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THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN WORKPLACE BULLYING AND EMPLOYEE SILENCE: SYSTEMATIC AND CRITICAL REVIEWS, AND A META-ANALYSIS

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İŞ YERİ ZORBALIĞI VE ÇALIŞAN SESSİZLİĞİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: SİSTEMATİK VE ELEŞTİREL İNCELEME VE BİR META-ANALİZ

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between workplace bullying and employee silence. The first section overviews how theory-building has evolved in psychology over time and then provides conceptual definitions of workplace bullying and employee silence and introduces the theories that have been utilized in the explanations of these two constructs. Employee voice is also discussed and connected to workplace bullying and employee silence. The second section then develops a theoretical framework to understand how workplace bullying and employee silence can be linked. In the third section, we attempt to do a systematic review and meta-analysis of the studies examining the association between these constructs using samples in Turkey. The meta-analysis supports the hypothesis derived from the early theory and research that there is a moderate and positive association between workplace bullying and employee silence. However, the underdeveloped and multidimensional employee silence construct (which may amalgamate acquiescent, defensive, prosocial, and relational silence) makes it hard to draw firm conclusions or make generalizations and raises questions on whether the different employee scales are commensurable or measure the same construct. The last section then debates what workplace bullying and employee silence researchers could do next and provides suggestions for making industrial and organizational psychology research more reproducible and replicable and hence systematic reviews and meta-analyses more reliable and valid.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliği arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Birinci bölüm, teori oluşturmanın psikolojide zaman içinde nasıl geliştiğini gözden geçirip, işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliğinin kavramsal tanımlarını verip, bu iki yapının açıklamalarında kullanılan teorileri tanıtıyor. Çalışan sesi kavramı da açıklanmakta ve işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliği ile ilişkilendirilmektedir. İkinci bölümde işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliğinin ne şekilde bağlantılı olabileceğini anlamamıza yardımcı olacak teorik bir çerçeve geliştiriliyor. Üçüncü bölümde, Türkiye örneklemleri kullanılarak işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliği arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen çalışmaların bir sistematik incelemesi ve meta-analizi yapılıyor. Meta-analiz, işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliği arasında orta düzeyde ve pozitif bir ilişki olduğu yönündeki önceki teori ve araştırmalardan türetilen hipotezi destekliyor, ancak az gelişmiş ve çok boyutlu çalışan sessizliği yapısı (ki kabullenici, savunmacı, toplum yanlısı ve ilişkisel sessizliği birleştirebiliyor) kesin sonuçlar çıkarmayı ya da genelleme yapmayı zorlaştırıyor ve de farklı çalışan sessizliği ölçeklerinin ölçekdeş olup olmadıkları, yani aynı yapıyı ölçüp ölçmedikleri konusunda soru işaretleri yaratıyor. Son bölüm işyerinde zorbalık ve çalışan sessizliği konularını çalışan araştırmacıların daha farklı neler yapabileceğini tartışıyor ve endüstriyel ve örgütsel psikoloji çalışmalarının daha yeniden üretilebilir ve tekrarlanabilir ve dolayısıyla sistematik değerlendirmelerin ve meta-analizlerin de daha güvenilir ve geçerli hale getirilebilmeleri için öneriler getiriyor.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Workplace bullying (WB) is often considered taboo and does not render itself easy for scientific research and manipulation. It elicits strong emotions such as anger, guilt, indignation, and shame in both the victims and perpetrators - as well as the organizations in which it emerges. It can be both a cause and effect of organizational dysfunction. The estimates vary – there are estimates all over the place. However, it is believed that it annually affects approximately 15 percent of employees worldwide and produces innumerable and unfathomable costs for both the people and organizations involved and the larger society (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Research on WB dates back to the 1980s, and currently, two WB scales are well-established and used worldwide (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Leymann, 1990). Employee silence (ES), on the other hand, is a relatively newer topic in industrial and organizational (I/O) psychology, and the roots of contemporary research date back to the late 1990s. There is not much consensus on the operationalization and measurement of ES. However, it would be reasonable to assume that it is a lot more commonplace than WB – probably almost everyone could think of at least one instance (or one topic) they kept silent (about) in the workplace even when they had something to say – that is what we found in the systematic review and meta-analysis as well.

In the current thesis, we first outline how theory construction in psychology has evolved and got more complex and sophisticated over time and how the basic assumptions about human nature and causality have changed. We then define the WB, EV/ES constructs and attempt to integrate them into a theoretical framework in the light of the contemporary assumptions on human nature and causality. We then conduct a systematic review and a meta-analysis. Based on the previous studies and theories, we hypothesize that all else being equal, there is a positive association between WB

and ES. Due to the studies' non-experimental and cross-sectional nature, it is impossible to determine causality or make causal inferences. We finally discuss the pitfalls of research in this area and future directions that research in this area and I/O psychology, in general, could take and emphasize the importance of open science practices for more reproducible and replicable psychology.

1.1. A Brief History of the Evolution of Psychological Thinking

As dominant psychological écoles change, the human mind's theories and behavior and the studying methods change. The earlier schools of thought, namely psychoanalysis and structuralism, focused on the unconscious and consciousness, employing psychoanalysis and introspection. As structuralism and psychoanalysis – the latter was never prevalent in the scientific and academic circles in any case – ebbed, behaviorism, brought forward by John B. Watson in the 1910s, was on the ascendancy by the 1950s. Both the unconscious and consciousness were deemed unamenable to observation and experimentation. Thus they were supplanted by overt behavior as the primary area of research and interest in psychology. By focusing solely on what is measurable, behaviorism may have made psychology indeed the science of behavior (and debatably, more objective), but it feigned ignorance on many essential elements that underlie overt behavior. Thus, even if one considers this positive development, it still left us with an incomplete picture of the human mind and behavior.

With the advent of behaviorism, the unconscious and conscious mind took a back seat, and individual differences were overlooked, and the behavioristic stimulus-object-response model became the fundamental theory explaining human behavior (Skinner, 1974). This model did not discriminate much among individuals, giving the impression that people were mere reactors to stimuli and do so in more or less the same way, treating variation as just noise. With the cognitive revolution of the 1960s, heralded by Ulric G. Neisser’s formative work *Cognitive Psychology*, consciousness

came out of the black box, to the fore, and cognitive psychology eventually became the dominant école explaining how the mind and behavior works (but, see Spear, 2007). The research on mental processes showed that every one of us has distinct schemata or categories that are products of both our nature (i.e., genes) and nurture (i.e., environment). These schemata play a vital role in how we perceive internal stimuli (coming from within the organism or the internal environment) and external stimuli (coming from outside of the organism or the external environment), appraising or making sense of and respond to them. These schemata are often activated automatically, without our conscious awareness. Presumably, the importance of these schemata increases as the ambiguity of the stimuli increases. In sum, how we interpret a stimulus potentially makes a great deal of difference in how we act.

In retrospect, the advent of the affective revolution of the late 1970s and early 1980s, heralded by such figures as Robert B. Zajonc and Martin E. P. Seligman, was perhaps as important as the cognitive revolution of the earlier decades. Even though Zajonc's primacy of affect hypothesis initially created a chicken and egg problem (e.g., Lazarus, 1984; Zajonc, 1984), affect's the critical role played in the formation and development of the schemata or categories is now better appreciated. Contrary to many dual-process theories, people evaluate stimuli either cognitively, coldly, rationally, or affectively, hotly, and irrationally. The affect and the cognition are inextricably linked, and their complex interplay may well be what engenders an individual's interpretation of and response to a stimulus. Indeed, some researchers argue that "an affect is a form of cognition" and that their differences are not neurobiological or ontological but phenomenological (Duncan & Feldman Barrett, 2007). The affect is a complex phenomenon and generally believed to have two dimensions: valence (positive to negative) and activation or arousal (high to low). It can be construed in terms of various features as well: as a trait or a state; as discrete such as fear or joy; as a dichotomy (i.e., positive vs. negative affect), or as a continuum (as in a positive-to-negative affect continuum or a weak-to-strong discrete emotion – such as anger or fear – continuum).

Affect is essential not only for cognition or sense-making but also for motivation or goal selection. It is argued that affect is inherently motivational as it has positive (approach or engage) and negative (avoid or disengage) elements built into it (Izard, 1993). Even though some simple approaches or responses may appear automatic and universal, people generally differ significantly in their motivation and values and how they prioritize and pursue them. Individual differences are formed and developed as the genes interact with the environment. This genetic diversity serves an evolutionary, adaptive purpose as it helps organisms adapt to and thrive in many different environments. It is important to note that humans evolved to survive (and reproduce), not necessarily rational thinkers. Our reasoning often involves motivations other than accuracy and is prone to bias (Kunda, 1990; Sharot and Garrett, 2016; Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). These biases may serve an evolutionary, adaptive purpose, but they do not always serve us right and can at times be maladaptive. Thanks to these individual differences, the same stimulus can elicit different emotions and activate different schemata in different people. People make sense of a stimulus in light of their affective, cognitive, and motivational schemata or categories and respond accordingly.

1.2. Workplace Bullying and Employee Voice and Silence as Psychological Constructs

We need to consider this evolution in psychological thinking when pondering I/O psychology constructs such as WB, ES, and EV. Recognizing the role of the complex interplay between genes, environment, cognition, affect, and motivation in their construction and development is essential. As Lisa Feldman Barrett observes in Lex Fridman Podcast, "most phenomena have many, many weak nonlinear interacting causes. …little things that we might not even be aware of can shift one's developmental trajectory…" (Fridman, 2020, 1:07:00). It may be hard to think of any other phenomena in I/O psychology that better fit this description than WB, EV, or ES. Hundreds of

variables have been identified as potentially related to WB and EV/ES either as antecedents, consequences, mediators, or moderators (e.g., Unler & Caliskan, 2019; Morrison, 2014; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Contemporarily, there are two general hypotheses concerning WB. These are the work environment (stressors) and individual dispositions (risk factors) hypotheses. However, it is not the case that either the work environment or individual dispositions by themselves is responsible for the occurrence of WB. Instead, it is suggested that depending on how the work environment and individual dispositions interact, WB emerges, leading to individual, organizational, and societal consequences (Harlos & Holmvall, 2018). Researchers indicate that how an individual responds to stimuli, also called stressors or adverse events, can make all the difference in the emergence of WB (see Nielsen and Einarsen, 2018, for an overview of the literature). Similarly, it is suggested that when a voice opportunity arises in an organizational setting, whether an employee engages in voice or opts for silence is determined by complex interactions between (both individual-level and contextual) motivators and inhibitors of voice and silence (Morrison, 2014).

From an I/O psychology perspective, WB and EV may be considered extra-role work behaviors, albeit at opposite ends. WB is often considered a more extreme example of counterproductive work behavior (CWB) (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Still, it is not considered extreme as the construct of workplace violence – it mainly comprises psychological violence and rarely involves physical violence (Reknes, Einarsen, Gjerstad, & Nielsen, 2019). Also dubbed deviant workplace behaviors, CWBs are defined as intentional acts carried out by employees that harm organizations and their stakeholders, and WB probably fits the bill (Spector, Fox, & Domagalski, 2005).[1] On the other hand, EV may be construed as an example of organizational

[1] Even though the bullying behavior may be intentional, but bullies may not necessarily be acting with the intent to harm their organizations. In fact, as we elaborate later, they may even be believing that by engaging in bullying acts, they are protecting the interests of their organizations. Later, we argue that making motivational attributions in the conceptual and operational definitions of I/O psychology constructs can make these constructs inherently incoherent. This may be a general problem in quantitative social science (Sniderman & Tetlock, 1986).

citizenship behavior (OCB). OCBs are defined as voluntary or discretionary acts (different from and in addition to the acts the job definitions or employment contracts entail) carried out by employees that benefit the organization in one way or another. Construing EV as an OCB may not always be self-apparent. EV may sometimes be perceived as threatening to the management or stakeholders and harmful to the organization. For example, this would probably be the case if the employee spoke up about a 'problem,' and indeed the case if the employee were making a formal complaint (e.g., about getting bullied by one's supervisor) blowing the whistle on the organization. Still, EV can be construed as benefiting the organization, at least in the long term, even though it may cause some short-term trouble for the organization, managers, or stakeholders. The former are all examples of prohibitive voice, which is voicing something negative about the work environment. There is also a promotive voice, i.e., voicing something positive about the work environment (Morrison, 2014).

There is no consensus among researchers on what the EV and ES constructs entail, and this is discussed in later sections in terms of how it makes systematic reviews difficult. However, many I/O psychologists define EV as discretionary and informal behaviors that employees exhibit by bringing up any feedback, idea, suggestion, or concern they have to improve something about the organization (Morrison & Milliken, 2001; Morrison, 2014). Two caveats need to be mentioned here. Firstly, employees and managers – or any two employees or any two managers – may have conflicting interests in the organization. According to some, especially Marxian, interpretations, the interests of the employees and employers (or more accurately, owners) in an organization are inherently incompatible, and conflict – and silencing – is, at least to some extent, is inevitable (Nechanska, Hughes, & Dundon, 2020). This is because the owners control the means of production and the surplus-value of labor.[2] This implies

[2] However, it is not clear how relevant this is for many contemporary large size organizations that do not really have an 'owner', and for our purposes, it may even be less relevant if organizational ownership is made to include not only the shareholders, but also the stakeholders.

that voice may not be necessarily or always desirable. Secondly, Morrison (2014) reminds us that too much of a good thing can be wrong, and if there is too much voice in an organization, that would create cacophony and be detrimental rather than beneficial to the organization.

On the other hand, ES is defined as the purposeful withholding of feedback, ideas, suggestions, or concerns by the employees – who have such bits of information – that, if expressed, would benefit the organization. Opposite to EV, ES may appear to be for the organization's good in the short term, but it will potentially be counterproductive and cause trouble for the organization in the long term as the (unvoiced) matter goes unnoticed and potentially gets more extensive and harder to resolve.

1.2.1. Workplace Bullying

WB is often understood as a form of psychological or emotional abuse. As mentioned earlier, it is mainly comprised of psychological violence and terror, and rarely physical violence. Some researchers appear to distinguish between bullying and mobbing, associating bullying more with the physical elements and mobbing with the psychological elements. Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2003) note that Heinz Leymann initially adopted the word ‘mobbing’ to emphasize the psychological rather than the phenomenon's physical aspects. However, this distinction does not deserve much merit. The appropriate term used in the English language is “bullying” whether it happens in the workplace, or for that matter, outside the workplace, e.g., in cyberspace or schools among students. Even though bullying is perhaps as old as human history and WB is as old as the history of work, this concept formally was only developed by Dieter Zapf and Stale Einarsen in the 1980s. It is a complex phenomenon, with certain elements differentiating it from other CWBs. The set of behaviors that constitute WB may not mean much by themselves or in isolation, but when they form a pattern, happening together, frequently, and for a prolonged time, they constitute WB.

That is to say, it is not a one-time incident, and has to happen once or twice a week, and continue to happen for at least six months (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). The victim must be unable to effectively defend themselves, indicating a power imbalance between the victim and the perpetrator, an imbalance not necessarily based on their formal positions in the workplace. The types of behavior that are considered WB can be grouped under three categories, based on the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) developed by Einarsen and Raknes in 1997 and later revised as NAQ-R in (2009). The first category is dubbed person-related WB, and it includes isolating or excluding, ridiculing, gossiping (and spreading false rumors), and insulting the victim. The second category is named work-related WB and includes overworking the victim, not giving them enough work, changing their work conditions, or making them unable to perform their work. The third category includes overtly physical acts of aggression such as physical violence or sexual assault.

However, we noticed that many researchers do not include the items – which are already few compared to the number of items in other subdimensions – on this physical violence subdimension when they examine WB. It does not go very well with the other items and subdimensions and may well be conceptually distinct. Physical violence must be much rarer than other types of bullying as it is easier to identify and prove and may be grounds for immediate dismissal. Generally, sexual harassment and racial discrimination are considered separately from WB, but these phenomena may contain WB behavior, and WB may contain elements of such phenomena. There is also the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror (LIPT). Leymann developed his scale based on his interviews with bullying victims, and it was first published in Swedish in 1990 (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). It has five dimensions organized around WB's effects on a) self-expression and communication, b) social contacts, c) personal reputation, d) occupational situation and quality of life, and e) physical life.

There is much debate on the role of the intent in WB. Whether and to what extent the perpetrator is aware of their bullying behavior (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018),

but whether there is conscious intent or not, the goal appears to be either to force the person out of the company or to make them fall into line by making them less threatening (e.g., to oneself) or harmful (e.g., to the organization). To the extent that there is an automatic or non-conscious element in WB [3], it is more likely to be observed in the latter goal than the former one. A qualitative analysis of the perspectives of human resources professionals on WB gives credence to the idea that WB can sometimes happen automatically (Isik, 2015). Bullying behavior may emerge when an employee does not meet the manager's expectations, or at the opposite end, when an employee performs too well and is perceived as a potential rival. This way, WB becomes a means of making someone adapt or succumb. The latter example is also more akin to the actual definition of "mobbing", as borrowed from ethology: "crowding about and attacking or annoying" an intruder (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). This type of mobbing behavior is often observed in a variety of different species, such as a group of geese chasing a fox, perceiving it to be a threat - an intruder preying on their goslings, or the Japanese honeybees attacking (and killing) an Asian giant hornet that may otherwise destroy the entire honeybee colony. Of course, there may be other, more marginal, reasons for WB. For instance, if a supervisor has a narcissistic personality, they might enjoy seeing their staff members suffering. However, even in such a scenario, the perpetrator probably would not indiscriminately bully their staff, but they might target someone when they sense some weakness in them, such as a staff member who does not perform as well as the others or is too 'vocal' and acts too independent.

Many theories (and models) that concern communication, conflict, emotions, justice, motivation, social interaction, and stress are implicated in WB, but it is probably apt to start with Affective Events Theory (AET). Developed initially to deconstruct the job satisfaction construct, AET, simply put, suggests that events that happen in the workplace will elicit specific emotions in individuals and that these

[3] What constitutes non-conscious or automatic behavior is also debatable, and even though terms such as (lack of) intent, control, or awareness all refer to some aspect of automatic (also called implicit) behavior, the construct is probably multidimensional and need a clearer operational definition.

emotions will, in turn, inform their cognitions, attitudes, and behavior (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). One would expect that events interpreted as positive would elicit positive emotions, and events interpreted as unfavorable would elicit negative emotions. How these environmental cues act and what specific emotions experienced by individuals would depend on their personality or disposition and idiosyncratic theories (e.g., external vs. internal) of causal attribution. It is important to note that many events are ambiguous and have both positive and negative elements. Individuals high in, say, the positive affect would probably have more easily accessible and activable positive schemata and tend to interpret ambiguous or complex events in the light of these schemata, and positive emotions could then be elicited. These positive emotions and associated cognitions would then probably result in more positive or productive behavioral choices. Individuals who are high in negative affect, on the other hand, would be more likely to have more easily accessible and activable negative schemata and also a negative self-concept, and negative schemata and self-concept could engender more negative or counterproductive behavioral choices.

Developed by Spector (e.g., Fox and Spector, 2008), the stressor-emotion model of CWB, may be considered as an application of AET to adverse events or "stressors", and WB is said to be an example of "social stressors" (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). The theory posits that workplace stressors induce negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, disappointment, hostility, sadness, shame, and worry, and these emotions motivate later CWB. For example, a negative event perceived to be discriminatory, threatening, or unjust might trigger anger, disappointment, and hostility in the bully or the perpetrator, leading to aggressive behavior. On the other hand, the same negative event perceived to be caused by one's complicity, inadequacy, fault, or neglect may trigger sadness, shame, and worry in the bullied or the victim, leading to withdrawal behavior. In other words, how one responds to a stressor could make one either the bully or the bullied. Of course, how one responds would also depend on one's role in the organization, but in a study, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) found that

negative emotions played a mediating role in every significant relationship they found between negative events and CWB.

The stressor-emotion model of CWB builds upon the stress theories and applies them to workplace settings. The theories of stress, as applied to the workplace settings, generally suggest that any workplace event may potentially be a stressor. Developed outside of psychology, the cognitive activation of stress theory probably provides the most general framework for conceptualizing stress, positing that any change in the environment implies learning and thus produces stress (Meurs & Perrewe, 2011). Any workplace event can be a stressor as long as it involves change – and anything and everything that happens can be construed as change. Psychological theories of stress, on the other hand, generally hold that one way or the other, it is the imbalance between the external factors (i.e., environment) and internal factors (i.e., organism) that produces stress. For example, one of the most influential theories of stress in psychology, the transactional theory of stress and coping, was developed by Richard S. Lazarus in the 1960s. Before the affective revolution, stress was conceived as a product of one's appraisal of a stressor regarding their ability to cope with stressors. The theory argues that the person may deal with a stressor by adopting a problem-focused or emotion-focused coping approach. This theory, however, has been criticized for presenting an unrealistic dichotomy between the rational/superior problem-solving approach and the irrational/inferior emotion-focused approach and for ignoring eustress, or the positive aspects of stress (Biggs, Brough, & Drummond, 2017). For example, in its original form, the theory suggested an emotion-focused coping approach would provide only short-term relief from stress – as it did not get to the root of the problem – and cause more damage in the long term (Van den Brande et al., 2017).

Similar to the prototypical transactional theory of stress and coping, which considers stress as a product of an imbalance between the stressors and coping skills, psychological theories of stress are generally based on the premise of an imbalance between either; (a) stressors and resources, as in the conservation of resources theory

(COR) of Stevan E. Hobfoll (Hobfoll, 1988), (b) demands and control, as in the job demands-control model of Robert A. Karasek (Kain & Jex, 1979), (c) demands and resources, as in the job demands-resources model of Evangelia Demerouti (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) or (d) efforts and rewards, as in the effort-reward imbalance model of Johannes Siegrist (Siegrist, 2017). This imbalance is believed to be the progenitor of stress. The more general cognitive activation of stress theory, on the other hand, is more applicable in situations where these theories in their original form would not necessarily predict stress, such as when both demands and resources high (or low) or both effort and rewards are high (or low) (Meurs & Perrewe, 2011).

Some other WB research theories concern conflict and interpersonal, intergroup, group, or social behavior. WB involves at least two employees, namely, the perpetrator and the victim, which is an example of interpersonal behavior. Since it takes place in an organizational setting and may involve spectators and backers/supporters of both the perpetrator(s) and the victim(s), it can also be construed as a social or group behavior. If the perpetrator and victim are made to be members of two different groups, it is also intergroup behavior. From a social-rules-based or social interactionist approach, people seen as rule-breakers are shunned by others. In this sense, employees who do not behave as expected, e.g., following the contractual obligations and organizational norms, may face exclusion, ridicule, and abuse, thus bullying.

On the other hand, social identity theorists have demonstrated that people almost spontaneously split into groups, even over the most trivial things, and in-group and out-group categories are promptly activated (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). For example, a recruit may be seen as an outgroup member and, if they also have difficulty adapting to the organization and adhering to its rules, this might make them targets of bullying. Every recruit may have such difficulties. That is why new employee orientation is essential.

WB is an instance of workplace conflict as well, and conflict theories inevitably apply. WB may be conceptualized as a more extreme example of workplace conflict (Notelaers, Van der Heijden, Guenter, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2018). Theories on conflict escalation might help understand how WB can exacerbate, and theories on conflict prevention and resolution must be particularly helpful in developing primary (before bullying occurs), secondary (while bullying is taking place), and tertiary (after bullying occurred) interventions. As complex a phenomenon as it is, WB can be many things all at the same time, and it can also be conceived as a form of organizational (interactional) injustice or a form of (albeit misguided or ill) communication (Harlos & Knoll, 2018). Therefore, the theories on organizational justice and communication are also relevant for WB.

Integrating several relevant theories and talking about some plausible scenarios may help us better understand how bullying starts, develops, and results. Let us suppose that a recruit cannot keep up with the job demands because they are low in (internal) resources or control such as positive affect or self-concept. Such employees may start to blame themselves for their difficulties at work; that is, they attribute the problems to internal causes and show withdrawal behavior such as disengagement or uncooperativeness. Potentially, this makes them break even more organizational rules and thus become even more of a bullying target. Then, it may create a vicious cycle, leading to an escalation of WB. Even though it is sometimes criticized as taking a blaming-the-victim approach, the victim precipitation theory predicts such an escalation. The gloomy perception mechanism developed within I/O psychology also makes a similar prediction of WB's escalation caused by the bullying victim's negative interpretation of events. Also relevant in this context is the cognitive activation of stress theory as it predicts that one does not even need to experience any adverse event to get stressed. The mere expectation of future negative events is enough to create stress and such a self-fulfilling prophecy, and negative affect would create such expectations.

1.2.2. Employee Voice and Silence

Born out of the seminal work of economist Albert O. Hirschman titled *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty*, published in 1970, research on employee voice and silence I/O psychology was scant in the 1980s and 1990s but started to grow by the 2000s, thanks to the (separate) work of Elizabeth W. Morrison and Karen Harlos. Hirschman's (1970) original work was more of a rational choice model, focusing on the exit, voice, and loyalty behaviors of clients or customers, whose relationship with organizations tends to be less formal and more voluntary than that of employees. However, it has since been applied to many different areas such as emigration, personal relationships, political parties, and public policy (Dowding & John, 2012). Hirschman's central thesis appears to be remarkably, perhaps deceptively, simple. The idea is that when there is either an unwanted change or deterioration in the quality of a product (or service), the customers may either voice their dissatisfaction, expecting the organization to take correcting action or simply exit, quitting buying the product from the organization. Loyalty to a product/organization plays a moderating role in the relationship between voice and exit. The assumption is that loyalty makes an exit less likely: when customers think something undesirable or unpleasant about a product/organization, loyal customers are more likely to voice something than unloyal customers who may simply exit. Conversely, loyal customers may also "suffer in silence" hoping that things will get better (Hirschman, 1970, p. 38). In any case, if the organization does not heed these voices of dissatisfaction and does not change the product or itself, even the most loyal customers could exit. The organization would lose its competitive edge in this case, left only with the unwilling or uncaring customers who are somehow unable to exit and stuck with the organization/product. The organization could even cease to exist as it is unclear such customers could sustain the organization for long.

The exit is thought to be easier for customers with no loyalty, but they must have the means to do so, and exit must be feasible. Then, two new and related variables

enter into the equation, which may be considered as internal and external resources: whether the customer can afford to switch to another (say, costlier or locally unavailable) product/organization and whether there are viable alternative products/organizations (or competitive markets). When there is no realistic exit option, unable to exit, customers are expected to continue buying the product, albeit reluctantly, but remain silent. So, even though silence is not in the title of Hirschman's book, it is listed as an option a customer with fewer resources may (have to) take. Silence received greater emphasis in the I/O psychology literature because switching jobs is a lot harder and costlier than switching between, say, Coca-Cola and Pepsi. There is often a formal contract between employees and employers, but also an employment contract, unlike many other types of contract, is not necessarily made between two equal parties. That is why labor laws are expected to protect the weaker party, the employee, and the party with the upper hand, the employer (Taskent, Eyrenci, & Ulucan, 2017). Neither are labor markets necessarily free or competitive.

If a typical rational choice approach is taken, whether an employee opts for voice, exit or silence would be a function of their expected utility or cost-benefit analysis. For example, if the voice option is adequate or if the exit option is realistic would be rational questions to ask. However, individual-level variables make generalizations less tenable. For example, organizational commitment is one individual-level work attitude that very much represents Hirschman's concept of loyalty in a workplace setting; in an organizational context, loyalty is somehow transformed and is more likely to be a reason for silence than voice. If an employee is very attached to their organization, they may opt for silence, believing their voice may harm the organization. This is, indeed, dubbed pro-social silence, and while there is also a pro-social voice, it does not seem to be getting as much attention (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). Pondering on the motivations for EV/ES, many researchers focus on the organizational culture and ask whether voice or silence is desired or encouraged in an organization and whether or not both formal and informal voice

mechanisms exist and working (Unler & Caliskan, 2017). These voice mechanisms range from informal feedback to collective bargaining (Budd, 2012). If silence is encouraged or desired, then the employee may opt for silence. They may believe it would be futile to engage in voice, thinking their voice will not make any difference, and nothing will ever change, or they may become afraid of engaging in a voice behavior, thinking their voice will harm them – perhaps they will somehow be punished for engaging in voice. These are called acquiescent (the concepts of diffident and disengaged silence are also relevant here) and defensive (or quiescent) silence in the literature, respectively. Many individual-level variables may be relevant to whether an employee engages voice or silence, such as self-monitoring and self-efficacy (Fuller, Barnett, Hester, Relyea, & Frey, 2007). People high in self-monitoring are more observant of their environments and follow the cues about whether voice or silence is preferred in their organizations or whether it is psychologically safe to engage in voice behavior. On the other hand, people high in self-efficacy may be less likely to give in to acquiescent silence, believing in their voice efficacy. Acquiescent silence is also relevant to another variable emphasized by I/O psychologists, namely, neglect: employees who remain silent, not out of loyalty, but because they are unable or unwilling to change jobs for some reason, are more likely to neglect work and may show absenteeism, tardiness, and other CWBs.

Morrison (2014) and Harlos and Knoll (2018) focus on two types of emotions that accompany silence: despair and fear. Despair – and associated emotions such as apathy, cynicism, hopelessness, and a sense of futility or resignation – accompany acquiescent silence; that is when employees are silent because they do not believe anything will change if they voice anything. Fear is associated with defensive or quiescent silence, that is, when employees are silent because they believe they will face negative consequences if they speak up. An Irish study on nurses examined the association between WB and ES and found that a culture of organizational silence may indeed lead to both acquiescent and defensive employee silence – even though the

study did not use any WB or ES scale (MacMahon, O'Sullivan, Murphy, Ryan, & MacCurtain, 2018). Their results showed that victims and witnesses of WB are less likely to report a bullying incident if they know that (a) no action was taken after previously reported bullying incidents – a finding that supports acquiescent silence and (b) a previous victim was moved from their position or left the organization after they reported a bullying incident. The findings support defensive silence but are more likely to report a bullying incident if (a) they perceive the senior management as fair and (b) disciplinary action was taken after a previous bullying incident.

Voice and silence are also complex constructs that can be conceptualized, operationalized, and studied in many different ways. Voice (and to a certain extent, silence) can be formal or informal; deep or shallow; direct or indirect; individual or collective; internal or external (i.e., inside, or outside of the organization); (issue-)specific or general; vertical or horizontal; written or verbal (or exercised even through body language); voluntary or involuntary. Since they are relatively novel constructs, they are defined differently by different researchers, and sometimes, concepts or ideas that do now have much in common with each other are grouped under the umbrella EV or ES, risking making the construct devoid of any meaning. We will elaborate on this issue in the discussion section and how it makes systematic review and meta-analysis difficult, but it is important to note that researchers have identified many different motives – some of which are relatively incompatible with each other – and definitions of EV/ES. There is also some debate on whether silence and voice are distinct concepts or opposites of the same concept. Harlos and Knoll (2018) argue that they are distinct concepts, while Landau holds that (2017) the voice behaviorally is the opposite of silence and that even though there may be different reasons why one engages in voice or silence, it is essential not to conflate the motivations for the behavior with the behavior itself. In any case, it may be a good idea not to consider all voices in an organization as EV or all silence as ES. For example, deviant voice or silence – or strategically engaging in voice or silence to undermine a colleague, a

supervisor, or organization - should probably not be considered under the rubric of EV/ES (Brinsfield, 2013).

Even though EV/ES concepts in I/O psychology are primarily associated with Hirschman, another approach to voice and silence, from a political science perspective, comes from German political scientist Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann, who in the early 1970s focused on the majority-minority dynamics in engaging in voice or silence (Noelle-Neumann, 1974). She developed the spiral of silence theory and asserted that minorities are more likely than majorities to engage in silence. Her idea of the spiral of silence has been applied to workplace settings by Bell, Ozbilgin, Beauregard, and Survegil (2011), who discussed how to encourage sexual minorities to speak up in organizations.

1.3. A Theoretical Framework for Understanding the Relationship between Workplace Bullying and Employee Voice and Silence

The earlier and ongoing I/O psychology and organizational behavior (OB) research show us that WB and EV/ES are linked. One of the earlier studies on ES conceptualized ES in relation to organizational justice: it examined how employees who believe they have experienced injustice may opt to keep silent (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). The authors referred to WB as an example of interactive injustice in their research. The conventional view is that there is a positive association between WB and ES such that WB can often lead to ES (MacMahon, O'Sullivan, Murphy, Ryan, & MacCurtain, 2018). Also implicated is that there is a negative association between WB and EV. One could reason that getting bullied in the workplace is a voice opportunity, and the victims must speak up even more than non-victims. However, one should also keep in mind that as predicted by Hobfoll's (1988) COR, getting bullied strains the victim's resources, and the victim may opt for silence to prevent any further diminishment of their resources (Liu, Yang, & Yao, 2020). External resources such as

psychological safety may become crucial when internal resources are strained (Unler & Caliskan, 2017).

As discussed in a later section, the systematic review of the I/O psychology literature on the relationship between WB and ES we conducted demonstrated: (a) there is often a significant positive correlation between the two variables and (b) WB was often designated as the independent variable, and ES was often designated as the dependent variable. However, it should be noted that in none of these studies, WB was manipulated as these studies were neither experiments nor quasi-experiments. They were, in general, anonymous surveys conducted on samples of convenience over which the researcher had no control whatsoever and did not often know whether the intended respondents filled out the survey and whether they filled it out truthfully.

WB and EV/ES constructs' relationship may not be that simple because EV/ES is not well-defined. Firstly, both international and Turkish research shows that WB is indeed among the topics about which employees remain silent, but it is listed less frequently than other reasons – e.g., employees are much more likely to keep silent when they think their supervisor/manager does a poor job of supervising/managing (Cakici & Cakici, 2007). Presumably, WB is seen as a severe violation of the psychological contract between the employee and organization, and employees believe they should speak up when they believe such a severe breach of psychological contract occurred (Eriguc, Ozer, Songur, & Turac, 2014). WB and ES's association weakens, mainly when a general ES scale that does not measure WB silence is used.

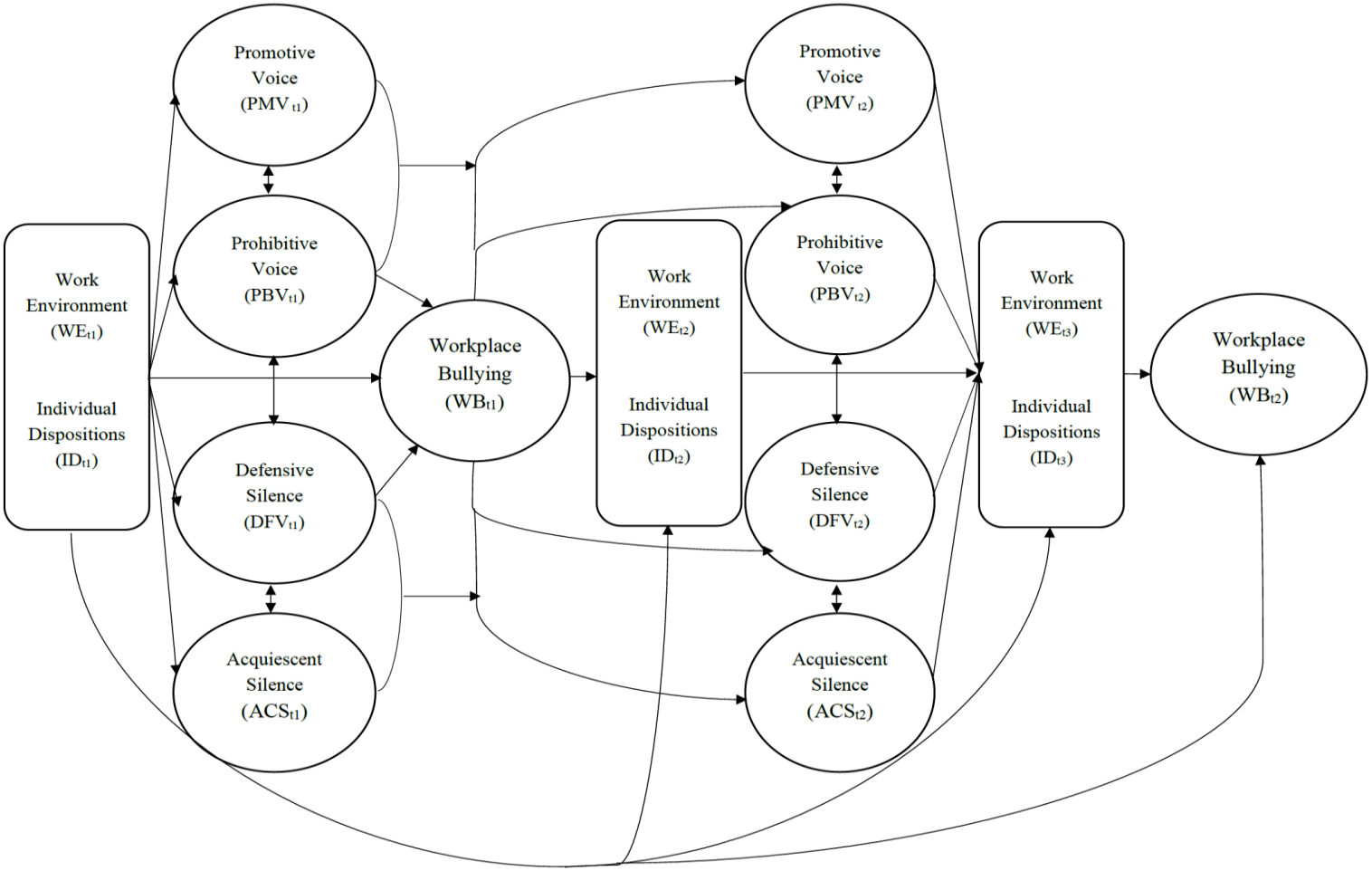
Secondly, often overlooked is that many psychological variables have a temporal dimension and can potentially affect each other (Rohrer, 2018). It is often inaccurate or misleading to talk about cause and effect in psychology in static, non-dynamic terms. For example, it might be argued that an organization that creates a work environment where silence is desired or encouraged is likely to be more conducive to bullying. An organizational culture encouraging voice creates formal (e.g., whistleblowing policy and use of complaint boxes) and informal mechanisms (e.g.,

frequent and prompt feedback, a low power distance organizational culture). In a work environment where silence prevails, or it is the norm / the expected behavior, and there are no voice mechanisms, perpetrators of bullying may start to think that victims will not voice any complaints or that bystanders will not voice any concerns, and the management will not hear about the bullying incidents and that they would not be punished if they committed WB. Therefore, WB easier and more likely to occur. It could be theorized that due to the dynamic and cyclical nature of the relationship between WB and ES, this situation could create a vicious cycle, with even more bullying leading to even more silence. Silence may lead to bullying, and bullying may lead to silence. To make matters more complicated, the managers may actively employ WB to silence employees or keep them silent. Such an organizational culture could create perpetrators so accustomed to committing bullying that they do it automatically and may not even think of it as bullying. Figure 1.1. below provides such a dynamic model of the association between WB and ES. We draw this graph to emphasize the importance of taking measurements at different time points – t1, t2, and t3 in the graph.

Thirdly, it is essential not to overlook individual differences in WB and EV/ES. Certain personality types may be more likely to bully or be bullied and exercise in voice or silence. Getting bullied is a latent voice opportunity, but whether someone will take this opportunity or not may depend not only on the characteristics of the work environment but also on the victim's characteristics such as trait- and state-level self-monitoring and self-efficacy.

Fourthly, even if bullying may lead to silence in the workplace, voice and silence are both multidimensional concepts. We need to investigate whether WB leads to silence solely about the bullying incident or has spillover effects and leads to issue-independent silence. WB may reduce not only the prohibitive voice but also the promotive voice.

Figure 1.1. A Dynamic Model of the Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Employee Silence



Fifthly, we need to examine the effects of WB on the victims and the witnesses to or spectators of WB. If there is a culture of organizational silence, silence will then be widespread, with most people showing a preference for silence whether they are bullied or not, diluting the association's strength between WB and ES.

Perhaps, an organizational change setting may exemplify how the work environment and individual dispositions hypotheses of WB and theories of voice and silence may be integrated and how the individual/organism and environment may interact and contribute WB and ES. We mentioned that any change can create stress and whether it is a result of growth, merging, or downsizing, organizational change is undoubtedly a stressful event and can create a ripe environment for WB (Baillien, Griep, Vander Elst, & De Witte, 2019). Organizational change may act as a stressor, creating a demanding and uncertain work environment that will be challenging for even the most resourceful people. In such an inchoate environment, employees may feel less control, less role clarity, and fewer rewards incommensurate to their efforts. Imagine a recruit is perceived differently from the rest of the herd somehow, e.g., either performs better or more poorly than others, making them an outgroup member. The recruit who underperforms or cannot handle the work demands and the rest of the team may be seen as violating the norms and becoming a target of bullying. If the recruit is high in negative affect and has a negative self-concept, they may be keeping silent due to lack of resources such as experience and self-confidence, and fear of ridicule. Such a lack of resources may lead to both defensive and acquiescent silence. They may then start to blame themselves, thinking they are doing worse than they are. Not engaging in voice due to self-doubt and low voice efficacy, they may start to get stressed even more and perform even more poorly, thus violating the norms even more severely, and become bullied even more and getting more silent at the same time.

On the other hand, if a recruit or newcomer overperforms and exceeds expectations but is perceived as an outsider, s/he may be considered a potential rival by the bully and may become a target (Isik, 2015). However, if such a recruit is high

in positive affect and has a positive self-concept, they may feel anger, become indignant, and retaliate. Compared to the victim mentioned in the previous paragraph, this type of victim would be more likely to take up the latent voice opportunity that WB creates, engage in an even louder voice behavior, and even file a formal complaint. If they observe that the organization does not desire or encourage voice, they may even exit the organization without hesitation. Since they have a positive self-concept (and possibly other internal and external resources), they may believe that they could quickly get a job elsewhere as long as the national economic conditions are favorable. In general, the first type of victim may be the likelier or more plausible scenario, and at first, it may appear counterintuitive to think a successful employee would be a bullying target. In order to attack a relatively robust and successful recruit, a bully must probably feel threatened or perhaps be enabled by the organization and organizational culture, but this type of competitive office cultures may be more commonplace than one thinks in countries such as the U.K. and U.S. (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). This type of victim may not feel the negative (e.g., health) effects of WB as severely as the former type, and maybe that is why we hear less about this type.

1.4.Research Aim and Objective

The exacerbating role of employee silence on work bullying's adverse health effects is a significant concern; occupational stress and illnesses are the major consequences. It appears that not a lot of research has been done on the link between WB and ES either globally or in Turkey, and Harlos and Knoll (2018) note that the unclarity associated with the ES construct would make a systematic review difficult, but this study will systematically review and discuss what has been done so far. A literature review we conducted found one meta-analytic study examining the associations between ES and six other variables, including WB in Turkey's educational institutions (Akar, 2018). However, this study does not appear to have followed

PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis) and may be flawed. Only one of the five studies included in this meta-analytic study reported a bivariate Pearson correlation coefficient between WB and ES even though the meta-analysis is supposed to be based on pooled correlation coefficients. They have substituted structural equation coefficients, regression coefficients, or some other measure for correlation coefficients, but this would introduce bias. It seems that there have been many meta-analytical studies investigating the associations between WB and many other variables such as burnout, job satisfaction, intention to leave work, leadership, and organizational commitment in Turkey (e.g., Iri, 2015; Hosgor & Gun, 2020; Ulbegi & Yalcin, 2015). However, these studies did not report that they followed any official guidelines or standards, such as MOOSE (Meta-analyses of Observational Studies in Epidemiology) or PRISMA, making it difficult not impossible to reproduce them, casting doubt on the applicability and generalizability of their findings.

The literature review shows a positive association between WB and ES, and there is some concern that when it is an effect of WB, ES may exacerbate the negative (health) effects of WB and contribute to occupational stress illnesses (Harlos & Knoll, 2018), so that it is more critical to understand the exact nature of the relationship between WB and ES. Hence, this study aims to systematically review the studies conducted in Turkey on the link between WB and ES. The initial estimate of the (linear) association between WB and ES will be calculated, and the conceptualizations and operationalizations of these two constructs and the moderators and mediators included in these early studies will be reviewed. We hope that this study will guide future research on WB and ES, lead researchers to develop better calibrated and to-the-point measures of ES, identify the causal links between WB and (types of) ES, and help future studies that develop interventions that aim to reduce WB and increase employee voice (EV).

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

This study adopts the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA) guidelines (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, & Group, 2009). The PRISMA guidelines introduce the basic standards for conducting systematic reviews and meta-analyses so that other researchers can reproduce a systematic review and meta-analysis if they wanted.

2.1. Search Strategy and Inclusion Criteria

We conducted searches in EBSCO, Google Scholar, DergiPark, and Turkish National Dissertation and Thesis Center databases from the beginning till January 2021. We also searched Google and reviewed the last five years of the Turkish National Management and Organization Congress proceedings for relevant research. We searched for articles on WB in Turkey and later identified ES as our second variable of interest. The searches used keywords both in Turkish and English related to WB, ES, and EV, and where applicable, applied not only to titles and abstracts but to the entire texts. Please see Table 2.1. below lists the keywords used in the searches.

Table 2.1. Search Terms Used in the Literature Search[4]

Keyword 1	Keyword 2	Keyword 3
Sessizlik	Bezdirme	
Sessizlik	Duygusal saldiri	
Sessizlik	Mobbing	
Sessizlik	Psikolojik siddet	
Sessizlik	Psikolojik taciz	
Sessizlik	Psikolojik terror	
Sessizlik	Yildirma	
Sessizlik	Zorbalik	
Silence	Bullying	Turkey
Silence	Mobbing	Turkey
Silence	Violence	Turkey

To reduce the risks of biases associated with detecting and selecting studies, we strived to include every study in the systematic review that was written either in Turkish or English, used Turkish samples, and examined the relationship between WB and ES – even when WB or ES was not the main variables of interest. It did not matter whether the study was published or not – as long as it was made available online. Since few studies investigated the link between WB and ES with or without Turkish samples, we could not be very picky. We did not exclude any study based on the study design,

[4] Sessizlik: Silence in Turkish.
Bezdirme, mobbing, yildirma, and zorbalık: All are used to mean bullying.
Duygusal saldiri: Emotional aggression or attack.
Psikolojik şiddet, psikolojik taciz, and psikolojik terror: Psychological violence, psychological harassment or abuse, and psychological terror, respectively.

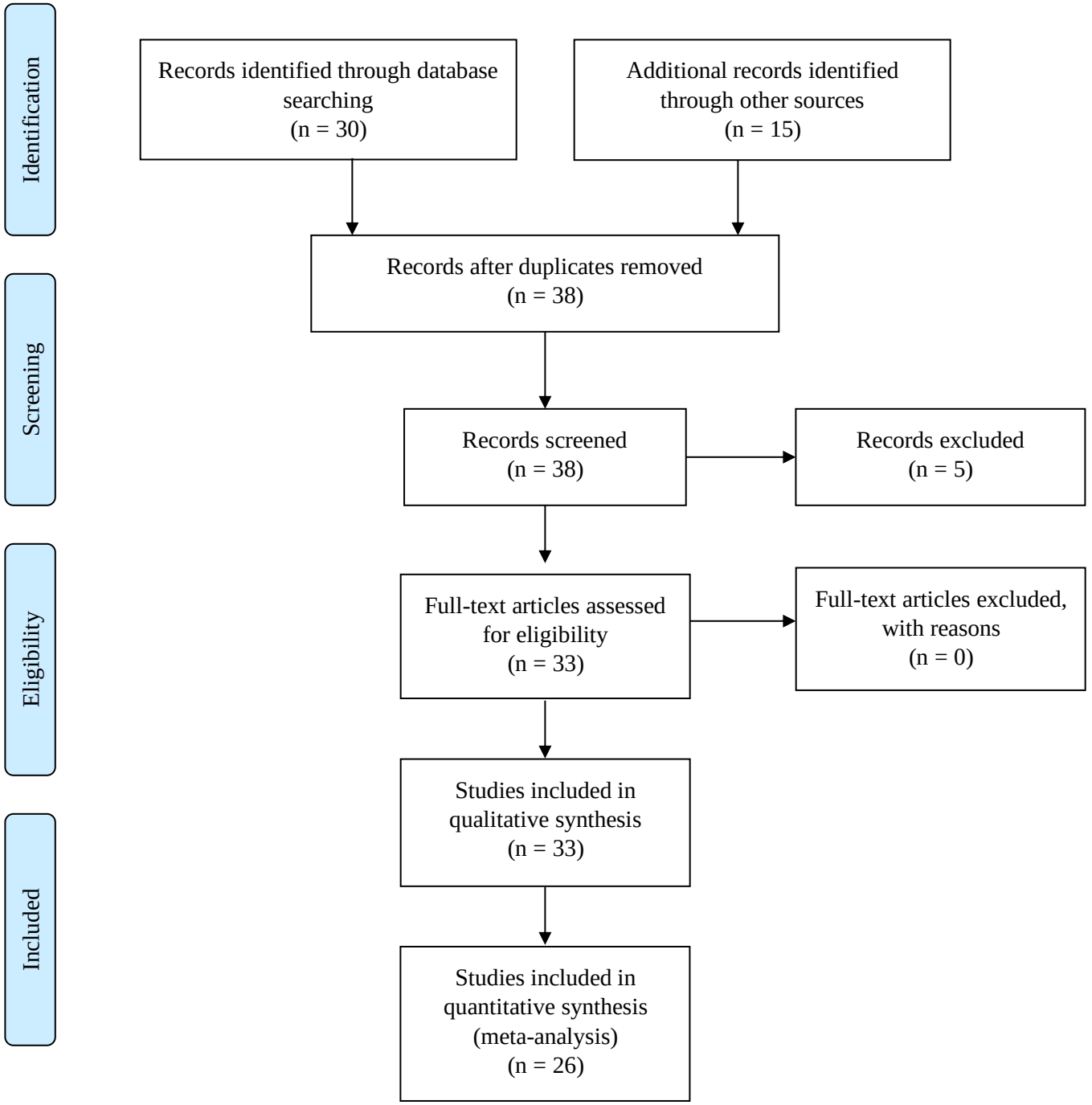
sampling method, or participant demographics. However, a risk of bias assessment has been conducted. See Table 2.2. below for the checklist.

Table 2.2. Risk of Bias Assessment of the Studies Included in the Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

A. SAMPLING AND REPRESENTATIVENESS
1. Was a probability sampling method was used?
i. Probability sampling (including simple random, systematic, stratified, cluster,
ii. Non-probability sampling (including: purposive, quota, convenience, and
2. Was the response rate reported?
i. Yes ii. No
3. Is there a risk of selection bias caused by the selection of a single industry?
i. Yes ii. No
4. Are the individuals who participate in the study selected from 1-5 organizations
i. 1-5 ii. >= 10
5. Is the sample size adequate for establishing relationships?
i. Yes ii. No
B. MEASUREMENT AND CONFOUNDERS
6. Was the study design experimental or quasi-experimental?
i. Yes ii. No
7. Was the study design cross-sectional or longitudinal?
i. Cross-Sectional ii. Longitudinal
8. How was workplace bullying measured?
i. A version of LIPT (1993) or NAQ-R (1997) ii. Some other scale
9. Was the factor structure of the original scale more or less preserved?
i. Yes ii. No
10. How was employee silence measured?
i. A version of Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero (2003) or Cakici and Cakici (2007) scales
ii. Some other scale
11. Was the factor structure of the original scale more or less preserved?
i. Yes ii. No
12. Were an adequate number of statistical tests performed?
i. Yes ii. No
13. Were meaningful moderating variables checked for?
i. Yes ii. No
14. Were meaningful mediating variables checked for?
i. Yes ii. No
16. Is there a risk of bias caused by the inadequate confirmation and consideration
i. Yes ii. No

We also searched the selected articles' reference lists to check whether any relevant articles were missed in the previous searches. The articles that the keyword searches produced were screened first by their titles, then by their abstracts, and finally by their full texts, and the 33 articles that were on-topic and used quantitative methods were selected for data extraction. Sixteen of the articles were master's theses, one was a doctoral dissertation, and 16 were published either in conference proceedings or scientific journals (five of these were based on previous master's theses). One article (Tunbul, 2018) examined the relationship between WB and EV, and we included it in the systematic review and meta-analysis, converting the negative correlation between WB and EV into positive. Another article (Kumral, 2017) examined the relationship between workplace incivility and ES. We included it in the systematic review and meta-analysis as well – the workplace incivility scale showed many similarities with the WB scales used by the articles in the systematic reviews. We performed post hoc analyses to check whether any particular article's inclusion or exclusion made a difference in the pooled effect size and/or heterogeneity. Figure 2.1. adapted from Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, Altman, and Group (2009), illustrates the study search and selection process.

Figure 2.1. PRISMA Flow Diagram



2.2. Data Extraction and Analysis

All the relevant and available information from the selected studies were extracted and entered in Microsoft Excel using a coding sheet. The coding sheet contained the following information: the year the study was published, defended, or presented, publication status, measurement of WB and ES (i.e., what scales were used, how many subdimensions were identified, how these differed from the original scales, the mean, standard deviation and Cronbach's alpha values, and the Pearson's correlation coefficients between WB and ES dimensions as well as the subdimensions), measurement of any mediating and moderating variables, the theoretical frameworks (i.e., how the study related WB and ES to each other, how many hypotheses were tested), whether the study is cross-sectional or longitudinal, experimental/quasi-experimental or correlational, the sampling method, the proposed sample size, how many respondents responded, how many of the respondents were included in the statistical analyses, whether the participants were selected from a single organization or multiple organizations, the industry/sector information on the organization(s), and the location(s) of the organization(s). An overview of the studies is presented below in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Characteristics of the Studies Included in the Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

Author, year	Industry	Province	N	Sample type	Workplace bullying scale	Mean (SD)	Employee silence scale	Mean (SD)	Pearson's r	Quality score
Aslan & Akarcay Ulutas, 2018	Health	Konya	512	Random (?)	Einarsen & Raknes, 1997	1.86 (1.05)	Van Dyne et al., 2003	2.54 (0.74)	0.29	7
Atasever, 2013	Textile	Gaziantep	211	Random (?)	Leymann, 1993; Tokat, 2011	2.90 (n.a.)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007; Durak, 2012	3.10 (n.a.)	0.63	9
Ciceklioglu, 2018	Hospitality	Antalya	130	n.a	Leymann, 1993	n.a	Kahveci & Demirtas, 2013	n.a	0.28	4
Demirtas, 2018	Hospitality	Aydin	421	Non-random	Einarsen & Raknes, 1997	2.35 (0.72)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007; Soycan, 2010	2.88 (1.13)	0.67	8
Dincer, 2017	Energy	Istanbul	203	Random (?)	Leymann, 1993; Aylan, 2012	1.52 (n.a.)	Van Dyne et al., 2003; Kahya, 2013	2.46 (n.a.)	0.26	8
Elci & Erdilek Karabay, 2016	Service	Misc.	607	Random (?)	Pranjic et al., 2006	2.49 (0.99)	Van Dyne et al., 2003	2.66 (0.59)	0.16	9
Elci et al., 2014	Misc.	Misc.	1794	n.a	Pranjic et al., 2006	2.28 (n.a.)	Van Dyne et al., 2003	1.98 (n.a.)	0.39	5

Gulsen, 2015	Printing	Istanbul	110	Non-random	Leymann, 1993	1.42 (0.56)	Van Dyne et al., 2003; Briensfield, 2009	2.46 (0.71)	0.30	4
Kalay et al., 2014	Education	Van	240	Non-random	Leymann, 1993	1.36 (n.a.)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007	2.64 (n.a.)	0.25	6
Karaman, 2015	Education	Afyon	329	n.a	Tanham & Cam, 2009	1.30 (.35)	Van Dyne et al., 2003; Alparslan, 2010	1.90 (0.57)	0.30	6
Kaygin & Atay, 2014	Government	Kars	72	n.a	Leymann, 1993	1.42 (n.a)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007	2.06 (n.a.)	0.41	7
Kiranli Gungor & Potuk, 2018	Education	Afyon	842	Random (?)	Leymann, 1993; Ehi, 2011	1.28 (0.39)	Van Dyne et al., 2003; Erdogan, 2011	2.70 (0.44)	0.21	9
Kumral, 2017	Health	Izmir	200	n.a	incivility: Cortina et al., 2001; Polatci & Ozcalik, 2013	2.64 (n.a)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007	2.99 (n.a.)	0.60	5
Sonmez, 2019	Hospitality	Sivas	158	n.a	Einarsen & Raknes, 1997	1.57 (0.68)	Van Dyne et al., 2003	2.37 (0.94)	0.70	6
Tas et al., 2013	Education	Ankara	157	Non-random	Leymann, 1993; Ozcan, 2011	1.68 (0.53)	Cakici & Cakici, 2007	2.62 (0.84)	0.61	5

Tunbul, 2018	Education	Edirne	293	Non-random	Steffgen et al., 2016; Dolma, n.a.	1.82 (0.72)	voice: Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998	4.17 (0.69)	0.31	2
Uca, 2019	Hospitality	Aksaray	138	n.a	Tinaz et al., 2010	1.78 (0.66)	Van Dyne et al., 2003; Şehitoglu & Zehir, 2010	2.48 (0.83)	0.33	4

All of the 33 studies included in the systematic review used cross-sectional designs, and none were experimental or quasi-experimental, making it impossible to calculate an effect size based on the means and standard deviations of WB and ES. Correlation coefficients were the most frequently reported measures of the effect sizes: 27 of the 33 studies reported at least one correlation coefficient between WB or ES or between some subdimensions of WB and ES.[5] Some studies conducted regression analyses and reported regression coefficients, but few of these regressions included the same variables - the subdimensions of WB and ES were often entered into the regression analyses as separate variables. Although there are methods to do meta-analysis based on the regression coefficients, such as concealed correlations meta-analysis, we did not do that path as there were not enough regression coefficients, and meta-analyses are based on regression coefficients may still be biased (Fernández-Castilla et al., 2019). The bivariate Pearson correlation coefficients between the WB and ES constructs were pooled in a meta-analysis. Only 17 of the studies provided such correlation coefficients between the WB and ES dimensions scores. The systematic review indicated that the samples of the 33 studies were unlikely to come from the same population, and we used the more reasonable random-effects model rather than the fixed-effects model. We report the random-effects meta-analysis results in this study, but the forest plots show the effect sizes and confidence intervals for both the fixed and random-effects models. The meta-analysis and the subgroup analyses were conducted on *R* with *meta*, *metaphor*, and *dmetar* packages (Harrer, Cuijpers, Furukawa, & Ebert, 2019). Cochran *Q* and I^2 statistics were used to investigate heterogeneity, and the Egger test was used to check for publication bias. We conducted (a) post hoc meta-analyses to examine the associations between WB and subdimensions of ES, (b) subgroup analyses to investigate the effects of using different

[5] However, one of these studies (Ozturk & Cevher, 2016) only reported an ordinal level measure of correlation and could not be included in any of the meta-analyses.

ES scales, the publication status of the studies, and the study risk of bias, c) outlier and influence analyses to examine the effects of individual studies on the overall results.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Study Characteristics

Thirty-three studies were included in the systematic review. The participant characteristics varied widely from study to study, with sample sizes ranging from *n = 72* to *n = 1794* and a total *n* of *10,710.*

Fifteen studies selected their participants from public organizations; at least 10 of these were educational organizations. Eleven studies had a sample from private organizations, six of them were in hospitality and tourism or other services, four in manufacturing. Four studies were with participants from both public and private organizations. Three studies did not report any information on the public-private distinction.

Thirteen studies selected their samples from single organizations, casting doubt on representativeness and generalizability. Sixteen of the studies, on the other hand, had respondents from 10 or more organizations.

Two studies did not report any information on gender, but approximately 51% of the participants were male for the remaining studies. However, the studies were quite heterogeneous, ranging from one mixed (qualitative and quantitative) method study with only women academics as participants (Koroncu Ozbilen, 2017) to a study of primarily male (91%) factory workers with primary school degrees (Tutar, 2017).

Four studies did not report any information on participants' education level. However, among the remaining studies, participants with a university degree constituted the modal category in 16 studies, participants with a high school degree were the modal category in eight of them, participants with a graduate degree were the

modal category in three of them, and participants with a primary school degree were the modal category in two of them.

Based on the gender, educational, and sectoral compositions, it would be accurate to say that the samples as a whole are not representative of the documented working population in Turkey (let alone the undocumented working population). Indeed, more men, high school graduates, and service sector employees (other than education) are there in Turkey's labor force (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2020). It is probable that WB perceptions differ based on the level of education, both qualitatively and quantitively, making comparisons more difficult. If a woman academic in Istanbul and a male primary school graduate factory worker in Hatay rate a WB scale item as 4 out of 5, does that mean they had similar workplace bullying experiences? Interestingly, the systematic review showed that the women academics reported a higher prevalence of WB than the factory workers in Hatay ($\bar{X} = 2.65$ in the former sample, compared to $\bar{X} = 1.66$ in the latter sample), but the two studies used different WB scales, and comparing them is misleading.

The systematic review showed that WB was not very widespread and that the WB scale means were generally low across the studies. On the other hand, ES was more prevalent. These findings are unsurprising and in line with expectations. Even though there are studies like the Bilgel, Aytac, and Bayram (2006) study which found WB prevalence rates of 51% in Turkey, these results are more likely to be produced by methodological artifacts (Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2010) (See the part on sampling choices and overreliance on self-report in the methodological problems section of the discussion part). The mean WB score (unweighted by study sample size) was 1.81, while the mean ES score (again, unweighted by study sample size) was *2.63*, indicating a difference of *0.82* points. Both WB and ES were measured (or recalculated by us) on a 5-point Likert scale. The lower the mean WB is, the lower the correlation coefficient between WB and ES, probably indicating minor WB variance, reducing WB and ES.

3.1.1. Problems with Workplace Bullying Scales

We only discuss the WB scales in this part as the ES scales are dissected in this study's discussion. Fifteen of the 33 studies included in the systematic review measured WB using some version of LIPT or some scale based on it or adapted from it. Ten studies used NAQ-R or some scale adapted from it. The remaining eight studies used some other WB scale. However, the NAQ-R may be getting more popular over time. Only three of the 17 studies conducted, printed, or made available online between 2011 and 2016 used NAQ-R or some version of it, whereas seven out of 16 studies from 2017 to 2020 used NAQ-R or some version. It is not clear why researchers select one scale over another. However, these choices often seem arbitrary and make systematic reviews and meta-analyses difficult, contributing to the comparison-of-apples-and-oranges problem, not an unfair accusation often directed at meta-analyses. What is worse, even if two studies adopt the same scale, the scales frequently do not consist of the same items or even the same subdimensions. While it is acceptable and indeed recommended to do a confirmatory factor analysis to examine whether the original factor structure of the scale is reliably replicated, it is unclear why an exploratory factor analysis should be performed on a scale that is already established as valid, and, say, a five-dimensional scale should be made two dimensional (Levine, Hullett, Turner, & Lapinski, 2006). These practices – part of the researcher's degrees of freedom – may contribute to the replication crisis in psychology.

When we examined the 17 studies, we included in the primary meta-analysis, eight of the studies used a WB scale based on LIPT, but these scales vary in themselves. LIPT was adapted into Turkish many times by different researchers. For example, four different articles are cited as the source of LIPT by four of the studies in our meta-analysis. There were slight differences among the Turkish translations. The number of scale items used ranges from 14 (Atasever, 2013) to 45 (Dincer, 2017). Some studies use shorter – probably previously tested – versions of LIPT, and some other studies

remove certain items from some pilot study and factor analysis they conduct. Not only the number of items but the number of subdimensions vary as well. Even though the original LIPT has 45 questions and five subdimensions, one reviewed study removed two dimensions (Atasever, 2013), and another study removed one dimension (Tas, Ergeneli, Akyol, & Demirel, 2013). Only 3 of the 17 studies use NAQ-R, but we noticed that one study removed six items from NAQ-R as a result of a factor analysis they conducted (Aslan & Akarcay Ulutas, 2018), and another study removed 8 items, again, as a result of factor analysis (Demirtas, 2018). The remaining six studies used five different scales of different sizes, with seven to 33 items.

3.2. Risk of Bias

The researchers who conduct systematic reviews and meta-analyses often have to take the studies' claims in question at face value. If the original studies' researchers do not report everything or omit to report or misreport specific facts about their research -on sampling, design, and analysis- then the systematic review and meta-analyses would be unreliable or even invalid.

We adopted and modified the risk of bias assessment checklist used by (Nielsen, Pallesen, Harris, and Einarsen (2018) in their systematic review and meta-analysis of the association between WB and sleep. The problem with preparing risk of bias assessments for survey data is that these assessments are generally intended for random assignment and IV manipulation experiments. Here, we have neither. The overall quality of the studies was overall low. On a scale where 0 indicated the lowest quality and 15 the highest quality, the mean quality rating was 6.09. We did not produce any risk of bias plot.

There were no experimental or longitudinal studies, and the researchers did not appear to have much control over the research process - one study mentioned that they did face-to-face surveys (Ciceklioglu, 2018), and another one noted that they did both

face-to-face surveys and also used the drop and collect method (Kalay, Ograk, & Nisanci, 2014). Some studies claim that their samples were random, but we cannot verify this claim. We believe they use the word random not in the scientific or statistical sense, but as used in everyday life – which is a grave mistake. We used information such as the number of industries and organizations the participants were selected to assess the samples' randomness and representativeness. The samples were not representative of the general population, and the studies did not usually claim that their findings may be generalized to the general population. Some studies restricted their population to a specific occupational group in a particular city and sometimes even to a particular organization. Some studies claimed their samples were, in fact, their entire population of interest, but in that case, there is not much point in doing inferential statistics. No study conducted any power analysis to justify sample sizes. Most studies did a poor job of controlling for confounders either in their designs or analyses. Many studies also omitted to include vital summary statistics and report full statistical test results. We talk about the problems with ES elsewhere's measurement, but we must put caution in interpreting the results of this systematic review and meta-analysis in general.

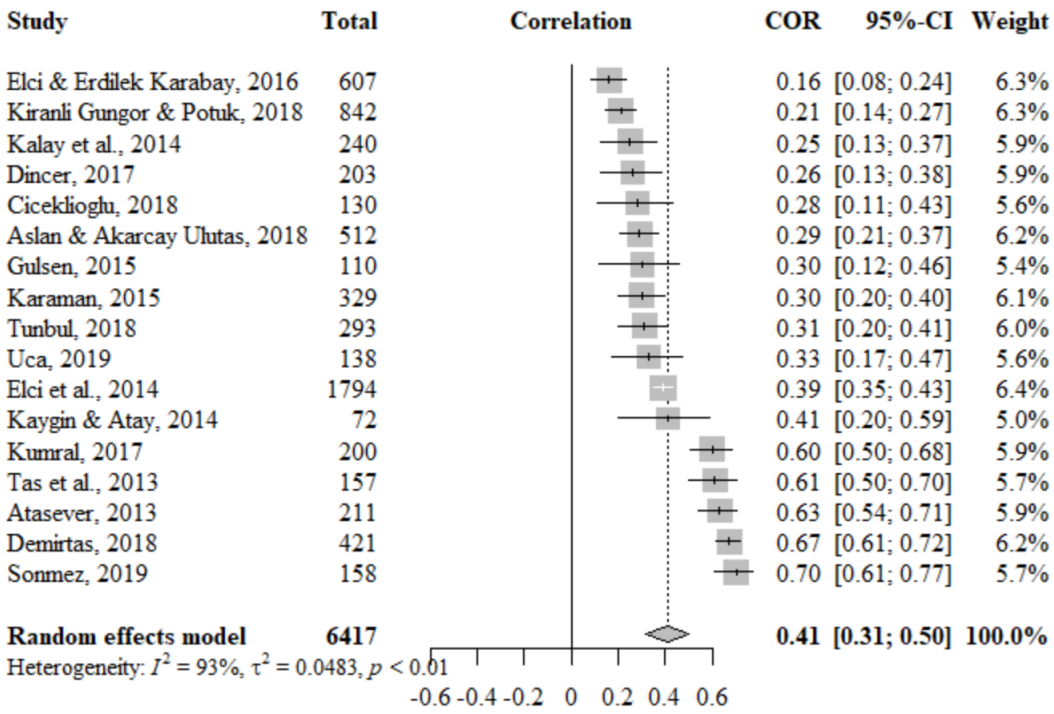
3.3. Meta-Analyses

Seventeen studies were included in the primary random-effects meta-analysis examining the association between WB and ES. These 17 studies combined in the meta-analysis reported correlation coefficients between the full WB and ES scales. The remaining studies either did not report any correlation coefficient or reported only Spearman correlation coefficients or Pearson correlations between WB and ES subdimensions, making combining them in this meta-analysis problematic. However, separate post hoc meta-analyses were conducted, investigating the associations between WB and acquiescent, defensive, prosocial, and relational silence – four subdimensions of ES, based on the ES scale developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and updated by Brinsfield (2013). One study (Caglar, 2018) found a negative

association between WB and acquiescent and defensive silence subdimensions. We suspected that the findings might result from a coding error and did not include this study in the post hoc meta-analyses. The study did not report any Pearson correlation between WB and ES to begin with and was not included in the primary meta-analysis in any case.

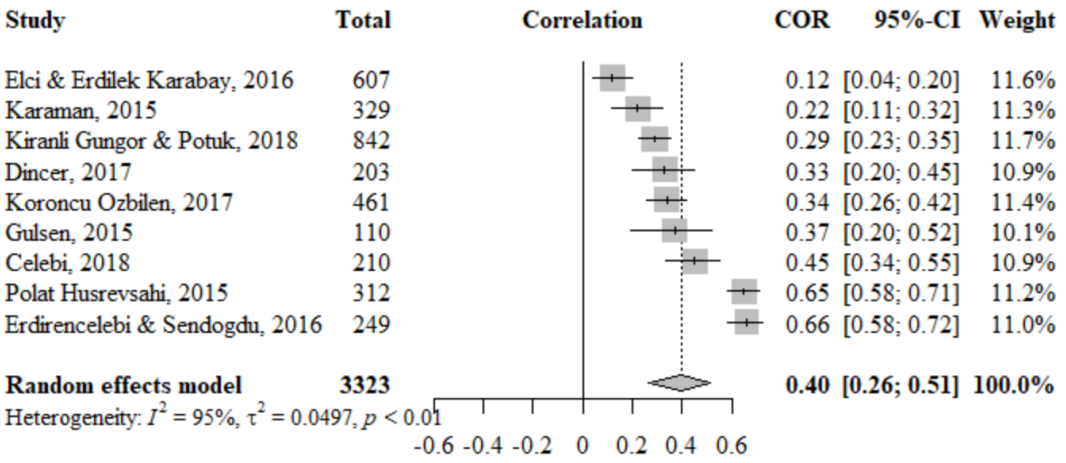
We found a statistically significant positive association between WB and ES (pooled correlation coefficient *r = 0.41, 95% CI = 0.31* to *0.50, z = 7.78, p <.0001*) (Figure 3.1), a sign of moderate effect size with WB accounting for 16.79% of the variance in ES or vice versa. There was very high and statistically significant heterogeneity between the studies [I^2 *= 93.5%; Q(16) = 244.99, p <.0001*], and no evidence of publication bias (Egger test *p = .3284*).

Figure 3.1. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Employee Silence



A total of nine studies were included in a post hoc random-effects meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between WB and acquiescent silence. We again found a significant positive association between WB and acquiescent silence (pooled correlation coefficient *r = 0.40, 95% CI = 0.26* to *0.51, z = 5.43, p <.0001*) (Figure 3.2.), signaling a moderate effect size with WB accounting for 15.79% of the variance in acquiescent silence or vice versa. The level of heterogeneity between the studies was again very high and statistically significant [I^2 *= 94.5%; Q(8) = 146.52, p <.0001*]. We did not use Egger's test as it is recommended that it be used only when the number of studies is higher than 10 (Harrer, Cuijpers, Furukawa, & Ebert, 2019).

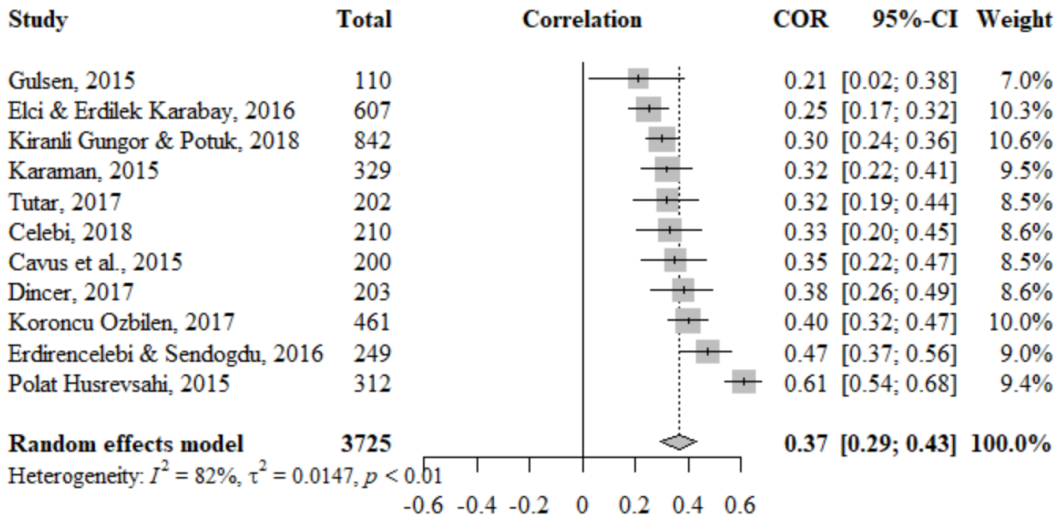
Figure 3.2. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Acquiescent Silence



Eleven studies were included in the post hoc random-effects meta-analysis investigating the relationship between WB and defensive silence. There was again a significant positive association between WB and defensive silence (pooled correlation coefficient *r = 0.37, 95% CI = 0.29 to 0.43, z = 9.33, p <.0001*) (Figure 3.3.). A moderate effect is indicating that WB accounted for 13.40% of the variance in

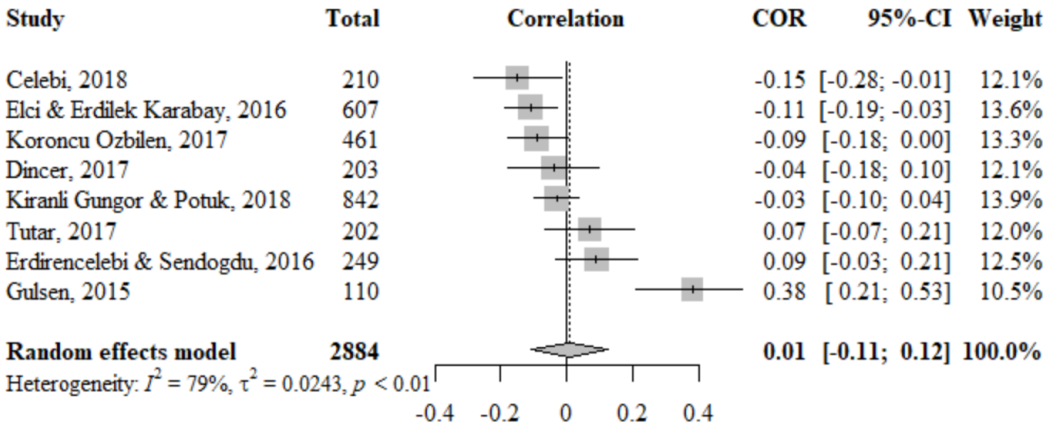
defensive silence or vice versa. There was again rather high and statistically significant heterogeneity between the studies [I^2 = *82.2%; Q(10) = 56.25, p <.0001*], and no evidence of publication bias (Egger test *p = .5249*).

Figure 3.3. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Defensive Silence



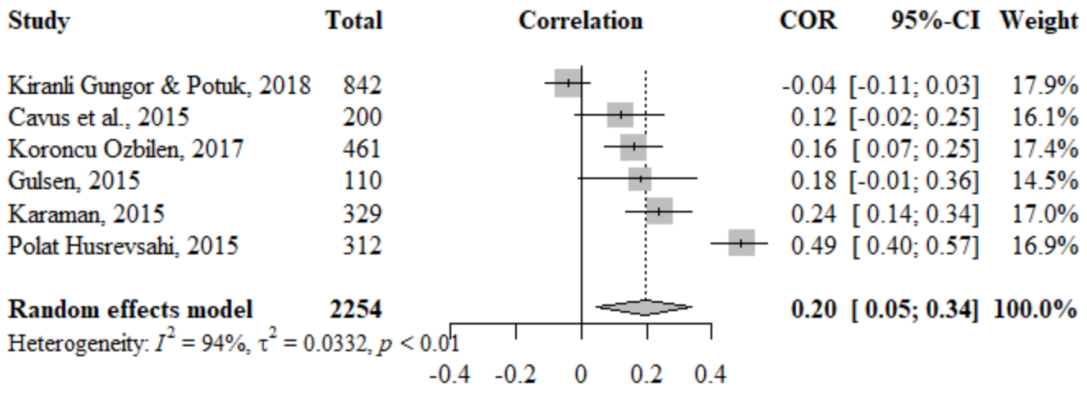
Eight studies were included in the post hoc random-effects meta-analysis investigating the relationship between WB and prosocial silence. There was no association between WB and prosocial silence (pooled correlation coefficient *r = 0.01, 95% CI = -0.11 to 0.12, z = 0.13, p <.8943*) (Figure 3.4.). WB accounted for 0.01% of the variance in prosocial or vice versa. There was high and statistically significant heterogeneity between the studies [I^2 = *79.0%; Q(7) = 244.99, p <.0001*].

Figure 3.4. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Prosocial Silence



Six studies were included in the post hoc random-effects meta-analysis investigating the relationship between WB and relational silence. We found a significant positive association between WB and relational silence pooled correlation coefficient *r = 0.20, 95% CI = 0.31* to *0.50, z = 7.78, p <.0001*) (Figure 3.5). A small effect indicates WB accounted for 3.90% of the variance in relational silence or vice versa. There was very high and statistically significant heterogeneity between the studies [I^2 *= 93.5%; Q(16) = 244.99, p <.0001*].

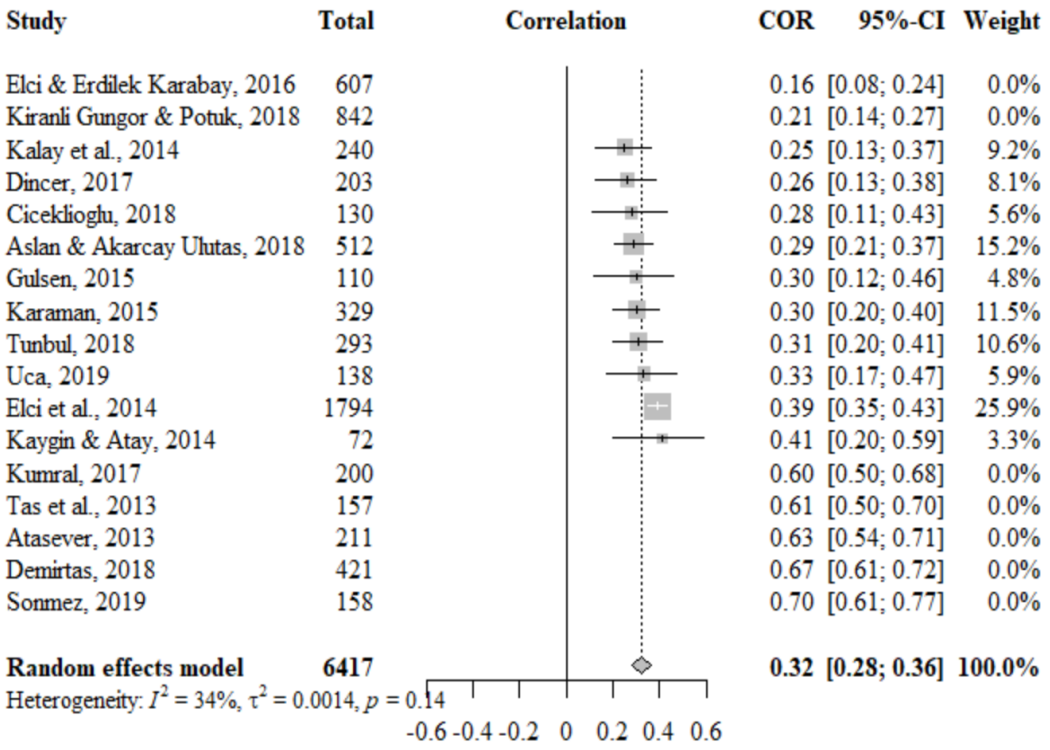
Figure 3.5. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Relational Silence



3.4. Outlier and Influence Analyses

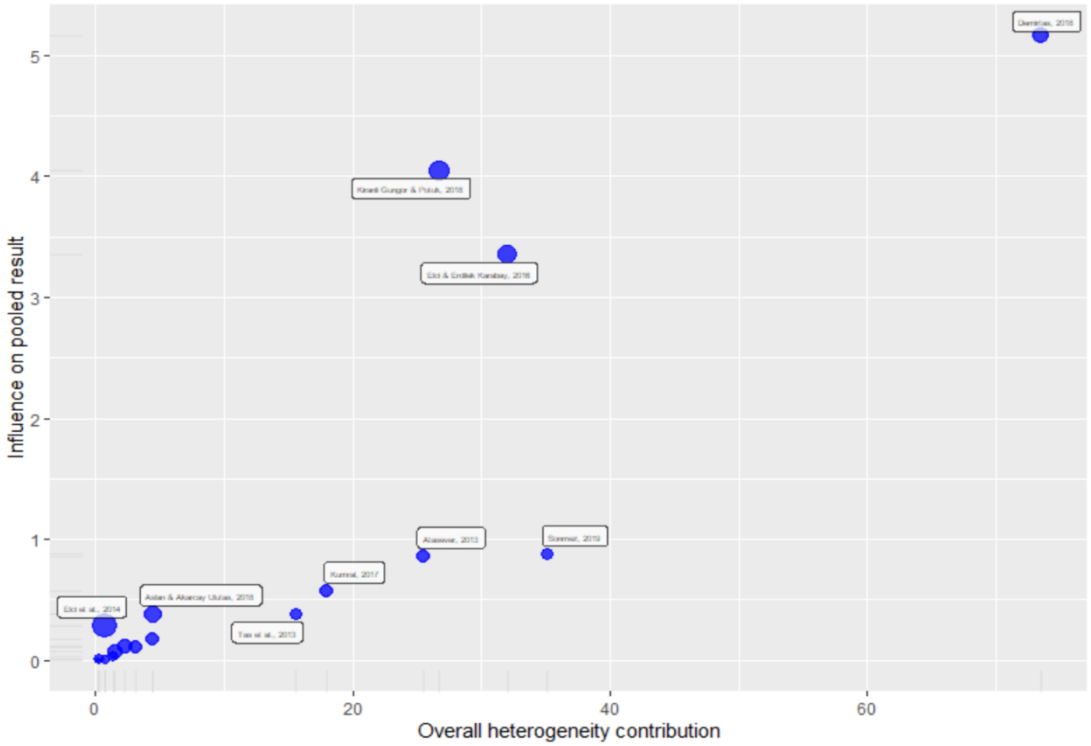
Not surprisingly, between-studies heterogeneity was very high. We examined whether any studies were outliers that increased heterogeneity and whether our pooled effect estimate was robust to such outliers' effects. We removed the studies whose confidence intervals were outside the pooled effect confidence interval (*g = .326* and *g = .545*) and reran the analysis. There were seven studies that fitted this definition (Atasever, 2013; Demirtas, 2018; Elci & Erdilek Karabay, 2016; Kumral, 2017; Kiranli Gungor & Potuk, 2018; Sonmez, 2019; Tas, Ergeneli, Akyol & Demirel, 2013). Figure 3.6. shows that when the outliers were removed I^2 shrank to *34%* from *94%*, and is no longer significant (*p = 0.1368*), but our pooled correlation coefficient also shrank from *r = 0.41* to *r = 0.32*, with *95% CI = 0.28* to *0.36, z = 14.56*, and *p <.0001*.

Figure 3.6. Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Employee Silence with Outliers Removed



To examine how much each study contributes to heterogeneity, and influences our pooled effect size, a Baujat plot (Figure 3.7.) was created (Baujat, Mahe, Pignon, & Hill, 2002). The x-axis shows how much each study contributes to heterogeneity (measured by Cochran's Q), and the y-axis shows the influence of the study on the pooled effect size. Indeed, we see that the seven outliers we identified contribute a great deal to heterogeneity. Demirtas (2018), Kiranli Gungor and Potuk (2018), and Elci & Erdilek Karabay (2016) are also very influential due to larger sample sizes. Atasever (2013), Kumral (2017), Sonmez (2019), and Tas, Ergeneli, Akyol, and Demirel (2013) are not as influential as the other three as they are smaller in sample size, but they nonetheless contribute to heterogeneity.

Figure 3.7. Baujat Plot Showing Each Study's Contribution to Heterogeneity and Pooled Effect Size



We used a GOSH (Graphic Display of Heterogeneity) plot to further explore heterogeneity (Figure 3.8.). GOSH plots require performing the same meta-analysis on all possible subsets of the 17 studies. That is to say, 2^{16} models were fit to produce the GOSH plot in Figure V. The x-axis shows the pooled effect size, and the y-axis shows the between-study heterogeneity. It looks like there are two unequal subclusters: there is a small number of studies with medium effect sizes between *.2* and *.4* with an extensive range of heterogeneity, while the large majority of studies have larger effect sizes between *.3* and *.6* and significant heterogeneity. We fit a Gaussian mixture model using the *gosh.diagnostics* function of the *dmetar* package to investigate the subclusters. The model identified six studies that did not fit with the rest: Elci & Erdilek Karabay, 2016; Kiranli Gungor & Potuk, 2018; Cicekliogl u, 2018; Uca, 2019; Elci, Erdilek

Karabay, Alpkan, & Sener, 2014; Kaygin & Atay, 2014. When doing another meta-analysis, excluding these six studies, we observe that two distinct subclusters emerge (Figure 3.9.). The upper subcluster in the forest plot is mostly (except one study) comprised of the ES scales derived from Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013), and the lower subcluster is mostly (except one study) comprised of the ES scales derived from Cakici and Cakici (2007). In one subgroup analysis (see below), we compared the groups of studies used either the former or latter scale.

Figure 3.8. GOSH Plot Examining Between-Study Heterogeneity and Effect Size

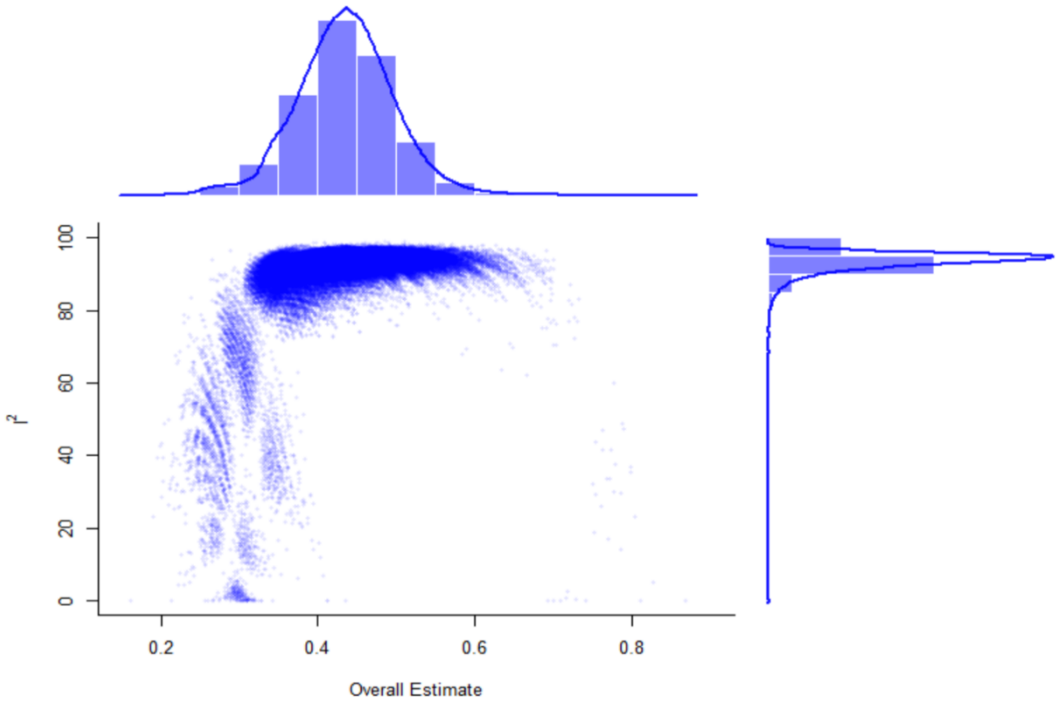
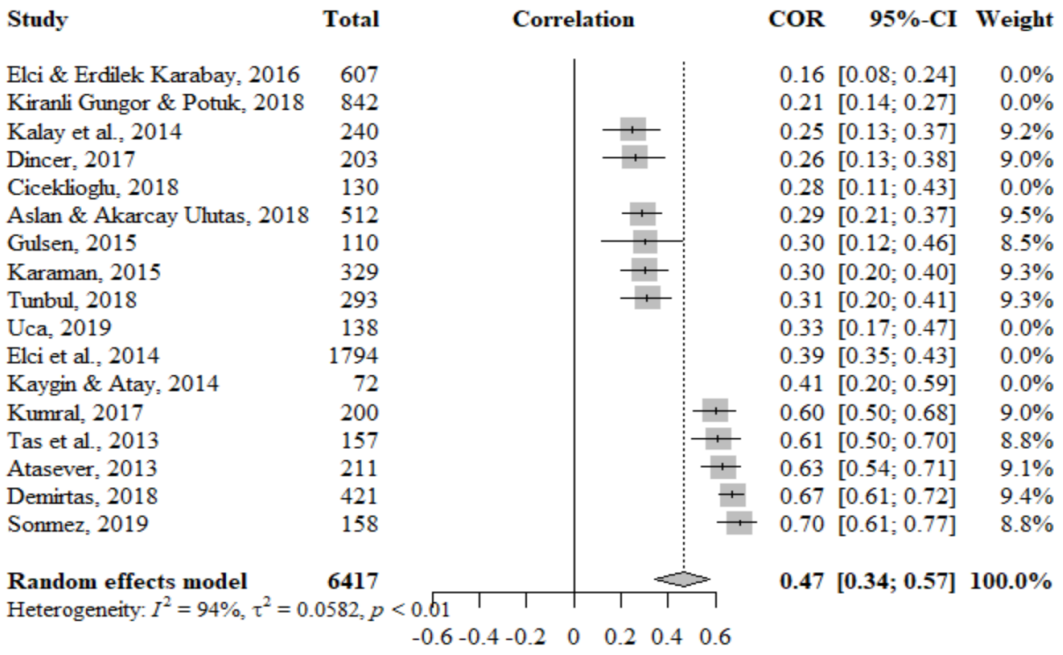


Figure 3.9. A Meta-Analysis of Correlation Coefficients Between Workplace Bullying and Employee Silence with Six Studies Excluded Based on Subcluster Analysis

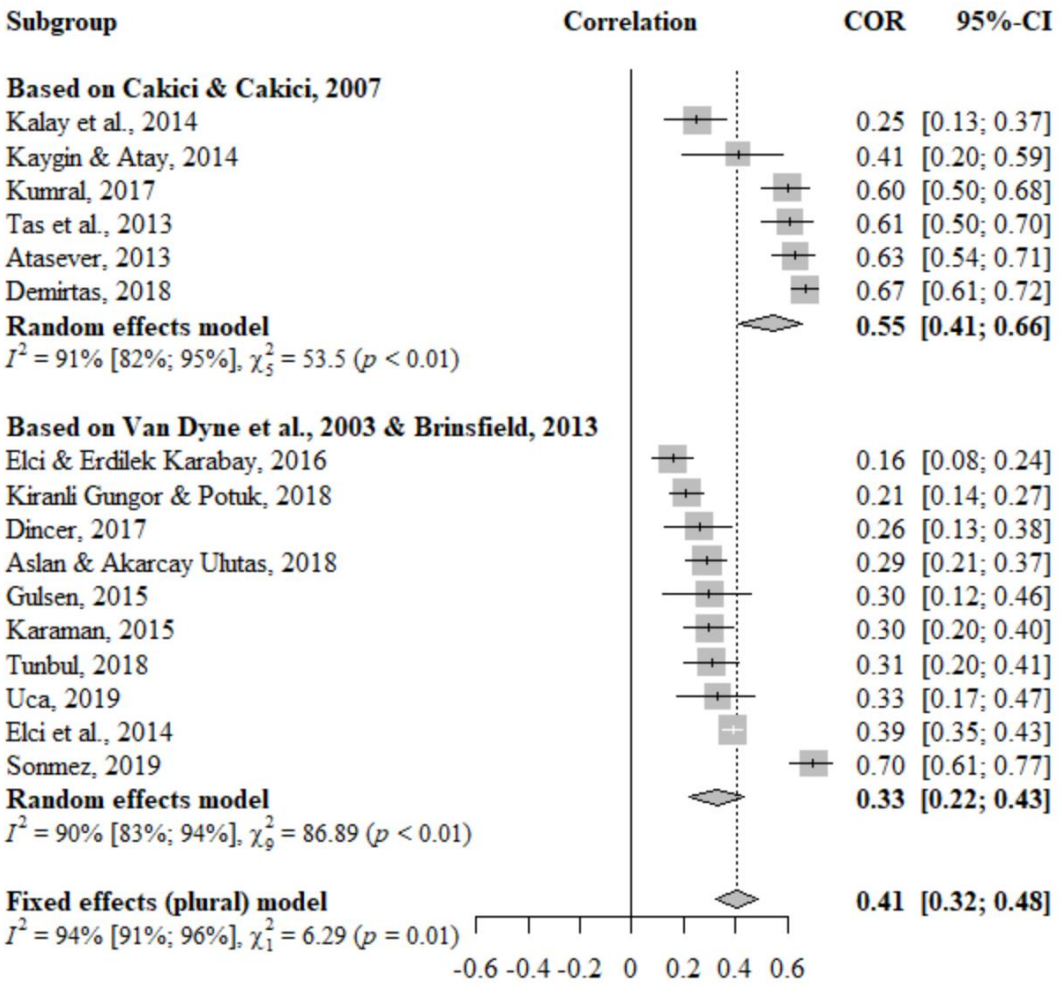


3.5. Subgroup Analyses

Ten studies that reported a Pearson correlation coefficient between WB and ES scales utilized some version of the scale developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013), and six utilized a version of the scale developed by Cakici and Cakici (2007). There were important differences in the items and dimensions that made these scales, and the correlation coefficients reported between WB and ES appeared somewhat higher in the studies that employed some version of the Cakici and Cakici scale, compared to the studies that employed some version of the Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero scale. Therefore, we conducted a post hoc subgroup analysis in *R* using the *dmetar* package. The mixed-effects model results showed that the pooled effects of the subgroups differ substantially (*r = 0.33, 95% CI = 0.22* to *0.43*, for the Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero scale; *r = 0.55; 95% CI = 0.41* to *0.65*; for the Cakici and Cakici scale) (Figure 3.10.), and this difference is statistically significant [*Q(1) = 6.29*,

p = 0.0122]. The association between WB and ES was stronger when the Cakici and Cakici ES scale was used, and this is discussed in the discussion part. Elci, Erdilek Karabay et al. conducted two studies and used some version(s) of the Van Dyne, And, and Botero ES scale. They reported particularly low Pearson correlation coefficients between WB and ES. We checked whether these two large sample studies completely drove the difference we obtained between the two scales in the subgroup analysis, but removing these two studies from the subgroup analysis did not change the results.

Figure 3.10. Comparing the Van Dyne, Ang, Botero, and Brinsfield Based Vs. Cakici and Cakici Based Employee Silence Scales



We also performed subgroup analyses testing whether the study quality (based on the risk of bias assessment – we divided the studies into two groups as higher and lower based on whether their risk of bias assessment scores was above and below the mean quality score) and whether the study was published or not have a moderating effect on the association between WB and ES. The results showed that the pooled effects of the subgroups did not differ (*r = 0.39, 95% CI = 0.22* to 0.54, for the higher quality group*; r = 0.42; 95% CI = 0.30* to *0.53*; for the lower quality group) based on the study quality, i.e., whether the study was of higher quality or lower quality did not have any effect on the association between WB and ES. As for the effect of the publication status of a study, the results showed that the pooled effects of the subgroups somewhat differed, but the difference was not statistically significant *(r = 0.33, 95% CI = 0.22* to *0.43*, for the published studies; *r = 0.48; 95% CI = 0.34* to *0.59*; for the unpublished studies). This marginal significance was driven by the large sample Elci et al. (2014) and Elci and Erdilek Karabay's (2016) studies.

3.6. Potential Mediators and Moderators

Almost all studies collected and reported information on the demographic characteristics of their participants. Gender and education were already mentioned, but most studies provided at least some information on age (save four studies), marital status (save five studies), and work experience (save three studies – but different operationalizations of work experience were present: total work experience, total sectoral experience, work experience in the last organization, work experience in the last position). Many studies also included information on job level, job title, and income. However, the studies did not generally report any multivariate analyses conducted that simultaneously included WB, ES, and these demographic variables – even though some studies' graphs depicting causal models that explicitly included the demographic variables. Most of the time, there were just bivariate analyses conducted between WB or ES and one demographic variable. However, it is well-known that the multiplicity

of bivariate analyses often leads to a multiple comparisons problem, but this problem was not addressed (Herzog, Francis, & Clarke, 2019).

For example, six studies found that the WB scores were higher for males than females, two studies reported that the WB scores were higher for females than males, and four studies did not find any difference between males and females in terms of WB. On the other hand, four studies found that the ES scores were higher for males than females, two studies reported that the ES scores were higher for females than males, and six studies did not find any difference between males and females in ES. Again, six studies found that both WB and ES scores were higher for single employees than married employees. However, marital status must be correlated at least both with age and work experience, and without multivariate models, it is hard to discern whether marital status (it perhaps could be, for example, if it acts as an employee resource and a buffer against stress) was indeed the variable that affected WB and ES. On the other hand, four studies found that age is negatively correlated with WB, while one study found a positive correlation between age and WB. Two studies found age positively correlates with at least one ES dimension, while one study found a negative correlation. The associations between WB, ES, and work experience were again inconsistent. In any case, the studies generally did not have enough statistical power to conduct multivariate analyses that simultaneously examined the moderating influence of gender, age, education, and work experience on the relationship between WB and ES. It is hard to say there is any evidence that any demographic variable moderates the relationship between WB and ES.

Nonetheless, it is essential to note that these individual studies all suffer from range restriction problems. The samples they use are not representative of the whole population in Turkey – and some studies indeed note that their population of interest is limited to the occupational and geographic group from which their sample was drawn. For example, education may have a moderating influence between WB and ES, but employees with different levels of education are not sufficiently represented in

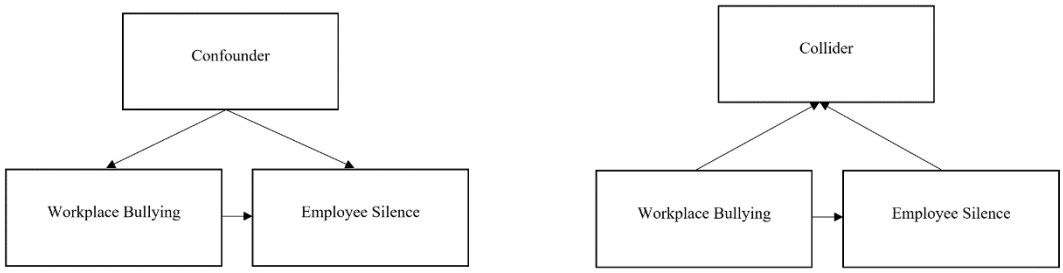
individual samples, and therefore, the effect of education cannot be captured. Had the raw data been provided, a meta-regression could examine the moderating effect of education, but this is not possible with a hodgepodge of aggregate-level data.

When we examine the causal models the 33 studies purported to test, we see that 28 studies identified WB as the independent variable (IV), 20 studies identified ES as the dependent variable (DV), and 18 studies identified WB as IV and ES as DV at the same time. Among these 18 studies, only one study identified a mediating variable (learned helplessness) between WB and ES (Celebi, 2018). This study did not find any mediating effect of learned helplessness on the association between WB and ES; but found that WB, ES, and learned helplessness are all positively correlated. Two studies identified WB as a mediating variable (one between leadership style and ES, and the other between ES and intention to leave). Eight studies identified ES as a mediating variable between WB and (a) burnout, (b) organizational commitment, (c) organizational cynicism, (d) intention to leave (two studies), (e) work motivation, (f) job performance, (g) shame, and guilt.

3.6.1. Colliders and Confounders

Some studies had mediating or moderating variables in their models, but none of the studies had any experimental control or explicitly deal with a potential collider and confounding variables. However, these variables may create false, exaggerated, or reverse signed associations between IVs and DVs or make us unable to find the associations that exist, and they need to be taken into account by researchers (Figure 3.11.).

Figure 3.11. Illustrations showing how confounders and colliders relate to WB and ES



Take job performance. Possibly, (low) job performance could make an employee more susceptible to getting bullied and more silent. Perhaps, it is not that WB has any effect on ES, but low job performance contributes to both WB and ES. The positive association between WB and ES may also be caused by a collider variable, which is a selection bias. Suppose that for some reason, we only selected participants who were either bullied and silent or not bullied and not silent, but no participants who were both bullied and not silent, or both not bullied and silent. In this hypothetical case, assuming that all four types of employees exist in equal numbers in the real world (i.e., in Turkey), the positive association we observe between WB and ES would be spurious, resulting from selection bias. This individual-level argument can be extended to the organizational level too. Sampling decisions (say, selecting samples only from specific geographical regions or industries) may lead researchers to unwittingly select their

samples from organizations with either high bullying and high silence work environments or low bullying and low silence work environments, but not from organizations with high bullying and low silence work environments or with low bullying and high silence environments. Confounders should be statistically controlled, or more accurately, be adjusted for, but not colliders. Controlling colliders may create spurious associations between variables that have no relationship with each other (Munafo, Tilling, Taylor, Evans, & Davey Smith, 2018).

CHAPTER 4

A CRITICAL REVIEW AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Theory Construction and Construct Development Need More Rigor

It is perhaps unsurprising and often expected that both positive and negative constructs are positively correlated, but positive constructs are negatively correlated with negative constructs. After all, all these constructs are positive or negative because they are perceived and self-reported as such: they are not necessarily inherently positive or negative. However, the expectation is that a great organizational culture will be associated with a positive organizational climate and good leadership, and all these attractive and desirable things will lead to favorable employee attitudes toward the job and organization (and even toward life) and generate healthy behavioral and other positive outcomes both at the individual and aggregate levels. On the other hand, a toxic organizational culture will be associated with a negative organizational climate and bad leadership, and all these unattractive and undesirable things will lead to unfavorable employee attitudes toward the job and organization (and toward life) and produce unhealthy behaviors and other outcomes both at the individual and aggregate levels. However, it must be self-apparent that such sweeping generalizations without any context do not deepen our understanding of any of these organizational constructs, let alone guide our actions and design meaningful or effective interventions in organizations.

4.1.1. Need to Build Stronger Theories

As both WB and ES are adverse events, we expect them to be positively correlated with each other, which was also the case. However, these bivariate first-order Pearson (linear) correlation coefficients do not tell us much about the exact nature

of the relationship between these variables or the underlying mechanism. Perhaps WB and ES are positively correlated when they both exist in moderate amounts, but the correlation becomes nonexistent or changes sign when they exist in extreme amounts. There is also a great deal of overlap between the suggested causes and consequences of WB and ES. For example, both WB and ES are more likely to occur when organizational leadership is not effective or has no role clarity. They are both likely to lead to occupational stress in the employees and decrease their work motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. However, what is needed is; (a) theories that explain how the two constructs are causally connected – we discussed some possibilities in the theoretical framework part and (b) innovative research designs that enable us to put these theories to test. Putting together 100 questions and sending them to random – not in the scientific sense, but by convenience – people to answer them whenever they have time probably will not achieve the purpose. Psychological processes do not appear to be deterministic; they are probabilistic, and it is correct to say that WB is neither a necessary or sufficient condition for ES or vice versa. However, theories linking WB and ES could seek an answer to the question: ceteris paribus, in what kind of work environments, in what type of individuals (both the victim and the perpetrator), and to what degree, we would be more likely to observe both WB and ES, WB but not ES, no WB but ES, or neither and how? Researchers need to develop more robust and to-the-point theories and devise better, more innovative research designs to put their theories to test.

However, the systematic review showed that the theories were weak, disjoint, and worse, have little connection to the tested hypotheses. For example, almost all studies included gender as a demographic variable and examined whether it affected WB. However, the theories recited in the studies did not say much about gender or how it may affect WB. One may indeed think of situations where gender is a factor in WB, but these situations were not necessarily tested. It may have made more sense if more relevant information were captured, such as the gender of the supervisor/manager or

the gender ratio in the unit/organization, but these questions were not included in the surveys on which these studies were based. The same argument can be extended to age and marital status.

4.1.2. Need for More Clarity on the Employee Silence Construct

As mentioned throughout this study, the employee silence construct is not well-defined. There are many (widely) different operationalizations, and there is no one dominant scale that most researchers use. It may well be the case that different measures are measuring different constructs. In the systematic review, we found that 18 of the 33 studies used some version of the scales developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013), 11 used some version of the scale developed by Cakici and Cakici (2007). Three used some version of the scale by Kahveci and Demirtas (2013), originally developed to measure teacher silence in school settings, but later also applied to other settings, and one used a scale developed by Dasci and Cemaloglu (2016), again to measure teacher silence. When we examine the 18 studies that used some version of an ES scale developed by Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013), we see the number of scale items ranged from six to 30, and subdimensions from one to six. Only 17 of the 33 studies reported a Pearson correlation coefficient between WB and ES. Seven studies reported a Pearson correlation coefficient between WB or subdimensions of WB and ES; perhaps the reasoning behind this approach is that the ES scale they used did not measure one construct but many different constructs. That is why we did separate meta-analyses for the four most measured dimensions of ES.

ES is not well-defined because some researchers consider all silence ES and include all possible situations employees may keep silent in the workplace in their scales. This does happen when people are asked to speculate on why they stay silent in the workplace, and the scale is developed based on content analysis of these open-

ended responses (e.g., Brinsfield, 2013). Relatedly, researchers tend to tap into all the possible situations in which employees are silent. We believe the definition provided by Morrison (2014) is a good one, and it confines ES to situations where employees have something to say that would potentially be beneficial to the organization, but they, instead, remain silent. There may be situations in which employees have nothing to say. If employees have nothing to say, that is also likely to be a problem for the organization, but it may be better to examine it as a separate construct. Let us take the constructs of deviant silence and voice, introduced by Brinsfield (2013). Deviance here refers to the strategic use of silence and voice by employees to undermine or harm their colleagues, managers, or the organization. This notion of silence appears to be based on malice or spite and is incongruent with the definition Morrison (2014) provided. It also brings to mind another vague and ill-defined concept: knowledge hiding, or intentional withholding of information asked by another employee for some reason – it could be to undermine them or, conversely, to protect them (Connelly, Zweig, Webster, & Trougakos, 2012). One item in the Negative Acts Questionnaire of Einarsen and Nielsen (1997), measuring WB that taps into knowledge hiding and deviant silence may be a CWB that a bully rather than a victim engages in or resorts to.

The Cakici & Cakici ES scale appears to be tapping more into defensive silence, and we found that it is more strongly associated with WB than the scales based on Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013) ES scales. The former scale has five subdimensions: managerial-organizational reasons, work-related reasons, reasons associated with inexperience, fear of isolation, and fear of damaging relationships. Most of the scale items tap into fear-based silence, with some into despair-based silence. In any case, both defensive and acquiescent silence appears to be equally positively associated with WB (MacMahon, O'Sullivan, Murphy, Ryan, & MacCurtain, 2018). Further research on how these two "types" of silence are linked to each other and WB is needed.

On the other hand, the latter scales – and there are at least four versions of it – introduces the concept of prosocial silence – that is, silence for the protection of one's colleagues and organization. Contrary to the definition provided by Morrison (2014), employees keeping silent tend to harm organizations. However, prosocial silence implies that employees keeping silent may benefit organizations. Prosocial silence is positively correlated with organizational commitment and other positive outcomes. We earlier mentioned two main types of voice: promotional and prohibitory, but Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) also make their scales "balanced" and introduce the acquiescent voice, defensive voice, and prosocial voice concepts. However, we do not believe that these subdimensions enrich the EV or ES constructs, and instead, muddles them.[6] A prosocial voice is a promotional voice. Acquiescent voice is a measure of conformity, or more accurately, compliance. Defensive voice is a type of deviant voice and refers to the strategic use of voice to deflect blame or protect/ exonerate oneself.

These scales may both need rework. Take the "lack of experience dimension" of the Cakici and Cakici scale. Lack of experience may lead to silence either because an employee (a) has nothing to say since they do not know much about the organization and work environment, (b) lacking know-how and hence confidence fears what they will say will be used against them, or get them ridiculed. The former situation should probably not be counted as ES because one needs to have something to say, but they choose to keep silent for it to be ES, and the latter is more of an example of defensive silence. However, the Cakici and Cakici ES does not have a defensive/quiescent silence subdimension. The scale has a "fear of damaging relationships subdimension", and this is similar to the relational silence dimension of the Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003) and Brinsfield (2013) scales. However, this dimension also involves fear and is defensive.

[6] Interestingly, the Cronbach's alpha tended to be somewhat higher for the former scale than the latter scale.

Interestingly, neither ES scale includes any items tapping specifically into WB. A positive correlation between WB and ES scales does not necessarily tell us anything about whether the victims are more likely to be silent about the bullying incident or not. Also, when there is neither experimental manipulation nor temporal measurement, it is hard to tell whether exposure to WB makes victims silent in the workplace or whether a culture of organizational silence makes WB more likely to occur in a workplace. Even though Einarsen and his colleagues (2009) identifies specific cutoff points that can be used to ascertain the degree of exposure to WB, it is a good idea to include a dichotomous yes or no (self-label) question on WB and compare the responses of the self-reported victims and non-victims. This could also allow us to compare how silent non-victims are in organizations with more WB vs. less WB in a meta-analysis without the raw data.

There is a need to distinguish between ES and organizational silence. The former is an individual-level variable, but the latter is an organizational level variable and is an element of the overall organizational climate or culture (Harlos & Knoll, 2018). The ES scales generally measure the individual-level variable, that is, whether employees stay silent or not. However, the Cakici and Cakici's scale has an organizational-managerial reasons subdimension and items measuring organizational level silence: there are items on whether the managers and organization create an environment conducive to silence – this may be one reason why the association between WB and ES is higher when these constructs are measured with the Cakici and Cakici's scale. Organizations may create a culture of silence by ascribing to practices that induce hopelessness (acquiescence) and fear (quiescence) in their employees.

4.2. Decisions Based on Principles Rather Than Convenience

4.2.1. Sampling Choices

Of the 33 studies included in the systematic review, nine studies indicated that they used convenience samples, eight studies random samples, two studies a mixture of stratified and random samples, and 14 studies did not indicate how their sample was selected. Even if we take these claims at their face value and accept that they indeed took a random sample of, say, the population of state kindergarten, primary and secondary school teachers in Afyonkarahisar, it is unlikely that these eight studies used a random sample of the population of Turkey as their samples.

Nielsen and Einarsen (2008) argue that convenience samples are cheap, and often they are employed to measure WB or ES processes or mechanisms or to examine associations between these constructs and individual dispositions or work environment. However, the authors advise against generalizing and inferring the WB or ES prevalence rates in the general population, or particular demographic groups, based on convenience samples. They found that the prevalence rates of WB are about 8.7 percentage points higher in non-probability samples than probability samples (Nielsen, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2010). Only two of the studies included in our systematic review directly asked the respondents whether they were bullied or not, and the prevalence rate 9% in one sample and 27% in the other. No study included a general dichotomous question whether the respondents engaged in a voice or not, but the ES scale means were higher than the WB scale means, making the ES distribution more symmetrical. In any case, it is hard to measure voice by such a question when the construct is not well-defined: even filling out a survey on silence may be interpreted as an exercise in (external) voice.

4.2.2. Research Design Choices

One primary goal of I/O psychologists is to establish causality, but to do that with correlational and cross-sectional study designs is an enormously challenging task. It is not easy to establish causality even with experiments and longitudinal designs, mainly due to colliders and confounders. However, experimental and longitudinal studies, together with replicating these studies by different researchers in different places, would help us with the goal. We have already mentioned that many psychological variables have a dynamic relationship with each other, potentially influence each other, and thus need to be measured at least at two different time points to make any sense of how they relate to each other. For example, even a cursory glance at the I/O literature shows that WB has been connected to almost every negative, say, health outcome imaginable, from job stomachache to substance abuse, but is WB indeed causally before all these outcomes? We cannot know without taking measurements at multiple points in time. Take stomachache. How do we know WB caused the stomachache and not vice versa? Perhaps, stomachache emerged even before any WB occurred. It made it harder for the victim to focus on work, causing them to do a poor job, and the poor quality of the job angered the supervisor, making them a target for bullying. This scenario may be unlikely, but it is nevertheless a possibility that needs to be ruled out. For example, Verkuil, Atasayi, and Molendijk (2015) found in a meta-analytical study of longitudinal data that mental health problems correlated with subsequent WB exposure.

Some systematic review studies used relatively more complex structural equation models or mediation analyses, but these models should probably be used (and their results should be interpreted) with a grain of salt with correlational data. These models often tell us not whether a model is correct but whether a model is wrong; however, we already know that all models are wrong. We need to know whether the model is a reasonable approximation of the reality, and these methods are generally used for model comparison, allowing researchers to check which model fits the data

better – or perhaps which model is the lesser evil. However, even a better idea is probably to search for which model is a better fit under what circumstances. Rather than thinking one model is always better or worse than another, researchers should identify the conditions under which one model is preferable to another model (Gelman & Hill, 2006).

Similarly, it is suggested that mediation analyses can be problematic even when both IV and mediating variable are experimentally manipulated, let alone with correlational data, in which case they tend to be biased and exaggerate the evidence due to correlated error terms (Bullock, Green, & Ha, 2010). Let us say a mediating variable is experimentally manipulated, which is rare in I/O psychology. The manipulation may affect not only the mediating variable but also some confounding variable that also affects DV. The threat of confounding exists in all experimental settings, but as Bullock, Green, and Ha (2010) note, the risk is higher in mediation analyses because the mediating variables are often cognitive, affective, or motivational and are not directly observable. It is often possible to come up with an alternative explanation of the mechanism through which the manipulation (of the mediator) exerted the observed effect (on DV). The only solution appears to be to have sound theoretical justifications for the explanation of the findings and carry out experiment after experiment with innovative designs that are, one by one, capable of ruling out every alternative explanation imaginable.

4.2.3. Overreliance on Self-Report

The articles reviewed in the systematic review uniformly used self-report to measure both WB and ES. In *About Behaviorism,* B. F. Skinner (1974) had said that what drove people's behavior was outside of their consciousness and that it did not make sense to probe the consciousness, asking people why they behave one way or another. After behaviorism lost its popularity, introspection, which Wilhelm Wundt

originally proposed, made a return in the guise of self-reports and became the ubiquitous method for examining the human mind and behavior (or behavioral intentions). However, unlike introspection, which was supposed to be performed only by carefully trained psychologists, untrained and uncaring millions are now routinely and indiscriminately asked to give self-reports on almost everything. As Baumeister, Vohs, and Funder (2007) laments, psychology may have become too dependent on self-reports at the expense of measuring actual behavior despite the consistent finding that attitudes measured as self-reports often have only a weak to moderate relationship to the actual behavior (Azjen, 2000). Besides, asking people their opinion on an issue is one thing, but asking people to speculate about their reasons or motivations for their opinions or behavior – such as asking them why they are satisfied with their jobs, committed to their organizations, or keep silent in the workplace – is another thing. Motivation is often challenging to measure accurately with self-report techniques. The on-line (as opposed to memory-based) models of cognition show that people often only keep an affective summary of the information they process on attitude objects, including their jobs, organizations, and leaders. They do not have access to all the particular incidents that give rise to these attitude objects' overall affective evaluations (Hastie & Park, 1986). The online model would predict that when people are asked about their motivations, they will respond based on what relevant categories or schemata are activated or accessible in their mind at the time, but what is accessible or activated may well be inaccurate or at least incomplete representation of their motivations.

It is unrealistic to expect that we could abandon using self-report techniques any time soon. What probably needs to be done is not to rely solely on them or take them at face value (Conway & Lance, 2010). Always trying to corroborate the evidence with separate data measured using different methods (genetic, biological, implicit, annual reports, archival, or legal) and at different levels (individual, organizational, sectoral, or societal) the solution.

Research shows that self-reports are prone to framing effects. In WB studies, it has been found that 6.8% more respondents said they were bullied in the workplace when they were asked whether they had been bullied without at first getting a definition of WB. Response biases make respondents respond in the same or specific way to every question in the survey. Perhaps, different scales/inventories can be administered at different time points to minimize response biases.

4.2.4. Testing Hypotheses

Sometimes, it seems that not only the samples selected are samples of convenience, but the hypotheses tested are also hypotheses of convenience. In the studies reviewed, the median number of the hypotheses was nine, which is a somewhat sizeable number. Besides, the numbers of null hypothesis significance tests conducted were much higher than nine. There were tens of null hypothesis tests in many studies. Without any corrections, this may increase the Type I error rate. Some insignificant associations appear significant (and who knows how many unreported hypotheses were tested and hypothesis tests were conducted). Some hypothesis tests were about the bivariate associations between either WB or ES or one or all of their subdimensions and one demographic variable – and on average, almost every study measured and reported at least four demographic variables. However, these hypotheses were not necessarily predicted by the theories. Other researcher choices also seemed arbitrary, such as testing the associations between WB and ES's subdimensions instead of the WB and ES dimensions. It is often not explicated why this made any sense from a theoretical perspective, whether there was any theoretical justification for expecting differential associations between different subdimensions of WB and ES. Some WB and ES scales had five sub-dimensions each, and just testing the associations between all these subdimensions would make 25 null hypothesis significance tests.

In any case, the statistical methods we employ need many assumptions, and these assumptions in practice are almost always violated. Therefore, it is crucial to provide a theoretical justification of research findings and be aware that one unexpected, contradictory, or surprising finding can easily result from some measurement or sampling error and should not be overinterpreted. Repeated similar findings are always necessary before jumping to conclusions and claiming shocking findings.

4.3. What to Do for a More Reproducible Psychology?

4.3.1. Cooperate and Collaborate More

More collaboration among psychologists both within and across borders may welcome development on theory and scale development. Instead of every researcher developing a new theory from scratch, they might help improve and build upon the already existing theories. Psychologist Malte Elson once said, "physics advances by physicists standing on each other's shoulders. Psychology advances by psychologists standing on each other's faces" (deleted tweet, August 10, 2018). Indeed, for example, when we review the back and forth between Hobfoll (2001) and Lazarus (2001) on Conservation of Resources Theory or COR, we see that there is more competition than collaboration. Lazarus fumes at depicting his transactional theory of stress and coping as somewhat inadequate and calls COR "little more than words masquerading as a new theory" (p.381). He does not consider COR a new theory but just a rehash of his transactional theory, emphasizing resources rather than coping skills.

On the other hand, Hobfoll appears to believe his COR theory is an improvement over Lazarus's theory. As we explained earlier, these psychological stress theories all come down to an imbalance between internal and external factors and might be considered sub-theories of a more general psychological stress theory. Perhaps, building on the already existent theories could help rein in the "vast graveyard of undead theories" as well (Ferguson & Heene, 2012, p.555).

The same reasoning also applies to the psychological scales/inventory inflation, which is a different issue than the problem of construct proliferation: the existence of too many constructs similar to each other in I/O psychology (Shaffer, DeGeest, & Li, 2016). Unfortunately, many constructs are similar to each other. Also, that are too many different operational definitions and measures of these constructs. It appears that new psychological instruments are constantly being developed even when there are already scales on the same psychological construct that have been cross-culturally adapted and validated. Unless a new scale brings a substantial improvement over a previous one, there is probably no point in having, say, a different WB or ES scale for every single country or every single occupational group.

4.3.1. Practice Open Science

Meta-analysis is a powerful tool to bring together, integrate, and synthesize different study results, but to fully utilize this tool, researchers need to start to follow the open science practices such as data sharing, preregistration, standardization, and transparency. If the researchers who conducted the 33 studies included in this systematic review made their raw data available, we could have performed robust multivariate analyses and perhaps reached more precise pooled effect sizes with narrower confidence intervals.

Reporting scientific results in a standard way is a good scientific practice. Researchers should always provide information on their sample selection process, including response rates, and report the basic summary statistics of their variables and scales such as mean, standard deviation, skewness, bivariate correlation matrices between them, and thorough results of the statistical tests they conducted. Scientific journals indeed have word limits, and the authors have to make some tradeoffs on what to include, but this information is essential to make sense of the data and integrate the research in a systematic review and meta-analysis. The systematic review showed us

that even master's theses and doctoral dissertations for which space should not be a significant concern often fail to provide the summary statistics or selectively report on the statistical tests.

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