confidence by encouraging an environment of relaxation (The One Spy, 2016). Without putting so much stress on the staff will be favorable to build harmony among the employees, break distances, and bring them close to collaboration and teamwork. Introducing strict adherence to the code of conduct at workplaces will check the employees and prevent them from forcing their colleagues into unlawful activities. A code of conduct will indirectly make employees professional in work and manners. Using technology monitoring applications to protect the workers will show a clear picture of what is happening in the employee's life. Danarson (2014) disclosed that the negative impact of managerial or supervisory destructive behavior is not limited to workplace violence and bullying; it can go as far as to prevent prospective employees from accepting a job offer. Reducing workplace bullying has profound implications for social change. Organizational leaders may get informed on improving correctional officer retention by lowering employee turnover intention, improving job satisfaction, and providing better customer service to the correctional facilities' communities. Organizations with engaged employees produce quality services to local communities and positively influence public well-being and society.

Gap in the Literature

The review of relevant literature indicates that workplace bullying is a problem. However, little empirical research is available to establish the extent of bullying in the corrections and how it affects human resources management success within the organization (Ferdik & Smith, 2016; Ritzman, 2021). The research on workplace bullying has become complex and phenomenal such that it involves many variables of turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Research into workplace bullying also involves personality traits (Claybourn et al., 2019; Thakker et al., 2020), society (Ciby & Raya, 2015; Patten, 2018), work environment (Mackey et al., 2018; Notelaers et al., 2019; Samnani & Singh, 2016), and organizational leadership (Day, 2007). Any of these can cause a remarkable change in workplace bullying.

Ritzman (2016) posited the need for a universal definition of workplace bullying that captures the nuance of the complex pattern of behavior. Howard et al. (2016) suggested additional research on workplace bullying and employee reactions to addressing workplace bullying. Finally, Einarsen et al. (2019) postulated the need for research on ethical infrastructures to mitigate the malaise of workplace bullying. Even though researchers have looked into the issue of workplace bullying, and some findings have had a significant impact on employee job outcomes, there has not been much research done to date regarding the relationship and understanding of the impact of workplace bullying in a correctional setting on human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction because 80% of the problems related to employees' job satisfaction and product are attributed to workplace bullying (Anjum et al., 2018). This was the gap that I intended to address in

this research. Filling this gap may contribute to positive social change by identifying issues surrounding workplace bullying in corrections, improving employee retention, and creating a harmonious work environment for the employees and a profitable organization for the owners.

Wall (2020) narrated that bullying is so much in parts of the prison system that some staff says they fear their bosses more than the inmates. The prison system as a workplace is full of cliques; if one does not fit in or speaks up about issues, such will get treated terribly. Data released under the Official Information Act of a particular prison system shows there were 159 complaints by corrections staff of bullying, harassment, or threatening and violent behaviors between 2014 and 2018, and about 70% resulted in some sanctions against the offending staff member, including six dismissals (Wall, 2020). The reported bullying phenomenon began when victims were often too scared to complain about fear of losing their jobs or worsening the bullying (Ballard & Eastaerl, 2018; Ferdik & Smith, 2017). The current study may lead to actions that may create a harmonious workplace for the employees, reduce frustration for the human resources management in dealing with toxic behaviors, and contribute to scholarship and practice.

Summary and Conclusions

The literature reviewed in this study showed that workplace bullying is a complex phenomenon yet to be entirely understood and defined for proper eradication. Bullying in the workplace is a significant obstacle to growth, as bullied employees tend to lack motivation. When bullying occurs, the organization's overall progress is negatively impacted as it fails to achieve the desired change and profit margin vital for positive

performance. A historical overview of workplace bullying was examined, and the legacy of the Scandinavian researchers on the bullying phenomenon was appraised in this study (Olweus & Limber, 2009). Furthermore, various cultural perspectives on workplace bullying were reviewed in the study. Finally, the impact of effective organizational management on bullying and the possible outcomes of workplace bullying were discussed, considering the physiological and psychological effects of bullying on the victim.

I designed a simple ecological bullying model per Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory. The global workplace bullying prevalence was examined from the perspective of different scholars. The positive social change considerations of workplace bullying were discussed, while the gap in the literature was identified from the literature review. The literature review represented a comprehensive summary of the study's social capital theory and social exchange theory and the variables that created the foundation for the study. An extensive literature review was conducted on workplace bullying while considering the different geopolitical and socio-cultural leanings and individual identities. A historical overview of workplace bullying was widely researched and reported. The next chapter contains a detailed review of the methodological aspects of the study.

An overall review of the design and rationale was presented. Also included was a discussion of the methodology, population characteristics, sample description, sampling approach, and sampling size to draw inferences about the target population. Analyses of power dynamics, demographics, and procedures for recruiting participants are essential to ensure a close resemblance of the sample to the population and accurately report study

results. A discussion of instruments and materials was included to provide in-depth details about how the variables included in this study are hypothesized and measured. Data analysis was undertaken in Chapter 3 to apply analytical techniques and draw inductive inferences from the data. Ethical considerations and confidentiality were discussed to address norms for standards of conduct that differentiate between ethical and unethical behavior. Finally, assessing threats to validity is crucial to disclose and minimize potential problems and make inferences about cause and effect.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The independent variable was workplace bullying. The dependent variables were turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. I applied convenience sampling to collect data from a Likert-type survey completed by participants employed at correctional facilities in Texas. I presented the research design in this chapter and its rationale compared to other designs. I also presented the study's methodology, including a description of the target population, sampling procedures, data collection methods, recruitment of participants, and participant selection criteria. Moreover, I described the measurement of the dependent and independent variables, threats to validity, and ethical issues. The chapter concluded with a summary.

Research Design and Rationale

The selection of a research design for this study depended on the purpose of my study. For example, Haegele and Hodge (2015) intimated that there are three traditional research designs available to quantitative researchers, namely: (a) descriptive or nonexperimental, (b) experimental or quasi-experimental, and (c) relational or correlational. Descriptive research describes current issues or problems through a data collection process that researchers can use to describe the situation more completely than was possible without employing descriptive research (Fox & Bayat, 2007). On the other hand, Ethridge (2004) expressed that descriptive research does not answer questions

about how, when, or why the characteristics occurred in a population under study; instead, it addresses what questions.

Survey research falls under the nonexperimental or descriptive category.

Researchers use this type of design to evaluate a sample of data from a population to study numerical trends and opinions (Fowler, 2018). Experimental research is a study that strictly adheres to a scientific research design, and it includes a hypothesis; a variable that the researcher can manipulate; variables that can be measured, calculated, and compared, and are primarily completed in a controlled environment (Babbie, 2017). Quantitative researchers examine issues about a sample population and generate knowledge and understanding about the social environment by using scientific inquiry on observed or quantified data (Allen, 2017). Responses to the survey were necessary to assess the relationships between the variables in the research questions. Relational or correlational research observes and measures historical patterns of relationships between two variables such that the researcher makes little or no effort to control extraneous variables, including surveys, observations, and archival data analysis (Reio, 2016). I used a quantitative method with a correlational design for this study.

Using qualitative design would have provided specific information from individuals about factors that contribute to bullying, but the number of participants would have limited the results (Bordens & Abbott, 2011). Rahman (2016) emphasized that data gathering for qualitative designs takes longer than data collecting for quantitative designs. Qualitative design is prone to interpretation due to its subjective nature, leading to research bias. Although qualitative research provides a deep and in-depth look into a

subject, it does not draw inferences about the group from which the researcher drew the sample. Qualitative research would not answer the question in a relationship study, like the current research. Qualitative research is purposed to make sense of reality, describe and explain the social world, and construct explanatory models and hypotheses (Morse & Field, 1996). Qualitative research is the principal means of creating or re-examining the theoretical basis of social sciences.

Regardless of the methods and design employed, data collection is required when sampling a population (Twining et al., 2017). Using the G*Power 3.1.9.7 software version and given the input parameters of two tails, standard deviation, power, probability, and effect size to calculate, the total sample size for this study was 84. Figure 1 shows that 84 valid responses from the respondents gave valid answers to the research questions, as I conducted the research correctly.

Figure 1

*Parameters Selected for A Priori Analysis Conducted Using G*Power*

Exact – Correlation: Bivariate normal model		
Options:	exact distribution	
Analysis:	A priori: Compute required sample size	
Input:	Tail(s)	= Two
	Correlation ρ H1	= 0.3
	α err prob	= 0.05
	Power (1- β err prob)	= 0.80
	Correlation ρ H0	= 0
Output:	Lower critical r	= -0.2145669
	Upper critical r	= 0.2145669
	Total sample size	= 84
	Actual power	= 0.8003390

Correlational Design

Researchers use a correlational research design to establish the reliability and validity of measurements, provide converging evidence, describe relationships, and make predictions to the point where a change in one variable causes a change in the other without manipulating the independent variable (Umstead & Mayton, 2018). Correlational research studies can be replicated in subsequent studies using the same methods and procedures. I used a correlational design involving MANOVA to analyze the research data. The data were analyzed to determine if any relationship existed between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The three dependent variables were: (a) turnover intention, (b) organizational commitment, and (c) job satisfaction. The independent variable was workplace bullying. I derived the study data from the participants through survey questions with Likert-type responses. Researchers in academia and social science use correlational research design to examine associations between dependent and independent variables (Reio, 2016). The purpose of the current study was aligned with the nature and design of correlational research, as supported by Becker et al. (2016), and the correlational design was appropriate for the study.

To examine the relationship between the independent variable of workplace bullying and the dependent variable of employee turnover intention, the first research question in the study was the following: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas? To examine the

relationship between the independent variable of workplace bullying and organizational commitment, the second research question in the study was: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas? Finally, due to the possible relationship between the independent variable of workplace bullying and the dependent variables of employee turnover intention and organizational commitment, the third research question in the study was: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

Appropriateness of the Research Design

The choice of appropriate research methodology depends on the research questions for the study. The current study included hypothesis testing and examining the relationships between variables, as researchers do in quantitative studies. Szucs and Ioannidis (2017) expressed that testing null hypothesis significance occurs through a quantitative method. Therefore, I used quantitative methodology with a correlational design. Responses to the survey were appropriate to assess the connection between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

I tested a null hypothesis to rule out the potential for no influence between variables because the research included variables that may influence each other. MANOVA extends the analysis capabilities of variance (ANOVA) by assessing multiple dependent variables simultaneously and can detect patterns between multiple dependent variables. Warner (2013) believed that using MANOVA will (a) enable greater statistical

power by identifying effects that are smaller than those that regular ANOVA can find and (b) assess patterns between multiple dependent variables because the factors in the model can affect the relationship between dependent variables instead of influencing a single dependent variable, and (c) it limits the joint error rate. These benefits are lacking in linear regression analysis alone. MANOVA is a more sophisticated method of data analysis than regression and correlation, both being part of the quantitative methodology (Cheung & Jak, 2016). In both ANOVA and MANOVA, the purpose of the statistic is to determine if two or more groups are statistically different from each other on a continuous quantitative scale.

Workplace bullying can take any of these three forms: (a) from a formal leader to subordinate, that is, vertical downward bullying; (b) from informal leader to subordinate, that is, vertical upward bullying; and (c) between peers at the same power level, that is, lateral bullying (Nemeth et al., 2017). This study did not consider vertical upward bullying because the research was not about informal leadership settings in an organization. Instead, I used a MANOVA design for data analysis. Vertical bullying and lateral bullying represent workplace bullying which is the independent variable. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention are the dependent variables. Applying MANOVA to examine data involves testing a hypothesis to answer research questions that address the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

Methodology

The methodology for research reflects the purpose of the study, the research problem, and the research questions (Santiago-Delefosse et al., 2016). Köhler et al. (2017) and Osborne (2017) advocated for the appropriateness of methodology in research studies. In conducting this study and selecting the research topic, I defined the research questions and hypotheses; reviewed the relevant literature; described the choice of methodology and design; collected, organized, maintained, and analyzed the data; and presented the findings and conclusions. I chose a quantitative correlational design among the three quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods to examine potential associations between the selected dependent and independent variables (Bordens & Abbott, 2011). Nonexperimental designs are appropriate when a study does not use a control group, participants are not randomized, and the study variables are not manipulated (Babbie, 2017). I extended the analytical power of the study using MANOVA to limit joint error, assess patterns, and identify too-small effects for the ANOVA.

Population

The population of this study was employees of correctional facilities within the State of Texas. Data were collected from the state jails, county jails, and other facilities in the criminal justice department. The data were sought through an online survey using validated instruments. The study sample included participants of ages 18 and above of all genders, ranked and unranked personnel. Participants must have worked within The State of Texas correctional facility for at least 6 months (Einarsen et al., 2011). The timeframe is a benchmark of time set aside by American and British bullying scholars to

differentiate an isolated and a one-off negative act from a repeated and systematic negative social act (Namie, 2003; Sepler, 2015). This research required workplace bully victims to have been subjected to frequent negative acts for at least 6 months in a correctional facility in Texas by peers or superiors, against which the recognition of a formal or informal power imbalance hindered defense or retaliation. Bullies and victims are already identified and defined in the previous sections of this study, and power imbalances in the workplace are acknowledged and misused to permeate bullying. The research did not require participants in this study to characterize themselves in any way; rather, their responses to the questionnaires would. Participants received a working definition of turnover intention, work commitment, and job satisfaction in the surveys for this study. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019) put the number of correctional employees in Texas at 47,160 and declared Texas with the most employees. I used several approaches to recruit participants for a diverse sample of correctional employees.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

Twining et al. (2017) posited that a researcher must articulate the sampling process and the participant selection criteria in any study. Participants' inclusion and exclusion criteria were based on their employment eligibility for at least 6 months in a correctional facility in Texas. Employees at correctional facilities must be at least 18 years of age and have a full-time work assignment of at least 40 hours per week. The sample may not represent the general population due to non-randomization (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2014). A randomized sampling approach was not feasible for the study because there was no access to the complete list of correctional employees

in the state under study; instead, the research selected convenience sampling, which is a nonprobability sampling. Convenience sampling is where the participants got chosen because they are a convenient source of information for the researcher (Etikan et al., 2016). The convenience sampling method used to meet the minimum sample requirements was necessary to complete the research without many complexities involved in randomized sampling (Brewis, 2014). I used convenience sampling to reach participants via social media during the study. Using the LinkedIn membership, I circulated a message to sensitize correctional employees to participate in the research study and to encourage others to participate, as in snowball sampling. Snowball sampling or chain referral is a convenience sampling in which current participants refer new participants to a research study (Naderifar et al., 2017). During the survey proper, I used SurveyMonkey to host the survey. I used power analysis to determine the appropriate sample size for the study within the degree of confidence.

Power Analysis

G*Power is recommended for sample size and power calculations for various statistical methods (F, t, χ^2 , Z, and exact tests) because it is easy to use and free (Kang, 2021). I set the G*Power and alpha levels at the standard level accepted by behavioral research at .80 power (Cohen, 1992; Hauge et al., 2009, 2010; Hoel et al., 2010). A Type I error, or false positive, is the error of rejecting a null hypothesis when it is true. Type I errors occur when a statistically significant difference is observed, despite no real difference (Table 2). In Table 2, the significance level (α) represents the maximum

allowable limit of Type I error. The power means the minimum permissible limit of accepting the alternative hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is true.

Table 1

Types of Statistical Error and Power and Confidence Levels

Null hypothesis	Decision	
	Accept H0	Reject H0
H0 is true	Correct (confidence level, $1-\alpha$)	Type I error (α)
H0 is false	Type II error (β)	Correct (power, $1-\beta$)

Note. H0, null hypothesis.

Cohen (1988) suggested that the strength of the correlation characterizes each of the various correlations into three specific categories, as follows: weak, $r < 0.3$; moderate, $0.3 \geq r < 0.5$; and strong, $r \geq 0.5$. Numerous studies have linked organizational commitment, work satisfaction, and turnover intention to bullying (Azeem & Akhtar, 2014; Davis, 2017). However, these variables may have some significance since job satisfaction is one of the most important predictors of organizational commitment and turnover intention (Li et al., 2020). A higher level of job satisfaction leads to higher commitment and lower turnover intention, implying that job satisfaction influences organizational commitment while negatively influencing turnover intention (Tarigan & Ariani, 2015; Yucell, 2012). To determine the appropriate sample size for this study, beginning with adequate sampling can prevent Type II errors. Type II error, or false negative, accepts a null hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is true. Type II errors occur when a statistically significant difference is not observed, even when there is indeed a difference (Table 2).

I considered a priori and post hoc power analysis methods in my research (Table 2). An a priori analysis is a sample size calculation performed before conducting the study and before the design and planning stage of the study. A priori analysis is used to calculate the sample size N , which is necessary to determine the effect size, desired α level, and power level $(1-\beta)$. As an a priori analysis provides a method for controlling Type I and II errors to prove the hypothesis, it is an ideal sample size and power calculation method for the study. In contrast, a post hoc analysis is typically conducted after the completion of the study. As the sample size N is given, the power level $(1-\beta)$ is calculated using the given N , the effect size, and the desired α level. Post-hoc power analysis is a less ideal sample size and power calculation than a priori analysis, as it only controls α and not β . The post-hoc power analysis is criticized because the Type II error calculated using the results of negative trials is always high and may lead to incorrect power conclusions (Hoenig & Heisey, 2001; Levine & Ensom, 2001).

Table 2

Power Analysis Methods

	Type	Independent variable	Dependent variable
1.	A priori	Power $(1-\beta)$, significance level (α) , and effect size	N
2.	Compromise	Effect size, N , $q=\beta/\alpha$	Power $(1-\beta)$, significance level (α)
3.	Criterion	Power $(1-\beta)$, effect size, N	Significance level (α) , criterion
4.	Post-hoc	Significance level (α) , effect size, N	Power $(1-\beta)$
5.	Sensitivity	Significance level (α) , power $(1-\beta)$, N	Effect size

Note. N , sample size; $q=\beta/\alpha$, error probability ratio indicates the relative proportionality or disproportionality of the two values.

The probability of Type II error should be less than 20%, that is, $[1-\beta \geq 0.80]$ (Field, 2013). Although using a robust sample size increased the significance of the study findings, selecting the appropriate effect size was also suitable. Funder and Ozer (2019) proposed that effect sizes can be usefully evaluated by comparing them with well-understood benchmarks or considering them in concrete consequences. Considering this, Funder and Ozer concluded that an effect-size r of .05 indicates a minimal effect for explaining single events and could be significant soon; an effect-size r of .10 indicates a small effect at the level of single events. Still, one that could be significant eventually, and an effect-size r of .20 indicates a medium effect with some explanatory and practical utility for both the short and long run. A large effect size ($r = .40$ or above) is considered significant in psychological studies, though a gross overestimate will rarely be found in a large sample or a replication. Therefore, this study's effect size was 0.2 (medium).

The sample size is based upon factors including the power of 0.8, an alpha error of probability of 0.05, and a confidence interval level of 95% (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2014). I used G* Power 3.1.9.7 software for the power analysis (Faul et al., 2007; Heinrich-Heine-Universität Düsseldorf, 2019). The alpha of 0.05 was selected because it represented a 5% chance that a Type I error would occur and that there would be no effect on the population (Field, 2013). Field (2013) suggested that a power of 0.80 was selected because it reflected a 20% chance that no effect was observed when there were statistically significant results. Field further asserted that medium effect size could be used as a parameter for the analysis because it will represent a medium magnitude difference in the variable. Deriving from the calculations for sample size, the suggested

number of participants for this study was 84 based on the assumption that a single convenience sample was used, having normal distribution and the z-score.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

Participant recruitment can be a significant challenge in research studies involving human subjects. Therefore, recruiting participants for research studies is a task that often requires more effort than anticipated (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2020). Procedures for recruitment involve several activities, including identifying eligible participants, explaining the study to the potential participants, recruiting an adequate sample based on study goals and design, obtaining informed consent, maintaining ethical standards, and retaining participants until study completion. Participation in quantitative research entails having the correct numbers and values for specific variables. The essence of the correct numbers is that quantitative research focuses more on numeric and logical results. Data collection systematically gathers and measures information on variables of interest, enabling the researcher to answer stated research questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes. The United States Office of Research Integrity (2021) declared that the six consequences of improperly collected data include: (a) inability to answer research questions accurately, (b) inability to repeat and validate the study, (c) distorted findings resulting in wasted resources, (d) misleading other researchers to pursue fruitless avenues of investigation, (e) causing harm to human participants and animal subjects, and (f) compromising decisions for public policy. In addition, improperly collected data can cause disproportionate harm when the research results are used to support public policy recommendations.

Recruitment

I created an online survey on the Survey Monkey website after permission was authorized by the Walden University Institutional Review Board (IRB). I used the following validated survey questions: Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised, Job Satisfaction Scale, Organizational Commitment Scale, and Turnover Intention Scale (Appendices D, E, F, and G). I used the survey web link to conduct the initial functionality testing. Five of the friends completed the online survey's functional testing. When the testing was over, I asked the Survey Monkey Professional Services team to download the data and run preliminary tests in the International Business Machines (IBM) Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 28 program. I confirmed the online survey ready to use once the IBM SPSS data input was completed and successfully assessed. I erased the testing before declaring the survey open to study participants. In social sciences, a 50% response rate is required for the validity of the analysis (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Okeke et al., 2017). From G*Power analysis, this study requires 84 valid responses. If 84 valid responses are not reached, then any response rate from 50% or 42 valid responses up to the desired 84 valid responses sufficed for the research.

Participation

I asked for participation in the survey through a social media post (Appendix H). The request was forwarded to the professional network on LinkedIn. The social media message also included a request for participants to forward the request to their professional networks to recruit more participants with similar interests. I sent the

message to personal and professional LinkedIn contacts. The screening of participants began with the inclusion and exclusion criteria elimination and the completion of the informed consent form. The screening questions were framed to examine whether the participants were correctional employees with at least 6 months of continuous employment in the penitentiary facility setting (Appendix A). The four screening questions included: (a) Are you at least 18? (b) Are you a correctional employee working in a correctional facility continuously for at least 6 months? (c) Are you a staff member of any department in a correctional facility in Texas? This screening process was implemented to recruit the appropriate correctional employees for the study. The participants received a summary of the research study and online survey questionnaires. If any participant wished to learn more about the research study, such a participant was advised to make contacts using the email addresses listed in the social media post and the survey on the Survey Monkey website. I replied to emails to participants who requested information.

The expected 84 individuals who qualified for the study advanced in the survey, as they started with the consent form. The consent form included my contact information and the purpose of the survey. At the bottom of the informed consent, the participants selected whether to opt-in or out of the survey. Participants who opt into the survey can still refuse to submit the completed form as they decide to change their minds about participation. The participants who immediately completed and submitted the survey received a thank you message on the computer screen before being logged out at the survey end.

Data Collection

I monitored the Survey Monkey website to ensure that the required number of participants (84) completed the survey. I extracted the survey data from the Survey Monkey website daily to determine the number of responses and to ensure that the responses were valid. I also checked to see if each participant answered all the survey questions. I kept the survey open until he had collected 114 valid responses before closing. Though the required sample size was only 84, I collected data from at least 114 participants to avoid challenges or data rejection due to invalid responses or incomplete surveys. Then, I made a social media post (Appendix I) to announce the completion of the survey and thank the participants for their support and help. Finally, I downloaded the data in a spreadsheet, copied it to IBM SPSS software, and proceeded with data analysis.

I encountered time and resource constraints in the data collection. Data collection for this study was expected to take about 2 weeks or more to collect the minimum amount of usable survey responses based on the G*Power analysis. The heavy resource demands of advanced research were a constraint I encountered in data collection. However, I did not scrimp on quality in any aspect of the study, as it might jeopardize the quality of the findings, insights, and overall study. I did encounter technical and cultural constraints in the research. For technical constraints, I considered speaking to my peers to observe and learn how they overcame technical constraints. The sensitive nature of research on workplace bullying posed cultural constraints, which I did overcome by acknowledging the risks, being tactical, and expanding my communication plan.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with five participants to evaluate the study protocol's effectiveness in capturing the information needed to answer the research questions. The primary purpose of performing a pilot study was to evaluate the processes associated with the main study (Leon et al., 2011). The pilot study identified potential recruitment issues, correct assessment procedures, methodology, and data collection challenges. The pilot study process allowed for testing the survey instruments to ensure the questions aligned with the information sought from participants and identify research bias present within the questions. I was attentive to the details involved in the pilot survey process. The participants understood the questions, and no bias was noted; therefore, no modifications were needed. The inclusion criteria for the pilot study were identical to those in the research study. The pilot study used sample questions and provided an opportunity to prepare for the main study. A Walden IRB consent approval # 09-08-22-0494619 was received to perform the pilot study. Data from the pilot study was collected using the same methods, qualifying criteria, and survey instruments outlined for the main study to test the functionality of the study protocol. In addition, the pilot study helped to familiarize the procedures executed in the main study. The initial process within the pilot study was effective; therefore, no further corrections were made for the main study.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The instruments for data collection were not changed and comprised eight demographic questions and questions from four validated surveys: (a) the NAQ-R (Anjala & Wickramaratne, 2019; Einarsen et al., 2009), (b) the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al., 1967), (c) the Organizational Commitment Scale (Meyer &

Allen, 1997), and (d) the Turnover Intention Scale (Roodt, 2004). Combining the answers to these questions and the analysis answered the research questions. The survey questions were divided into sections: one for the demographic questions to collect the participants' age, gender, tenure, and academic status, and the other sections were for the bullying questions. The bullying questions were multiple-choice questions and had a 5-point Likert-type scale for answers on the survey for the respondents to select from (a) strongly agree, (b) agree, (c) undecided, (d) disagree, and (e) strongly disagree. The validated instrument authors were emailed to request written authorization for using their instruments, and the response was encouraging (Appendix F).

Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) Scale

This study used the NAQ-R (Anjala & Wickramaratne, 2019) in the English version, which is a revised version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen et al., 2009) (Appendix B). The NAQ-R is a 22-item questionnaire of negative acts to measure respondents' perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying, and physical intimidation on a 5-point Likert-type scale: (1) never, (2) now and then, (3) monthly, (4) weekly, and (5) daily. The 22 questions in the instrument put a threshold of four or more affirmative answers to indicate that employees are being subjected to workplace bullying. Higher scores are indicative of greater levels of hostility in the workplace. The creators of the questionnaire reframed the revised version to avoid using wording like *bullying*- or *harassment* (Einarsen et al., 2017; Hoel et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2010). Instead, participants were directed to identify any experiences with bullying directly from their supervisors or managers.

The analysis of the NAQ-R scale indicates the subscales with corresponding item numbers of workplace bullying. The item numbers represent the question numbers in the survey. The work-related bullying subscale has eight items (1, 2, 3, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21); the person-related bullying subscale has 11 items (4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 20), and physically intimidating bullying has three items (8, 9, 22). The NAQ-R provided frequency data for each of the 22 negative behaviors and the overall score, ranging from 22 (respondent never experienced any of the 22 negative behaviors) to 110 (respondent experienced all 22 behaviors daily). Researchers can use the data in various ways. For example, a researcher could appoint a cut-off criterion, such as experiencing at least two negative acts weekly over the past 2 months (Einarsen et al., 2009; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). The respondents are prompted to state how often they have been subjected to the 22 negative acts of the questionnaire, based on their experience in their workplace, over the last 6 months. The NAQ-R also includes a 23rd general question where an accurate definition of bullying is provided. According to the self-labeling method, the participants are asked to state the degree to which they feel they have been subjected to this behavior. This question can serve as a general workplace bullying indicator and a criterion validity indicator associated with the other test questions.

The NAQ-R is validated and standardized in several countries, such as Japan, the United Kingdom, and the U.S. (Hogh et al., 2011; Salin, 2008). Studies in Norway revealed internal consistency ranging from Cronbach's alpha 0.88 to 0.90 (Kakoulakis et al., 2015). In the United Kingdom, it was used on a heterogeneous sample of 5288 employees and revealed high internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha 0.90 (Einarsen et al.,

2009). The NAQ-R also portrays excellent criterion validity and construct validity. In combination with Latent Class Cluster (LCC), the tool proved appropriate to divide employees into distinct levels (groups) of exposure to bullying (Nielsen et al., 2010). Kakoulakis et al. (2015) viewed the NAQ-R instrument as the most used behavioral scale in bullying research. This assertion resulted from the performed Cronbach's internal consistency criterion analysis to examine the test's reliability. According to the results, the scale proved to be reliable. For this study, I used a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, and 5 = strongly agree to show how participants view bullying in the workplace. The average sum of the three factors of the NAQ-R was computed and divided by the number of single items to identify if there was bullying exposure. The range value of 22-32 indicates Not Bullied, the 33-44 range value indicates Sometimes Bullied, while the range value of 45 or more suggests a Victim of Workplace Bullying.

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

Weiss et al. (1967) created the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) as part of the work adjustment project with the University of Minnesota's studies in vocational rehabilitation (Appendix C). Weiss et al. developed the MSQ abbreviated short-form in 1977, based on previous research, demonstrating that employee job satisfaction is related to their work environment and the perception of their job. Given the similarities in overall test results and the difference in administration time between the long and short forms, the MSQ short form was the instrument that participants used for this study. Weiss et al. developed the MSQ short-form by selecting one question from

each of the MSQ long-20 form's scales, resulting in the MSQ short-form having only three scales: (a) intrinsic, (b) extrinsic, and (c) general satisfaction. Furthermore, the MSQ short-form aligns with the theoretical framework for the study because intrinsic and extrinsic motivating factors for employee job satisfaction were investigated.

The MSQ short-form questionnaire for this study was made available to participants via an online platform called SurveyMonkey. The MSQ short-form instructions and subsequent questions are constructed with simple grammar, which is easy to understand and use (Weiss et al., 1967). The estimated time for a participant to complete the MSQ short-form ranges from 5 to 10 minutes, though the research survey has no time limit. Each question on the MSQ short-form questionnaire was accompanied by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'very dissatisfied' to 'very satisfied' and scored 1-5 (Weiss et al., 1967). The question responses were numerically weighted, and the measurement scales were ordinal for the quantitative research.

I calculated the MSQ's short-form general satisfaction raw score by adding all the representative values from each question (Weiss et al., 1967). Calculating the corresponding values for questions 1-4, 7-11, 15, 16, and 20 yielded the intrinsic and general raw scores, with the remaining questions 5, 6, 12- 14, and 19 causing the extrinsic raw scores (Weiss et al., 1967). The responses were scored. Low scores indicate respondents are dissatisfied with their job and work environments (Appendix J). A high score on the scale showed that respondents were satisfied with their job and work environments. Weiss et al. (1967) suggested that after calculating the raw scores, the researcher transforms the raw score percentiles based on each participant's corresponding

norm group. The most meaningful scores to interpret the MSQ are the percentile scores for each scale obtained from the most norm group for the individual. Weiss et al. explained that ordinarily, a percentile score of 75 or higher would represent a high degree of satisfaction, a percentile of 25 or lower would indicate a low level of satisfaction, and scores in the middle range of percentiles indicate average satisfaction. The MSQ short form can be used in a variety of professional fields. Weiss et al. discussed how raw MSQ short-form scores could be compared to employees' normative groups or ranks. While the MSQ short-form is intended to assess an individual's intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction levels, understanding workplace bullying in human resource management in correctional facilities is critical in recognizing accurate employee satisfaction levels.

The researcher may be helped in determining standards for the chosen demographic by norming the raw survey scores. Norming determines expectations or the typical result of a group of individuals on a psychological or achievement evaluation (Renbarger & Morgan, 2018). For instance, assemblers, clerks, engineers, maintenance employees, machinists, and sales professionals served as the normative group in Weiss et al.'s (1967) research of the MSQ short-form, conducted in Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minnesota. Researchers from numerous countries and professions have also used the MSQ short form. These investigations include those on Indian bank managers (Garg et al., 2018) and Israeli nursing home activity directors (Halperin, 2020). When private sector banks are studied, as well as the relationships between work pressures, awareness of aging, burnout, and job satisfaction among nursing home activity directors, these

studies have produced good results regarding reliability and validity using MSQ short-form.

The MSQ's proven reliability and validity served as the foundation for its selection as the instrument in the current research. The reliability and validity of a survey measurement are critical factors in determining its value in research; therefore, when evaluating a questionnaire's reliability, factors such as reliability coefficients, internal consistency, and measurement stability are considered (Weiss et al., 1967). According to Weiss et al. (1967), the median reliability coefficient score for the MSQ short-form intrinsic satisfaction was .86, extrinsic satisfaction was .80, and general satisfaction was .90. Furthermore, Weiss et al. reported test-retest coefficient scores of .89 over 1 week and .70 over 1 year. Previous research has yielded similar reliability coefficient results. For example, Garg et al. (2018) found an internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha of .86, while Halperin (2020) determined an internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha of .81.

Another researcher's concern about an instrument's effectiveness is the survey's validity. The validity of an instrument allows a researcher to accurately measure the variables of a study (Bielenia-Grajewska, 2018). Weiss et al. (1967) confirmed the validity of the MSQ short-form by demonstrating construct validity, concurrent validity, and scale inter-correlations. Weiss et al. reported that job satisfaction, measured by the MSQ, meets the desired constructs from multiple Minnesota Studies in Vocational Rehabilitation series studies. In addition, Weiss et al. reported concurrent validity results that included a statistically significant probability score of .001 for each of the three MSQ short-form scales.

Thus, the MSQ short-form indicates support for the computation of intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction (Weiss et al., 1967). For the total occupational group classification, the intrinsic satisfaction scale correlation score was .60 with the external satisfaction scale and .88 with the general satisfaction scale. The correlation score between the external satisfaction scale and the general satisfaction scale was .82. Because the MSQ short form has proven to be a reliable and valid instrument since its inception, there is no need or justification for making any changes or revisions to it for this study.

Organizational Commitment Scale

The Organizational Commitment Scale developed by Meyer and Allen (2004) is composed of, in its entire length, 24 items, eight items in each of the following claimed dimensions: affective commitment scale (ACS), continuance commitment scale (CCS), and normative commitment scale (NCS) (Appendix D). The main difference between the original and revised survey versions for the affective and continuance commitment scales is the number of items. The main difference between the original and the revised versions of the normative commitment scale was that the latter focused on participants' feelings of obligation to stay with their organization. At the same time, the original survey also included basic questions about the employees' commitment. Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment Scale is shortened to six items per dimension. Each of these scales is scored individually and can be used to identify employee commitment levels within the organization. The items are responded to using a 5-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, and 5

= strongly agree. First, the score for each of the 18 items was calculated using the Likert scale to obtain a sum score. Then the overall score was also divided by the 18 items of the model to address an individual's organizational commitment where bullying prevails. The affective commitment scale was designed to measure the employee's comfort in their relationship with the work role and the organization; therefore, it is the most used by organizations in continued employment decisions. Affective Commitment also shows the strongest and most good correlations (Meyer et al., 2002) among the dimensions of the organizational commitment scale.

In a study by Abdul Karim and Noor (2006) to validate Meyer and Allen's (2004) Organizational Commitment Scale in Malaysian Academic Libraries settings, they found that affective and continuance commitment scales showed a high instrument validity and internal reliability. The validity and internal reliability of Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment Scale were assessed and confirmed in Abdullah's (2011) research on the Pakistani banking sector. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the three subscales are acceptable, showing that the scales exhibited internal reliability and instrument validity. Vandenberghe et al. (2001) conducted a confirmatory factor analysis of Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment Scale in 12 European countries, including Belgium, Denmark, England, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, and The Netherlands, the commitment model had a good fit to the data in each subsample in both French, .92, and English, .91, versions of the scales. The study by Vandenberghe et al. provided evidence that Meyer and Allen's Organizational Commitment Scale was valid and reliable across cultures. That is,

measurement properties were culturally robust, and the relationships between commitment components and intent to quit were consistent across cultural dimensions.

Studies by researchers across diverse cultures have confirmed the validity and reliability of Meyer and Allen's (2004) Organizational Commitment Scale. Other study results by Tsai (2014) and Syauta et al. (2012) also proved in their research that the measurement of organizational commitment had met the reliability requirements with Cronbach alpha values of 0.875 and 0.825, respectively. Also, Hanaysha's (2016) study showed that the organizational commitment scale meets the reliability requirements with a Cronbach alpha value of 0.860. The scale of organizational commitment in the study conducted by Hadi and Tentama (2020) showed a Cronbach alpha value of 0.926, meaning the scale of organizational commitment is appropriate to be used or applied in expressing organizational commitment because the results of good construct validity and reliability support using the scale. I used Meyer and Allen's Affective Organizational Commitment Scale for this research study to answer the research questions.

Turnover Intention Scale

The Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) developed by Roodt (2004) is a self-report inventory that measures turnover intention as a global construct on a 5-point Likert scale (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree) (Appendix E). The TIS-6 includes "How likely are you to accept another job at the same compensation level should it be offered to you?" and "How often have you considered leaving your job?" For scoring, add the item scores to get a total score. The midpoint of the scale is 18 (3 x 6). If the total score is below 18, it indicates a desire to stay. If the scores exceed 18, it suggests a desire to leave

the organization. A person's minimum is six (6 x 1), and the maximum is 30 (5 x 6). Higher scores indicate a greater turnover intention. Roodt (2004) reported good internal consistency reliability (.83 and .90) and construct validity of the TIS. Bothma and Roodt's (2013) later study to investigate the instrument's reliability for measuring turnover intention and predicting actual turnover confirmed the reliability of the 6-item TIS-6 ($\alpha = 0.80$) instrument. The investigation of Bothma and Roodt revealed that the TIS-6 could distinguish significantly between the leavers and the stayers, that is, actual turnover. This distinction capability of TIS-6 confirmed its criterion-predictive validity. The TIS-6 scale also established statistically significant differences between leavers and stayers regarding the remaining theoretical variables used in the study. Also, this distinction capability of TIS-6 confirmed its differential validity. As Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommended, an alpha of .70 is a reasonable cut-off point to estimate the internal consistency reliability of the TIS-6. I sought permission to use the TIS-6 from the authors.

Data Analysis Plan

The data analysis plan began with the methods for collecting data from participants, the inclusion and exclusion criteria for data collection, and the research questions and hypotheses of the study, which align with the study's problem statement. Also included in the data analysis plan are the specific statistical methods and tools for collecting, cleaning, and graphing the data to visually represent the relationship between the independent and dependent variables in the study, accounting for the constants. This section contained the rationale for including the constants and the result interpretations.

Software for Data Analysis

This study's software for data analysis was IBM SPSS version 28. IBM is a leading computing-tabulating-recording company founded in 1911 and has since become global (Patrizio & Moore, 2022). IBM was incorporated in over 170 countries (Patrizio & Moore, 2022). SPSS, Inc. was acquired in 2009 by IBM, and the two companies became IBM SPSS (Patrizio & Moore, 2022). Secchi (2015) posited that SPSS is a powerful and user-friendly statistical tool researchers use to analyze research results on descriptive and inferential statistics to determine if the researcher can reject or accept the null hypotheses. The collected data was inputted into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and uploaded to IBM SPSS version 28.

Data Cleaning

The collected raw data may have flaws like missing values or outliers that need to be cleaned and repaired (Chu, 2019). I analyzed the collected data and cleaned it by removing participants whose surveys had missing answers to any questions or did not fit into the inclusion criteria. If, after cleaning the data and the total number falls short of the required sample size, the researcher continues with the survey until the sample size is met. Again, I cleaned the data by applying the inclusion and exclusion criteria and removing the outliers and data outside the boundary fences.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The three research questions and related hypotheses for this study are the following:

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas?

H_01 : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a1 : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

RQ2: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas?

H_02 : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a2 : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

RQ3: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

H_03 : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a3 : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Statistical Tests

In addressing the research questions, I analyzed the collected data using a MANOVA to test for the difference in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention. I used the Box's M test to determine variances and homogeneity tests.

Homogeneity tests assume that the within-group variance matrices are equal, meaning the design is balanced and the robustness of the MANOVA tests is guaranteed. The primary purpose of the 2-way MANOVA is to understand if there is an interaction between the two independent variables on the three dependent variables. MANOVA, as explained by Warner (2013), is known for data analysis from an experimental design with two or more dependent variables. The study was followed by multivariate analyses applied to the two independent variables of vertical and horizontal workplace bullying. Levene's test of equality of error variances was next to test the equality of variances at the threshold of 5%. I also tested the estimated marginal means to examine the mean values.

To simultaneously test the equality of means from all the responses, there is the need to compare the p -values in the MANOVA test tables for each term to the significance level. The threshold significance level (denoted as α or alpha) of 0.05 usually works well. A significance level of 0.05 indicates a 5% risk of concluding that an association exists when there is no actual association. $P\text{-value} \leq \alpha$: The differences between the means are statistically significant. If the p -value is less than or equal to the significance level, it is concluded that the differences between the means are statistically significant. $P\text{-value} > \alpha$: the differences between the means are not statistically significant. If the p -value is greater than the significance level, then it cannot be concluded that the differences between the means are statistically significant. One may want to refit the model without the term.

Threats to Validity

Validity is the accuracy of research measurement, showing how a test suits a particular situation. Validity is the highest aim any researcher wants to achieve, for it indicates how accurately a method measures what is intended in the study. Validity in research can be internal or external (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Cozby, 2001). Cook and Campbell (1979) added two more types of validity in research: statistical conclusion validity and construct validity of causes or effects. The two new additions are often considered under internal validity. Validity in research is undermined by plausible rival hypotheses, meaning diverse ways of explaining the results rather than the author's hypothesis. Plausible rival hypotheses threaten validity in research (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Threats to internal validity are due to extraneous variances and influences that make the study results insignificant. In contrast, threats to external validity occur when the specific set of research conditions does not practically consider the interactions of other variables in the real world.

External Validity

The validity of research is the meaningfulness of the research components (Shadish et al., 2002). Validity relates to how applicable the findings are in the real world. When researchers measure behaviors like workplace bullying, they are concerned with whether they measure what they intended to measure or something else. There are three significant threats to external validity because there are three ways a researcher can be wrong due to external validity: (a) people, (b) places, or (c) times. First, assuming there is a causal relationship or an association from research construct A to construct B,

external validity in research questions the generalizability of this relationship across individuals, organizational settings, and timelines. Drost (2011) posited that the outcome of social science research for a well-defined population might not necessarily apply to the global population of such a target. The result of social science research on workplace bullying in the U.S. may not apply to China, Japan, Russia, or Middle East countries. Also, workplace bullying research in public institutions, like correctional facilities, may not have the same causal relationships as in manufacturing plants, healthcare settings, military settings, bureaucratic institutions, or small-scale enterprises. These results can be corrected by varying the setting and analyzing for a causal relationship within each setting. In this research, the population under study were the Texas correctional facilities' employees. The demographics of the research participants in this study may not be diverse and representative of the population under study. The lack of diversity and the correlational nature of the research limited its generalizability.

Internal Validity

The internal validity of research is the soundness or accuracy of the research itself. Internal validity relates to how well a study is conducted. Internal validity is vital in most scientific disciplines, especially the social sciences (Shuttleworth, 2009). Internal validity is the confidence that the independent variables cause changes in the dependent variables. For example, conducting job satisfaction research in an organization days before Christmas and immediately after the employees have received their bonuses is not sound research, for it lacks accuracy and is due to the researcher's bias (Drost, 2011). Internal validity is fundamental in research for the following four reasons: (a) it ensures

that the researcher follows the principle of cause-and-effect in the experimental design closely, and (b) it reflects that in a given study, there are no other likely explanations for the relationship observed in the finding, and (c) it ensures that the cause and effect vary together, and (d) internal validity can be used to determine the direction of the research. If a study shows a high degree of internal validity, then it can be concluded that there is strong evidence of causality. Furthermore, if a study has low internal validity, then it must be supposed that there is little or no evidence of causality.

Shadish et al. (2002) enumerated the nine factors that threaten the internal validity of the research. These threats to internal validity are ambiguous temporal precedence, selection, history, maturation, regression of artifacts, attrition or mortality, testing, instrumentation, and additive/interactive effects of threats to validity. Ambiguous temporal precedence is when the design cannot determine the cause-effect relationship with certainty. Selection refers to the inability to conclude that the “intervention” caused the effect confidently. The effect could be due to other events the participants were exposed to earlier. Maturation is the natural changes that participants experience, like getting older or getting tired, during the intervention, and such could account for the research outcomes. Regression artifacts are the natural effect of participants at extreme ends of a measure falling in a specific direction just due to the passage of time rather than the effect of an intervention. Attrition is when research participants drop out or leave a study, which means that the results are a biased sample of only those who did not choose to leave. These participants who decided to stay possibly have a higher motivation in common. Testing is repeatedly analyzing participants and using the same measures that

influence outcomes. Participants are likely to do better subsequently when given the same test again. The participants will learn the test or become used to the testing process so that they answer differently. Instrumentation refers to the changing of the measures over time such that it becomes difficult to determine if effects or outcomes are due to instrument versus treatment. Additive and interactive effects of threats to validity occur when single threats interact, such that the occurrence of multiple threats has an additive effect.

Cook and Beckam (2008) commented that randomization must be applied to maturation, selection bias, and subject characteristics to reduce threats to internal validity. Cook and Beckam further said that the control group could effectively minimize the effect of history, instrumentation, and regression on the means. However, using randomization or a control group to minimize threats to internal validity will not be effective in testing, mortality, location, participant's attitude and motivation, and implementation. Instead, using no pretest, loss prevention, information collection on potential differences, blind participants to study hypothesis, and careful planning of study interventions will minimize their threat to internal validity.

Construct Validity

Construct validity depicts how well a researcher translated or transformed a concept, idea, or behavior into a functioning and operating reality (Trochim, 2006). The central tenet is the operationalization of a construct. Substantiating construct validity is finding evidence in the face, content, concurrent, predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity. Face and content validity can be summed up as translation, while concurrent,

predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity makes up criterion-related validity. In human resources management, criterion-related validity is associated with the extent to which one measure relates to one outcome. Criterion-related validity assesses whether a test showcases some specific set of abilities. Criterion-related validity is also used to determine the relationship between a predictor and a criterion. The strength of the relationship or correlation is measured with the criterion-related validity coefficient. The first step in using criterion-related validity for any test is calibrating it to a known standard (Business Concepts Team, 2018). For instance, criterion-related validity can be used to measure work performance in a department store. Employee performance indicators include absence, supervisor ratings, length of employee service, the number of errors made, and laziness. The Business Concepts Team (2018) also stressed that the supervisor must choose one to validate the relationship between employee performance and any of the abovementioned criteria. For example, the supervisor should show a statistically significant relationship between the work performance and the criterion, say, the number of errors made in a year. Another example would be the relationship displayed by candidates' test scores with their leadership traits in a test for being an effective manager.

Translation validity is concerned with how well the operationalization reflects the true meaning of the construct. Drost (2011) generalized that translation validity assesses the degree to which constructs, ideas, concepts, or behaviors are accurately transformed into reality by using subjective judgments like face validity and examining the content validity, that is, face value and domain. Criterion-related validity clarifies the degree of

communication between a test measure and one or more external referents (criteria), primarily measured by their correlation. For example, when a researcher surveyed employees in correctional facilities and asked them to report their workplace bullying, the validity of the workplace bullying reported by the employees surveyed can be assessed by correlating it with records of bullying in the facilities. Here, the employee records may be viewed as the standard for comparison.

Ethical Procedures

For the interest of human participants and the integrity of the current research, I completed training and acquired a certification from The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research on *Protecting Human Research Participants* (Certification Number 2950685 of 09-25-2018). In addition, I recently updated my knowledge of ethical practices for protecting human research participants after he underwent an additional training program and earned certification from the Collaborative Institutional Training Institute (CITI) (Certificate Number 50406264 of 07-31-2022). The rules and regulations of the Walden University IRB were adhered to, and permission was sought and received before starting the study. Walden University's approval number for this study is # 09-08-22-0494619. Other study protocols, such as informed consent, data protection, and exit instructions, were adhered to. Informed consent involved all study participants providing written permission or willingness to participate after receiving a study description and must be 18 or older. The recruitment materials (Appendices B, C, D, E, and F) and participants' methods were reviewed to ensure they were duly influenced.

The participation criteria were clearly defined. All participants must be age 18 or older. The research had respect for potential and enrolled participants. Individuals were treated with respect from the time they were approached for possible participation, even when refused enrollment in the study, throughout their participation, and after their participation ended. I respected the participant's privacy by keeping their private information confidential. Also, he appreciated the participants' right to change their mind, decide that the research does not match their interests, and withdraw freely. The identities of the study participants were never revealed during and after the research. Data was maintained only by the researcher and destroyed after 5 years. To acquire, maintain, and destroy research data, a researcher makes three determinations: (a) which regulations apply to the research, (b) the time required to retain research data, and (c) what information to keep, if any. However, the research survey was conducted in the same profession as the researcher. I had no personal knowledge of the would-be survey participants. The survey was not in the same facility where I work.

Researchers adhere to ethical norms in research for several reasons. Resnik (2020) enumerated the reasons for the ethical norms in research. First, norms promote the study's aims, such as knowledge, truth, and error avoidance. Second, ethical standards promote the values essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness. Third, many ethical norms help ensure that researchers can be held accountable to the public. Fourth, ethical norms in research also help to build public support for research. Finally, many research norms promote other important moral and social values, such as social responsibility, human rights, animal welfare, compliance

with the law, and public health and safety. Ethical lapses in research can significantly harm human and animal subjects, students, and the public.

Summary

Workplace bullying is one of the most detestable behaviors within an organization. Research on workplace bullying has consisted primarily of information collected from victims and organizations because of the difficulty in recruiting bully participants. In addition, there are ethical concerns in acquiring a sample of individuals based on accusations by companies or victims. The relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment was determined in this study. In this chapter, I provided an overview of the research methodology. I explained and discussed the chosen quantitative research design, approach, and selection criteria. I also provided detailed information on the instruments used and how they relate to the current research questions and hypotheses. Finally, I revisited the research questions and hypotheses to demonstrate that they were consistent with this study. In the data analysis section, I explained how the research questions and hypotheses would be analyzed using the inferential statistical analysis of MANOVA.

Chapter 4 reviewed the study's purpose, presentation, interpretation, and detailed explanation of the data analyzed for the research questions and hypotheses. There was an explanation for any data collection plan inconsistencies. In this study, I chose a quantitative correlational design to examine potential associations between the selected dependent and independent variables (see Bordens & Abbott, 2011). The non-experimental designs are appropriate when a study does not use a control group,

participants are not randomized, and study variables are without manipulation (Babbie, 2017). I extended the analytical power of the study using MANOVA to limit joint error, assess patterns, and identify too-small effects for ANOVA.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The independent variable was workplace bullying, while the dependent variables were turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. I used the SurveyMonkey tool to host the data collection. The sample data was collected randomly from a Likert-type survey completed by participants employed at correctional facilities in Texas. This study addressed how workplace bullying of corrections employees has negatively affected human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and employee job satisfaction.

Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory explained the gains in maximizing benefits, reducing relationship costs, and encouraging a stable work environment. Due to the complexity of bullying, multiple theories were needed to fully clarify this social dynamic and understand what motivates workplace bullying. I used social exchange and social capital theories to provide the framework for understanding the impact of harmonious relationships in mitigating toxic work environments. I designed this chapter to answer the research questions using correlations and multivariate analysis of variance as statistical tools. I also included the results of the statistical tests in determining whether to reject the null hypotheses for the respective research questions. This chapter also consists of the presentation of the

primary data analyses used to obtain the study findings. I illustrated a review of the purpose of the study, study questions and hypotheses, data collection, analysis, results, a summary of the study's statistical findings, and conclusions to finalize the chapter.

Workplace bullying is a detrimental organizational behavior impacting employees' job satisfaction, commitment, and turnover intention. The impact is deleterious to the organizational success that depends on human capital. More satisfied and engaged employees contribute to the success of an organization. The management of correctional facilities source and invest in their employees for good returns on their investment. The positive returns manifest through organizational success, a harmonious work environment, and employee retention. A hostile work environment does not encourage organizational success.

Pilot Study

Five people completed the online survey's functional testing. I provided them with general information about the study, and they agreed to the request not to participate in the main study. During the pilot study, I individually discussed the information within the consent form and the pilot survey to ensure the contents were clear and understandable. The participants did not indicate any challenges completing the survey, as the instructions and the information provided were clear and comprehensible. Using the feedback from the pilot study of the participants, I concluded that there were no technical challenges or misunderstandings with the questionnaires during the main study phase. When the testing was over, I asked the Survey Monkey professional services team to download the data and run preliminary tests in the IBM SPSS version 28 program. After receiving the pilot

results, I analyzed the responses and concluded that the pilot study results were sufficient to answer the research question. I declared the online survey ready to use once the IBM SPSS data input was completed and assessed successfully. I erased the testing before declaring the survey open to study participants.

Obtaining the most accurate answers was the primary focus of the pilot study. Moreso, the feasibility of the study protocol, recruitment of participants, and testing of the measurement instruments were other reasons for the pilot study. Through the pilot study, I could ascertain that the approach adopted was optimal for this research, and there was no need for adjustments to the consent form or instructions. Omitting the pilot study step in workplace bullying research could be tempting, especially when the main study was well-planned. Constraints of time and a rush to get on with the main study are common reasons for passing over the pilot study by some researchers. However, this approach has many risks, as no matter how thoughtful a study was planned, it will likely encounter unforeseen difficulties. The investment in time and resources for the pilot study is rewarding.

Data Collection

The invitation of research participants formally began with a LinkedIn post on my online social media page (Appendix H). I used SurveyMonkey to host the data collected online to guarantee the research participants' privacy and anonymity. There was no personally identifiable information in the survey. Once the participants clicked on the link via their smartphone or computers, they were taken to a brief introduction page about the research, then to a screening page and the consent form page. Knowing about the

study, screened, and consented to participate, the research questionnaire page opened for the participants' responses. The research participants were informed that their participation in a student academic research project was of free will volition with no monetary or gift benefit. The research participants could also withdraw their consent by simply closing their browsers before they hit the submit button. The confidentiality of the respondents was maintained through multiple layers of passwords and encryption of their responses. With a snowball and convenience research data collection, participants were encouraged to tell their colleagues at corrections, who may qualify for the screening, to participate in the research.

The initial response to the 77-question survey questionnaire was not encouraging, though enthusiasm followed it after a few days. The G*Power 3.1.9.7 analysis for sample size, which I did before applying to Institutional Review Board (IRB) to commence research, revealed that I needed 84 valid responses to conduct the study (Appendix G). After 2 weeks of data collection, there were 135 responses. The goal was to collect 150 responses, guaranteeing 84 or more valid responses after data cleaning. The data collection continued after 2 weeks. When I monitored the data, I had only 71 valid responses and accessed it for skipped answers. The data collection was extended to 1 week to compensate for the shortfalls in responses. I closed the survey link after 3 weeks, having collected 165 responses, of which 114 were valid. I made a post to my LinkedIn social media page thanking and informing the participants that I have collected enough responses; therefore, the link will be closed (Appendix I). There were no discrepancies in data collection from the plan presented in Chapter 3.

I downloaded the raw survey data from the SurveyMonkey platform to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet on my computer and never collected data that could potentially identify a participant. The personal computer I used to store the downloaded survey information was password protected. I transferred the data from the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet into the IBM SPSS version 28 database. I saved the data in a password-protected personal computer and hard drive. There was no paper copy of the raw data. I analyzed the data results using IBM SPSS version 28, including the output of description and inferential statistics according to the data analysis plan and as described in the Results section to answer these research questions and null hypotheses.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The three RQs and related hypotheses for this study are the following:

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas?

H_01 : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a1 : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

RQ2: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas?

H_02 : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

H_{a2}: There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

RQ3: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

H_{a3}: There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Responses Collected

The average completion rate of the responses was 70%, and 165 respondents completed the survey within 3 weeks from the start. I downloaded the responses into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Of the collected responses, 125 fully completed the survey, while 40 had some missing data. Because missing data could affect research findings (Brick & Kalton, 1996) by weakening or strengthening the validity of the research study, I removed any surveys with missing data. I did not include such surveys with missing data in the final data set. Of the 125 fully completed surveys, 11 participants were younger than 18 years. These 11 juveniles may have encountered the questionnaire online and were never employed by the correctional facilities. Only 114 valid and usable responses were left, well above the 84 valid responses needed for the study. I transferred the cleaned dataset into IBM SPSS version 28 for analysis. Conducting the study for all correctional facilities in Texas and allowing the participants to specify which facility they worked for justified the samples' representativeness and the generalizability of the

findings. The collected sample data represented the population of interest for my study, that is, full-time U.S. employees of correctional institutions in Texas who had worked for at least 6 months in any of the facilities and were not younger than 18 years.

Demographics Analysis

Demographic analysis of the participants indicated that 50.9% self-identified as male, 48.2% as female, and .9% preferred to be identified as others. The 26 to 34 years group responded most to the questionnaire, while 66 years and above responded least with only 2.6%. Participants identified as Black were 57%, White 16.7%, Hispanic 8.8%, Asia 13.2%, and members of other races 4.4%. Interestingly, this data showed that many employees identified as Blacks against other races. The curious racial demographics fact could lead to another consideration for further study. Participants tenured on the job for 11 to 15 years responded most to the survey with 31.7%, followed by workers between 6 months and 5 years with 30.7%. Workers tenured between 6 to 10 years on the job responded with 26.3%. Participants with a bachelor's degree responded most to the survey with 29.8%, while participants with a high school or less certificate had the least participation with 7.9%.

On the participants' marital status, 52.6% of the married or cohabiting participants recorded the most responses, while the widowed number was 5.3%. Regarding job function, most participants were operations staff (32.5%), followed by the management staff 26.3%. Specialist, technical, and contract staff successively participated with 18.4%, 16.7%, and 6.1%. On the facility type, maximum prison facility, medium prison facility, minimum prison facility, state jail facility, county jail facility, and private jail facility

were respectively 26.3%, 24.6%, 23.7%, 8.8%, 9.6%, and 7.0%. Frequencies and percentages of the demographics are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency Table for Demographics

Variable	N	%
Age		
18-25	6	5.3
26-34	38	33.3
35-44	23	20.2
45-54	27	23.7
55-65	17	14.9
66 Years and above	3	2
Gender		
Male	58	50.9
Female	55	48.2
Others	1	.9
Race		
Black	65	57.0
White	19	16.7
Hispanic	10	8.8
Asian	15	13.2
Others	5	4.4
Tenure		
6 months-5 years	35	30.7
6-10 years	30	26.3
11-15 years	36	31.6
16-20 years	11	9.6
20+ years	2	1.8
Education		
High school or less	9	7.9
Post high school	31	27.2
Associate degree	19	16.7
Bachelor's degree	34	29.8
Graduate degree	21	18.4
Marital Status		
Single	28	24.6
Married or	60	52.6
Cohabiting		

Divorced or Widowed	20	17.5
Widowed	6	5.3
Job Function		
Management	30	26.3
Operations	37	32.5
Specialist	21	18.4
Technical	19	16.7
Contract	7	6.1
Facility Type		
Maximum prison	30	26.3
Medium prison	28	24.6
Minimum prison	27	23.7
State jail	10	8.8
County jail	11	9.6
Private jail	8	7.0

Survey Instruments Analysis

Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)-Short Form, Organizational Commitment Scale (OC), and Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) were the validated and approved survey instruments used for my data collection. First, the raw data collected were exported to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and cleaned out by removing the outliers and the missing values. Next, I inputted the data response of the sub-variables. Finally, I summed them up column by column to determine the presence of negative acts, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention of correctional facilities employees among the respondents before using the data to answer the research questions.

Table 4*Negative Acts Analysis*

	Overall bullying		Work-related bullying		Person-related bullying		Physically related bullying	
Item no.	Bullying items	Score	Item no.	Score	Item no.	Score	Item no.	Score
1	Someone withholding information that affects your performance	279	1	279	4	341	8	321
2	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	281	2	281	5	316	9	282
3	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	304	3	304	6	317	22	306
4	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	346	14	315	7	334		
5	Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	316	16	350	10	304		
6	Being ignored or excluded (being 'sent to Coventry')	317	18	330	11	304		
7	Have insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (that is, habits and background), your attitudes, or your private life	334	19	307	12	339		
8	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)	326	21	332	13	317		
9	Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal	282			15	312		

	space, shoving, blocking/barring the way							
10	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	304			17	300		
11	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	304			20	319		
12	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	339						
13	A persistent criticism of your work and effort	317						
14	Having your opinions and views ignored	315						
15	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with	312						
16	Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	350*						
17	Having allegations made against you	300						
18	Excessive monitoring of your work	330						
19	Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g., sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	307						
20	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	319						
21	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	332						
22	Threats of violence, physical abuse, or actual abuse	306						
Total		6910		2498		3503		909
Overall bullying score		6910 divided by the number of respondents (114) = 60.61						

Inference	Presence of workplace bullying established
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Note. * Overall representative variable.

Table 4 analyzed the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised from the raw data exported to Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The columns of the responses were summed up in the order of the questions and as given in the survey instrument. The column totals were extracted as the score for each item in the survey instrument. For instance, for bullying item one, the total score was 279; for bullying item two, the total score was 281, and it continued to the last bullying item 22, which was 306. Item 16 was starred and used as the overall representative variable because it had the highest recorded score. Work-related, person-related, and physically related bullying item scores were extracted from the overall bullying items and scored accordingly. Using the decision rule of the instruments' authors, Notelaers and Einarsen (2013), the analysis of Table 4 suggested that workplace bullying was present among the research participants drawn from different correctional facilities because the bullying score was 45 or greater.

Table 5

Job Satisfaction Analysis

			Intrinsic satisfaction		Extrinsic satisfaction	
Item no.	General satisfaction items	Score	Item no.	Score	Item no.	Score
1.	Being able to keep busy all the time	318	1	318	5	316
2.	The chance to work alone on the job	354	2	354	6	343**

3.	The chance to do different things from time to time	352	3	352	12	336
4.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community	350	4	350	13	320
5.	The way my boss handles his/her workers	316	7	354	14	323
6.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	343	8	384**	19	320
7.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	354	9	376		
8.	The way my job provides for steady employment	384*	10	341		
9.	The chance to do things for other people	376	11	366		
10.	The chance to tell people what to do	341	15	341		
11.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	366	16	326		
12.	The way company policies are put into practice	336	20	344		
13.	My pay and the amount of work I do	320				
14.	The chances for advancement on this job	323				
15.	The freedom to use my own judgment	341				
16.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	326				
17.	The working conditions	337				
18.	The way my co-workers get along with each other	338				

19.	The praise I get for doing a good job	320		
20.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	344		
Total		6839	4206	1958
Percentage of overall satisfaction (%)		$(6839/11400) \times 100 = 59.99$		
Inference		The presence of average satisfaction established		

Note. *Considered only for the general satisfaction; ** Group representative variable.

Table 5 analyzed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)-Short Form. The responses from the survey data were exported to the Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet after data cleaning, just as in all cases with the raw data from the surveys. The column totals were 318 for item number one, 354 for item number two, and 344 for item number 20, the last question in the survey instrument. The single-starred item score was considered only for general satisfaction, while the double-starred item scores represented individual group representative scores. The item values were chosen because maximum satisfaction was recorded in them for this survey. In addition, Weiss et al. (1967) decision rule implied that the respondents had average job satisfaction since their scores were below 75%.

Table 6

Organizational Commitment Analysis

No	Affective commitment scale	Score	Continuance commitment scale	Score	Normative commitment scale	Score
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my	312	Right now, staying with my organization	372**	I do not feel any obligation to remain with	372

	career with this organization		is a matter of necessity as much as desire.		my current employer	
2	I feel as if this organization's problems are my own	359	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	346	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.	367
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	359	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.	348	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	355
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	361*	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.	341	This organization deserves my loyalty	374**
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	354	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	349	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	344
6	This organization has a great deal of	358	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this	340	I owe a great deal to my organization	372

	personal meaning for me		organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives		
Total		2103		2096	2184
Commitment level		61.49 %		61.29 %	63.86%

Note. *Overall representative variable; **Group representative variable.

Table 6 is the Organizational Commitment Analysis data extracted from the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The data for the three sub-groups of affective, continuance, and normative commitment scales were accordingly inputted. The overall and the group representative values were also started accordingly. Meyer and Allen's (2004) decision rule on their instrument suggested that the Affective Organizational Commitment was 61.49% within the population sample. The higher the score, the more committed the employees are to their organization (Meyer & Allen, 2004). There was, therefore, a moderate organizational commitment among the participants.

Table 7

Turnover Intention Analysis

	Overall turnover intension	Score
1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	365
2	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	378
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	359
4	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	399*

5	How likely are you to accept another job, at the same compensation level, should it be offered to you?	382
6	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	362
Total		2245

To determine the desire for turnover intention: $2245/114 = 19.69$

Inference: The presence of turnover intention is established.

Note. *Overall representative variable.

Table 7 shows the Turnover Intention analysis scores. Item number one had a score of 365 from the column total in the spreadsheet. Item number two had a total of 378 and continued as inputted to the last item score of 362. Finally, the representative item score of 399 was starred to indicate which instrument item had the most effect on the population sample under study. Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) analysis depicted that participants desired turnover intention in their facilities since their TIS-6 score was 19.69, well above the 18 benchmarks from the maximum score of 30 (Roodt, 2004). Therefore, the turnover intention was established among the participants, and the raw data was exported from a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to IBM SPSS version 28 to answer the research questions.

Study Results

The Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R), Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)-Short Form, Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), and Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-6) were the four validated instruments used to collect data and answer the research questions. Using IBM SPSS version 28 to conduct data analysis, I calculated the descriptive statistics from the 114 usable surveys. Table 8 contains the

demographic information for the respondents in descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics were expressed in mean, standard error of the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and sum of variables in tabular format.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Variables

		Workplace bullying	Turnover intention	Organizational commitment	Job satisfaction
N	Valid	114	114	114	114
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.07	3.50	3.17	3.37
Std. error of mean		.136	.114	.130	.104
Median		3.00	4.00	3.00	3.00
Mode		5	4	5	3
Std. deviation		1.450	1.221	1.388	1.115
Sum		350	399	361	384

I used IBM SPSS version 28 and applied Pearson's r correlation coefficient to address whether a statistically significant relationship exists between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas. Pearson's r varies between +1 and -1, where +1 is a perfect positive correlation, and -1 is a perfect negative correlation. Zero is no linear correlation. Pearson's r indicates to what extent two quantitative variables are linearly related. The study test samples have already met the two correlation assumptions, namely, the assumption of independent observations and the assumption of normality, meaning that the two variables must follow a bivariate normal distribution in the population under study. This assumption does not apply for sample sizes of $N=25$ or more such as in this research sample size of 114 ($N=114$).

Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas?

H_0 1: There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics in Pearson Correlations to Assess the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Turnover Intention

	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Workplace bullying	3.07	1.450	114
Turnover intention	3.50	1.221	114

Table 9 is the descriptive statistics in Pearson correlations to assess the relationship between workplace bullying (N=114, M=3.07, SD=1.45) and turnover intention (N=114, M=3.50, SD=1.221). N indicates the number of observations, that is, valid responses in the survey. M is the mean of the values, the ratio of the sum of all the observations, and the total number of observations in a data set. Mean is a measure of central tendency. The standard deviation, SD, quantifies the variation or dispersion of a set of data values relative to its mean. The 114 responses in this survey had a mean value of 3.07 for workplace bullying and 3.50 for turnover intention. The standard deviations were 1.45 for workplace bullying and 1.221 for turnover intention.

Table 10

Pearson Correlations to Determine the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Turnover Intention

		Workplace bullying	Turnover intention
Workplace bullying	Pearson correlation	1	-.070
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.459
	N	114	114
Turnover intention	Pearson correlation	-.070	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.459	
	N	114	114

Table 10 showed Pearson correlations to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention. Table 10 indicated a negative correlation without statistical significance ($r = -0.70$, $p > 0.05$). The 2-tailed significance value is .459, well above the standard alpha benchmark of .05. The correlation is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas. The alternate hypothesis was therefore rejected. The alternate hypothesis stated that a statistically significant relationship exists between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

Research Question 2

RQ2: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas?

H_{02} : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

H_{a2} : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics in Pearson Correlations to Assess the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Organizational Commitment

	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Workplace bullying	3.07	1.450	114
Organizational commitment	3.17	1.388	114

Table 11 was the descriptive statistics in Pearson correlations to assess the relationship between workplace bullying (N=114, M=3.07, SD=1.45) and organizational commitment (N=114, M=3.17, SD=1.388). The 114 responses in this survey had a mean value of 3.07 for workplace bullying and 3.17 for organizational commitment. The standard deviations were 1.45 for workplace bullying and 1.388 for turnover intention.

Table 12

Pearson Correlations to Assess the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Organizational Commitment

		Workplace bullying	Organizational commitment
Workplace bullying	Pearson correlation	1	.192*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.041
	N	114	114

Organizational commitment	Pearson correlation	.192*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	
	N	114	114

Note. * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 12 showed Pearson correlations to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment. Table 12 indicated a positive correlation with a statistical significance ($r = .192, p < .041$). The 2-tailed significance value is .041, well below the standard alpha benchmark of .05. Therefore, the correlation was significant. The null hypothesis was rejected: there is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas. The alternate hypothesis was accepted. The alternate hypothesis indicates a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

Research Question 3

RQ3: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

H_{03} : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

H_{a3} : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics in Pearson Correlations to Assess the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Job Satisfaction

	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Workplace bullying	3.07	1.450	114
Job satisfaction	3.37	1.115	114

Table 13 is the descriptive statistics in Pearson correlations to assess the relationship between workplace bullying (N=114, M=3.07, SD=1.45) and job satisfaction (N=114, M=3.37, SD=1.115). The 114 responses in this survey had a mean value of 3.07 for workplace bullying and 3.37 for job satisfaction. The standard deviations were 1.45 for workplace bullying and 1.115 for turnover intention.

Table 14

Pearson Correlations to Assess the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Job Satisfaction

		Workplace bullying	Job satisfaction
Workplace bullying	Pearson correlation	1	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.485
	N	114	114
Job satisfaction	Pearson correlation	.066	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.485	
	N	114	114

Table 14 showed Pearson correlations to determine workplace bullying and job satisfaction. Table 14 indicates a positive correlation without statistical significance ($r =$

.066, $p > 0.05$). The 2-tailed significance value is .485, well above the standard alpha benchmark of .05. The correlation was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The alternate hypothesis was rejected. The alternate hypothesis shows a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Limiting Joint Errors, Assessing Patterns, and Identifying Small Effects

To simultaneously test the equality of means from all the responses, there is the need to compare the p -values in the MANOVA test tables for each term to the significance level. The statistics aim to determine if two or more groups are statistically different from each other on a continuous quantitative scale. MANOVA was designed to look at several dependent variables (outcomes) simultaneously, and so was a multivariate test; it can detect whether groups differ along a combination of dimensions. MANOVA limits joint errors, assesses patterns, and identifies too-small effects. Having met three assumptions of MANOVA, such as (a) observations are randomly and independently sampled from the population, (b) each dependent variable has an interval measurement, and (c) dependent variables are multivariate and normally distributed within each group of the categorical independent variables, I proceeded with MANOVA as per my data analysis plan.

Table 15*General Linear Model of Between Subjects Factors in MANOVA*

		Value label	N
Workplace bullying	1	Never	21
	2	Now and then	24
	3	Monthly	23
	4	Weekly	18
	5	Daily	28

Table 15 provided the general linear model between subjects' factors in MANOVA. Table 15 also shows the value labels and the frequencies. Twenty-one responded that they had never been bullied in the workplace before. Twenty-four participants responded that they had experienced workplace bullying only now and then. The number of participants who experienced workplace bullying every month was 23. Those participants who experienced workplace bullying weekly were 18, while the employees who experienced workplace bullying daily were 28.

Table 16*General Linear Model of Descriptive Statistics in MANOVA*

	Workplace bullying	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Turnover intention	Never	3.43	.978	21
	Now and then	3.63	1.377	24
	Monthly	3.70	1.146	23
	Weekly	3.61	1.378	18
	Daily	3.21	1.228	28
	Total		3.50	1.221

Organizational commitment	Never	2.52	1.327	21
	Now and then	3.21	1.250	24
	Monthly	3.35	1.265	23
	Weekly	3.11	1.605	18
	Daily	3.50	1.427	28
	Total	3.17	1.388	114
Job satisfaction	Never	3.33	.966	21
	Now and then	3.42	1.283	24
	Monthly	3.00	1.243	23
	Weekly	3.61	1.145	18
	Daily	3.50	.923	28
	Total	3.37	1.115	114

Table 16 is valuable descriptive statistics as it provides the mean and standard deviation for the three different dependent variables, which have been affected by the independent variable. Table 16 also provided the sum of each row, allowing means and standard deviations for groups only split by the dependent variable to be known.

Table 17

*General Linear Model of Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a
in MANOVA*

Box's Indicator	Value
M	24.496
F	.957
df1	24.000
df2	27819.406
Sig.	.521

Note: Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups. Design: Intercept + Workplace bullying.

Table 17 shows Box's test of the assumption of the equality of covariance matrices. This statistic is non-significant, $p = .521$ ($> .05$). Hence, the covariance matrices are equal as assumed.

Table 18

General Linear Model of Multivariate Tests in MANOVA

Multivariate Tests^a

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis		Sig.	Partial eta squared
				df	Error df		
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.961	882.319 ^b	3.000	107.000	<.001	.961
	Wilks' Lambda	.039	882.319 ^b	3.000	107.000	<.001	.961
	Hotelling's Trace	24.738	882.319 ^b	3.000	107.000	<.001	.961
	Roy's Largest Root	24.738	882.319 ^b	3.000	107.000	<.001	.961
	Root						
Workplace bullying	Pillai's Trace	.116	1.097	12.000	327.000	.361	.039
	Wilks' Lambda	.888	1.087	12.000	283.387	.371	.039
	Hotelling's Trace	.122	1.074	12.000	317.000	.381	.039
	Roy's Largest Root	.062	1.696 ^c	4.000	109.000	.156	.059
	Root						

a. Design: Intercept + Workplace bullying

b. Exact statistic

c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Table 18 is the multivariate tests table, the main table of results. The column of real interest contains the significant values of the F-ratios. For these data, Pillai's trace ($p = .361$), Wilks's lambda ($p = .371$), Hotelling's trace ($p < .381$), and Roy's largest root ($p < .156$) all did not reach the criterion for significance at the .05 level. The actual result of this one-way MANOVA is found here in this table. Critically observing the lower half of the table labeled workplace bullying, then observing the Wilks' Lambda, the

significance is shown in the column. Table 18 indicates that there is a significant value of .371, which means that $p > .05$. The last column of the table shows the value for partial eta squared, which ranges from 0 to 1, where values closer to 1 indicate a higher proportion of variance that a given variable can explain in the model after accounting for variance explained by other variables in the same model.

Wilks' lambda, a measure of how well each function separates cases into groups, is equal to the proportion of the total variance in the discriminant scores not explained by group differences. Smaller values of Wilks' Lambda indicate the greater discriminatory ability of the function (Mertler et al., 2021). The multivariate tests have proved no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in the population sample, $F(12, 283) = 1.087, p < .005$; Wilk's $W = 0.888$, partial $\eta^2 = .039$.

Table 19

General Linear Model of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances^a in MANOVA

		Levene	df1	df2	Sig.
		statistic			
Turnover intention	Based on mean	.749	4	109	.561
	Based on median	.458	4	109	.766
	Based on median and with adjusted df	.458	4	105.202	.766
	Based on trimmed mean	.703	4	109	.591
Organizational commitment	Based on mean	.880	4	109	.478
	Based on median	.712	4	109	.585
	Based on median and with adjusted df	.712	4	105.329	.585

	Based on trimmed mean	.856	4	109	.493
Job satisfaction	Based on mean	1.506	4	109	.205
	Based on median	1.055	4	109	.383
	Based on median and with adjusted df	1.055	4	98.559	.383
	Based on trimmed mean	1.511	4	109	.204

Note. Tests the null hypothesis on an error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Workplace bullying

Table 19 shows a summary table of Levene's test of equality of variances for each dependent variable. These tests are the same as if a one-way ANOVA had been conducted on each dependent variable. Levene's test is always non-significant for all dependent variables if the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met. The results for these data clearly show that the assumption has been met. This finding strengthens the case for the assumption that the multivariate tests statistics that were carried out in Table 19 are robust.

Table 20

Grand Mean of Dependent Variables in Estimated Marginal Determination Using MANOVA

Dependent variable	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence interval	
			Lower bound	Upper bound
Turnover intention	3.515	.116	3.284	3.746
Organizational commitment	3.138	.130	2.881	3.396
Job satisfaction	3.372	.106	3.163	3.582

Table 21*General Linear Model of Estimated Marginal Means in MANOVA*

Dependent variable	Workplace bullying	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower bound	Upper bound
Turnover intention	Never	3.429	.268	2.897	3.960
	Now and then	3.625	.251	3.128	4.122
	Monthly	3.696	.256	3.188	4.204
	Weekly	3.611	.290	3.037	4.185
	Daily	3.214	.232	2.754	3.675
Organizational commitment	Never	2.524	.299	1.930	3.117
	Now and then	3.208	.280	2.653	3.763
	Monthly	3.348	.286	2.781	3.915
	Weekly	3.111	.323	2.470	3.752
	Daily	3.500	.259	2.986	4.014
Job satisfaction	Never	3.333	.244	2.851	3.816
	Now and then	3.417	.228	2.965	3.868
	Monthly	3.000	.233	2.539	3.461
	Weekly	3.611	.263	3.090	4.132
	Daily	3.500	.211	3.082	3.918

Table 21 displays the model-estimated marginal means and standard errors of workplace bullying at the factor combinations of dependent variables (turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction) and time factor (never, now and then, monthly, weekly, and daily). This table helps explore the possible interaction effect between these two factors. Table 21 shows that at a 95% confidence interval, the mean of employees who experienced turnover intention due to workplace bullying daily was 3.214, while the mean of employees that experienced turnover intention due to

workplace bullying weekly was 3.611. Monthly, the mean of employees who experienced turnover intention due to workplace bullying was 3.611.

The employees who claimed to be bullied now and then experienced turnover intention had a mean of 3.625. The mean of the employees who never experienced workplace bullying and still had turnover intention was 3.429. This same explanation and pattern apply to organizational commitment and job satisfaction, as shown in Table 21. Thus, there is a difference between “daily,” “weekly,” “monthly,” “now and then,” and “never” responded research participants, depending on the independent variable observed. This mean value suggests an interaction effect between independent and dependent variables depending on the time-frequency. If there were no interaction, one would expect the difference between the dependent variables and the time factor to be the same. The interaction can be seen more quickly in the profile plots.

Figure 3

Profile Plot of Estimated Marginal Means of Turnover Intention

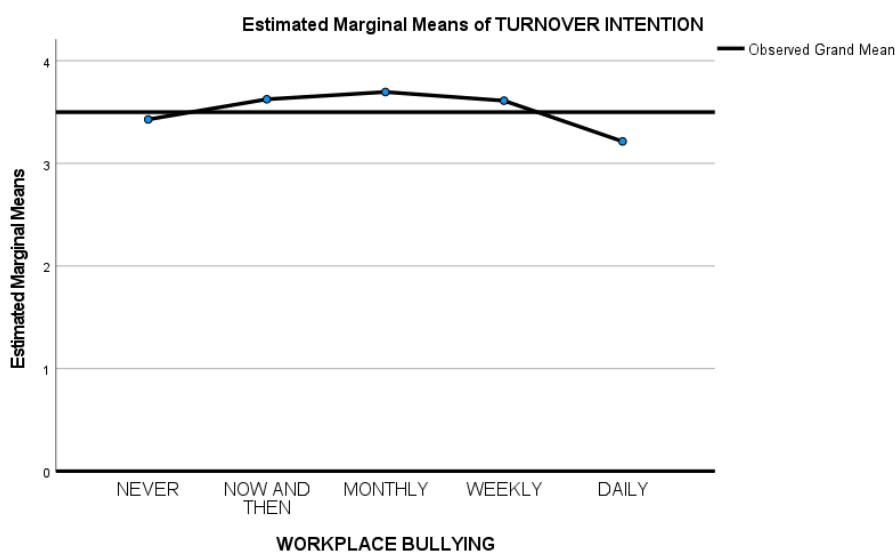
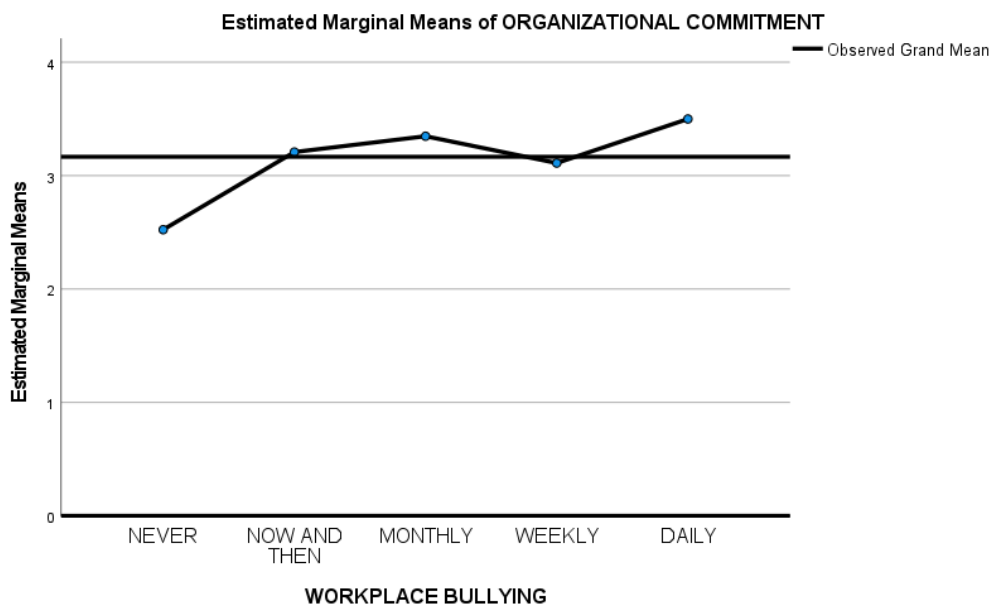
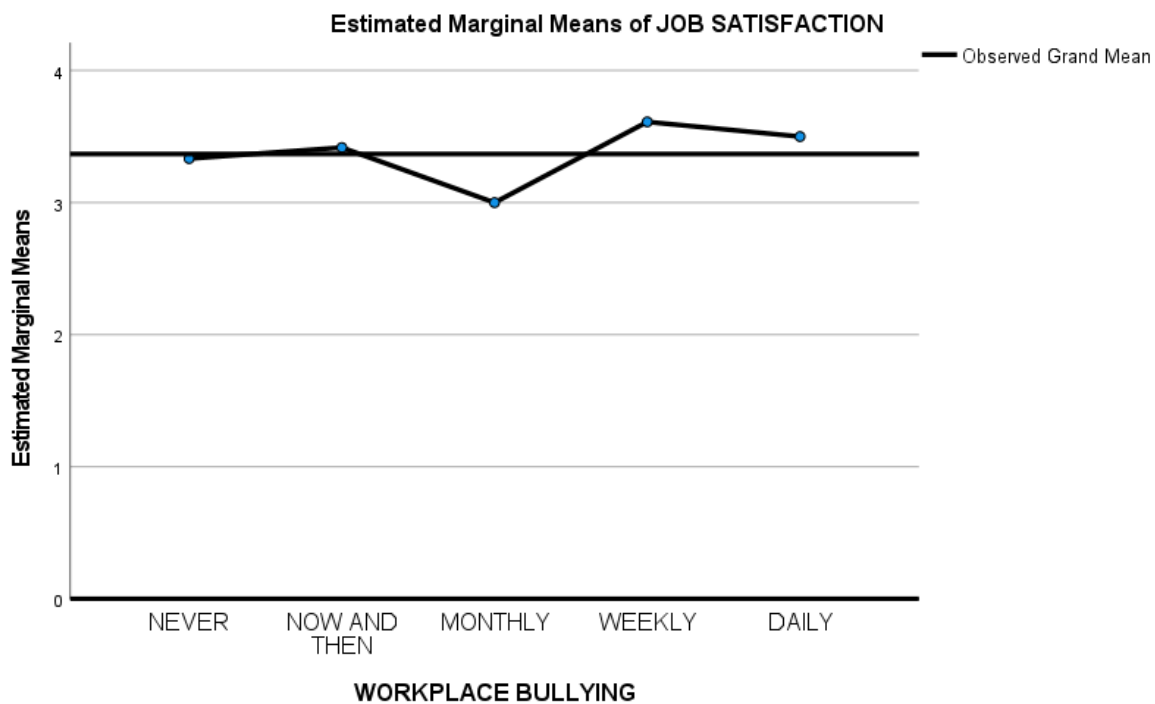


Figure 4

Profile Plot of Estimated Marginal Means of Organizational Commitment

**Figure 5**

Profile Plot of Estimated Marginal Means of Job Satisfaction



Figures 2, 3, and 4 are the profile plots of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. These profile plots are visual representations of the marginal means table. The factor levels of workplace bullying are shown along the horizontal axis. Separate lines are produced for each level of the dependent variable investigated. If there were no interaction effect, the lines in the table would parallel each other. The profile plots show that the difference in mean turnover intention (Figure 2) interacts with the time factor that workplace bullying occurs. The line slopes downwards and upwards, intersecting the line of the dependent variable's grand marginal mean (Table 20). This plot explanation applies to organizational commitment (Figure 3) and job satisfaction (Figure 4). The plot depicts a strong interaction effect and is unlikely to be due to chance. The statistical significance can only be ascertained from tests of Pairwise Comparisons.

Table 22

General Linear Model of Pairwise Comparisons in MANOVA

Dependent variable	(I) Workplace bullying	(J) Workplace bullying	Mean		Sig. ^b	95% Confidence interval for difference ^b	
			difference (I-J)	Std. error		Lower bound	Upper bound
Turnover intention	Never	Now And Then	-.196	.367	.594	-.924	.531
		Monthly	-.267	.371	.473	-1.002	.468
		Weekly	-.183	.395	.645	-.965	.600
		Daily	.214	.355	.547	-.489	.917
	Now And Then	Never	.196	.367	.594	-.531	.924
		Monthly	-.071	.359	.844	-.781	.640
		Weekly	.014	.383	.971	-.746	.773
		Daily	.411	.342	.232	-.267	1.088
	Monthly	Never	.267	.371	.473	-.468	1.002

		Now And Then	.071	.359	.844	-.640	.781
		Weekly	.085	.387	.827	-.682	.851
		Daily	.481	.346	.167	-.204	1.167
	Weekly	Never	.183	.395	.645	-.600	.965
		Now And Then	-.014	.383	.971	-.773	.746
		Monthly	-.085	.387	.827	-.851	.682
		Daily	.397	.371	.288	-.339	1.133
	Daily	Never	-.214	.355	.547	-.917	.489
		Now And Then	-.411	.342	.232	-1.088	.267
		Monthly	-.481	.346	.167	-1.167	.204
		Weekly	-.397	.371	.288	-1.133	.339
Organizational commitment	Never	Now And Then	-.685	.410	.098	-1.497	.128
		Monthly	-.824*	.414	.049	-1.645	-.003
		Weekly	-.587	.441	.185	-1.461	.286
		Daily	-.976*	.396	.015	-1.761	-.191
	Now And Then	Never	.685	.410	.098	-.128	1.497
		Monthly	-.139	.400	.728	-.933	.654
		Weekly	.097	.428	.821	-.751	.945
		Daily	-.292	.382	.446	-1.048	.465
	Monthly	Never	.824*	.414	.049	.003	1.645
		Now And Then	.139	.400	.728	-.654	.933
		Weekly	.237	.432	.585	-.619	1.092
		Daily	-.152	.386	.694	-.917	.613
	Weekly	Never	.587	.441	.185	-.286	1.461
		Now And Then	-.097	.428	.821	-.945	.751
		Monthly	-.237	.432	.585	-1.092	.619
		Daily	-.389	.415	.350	-1.210	.433
	Daily	Never	.976*	.396	.015	.191	1.761
		Now And Then	.292	.382	.446	-.465	1.048
		Monthly	.152	.386	.694	-.613	.917
		Weekly	.389	.415	.350	-.433	1.210
Job satisfaction	Never	Now And Then	-.083	.333	.803	-.744	.578
		Monthly	.333	.337	.325	-.334	1.001
		Weekly	-.278	.358	.440	-.988	.433
		Daily	-.167	.322	.606	-.805	.472

Now And Then	Never	.083	.333	.803	-.578	.744
	Monthly	.417	.326	.203	-.229	1.062
	Weekly	-.194	.348	.577	-.884	.495
	Daily	-.083	.310	.789	-.699	.532
Monthly	Never	-.333	.337	.325	-1.001	.334
	Now And Then	-.417	.326	.203	-1.062	.229
	Weekly	-.611	.351	.085	-1.307	.085
	Daily	-.500	.314	.114	-1.123	.123
Weekly	Never	.278	.358	.440	-.433	.988
	Now And Then	.194	.348	.577	-.495	.884
	Monthly	.611	.351	.085	-.085	1.307
	Daily	.111	.337	.742	-.557	.779
Daily	Never	.167	.322	.606	-.472	.805
	Now And Then	.083	.310	.789	-.532	.699
	Monthly	.500	.314	.114	-.123	1.123
	Weekly	-.111	.337	.742	-.779	.557

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

In Table 22, looking at the pairwise comparisons table, under the mean difference (I-J) column, it can be observed that organizational commitment was affected by workplace bullying daily and monthly and had a significant mean difference at .05% and a 95% confidence interval. These values are, by default, starred by IBM SPSS version 28.

Summary

This study examined the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. After entering the data into IBM SPSS version 28, this research accepted the null hypothesis that there

are no statistically significant relationships between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

The analysis of the three research questions indicated that:

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.
2. There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.
3. There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

Chapter 5 summarizes the study and concludes the data presented in Chapter 4 by reviewing each research question and hypothesis compared to past research in Chapter 2. Finally, chapter 5 includes a review of the limitations of this study, recommendations for further research and action, and the potential for social change.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The last chapter of this research includes a synthesis of the research findings from the study. The findings with the study's guiding theoretical framework of social exchange and social capital theories are integrated in Chapter 5. I have examined a synopsis of the problem, study purpose, and discussion of the theoretical model as it relates to the current study. Limitations of the study, implications for social change, and suggestions for future research conclude this chapter. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study is to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. This study applied a quantitative research methodology using IBM SPSS version 28 to analyze the data collected from 114 correctional employees (male = 58; female = 55; others = 1) working in a full-time capacity in correctional facilities in Texas. The study included management employees ($N = 30$), operations employees ($N = 37$), specialists ($N = 21$), technical staff ($N = 19$), and contract staff ($N = 7$) with 6 months or more experience in the correctional setting. The participants represented different correctional facilities (see Table 4). This study's results revealed at the first instance of correlational analysis that: (a) A negative correlation without a statistically significant relationship ($M = 3.50$, $r = -.070$, $p = .459$) exists between workplace bullying and turnover intention. (b) A positive correlation with a statistically significant relationship ($M = 3.17$, $r = .192$, $p = .041$) exists between workplace bullying and organizational commitment. (c) A positive correlation without a

statistically significant relationship ($M = 3.37$, $r = .066$, $p = .485$) did exist between workplace bullying and job satisfaction.

However, further analysis to simultaneously test the equality of means from all the responses and using MANOVA revealed a different result. The multivariate tests upheld the null hypotheses that there were no statistically significant relationships existing between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in the population sample, $F(12, 283) = 1.087$, $p < .005$; Wilk's $W = 0.888$, partial $\eta^2 = .039$, thus, rejecting the alternate hypotheses. The alternate hypothesis stated statistically significant relationships existed between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in the population sample. In this chapter, I further described the meaning of the findings, limitations, implications for social change, and recommendations for future research in workplace bullying and turnover, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in a correctional setting.

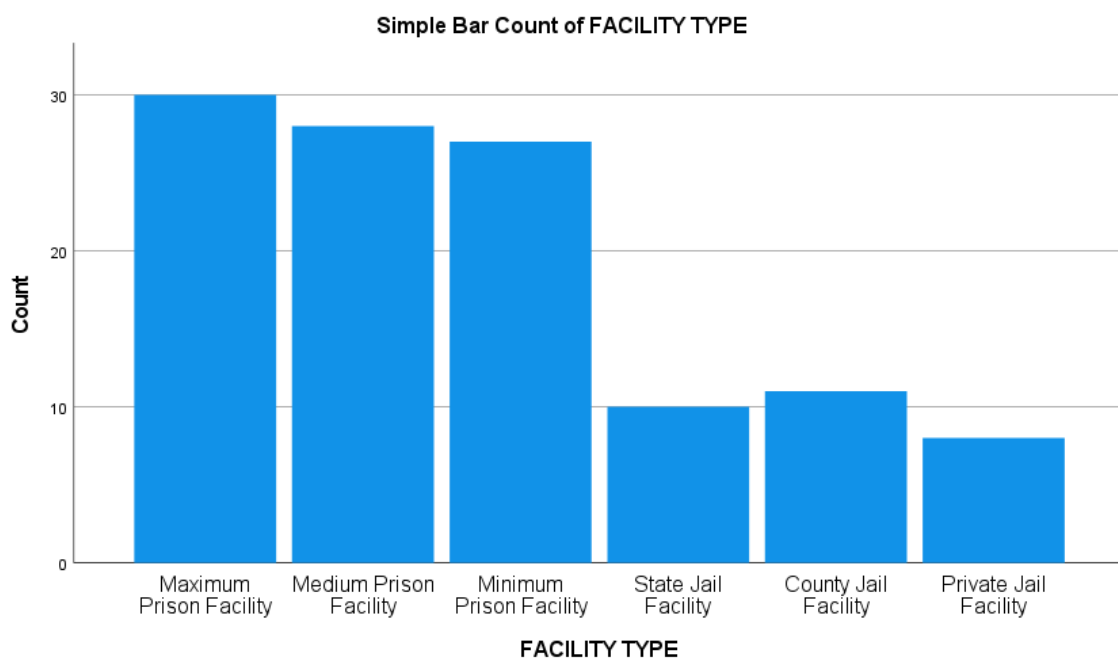
Interpretation of Findings

This research study's findings and conclusions aligned with the literature presented in Chapter 2. The study found consistencies and inconsistencies with research, as explained in Chapter 2, and highlighted the difficulty in assessing the effect workplace bullying has on employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave correctional employment. Previous related research on this topic centered on how and the extent to which different perspectives of workplace bullying occur in an organization, such as the use of abusive, insulting, or offensive language toward their

victims and leaving them out of important work meetings (Keashly, 1998; Zapf et al., 1996). My current research extended to the facilities. The graph of facility response to workplace bullying in Figure 6 showed that employees in maximum prison facilities indicated more enthusiasm to research workplace bullying than the others. The higher interest may represent a higher prevalence rate of workplace bullying in those facilities than in others.

Figure 6

Facility Response to Workplace Bullying



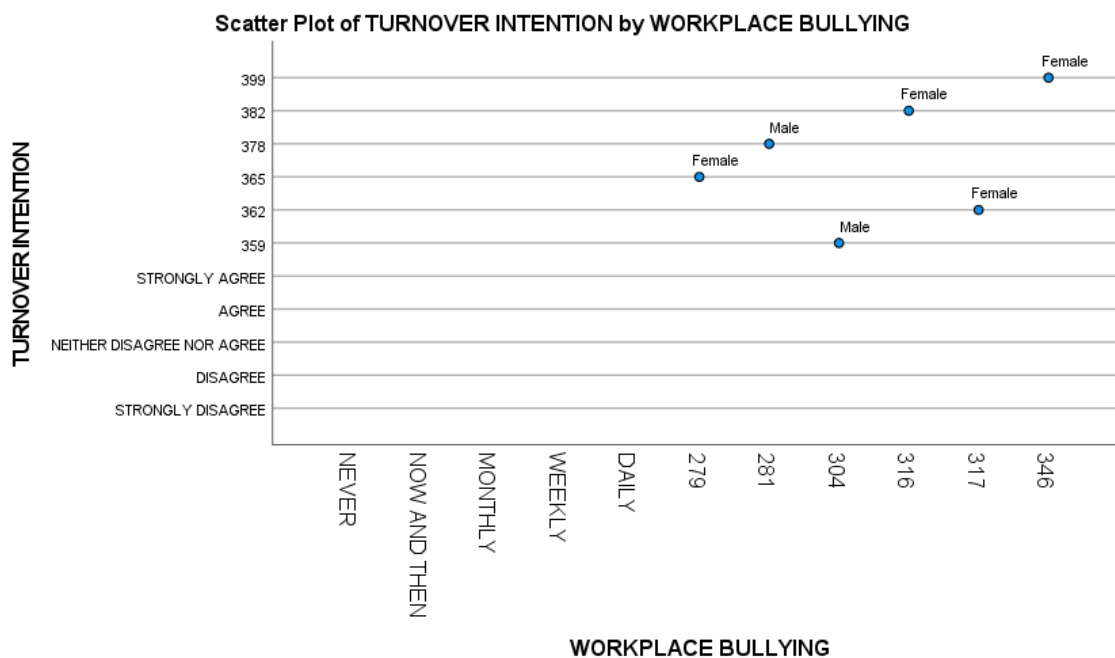
A maximum security correctional facility is a grade of high-security level used by the prison system to prevent prisoners from escaping and harming themselves, other inmates, or correctional employees because they pose a higher security threat. High-security level institutions have highly secured perimeters featuring walls or reinforced

fences, multiple-and single-occupant cell housing, the highest staff-to-inmate ratio, and close control of inmate movement. Bullies leave their victims out of social circles or functions at work while giving them an amount of work that is not realistic (Muller et al., 2019; Namie & Namie, 2003). Bullies give out jobs that are impossible to perform within the given period and do not give out information or necessary tools for the same task to be completed successfully. Ansoleaga et al. (2019) explained that female workers were more exposed to workplace vulnerability and presented a higher prevalence of psychological distress than their male counterparts. Through the present study (see Figure 7), I have confirmed Ansoleaga et al.'s previous findings and added to the understanding of why female employees leave their jobs more frequently than their male counterparts. Likewise, this study has revealed that most bullying behaviors in the corrections are from the superiors to the subordinates (vertically downward bullying), accounting for 32.5% of all such cases. Employees bullying each other who are not their superiors (horizontal bullying) account for 23.7% of all bullying cases in the corrections (Table 24). Subordinates also bully their superiors in the correctional facility at 10.5%, as shown in Table 23.

Table 1

Perpetrators of Workplace Bullying Behaviors

Who bullied	N	%
Colleague	27	23.7
Subordinate	12	10.5
Superior	37	32.5
All of the above	18	15.8
None of the above	20	17.5

Figure 7*Gender Response to Workplace Bullying*

Note: Female employees suffer more workplace bullying than men and a higher turnover intention rate.

The harmful acts of the bullies and the victims were the primary goals of early research on workplace bullying. These harmful acts of the bullies and the earlier research were primarily on the victim. The social capital theory was used in this research to understand the motivations for bullying, the negative impact bullying has on victims, and the organizational culture's role in bullying. For example, bullies who can effectively use intimidation and humiliation tactics often become the leaders of their cliques (Pellegrini et al., 1999). Through current research, I have considered these negative acts, their organizational impacts, and their social change implications. In understanding the origins and outcomes of workplace bullying, the Bronfenbrenner ecological systems theory is a

useful tool (Johnson, 2011). This theory describes a human being's development as the interaction between biological qualities and relationships with different environments that operate at various levels. These levels include the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem (see Figure 1).

Bronfenbrenner's (1979, 1989) ecological system theory has enabled the foundational understanding of workplace bullying within the context of multiple factors at distinct levels and characteristics. Similarly, Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory addressed workplace relationships concerning bullying, linking, bridging, and bonding. The findings of this study have helped to extend the current knowledge in correctional and human resources disciplines. This research contributed to existing knowledge, theory, and understanding of how workplace bullying affects productivity, how workplace bullying influences employee performance, and the overall functions of human resources management in a correctional setting. The responses from the 114 employee participants to the Likert-type questions reflected no statistical significance between workplace bullying and turnover intention. The result of the responses did not indicate any statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction. However, workplace bullying and organizational commitment have a statistically significant relationship. Employees are the most excellent capital resource of any organization, and an organization's success depends on the employees' job satisfaction, affective commitment, and employee retention (Mokgolo & Barnard, 2019; Pelletier, 2016). Workplace bullying does not encourage employee outcomes; therefore, human resource professionals are challenged to focus employees on the job and create a

person-environment fit (Einarsen et al., 2017; Giorgi, 2012). The statistical analysis of the data supported the arguments presented in Chapter 2.

Research Question 1

RQ1: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas?

H_0 1: There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a 1: There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas.

The descriptive statistics in Pearson correlations to assess the relationship between workplace bullying ($N=114$, $M=3.07$, $SD=1.45$) and turnover intention ($N=114$, $M=3.50$, $SD=1.221$) indicate a negative correlation without a statistical significance ($r = -0.70$, $p = .459 > 0.05$). The application of statistical analysis to determine if any significant relationship exists between workplace and turnover intention revealed no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention among corrections employees in Texas among the sampled population. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted, and the alternate hypothesis is rejected. However, the finding does not conclude that employees are not experiencing turnover intention; instead, the turnover rate resulting from bullying is not statistically significant enough. Leaning on the advice of the author of the NAQ-R survey instrument (Einarsen et al., 2009) to determine the presence of workplace bullying in the individuals sampled, I

established that workplace bullying was present in the sampled population ($WB = 60.61 > 45$, Table 4). The application of statistical analysis faulted the face value analysis.

Similarly, leaning on the advice of the author of the turnover intention (TIS-6) survey instrument (Roodt, 2004) on scoring, I established through the current study that there is a desire for the turnover intention in the population sampled ($TI = 19.69 < 18$, Table 9). This scoring advice also cannot withstand statistical significance among the population sample. Workplace bullying influences (Humair & Ejaz, 2019; Magee et al., 2017) and triggers (Ahmad & Kaleem, 2020) turnover intention. However, national culture moderates these effects such that the impact of workplace bullying on well-being and turnover intentions is weaker for cultures oriented toward collectivism (for instance, Pakistan and China) than individualism (for example, The United States and Australia). As discussed in Chapter 2, the frontline managers in the public sector, policing profession, and corrections inclusive, use obnoxious bully minions to achieve strategic goals (Farr-Wharton et al., 2017). Thus, it may not be fully out of place that researching workplace bullying and drawing the sample from such a population would not be significant statistically. Organizational culture and climate play a role in the prevalence of bullying (Bourdieu, 1986; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Homans, 1958; Putnam, 1995).

Some factors other than workplace bullying will contribute to employees' turnover intention. Such factors are human resources practices, sabotage, perceived lack of organizational support, infighting, perceived lack of supervisor support, stress, health condition, age, and lack of positive psychological capital. The theoretical frameworks for this study were Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social

capital theory. Social exchange theory suggests that individuals weigh the benefits of their interactions. According to the theory, individuals will stay in relationships when the benefits outweigh the cost. Also, individuals will not stay in relationships when the benefit is less than the cost. The application of social exchange theory to this study is based on the concepts of justice, psychological contract breach, and perceived organizational support (Parzefall & Stalin, 2010) to mitigate turnover intention.

Research Question 2

RQ2: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas?

H₀2: There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

H_a2: There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas.

What is the relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas? Before answering this vital research question, it must first be established that organizational commitment exists within the population sample pool. The scoring of the commitment scale set by the publishers puts the scoring value high for a higher level of organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). The affective commitment was 61.49%, continuance commitment was 61.29%, and normative commitment was 63.86% for the face-value of organizational commitment on the three components to draw an inference from Table 8. These values for

organizational commitment level are above average among the population sample; nonetheless, organizational commitment was established at face value.

Statistically, there was a significant positive relationship between the two variables by analyzing the survey data for the relationship between workplace bullying and affective organizational commitment using IBM SPSS version 28 in Pearson correlation coefficient. The statistical test values in Table 12 indicate a positive correlation with a significance ($r = .192, p = .041 < .05$). The 2-tailed significance value is .041, well below the standard alpha benchmark of .05. The null hypothesis was rejected because there is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas. The alternate hypothesis was accepted that there is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and organizational commitment among corrections employees in Texas. Though workplace bullying is one of the significant factors of organizational commitment (Einarsen et al., 2017; Humair & Ejaz, 2019; Magee et al., 2017), positive attitude (Gutshall et al., 2017) and emotions (Gillen et al., 2017), other factors do affect organizational commitment. Individual characteristics, compensation, and job satisfaction significantly influence employees' affective organizational commitment. Organizations that use social exchange theory and social capital theory tend to generate a more effective and committed workforce than not. The reason is that these theories might help people understand relationships well, why some relationships work when others fail, and explain communication and interaction within such organizations. These theories may help in understanding the factors governing interaction in humans. Homans (1958) suggested

that these interaction factors are profit, cost, reward, and net outcome. These factors are what sustain organizational commitment.

Research Question 3

RQ3: What is the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas?

H_{03} : There is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

H_{a3} : There is a statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and employee job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas.

The third research question is about the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)* Short Form (Appendix C) was used to measure job satisfaction in the sampled group. The instrument publishers approved the scoring key table (Appendix J) for the face value determination of individual job satisfaction. When the values were computed, the general job satisfaction was 59.99%, indicating average satisfaction (Table 5). The calculated figure is a bare face value indicating the presence of job satisfaction in the sampled group at the level shown. The third research question was answered since both variables are established within the sampled group.

Statistically, using IBM SPSS version 28 and Pearson correlation analysis to answer this relationship question, it is seen in Table 14 workplace bullying ($N=114$, $M=3.07$, $SD=1.45$) and job satisfaction ($N=114$, $M=3.37$, $SD=1.115$). Table 14 indicated a positive correlation without statistical significance ($r = .066$, $p = .485 > 0.05$). The 2-

tailed significance value of .485 is well above the standard alpha benchmark of .05, which means the correlation is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted that there is no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. The alternate hypothesis was rejected.

Employees are the organization's most excellent capital resource, and the organization's success depends on the employees' job satisfaction (Mokgolo & Barnard, 2019; Pelletier, 2016). Job satisfaction is essential to employee motivation and encouragement toward better performance. Dissatisfaction is infectious and will quickly spread to other employees, affecting the morale and working of those employees and the organization's image. A dissatisfied worker may seriously cause damage to the reputation and property of the organization and harm its business interest (Sree & Satyavathi, 2017). Job satisfaction is a function of many factors aside from workplace bullying. The job satisfaction/dissatisfaction factors are related to the present job situation, such as the work environment, management, reward, and opportunities. Several attitudes, personality, and organizational variables are associated with variations in levels of staff job satisfaction. Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory are used to explaining the gains in maximizing benefits, reducing relationship costs, and encouraging a stable work environment. These theories are more relevant to organizations that have a satisfied workforce.

Job satisfaction may lead to cost reduction by reducing absences, task errors, conflicts at work, and turnover. As work is an essential aspect of people's lives and most

people spend a large part of their adult lives at work, understanding the factors involved in job satisfaction is crucial to improving employees' performance and productivity. Job security (Hong et al., 2013), opportunities to make use of skills and abilities (Kabir & Parvin, 2011), people management, compensation/pay (Neog & Barua, 2014), supervisor support (Neog & Barua, 2014), and working environmental conditions. The other factors of job satisfaction are job characteristics (Kumari et al., 2014), relationship with co-workers, job duties, flexibility to balance life and work issues, and educational qualifications.

MANOVA

To detect whether groups differ along a combination of dimensions, I employed multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). By so doing, he detected more minor effects that would have passed without notice and assessed patterns between multiple dependent variables. In addition, I reduced the joint error rate so that a true null hypothesis would not be rejected by mistake. The MANOVA tests conducted in this study did not find any significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: Pillai's trace ($p = .361$), Wilks's lambda ($p = .371$), Hotelling's trace ($p < .381$), and Roy's largest root ($p < .156$) all did not reach the criterion for significance at the .05 level. In addition, the multivariate tests proved no statistically significant relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in the population sample, $F(12, 283) = 1.087, p < .005$; Wilk's $W = 0.888$, partial $\eta^2 = .039$. As discussed earlier, other factors would have contributed to the raw face value results.

The MANOVA tests I carried out were robust and met the assumption of homogeneity of variance, as seen in Levene's test. However, it also detected smaller effects that would have passed unnoticed. For instance, in pairwise comparison analysis, the mean difference is significant at the probability of .05% level and 95% confidence interval because employees' affective organizational commitment was affected by workplace bullying daily (MD = -.927 - .927) and monthly (MD = -.824 - .824) were shown to have a mean significant difference at .05% and 95% confidence interval. The Profile Plots of the Estimated Marginal Means showed some patterns in the means. The intersection of the lines indicates some measure of interactions between the variables shown on the x-axis. The intersection explains the significance indicated in the pairwise comparison in Table 23.

Limitations of the Study

The research was conducted in one industry, corrections; thus, the study's findings cannot be generalized for all sectors. A sub-scale of the Organizational Commitment Scale was used (Affective Commitment Scale) and not the whole questionnaire, which led to the other dimensions of commitment not being investigated during the current study. The study results are limited by the honesty of the participants' responses. The recruitment methodology included convenience sampling to identify potential participants of correctional employees working in a correctional facility in Texas. The sampling methodology can lead to under-representation or overrepresentation of specific groups within the population. Excluding the correctional employees working outside the State of Texas affected this study by limiting the generalizability of results to other States

in the United States and regions in the world. The findings cannot be used on employees in other countries or individuals because of the differences that may characterize various cultures and races. Considering the study results as suggestive of other populations should be done carefully because of these gaps and differences.

Additionally, the study was cross-sectional, where the data was gathered at a particular time, restricting the variables from being measured over time. A dataset gathered at a single point in time could be influenced by incidents such as changes in organizational leadership or structure that may cause the relationships investigated to vary over time. Furthermore, the study design did not allow for analysis of the behaviors of leadership styles and organizational culture over time, which could have provided insight into whether there is an actual cause-and-effect relationship. Due to the study's cross-sectional nature, the findings cannot support the causal conclusion. The data was collected in a self-reported online survey. Due to the self-reported nature of the survey, the correctional employees' responses may not have reflected their accurate perceptions of workplace bullying behaviors and human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The study included the appropriate participants and target sample size; however, the analysis did not account for those participants who dropped out of the study. Statistical controls were not used to address the non-responders, limiting the ability to generalize the results to the correctional employees working in Texas correctional facilities who chose not to participate in the study. Another limitation was the type of questionnaires administered. The reliance on self-report questionnaires was a limitation of deception-related research.

Self-report methods are principally biased because the participants are assumed to have self-awareness and insight to obtain unbiased responses.

Recommendations

Based on the study's findings, there should be further research into workplace bullying and its impact on human resources outcome measures such as turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction in a correctional setting. Further research should be focused on employees in different geographic regions of the United States and other countries. Employees in other geographic regions may be affected by factors other than those in the southeastern region of the United States. Future research should also expand the study to different industries besides the correctional sector. The findings of a study using other professionals may have different results. Managers of those professionals can use these results to implement strategies to mitigate workplace bullying.

In the study, I used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire–Short Form (MSQ), Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R), Organizational Commitment Scale (OCS), and Turnover Intention Scale-6 (TIS-6) to collect data. Future studies can use different instruments to collect data. Some additional instruments include the job satisfaction survey (Spector, 1985), the descriptive job index (Smith et al., 1969), and the intent to leave the job survey (Hom et al., 1984). Researchers who use these additional instruments may have findings that differ from or are like the current study's findings. In addition, these researchers may find other factors that reduce or eliminate workplace bullying on human resources management outcomes of corrections which may not have

been addressed in the current study. I also recommended that research focus on other factors affecting employee turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. One such factor may be the leadership style. In a correctional facility where employees perceive their leaders to have bullying traits, a quasi-experimental design could determine if proper supervisor training improves the work environment and reduces workplace bullying. Researchers should also use a different design when conducting future quantitative studies. A correlational design does not necessarily imply causation between the variables. Quasi-experimental designs establish cause-effect relationships among the variables (Curtis et al., 2016). Conducting future research using a quasi-experimental design would address the limitation of causation. This further research would help policymakers understand the impact of workplace bullying on human resources outcome measures in corrections and decrease the staff turnover rate.

This study is a foundation for creating a model to identify mitigating factors to workplace bullying in corrections. Additional research with larger sample sizes and focused on specific industries could help to determine if different sectors would increase the statistical significance of factors contributing to human resources outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Another recommendation for future research is a qualitative study that could be conducted within specific correctional facilities to understand better workplace bullying in a correctional setting to address employee turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. While this study's findings did not yield statistically significant results, future researchers should not discard them. Instead, the no significance in the two

hypotheses should spark an additional investigation into what variables, or a combination thereof, will show significance with workplace bullying. The goal is to give zero tolerance for toxic behavior.

Implications

The findings of this study could help human resources management create positive social change by reducing workplace bullying. Victims of workplace bullying experience an increased risk of poor physical and mental health, including measures of cardiovascular disease, posttraumatic stress, and depression (Attell et al., 2017). An organization's commitment to employee well-being may reduce workplace bullying (De Cieri et al., 2019). Human resource practices can be relevant and strategic in improving employees' well-being and increasing individual performance (Maccagnan et al., 2019; Salas-Vallina et al., 2021). Human resources management and correctional supervisors can use strategies identified in the current study to create a more favorable work environment. Reducing workplace bullying may lead to more productive employees and more efficient organizations.

Implications for Social Change

Workplace bullying does not become an organizational problem overnight (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Leadership that ignores malicious behavior enables workplace bullying and unhealthy behavior to grow until it can destroy the organization's potential. Applying a humane and ethical leader curtailing workplace bullying is consistent with Power et al.'s (2013) conclusion that more humane cultures find workplace bullying unacceptable. Workplace bullying is not coming only from leaders to

subordinates; it can go both ways (vertical bullying). In addition, workplace bullying can accompany employees of the same ranking or job function (horizontal bullying). Both vertical and horizontal bullying were observed in the survey data. This study has implications for social change by giving correctional employees a voice to publicly share their vulnerable position of being bullied in the workplace either vertically, horizontally, or never. The study may also help human resources managers in correctional facilities to identify training needs, improve employee retention, and create a harmonious work environment and profitable organization for the owners, thus contributing to positive social change.

Theoretical Implications

The foundation of this study was grounded on Homans's (1958) social exchange theory and Bourdieu's (1986) social capital theory. Due to the complexity of bullying, multiple theories are needed to fully clarify this social dynamic and understand what motivates workplace bullying. These theories addressed the adverse victim outcomes associated with bullying and explained how organizations could mitigate the prevalence of bullying. These theories helped the study fulfill its original purpose of determining the relationship between workplace bullying and human resources management outcome measures of turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. Homans addressed relationships and human behavior regarding workplace bullying in the social exchange theory. The main functionality of social exchange theory is cost versus benefits. Social capital refers to the benefits gained from social relationships (Putnam, 1995). Victims of workplace bullying lack social

capital, intensifying and prolonging their victimization experiences. Victims of bullying usually have few friends or social ties and, therefore, have minimal social capital, which prevents them from exiting their role as victims (Evans & Smokowski, 2015). The social capital theory was used in this research to understand the motivations for bullying, the negative impact bullying has on victims, and the organizational culture's role in bullying. Schein (1983) noted that leaders could create, change, and affect organizational culture. Therefore, positive and negative culture patterns will filter the organization to new and old employees. Sometimes the negative culture is viewed as acceptable behavior. The results of this study confirm, align, and advance the theories on which the current research is grounded. As the participants indicated in this study's raw face value analysis, they experienced workplace bullying (Table 4) and turnover intention (Table 7).

Practical Implications

Several practical implications evolved from the insights of this study. First, if applied, the practical implications could help leaders mitigate workplace bullying and assist in changing a negative culture to a positive organizational culture. Second, human resources management of corrections can establish or revise workplace policies to include the word 'bullying' and initiate workplace bullying awareness campaigns. Third, human resources management of corrections can invest in workplace bullying training adapted to each audience, for instance, executives, managers, and other staff. Finally, improving performance management strategies that include behavioral components enhances workplace culture and will be a practical implication to practice.

Addressing unruly behavior immediately and setting a solid leadership example, with the caution of avoiding the human resources management office becoming the bullying complaint office, is a practical implication. The establishment of an investigation process that is impartial, fair, and fulsome will be beneficial. Taking bullying claims seriously and cautiously and using conflict resolution processes sensitive to the power dynamic and the nature of victim and aggressor relationships will be a practical step. There are many things human resources management of corrections can do to confront bullying, motivate change, and help implement an anti-bullying strategy. As trusted advisors to senior executives, human resources management is a critical pivot point for organizational change. Human resources management has the persuasive power to wield and help eliminate workplace bullying. The persuasive power of human resources management can gainfully mitigate workplace bullying.

Conclusions

The topic of workplace bullying typically does not become necessary to individuals until they or their loved ones become victims. Employees may try to cope silently because the bullying may be covert and never addressed by organizational leaders. Organizational leaders may need to help employees address bullying behaviors and make changes (USLegal.com, 2011). “Organizations that fail to recognize and deal effectively with the problem of workplace anger may end up with even more serious problems; a company may even be legally liable if they allow a hostile environment to persist” (USLegal.com, 2011, p. 2). Whether or not correctional facilities have taken any

action to combat bullying, it is comforting to know that each facility could do so within the confines of its mandate.

There are experts to help, training and tools readily available, and many online resources to guide the way toward making workplace bullying a zero-tolerance. Making workplace bullying a zero-tolerance requires investment, committed leadership, and a sincere desire to implement change; however, the investment is small compared to the risk that correctional organizations are eliminating. Human resources management can play a significant role in leading the effort to stop workplace bullying. Focusing on the business reasons for eliminating workplace bullying can make change happen. There is a possibility to demonstrate how much bullying costs an organization's requirement for human resources management by providing the chief executive officers and presidents of correctional institutions with the data and financial case for doing away with bullying in the workplace.

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Appendix A: Screening and Demographic Details of the Respondents

Age (years)	Gender	Race	Job tenure (years)	Education	Marital Status	Job function level	Facility type
20–29	Male	Black	< 6 Months	High school or less	Single	Management	Maximum prison
30–39	Female	White	6 Months -5 years	Post high school diploma	Married or cohabiting	Operations	Medium prison
40–49	Others	Hispanic	6–10	Associate degree	Divorced or separated	Specialist	Minimum prison
50–59		Asian	11–15	Bachelor's degree	Widowed	Technical	State jail
60+		Others	16–20	Graduate degree		Contract	County jail
			20+				Private jail

Survey Scale Questionnaires

Please read each question carefully and tick the number corresponding to the response that most accurately represents your view. There are no right or wrong answers to any opinion-related items (questions). You are only requested to provide your honest opinion. The questionnaires contain 4 scale response prompts: Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R); Job Satisfaction; Organizational Commitment; and Intention to Stay.

Appendix B: Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)

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

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

1 = Never; 2 = Now and Then; 3 = Monthly; 4 = Weekly; 5 = Daily

During the past six months:

1	Someone withholding information that affects your performance	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
2	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
3	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
4	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
5	Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
6	Being ignored or excluded (being 'sent to Coventry')	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
7	Have insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (that is, habits and background), your attitudes, or your private life	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
8	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
9	Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
10	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
11	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
12	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
13	A persistent criticism of your work and effort	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
14	Having your opinions and views ignored	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily

15	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
16	Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
17	Having allegations made against you	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
18	Excessive monitoring of your work	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
19	Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g., sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
20	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
21	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 – 5	Daily
22	Threats of violence, physical abuse, or actual abuse	Never	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Daily

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

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

- (a) No _ (b) Yes, but only rarely _ (c) Yes, now and then _
 (d) Yes, several times per week _ (e) Yes, almost daily _

Using the above definition, please state by ticking whom you have experienced bullying at work, in any form, over the last six months?

- (a) Colleague ----
 (b) Subordinate ---
 (c) Superior -----

Appendix C: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ)* Short Form

Ask yourself: How satisfied am I with this aspect of my job?

1 = Not Satisfied

2 = Somewhat Satisfied

3 = Satisfied

4 = Very Satisfied

5 = Extremely Satisfied

For this research, Community denotes the correctional facility or organization that you work for.

At my present job, this is how I feel about . . .

		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Being able to keep busy all the time					
2.	The chance to work alone on the job					
3.	The chance to do different things from time to time					
4.	The chance to be "somebody" in the community					
5.	The way my boss handles his/her workers					
6.	The competence of my supervisor in making decisions					
7.	Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience					
8.	The way my job provides for steady employment					
9.	The chance to do things for other people					
10.	The chance to tell people what to do					
11.	The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities					
12.	The way company policies are put into practice					
13.	My pay and the amount of work I do					
14.	The chances for advancement on this job					
15.	The freedom to use my own judgment					
16.	The chance to try my own methods of doing the job					

17.	The working conditions					
18.	The way my co-workers get along with each other					
19.	The praise I get for doing a good job					
20.	The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job					

Addendum

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Brodsky, 1976).

Appendix D: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

During the past six months:

Affective Commitment Scale				
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
2	I feel as if this organization's problems are my own	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
Continuance Commitment Scale				
1	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
2	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
3	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
4	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
5	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
6	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
Normative Commitment Scale				

1	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
2	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
3	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
4	This organization deserves my loyalty	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
5	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree
6	I owe a great deal to my organization	Strongly Disagree	1 – 2 -- 3 – 4 -- 5	Strongly Agree

Addendum

Organizational commitment: Organizational commitment (OC), is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979).

Appendix E: Turnover Intention Questionnaire (TIS-6)

The following section aims to ascertain the extent to which you intend to stay at the organization.

Please read each question and indicate your response using the scale provided for each question:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither disagree nor agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.

During the past six months:

1	How often have you considered leaving your job?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree
2	How satisfying is your job in fulfilling your personal needs?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree
3	How often are you frustrated when not given the opportunity at work to achieve your personal work-related goals?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree
4	How often do you dream about getting another job that will better suit your personal needs?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree
5	How likely are you to accept another job, at the same compensation level, should it be offered to you?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree
6	How often do you look forward to another day at work?	Strongly Disagree	1-----2-----3-----4-----5	Strongly Agree

Addendum

Turnover intention: The intent of an employee to search for alternative jobs or leave the organization in the future (Dwivedi, 2015).

Your time in completing this survey is greatly appreciated. Thank you.

Appendix F: Letters of Approval from Survey Instrument Authors

Re: Permission to Use TCM Employee Commitment Survey Instrument

Natalie Jean Allen <nallen@uwo.ca>

Sat 4/23/2022 2:56 PM

To:

Oliver Ehiaturuiki <oliver.ehiaturuiki@waldenu.edu>

Hello Oliver,

Thank you for your interest in using the Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey in your research. You can get information about the survey, a Users' Guide, and the 3 commitments comprising the survey measures at:

<http://employeecommitment.com/>

For academic / research purposes, please choose the Academic Package. (There is no charge for this package.)

I wish you well with your research!

Best,

Natalie Allen

Permission to Use TCM Employee Commitment Survey Instrument

JM

John Peter Meyer <meyer@uwo.ca>

Wed 5/4/2022 5:49 AM

To:

- Oliver Ehiaturuiki

Dear Oliver,

Thank you for your interest in using the Three-Component Model (TCM) Employee Commitment Survey in your research. You can get information about the measure, a Users' Guide, and the measure itself at:

<http://employeecommitment.com/>

For academic / research purposes, please choose the Academic Package. (There is no charge for this package.)

I wish you well with your research!

Best regards,

John Meyer

RE: Permission to use The Turnover Intention Questionnaire (TIS-6)

rodtg8@gmail.com

Sun 4/24/2022 5:09 AM

To:

Oliver Ehiaturuiki <oliver.ehiaturuiki@waldenu.edu>

1 attachment (59 KB)

Turnover intentions questionnaire - v4.doc.

Dear Oliver

You are welcome to use the TIS for your research (please accept this e-mail as the formal permission letter). For this purpose, please find the TIS-15 attached for your convenience. This TIS-6 (version 4) consists of the first six items high-lighted in yellow. You may use any one of these two versions. The TIS is based on the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

The only two conditions for using the TIS are that it may not be used for commercial purposes (other than for post graduate research) and second that it should be properly referenced as (Roodt, 2004) as in the article by Bothma & Roodt (2013) in the SA Journal of Human Resource Management (open access).

It is easy to score the TIS-6. Merely add the item scores to get a total score. The midpoint of the scale is 18 (3 x 6). If the total score is below 18 then it indicates a desire to stay. If the scores are above 18 it indicates a desire to leave the organization. The minimum a person can get is 6 (6 x 1) and the maximum is 30 (5 x 6). No item scores need to be reflected (reverse scored) for the TIS-6.

It is recommended that you conduct a CFA on the item scores to assess the dimensionality of the scale. We found that respondents with a matric (grade12) tertiary school qualification tend to understand the items better and consequently a uni-dimensional factor structure is obtained.

If you wish to translate the TIS in a local language, you are welcome to do so. It is recommended that a language expert is used in the translate - back translate method. I wish you all the best with your research!

Best regards

Prof Gert Roodt

RE: Permission to use The Negative Acts Questionnaire survey instrument

[□ Ståle Einarsen](#) • --View profile

SE

Ståle Valvatne Einarsen <Stale.Einarsen@uib.no>

Sun 5/8/2022 11:51 AM

To:

- Oliver Ehiahuuik

Dear Oliver!

You are allowed to employ the NAQ-R in your research project and for any future non-profit research only projects.

I wish you the very best of luck with your PhD work!

All the best!

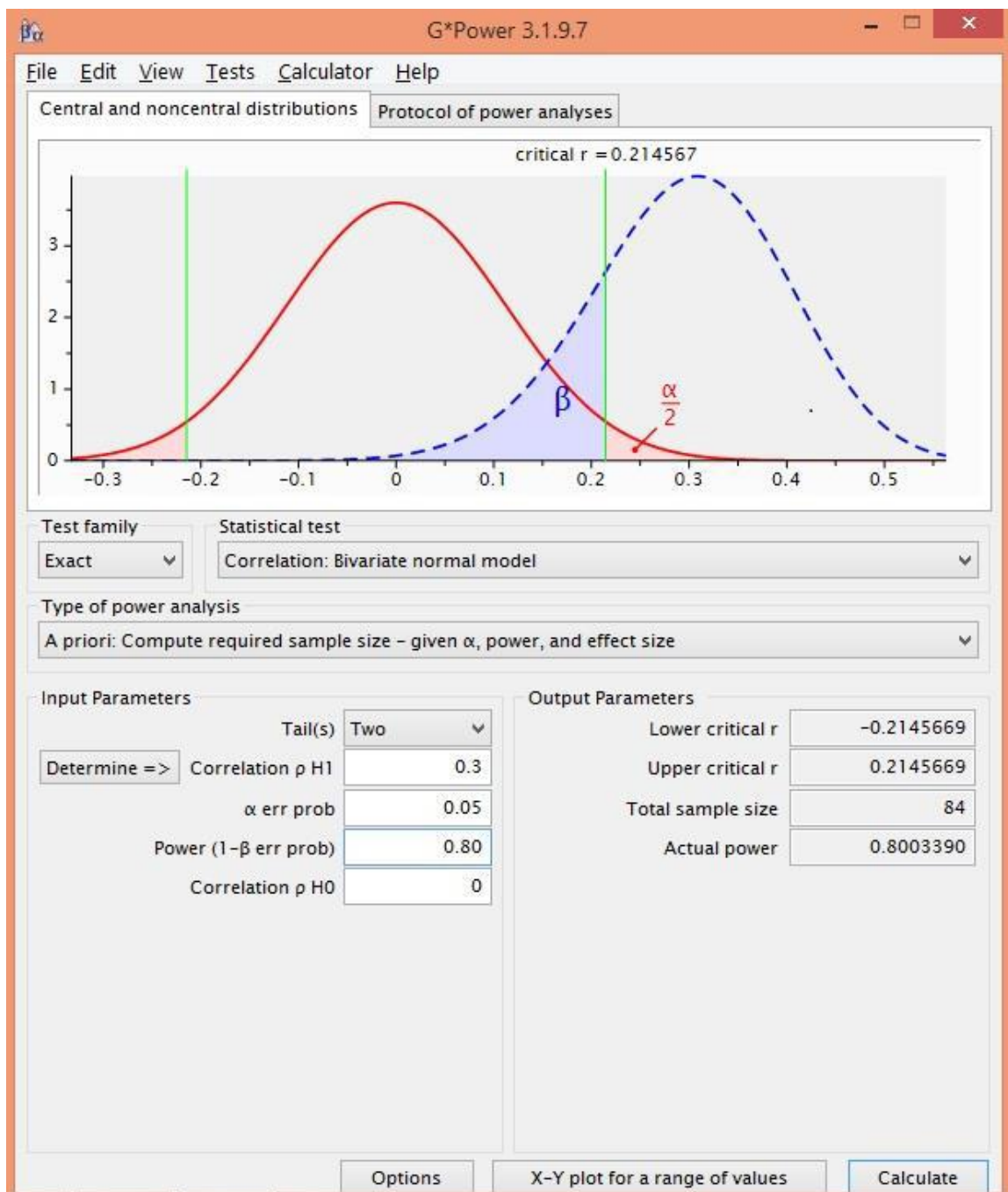
Prof. Ståle V. Einarsen

Permission to use the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

VPR no longer sells the MSQ questionnaires. All forms are available under a Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 4.0 International License. This license allows the instrument to be used for research or clinical work free of charge and without written consent, provided that you acknowledge Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota, as the source of the material in your reproduced materials (printed or electronic). This license does not allow commercial use or reproduction for sale. The MSQ may be used without cost, however, for employee surveys provided that the survey is implemented within an organization and that no charges are made for its use. VPR and the University of Minnesota do not offer scoring for the MSQ and cannot answer questions about its administration or scoring. Directions for scoring the MSQ are in its manual.

Source: <https://vpr.psych.umn.edu/msq-minnesota-satisfaction-questionnaire>

Appendix G: G*Power Analysis for Sample Size Calculation



Appendix H: Social Media Post Requesting Participation in the Survey

Dear Sir/ Madam,

I am writing this post to request your participation in an online survey for my academic research project.

About the researcher:

I am currently a Ph.D. doctoral candidate in Management, from Walden University, Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA. I am working on a research project titled *Workplace Bullying on Human Resources Management Performance in Correctional Facilities*. I am also a working professional with 15 years of experience in Corrections in the Department of Criminal Justice, but this study is separate from that role.

Brief details of the dissertation project:

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction among corrections employees in Texas. This study may contribute to the knowledge pool of current perceptions of correctional employees in the aftermath of staff shortages, aid management to focus more on its human resources endeavors and contribute to the literature on the harmonious work environment for the employees and their happiness at work.

Inclusion criteria:

At least 18 years of age.

A correctional employee working in a correctional facility continuously for at least 6 months.

A staff of any department in a correctional facility in Texas.

Details about the Survey:

My research data collection is a web-based survey hosted on the Survey Monkey platform. It contains close-ended questions. A participant needs to spend approximately 30 minutes completing the survey. The survey questionnaires are intended towards answering the research questions.

- The survey is voluntary and does not include any monetary benefits.
- A participant can exit the survey at any time during the participation before completing the survey.
- No personal/critical/commercial / business information will be captured during the survey.
- The researcher expects to collect the data from approximately 150 participants.

Survey Link

Please feel free to contact me for any concerns or clarifications at oliver.ehiahuruike@waldenu.edu

Yours sincerely,

Oliver Onyeka Ehiahuruike

Appendix I: Social Media Post Announcing Closure of the Survey

Dear Sir/Madam,

Thank you very much for your overwhelming response to my survey. I have received the response from the required number of participants. The survey will be closed now. I am forever grateful to all the participants and to those who encouraged others to participate in the survey. Your participation is of immense help to me in achieving the research goals.

Thank you very much again for your cooperation and participation!

Yours sincerely,

Oliver Onyeka Ehiaturu

Appendix J: MSQ Scoring Key

Response choices for the MSQ short form are weighted in the following manner:

Response Choice Scoring Weight

Very Dissatisfied.....	1
Dissatisfied.....	2
Neither.....	3
Satisfied.....	4
Very Satisfied.....	5

The responses are scored 1 through 5 from left to right in the answer spaces. Scales scores are determined by adding the weights for the responses chosen for items in each scale. Scoring of the MSQ yields three scales: intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction. For an individual respondent, the 12 items on the intrinsic satisfaction scale will yield a scoring ranging from 12 to 60. For extrinsic items, it is from 6 to 30 on the satisfaction scale. Lastly, 20 to 100 for the 20 items on the general satisfaction scale.

Scoring Weight

Scales Items	Items	1	2	3	4	5
Intrinsic Satisfaction	12	12	24	36	48	60
Extrinsic Satisfaction	6	6	12	18	24	30
General Satisfaction	20	20	40	60	80	100