ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND WORKPLACE BULLYING AMONG NON-ACADEMIC STAFF AT A SOUTH AFRICAN UNIVERSITY

by

TAPIWA NAPOLEON DONGO

RESEARCH

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DEDICATION

To my mother Viva Musukutwa for her unwavering support to ensure that I attain quality education despite being a single mother, she never gave up.

DECLARATION

I declare that "*Organisational Culture and Workplace Bullying Among Non-Academic Staff at a South African University*" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

Dongo Tapiwa Napoleon   01 June 2021

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying among non-academic staff at a South African University. A quantitative research method was adopted and a sample size of 200 non-academic staff was randomly recruited. Data was collected using a structured questionnaire which consisted of questions from the Negative Acts Questionnaire and the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The hierarchical culture was found to be the dominant organisational culture and that workplace bullying incidences occurred weekly within the organisation. Regression analysis results showed a significant negative relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying while a positive and significant relationship was established between hierarchical culture and workplace bullying. Conversely, the link between adhocracy and market culture with workplace bullying was found to be insignificant. University top management was recommended to design internal policies with clear reporting procedures to eliminate workplace bullying incidences.

KEY CONCEPTS

Non-academic staff; organisational culture; workplace bullying; University of Limpopo

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The link between organisational culture and workplace bullying has gained attention from various scholars. This created need to explore this phenomenon in an academic context. Existing literature indicates that workplace bullying has become a common topic in organisational studies for the past decade (Essen, Esquivel & Jha, 2014). This emanates from endeavours by different researchers to find a solution to this phenomenon and hence mitigate it. Workplace bullying is alluded to the repeated negative behaviours directed towards others with an intention to cause intimidation and create a hostile work environment (Nel, 2019). According to Akella (2016), workplace bullying takes the form of repeated negative behaviours such as too much workload on a limited time frame, negative criticism, isolation, hate speeches, not returning phone calls and emails, blocking of career development opportunities and denial of sick leaves among others. Workplace bullying creates an unfriendly work environment which makes it difficult for the victim to cope with their work and it has serious effects on both employees and the organisation (Ariza-Montes, Muniz, Leal-Rodríguez & Leal-Millán, 2014). Tag-Eldeen, Barakat and Dar (2017) underscore that workplace bullying has a lot of calamitous effects on employees if not abated. Institutions of higher learning are not an exception to workplace bullying. Smit (2014) notes that each year a significant number of academic staff leave their workplaces due to workplace bullying.

Given the devastating ramifications of workplace bullying to both the employees and the organisation (Bernstein, 2016), it becomes crucial to identify factors which affect workplace bullying. This goes a long way in reducing the prevalence and effects of workplace bullying (Hershcovis, Reich & Niven, 2015). Organisational factors such as interpersonal conflicts, destructive management style, low moral standard, organisational culture and organisational climate are believed to be linked to workplace bullying in the existing literature (Samnani, 2021). Organisational culture has the strongest effect on workplace bullying compared to other mentioned factors (Pilch & Turska, 2015; An & Kang, 2016).

Accordingly, organisational culture can either encourage or discourage certain behaviour among employees which determine the level of workplace bullying in an organisation (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). On that note, it becomes important to investigate the link connecting contrasting organisational culture types and workplace bullying if solutions to this phenomenon are to be found. The researcher has noted that few studies mainly from abroad have examined the link between organisational culture types and bullying (Pilch & Turska, 2015). Cunniff and Mostert (2012) assert that generally studies about workplace bullying in South Africa are limited. In South Africa, only one study has been identified (Smit, 2014) which had discussed workplace bullying among academic staff and administration. However, the study did not investigate the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying among non-academic staff. This shows the existence of a gap in the literature on studies about the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying in South Africa. Therefore, to shed more illumination on the association between organisational culture and workplace bullying, the non-academic staff at the University of Limpopo was the focus of this study.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Workplace bullying has become one of the worst challenges most organisations are facing (Conway, Høgh, Balducci & Ebbesen, 2021). Hodgins, MacCurtain and McNamara (2020) remark that workplace bullying is now considered the top challenge which has been getting more attention in many organisations. As such, a number of employees indicate that they have experienced bullying in the last three years (Hodgins et al., 2020). Universities are not an exception to this phenomenon (Taylor, 2013). Each year a significant number of non-academic staff leave their workplaces due to workplace bullying (Smit, 2014). The nature of the administration job exposes the employees to bullying. Administrators are exposed to too much workload, responding to multiple emails and dealing with different bosses, who by virtue of their positions and higher qualifications, end up bullying the administrative employees (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013). Existing literature is in agreement with the fact that organisations suffer a lot of costs such as lawsuits, paying for health-related issues for their employees and lost productivity as a consequence of workplace bullying (Essen et al., 2014; Hershcovis et al., 2015). On the other hand, workplace

bullying has calamitous effects to the victim such as emotional distress and other health problems (Samnani, 2021). A number of factors such as an unfriendly workplace atmosphere, work overload, organisational culture and organisational climate predicts the level of bullying in any organisation (Samnani, 2021).

Hollis (2015) note that regardless of the proliferation of workplace bulling for the past decade, existing studies which have investigated workplace bullying in an academic context are seemingly sparse. In addition, it has been noted that no study has investigated the link between bullying and organisational culture on non-academic staff in the higher education context in South Africa. Given the key role non-academic staff play in sustaining the mission and performance goals of organisations, it becomes crucial to understand the problems they encounter in the workplace.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.3.2 Theoretical framework

1.3.2.1 Organisational Culture Theory

This study adopts the conceptualisation of organisational culture as propounded by Cameron and Quinn (1999). Cameron and Quinn's (1999) model of organisational culture hinges on the four types of organisational culture which are adhocracy, clan, hierarchy and market culture. Cameron and Quinn's (1999) believe that every organisation tend to exhibit these four different types of organisational culture, however, in varying proportions. Furthermore, Cameron and Quinn (1999) underscore that the one type among these four which employees perceive to be prevalent becomes the dominant organisational culture adopted by the organisation. In this study, each of the four organisational types (adhocracy, clan, hierarchy and market culture) will be tested against workplace bullying.

The four competing values model by Cameron and Quinn (1999) is an important theory for this study as it is a recent theory which is suited to the 21st century organisations as compared to the preceding organisational culture models which were applicable to 1980s type of organisations. In addition, this model has been

used in existing literature to predict bullying incidences in the workplace (Omari, 2007; Acar, Kıyak & Sine, 2014; Pilch & Turska, 2015).

1.3.2.2 Workplace bullying theory

Tajfel and Turner (1979) used the Social Identity Theory (SIT) to explain workplace bullying. With reference to the Social Identity Theory (SIT), people tend to categorise themselves into different groups: such as in and outgroups, where the dominating one is the in group. The dominant group (in group) develops a positive self-image, increased self-esteem and a boost to their ego when circumstances are always favouring their group. When circumstances favour the out group, destructive competition manifests, where the in group uses hate speeches, terror, intimidation, prejudice, discrimination, stereotyping and favouritism to suppress the members of the out group. Cunniff and Mostert (2012) assert that it is vital to note that the term "group" used in the context of the Social Identity Theory (SIT) can take different forms in the workplace such as males against females, young versus old, managers against shop floor employees and black versus white among others.

The Social Identity Theory (SIT) discussed above provides a rich theoretical framework to understand how bullying manifests in organisations. Existing literature identifies five main types of bullying which are threat to professional status, threat to personal standing, isolation, overwork and organization (Rayner, Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Peyton, 2003). These are adopted by this study as measures of workplace bullying. Each type will be represented by a set of questions in the questionnaire. Goman (2014) asserts that incidences of bullying are mainly linked to the bosses tormenting their subordinates (vertical bullying). However, Rayner and Cooper (2006) note that bullying can also be among peers at the same level in the workplace (horizontal bullying). Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper & Einarsen (2011) remark that bullying can also be between employees and the customers. Hershcovis et al. (2015) identify perpetrator characteristics, target characteristics and situational characteristics as causes of workplace bullying. On that note, the perpetrators are mostly people with anger issues, unresolved issues and have a narcissist trait and high anxiety. On the other hand, the targets are usually high performers who the perpetrators would like to bring down. Hershcovis et al. (2015) further allude that situational factors such as unsupportive leadership breeds bullying. Nielsen, Matthiesen & Einarsen (2010)

remark that workplace bullying is exorbitant to both the individual and the organisation. Targets of bullying often show signs of deteriorating health (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010). A study by Totterdell, Hershcovis, Niven, Reich and Stride (2012) indicate the witnesses in a bullying incident may become emotional during the bullying incident and may develop hatred and mechanisms to fix the bully (Hershcovis et al., 2015). Consequently, organisations lose a lot of money in terms of reduced productivity and performance (Porath & Pearson, 2009; Schat & Frone, 2011).

1.3.3 Empirical literature

1.3.3.1 Organisational culture

Huczynski & Buchanan (2001) assert that organisational culture is a complex phenomenon as indicated by lack of consensus in the way it is defined in existing literature. Schein (1990) defines organisational culture as a set of values and beliefs that shapes the behaviour of an organisation. Tichy (1982) views organisational culture as the glue that holds the organisation together, that is; its people, processes and how things are done in general. A study by Weeks (2010) views organisational culture as an invisible force responsible for bringing stability in the organisation by setting precedence on how things are done, styles of leadership and communication patterns.

The concept of organisational culture has evolved over a number of decades (Manetje, 2009). The historical origins of organisational culture can be traced from the 1970s where Davis (1971) termed it corporate culture. According to Davis (1971) organisational culture by then was used by managers to effect change in their organisations. In the 1980s organisational culture began to take different directions for example Schein (1985) viewed it as a concept inseparable from leadership while Deal and Kennedy (1982) mantains that organisational culture is an organisation's personality, which can be seen through the myths and rituals held by different organisations. Different models have been postulated in attempts to elucidate organisational culture.

Harrison (1972) coined organisational culture as a concept which can be understood in terms of power culture, role culture, task culture and person culture. Harrison

(1972) explained the power culture as a situation where control is centred on certain individuals. Role culture is when the organisation's authority revolves one's position in an organisation's structure, while the task culture explains an organisational culture where authority revolves around a team with critical skills required by the organisation and person culture explains the situation where the authority revolves around employees with a certain skills set.

Hofstede (1980), conceptualised organisational culture in terms of the following four aspects; power distance, individualism, uncertainty avoidance masculinity. Hofstede and Bond (1998) improved the existing scale by adding another aspect; short term versus long term orientation to explain organisational culture better. However, studies such as Trompanaars (1993) and Sondergaard (1994) strongly criticise Hofstede's (1980) model citing that the dimensions included lacks depth to critically explain organisational culture.

According to Schein (1985), organisational culture can be explained using three layers which are: artefacts, values and basic underlying assumptions as observed by an individual. In that context, organisational culture is described as "a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein (1985). The artefacts layer is described as the physical manifestation of organisational culture consisting of tangible and visible things such as office colours, language, dress code and awards won by the organisation. The second layer represent values which consist of both organisational and personal values that are all fused together. The basic underlying assumptions represents the deeper part of organisational culture which is invisible and difficult to see. It takes employees who have worked in the organisation for many years to understand it.

1.3.3.2 Workplace bullying

The conception of workplace bullying can be traced from the book by Brodsky (1976) called The Harassed Worker. In this book, Brodsky (1976) defined workplace bullying as persistent negative actions directed to others with the intention to

intimate and cause emotional despair. According to Brodsky (1976), the bullying acts are usually directed towards top achievers whom, the bully, who in most cases is a superior, believes that he/she can use power to intimidate others. Leymann (1990) developed the concept of workplace bullying but instead termed it mobbing. Leymann (1990) compared the subject of mobbing in the workplace to the behaviour of small animals which team up to attack a bigger host. Defining mobbing in the workplace, Leymann (1990) asserts that mobbing is recurring negative and hostile communication directed towards victims which are in most cases defenseless. This usually takes place for six months and above. Leymann (1990) underscores that workplace bullying is a phenomenon which usually manifest due to power imbalances. It follows therefore, that those with power tend to abuse it over the ones who cannot defend themselves. "Bullying involves a desire to hurt + hurtful action + power imbalance + (typically) repetitive aggressor and a sense of being oppressed by the victim" (Rigby, 2002).

1.3.3.3 Workplace bullying issues and problems experienced by non-academic staff

The administrative post is a hectic career. Administrators are always working under pressure, heavy workloads, work with people of diverse backgrounds which exposes them to incidences of bullying. Harlos and Axelrod (2008) report that administrators in hospitals are exposed to mistreatments such as verbal abuse, work obstruction and emotional neglect. Harlos and Axelrod (2008) further allude that administrators are likely to experience verbal abuse because they work with many people daily. King and Piotrowski (2015) notes that the incidences of bullying in academic setting can also be between one administrator to another.

1.3.3.4 Relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying

Organisational culture plays an important role in shaping how authority, power, relationships, communication, reward system and grievances are handled in an organisation. This stands as a critical determinant of workplace bullying levels in an organisation. According to An and Kang (2016), some organisational cultures can be categorised as bullying organisational cultures. These organisational cultures lack mechanisms and policies to suppress acts of bullying. Instead the culture gives those with power for instance, managers to bully others in a bid to achieve

organisational goals. Some organisational cultures motivate and perpetuate incidences of bullying in organisations (Pheko, Monteiro & Segopolo, 2017). Hutchinson and Jackson (2014) note that workplace bullying is perpetrated when the bullies are protected by the organisation's leadership. Bullying is a biproduct of negative organisational cultures (Heap & Harvey, 2012). Omari (2007) discovered a significant relationship between three cultures (clan, adhocracy and hierarchy) of the four competing values model and bullying. In the study, clan and adhocracy cultures were aligned with lower levels of bullying and the hierarchy culture was associated with high levels of bullying. Pilch and Turska (2015) established a negative relationship among clan and adhocracy culture and bullying but found a positive relationship between hierarchy culture and bullying. A study by Acar, Kiyak and Sine (2014), revealed a negative relationship between organisational culture components (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) and workplace bullying. This shows that there is no consensus in the existing literature on the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying. The inconclusiveness of existing literature on the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying creates a research gap for this study to generate more empirical evidence and clarity on the subject matter.

1.3.3.5 Conceptual framework

According to Figure 1, each organisational culture type was tested against workplace bullying to empirically establish which exact organisational type had an effect on workplace bullying.
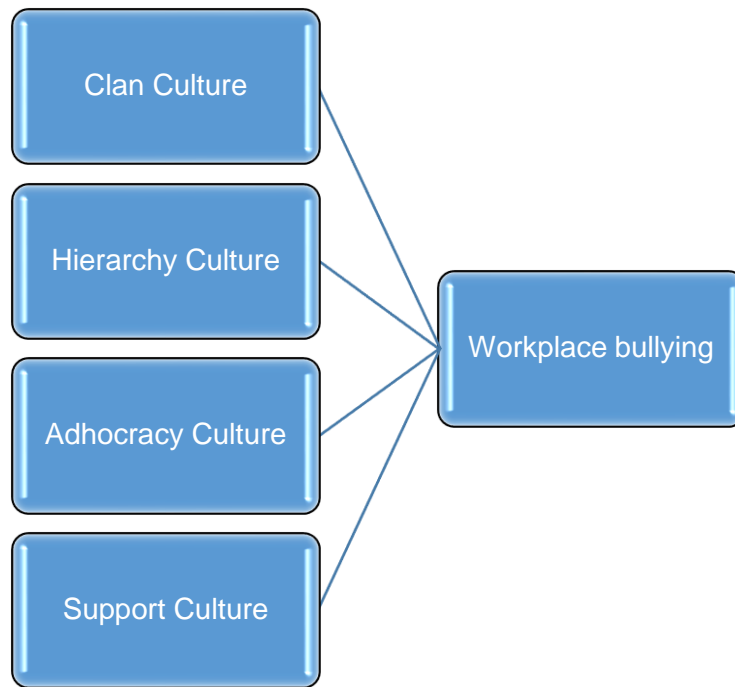
Figure 1.1 Relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

1.4.1 Research Aim

The study focused on investigating the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying among non-academic staff at a South African University.

1.4.2 Research objectives

The objectives of this study are:

To measure the different cultures in the organisation and identify the dominant culture as perceived by the participants.

To determine the frequency, intensity and prevalence of workplace bullying to identify the dominant types of bullying in the organisation as perceived by the participants.

To analyse the relationship between organisational culture types and workplace bullying among non-academic staff at a South African University.

1.4.3 Hypotheses

1.4.3.1 Main hypothesis

There is a significant relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying among the participants.

1.4.3.2 Secondary hypotheses

H_1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_3: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_4: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

1.5 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.5.1 Organisational culture

According to Schein (2020), organisational culture alludes to a set of artefacts, values and basic assumptions held by a group of people which determines how they do things. In this study, organisational culture is defined as a set of values, morals and rituals shaping the conduct of people in an organisation, in line with Schein, (2020). The four categories of organisational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market), as conceptualised by Cameron and Quin (1999), were used in this study.

1.5.2 Workplace bullying

Workplace bullying is described as repeated negative behaviours directed towards others with an intention to cause intimidation and create a hostile work environment (Rai & Agarwal, 2018). In this study, workplace bullying is defined as persistent and deleterious actions directed towards others with an intention to cause emotional discomfort (Akella, 2016).

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.6.1 Research Design

A quantitative research approach was utilised in this study. A survey method was utilised, and data was gathered through the use of structured questionnaires. The questionnaire was distributed to non-academic staff of the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus).

1.6.2 Sampling

The study used a simple random sampling method to gather the data from the respondents. The simple random sampling method was used because the targeted respondents could easily be located which saved time and resources. As such, a sample size of 200 non-academic staff was randomly surveyed for the purpose of this study. The sample size was calculated using the formula $n=[p(100-p)z^2]/e^2$ with confidence level of 95% (Taherdoost, 2017).

1.6.3 Data collection

This study used a structured questionnaire to collect the required data. The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) was used to measure workplace bullying while the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (199) was used to measure organisational culture. The questionnaire consists of three sections as described below;

Section A: Biographical information

The biographical section measured the participant's characteristics such as gender, age, level of education and number of years working in the organisation.

Section B: Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI)

The OCAI is a tool developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) to measure organisational culture in different organisations. The OCAI categorises organisational culture into; clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market culture. These different cultures

are explained using six factors which are; dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success. The OCAI has since been adopted by a number of researchers to measure and diagnose organisational culture (Omari, 2007; Acar, Kıyak & Sine, 2014; Pilch & Turska, 2015). The tool showed high degrees of validity and Cronbach's alpha scores above the recommended 0.70.

Section C: Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ)

The NAQ is an instrument developed by to evaluate bullying in the workplace. The scale has 22 items describing negative acts of personal as well as a work-related nature. The NAQ has been used widely in existing literature (Gupta, Bakhshi, & Einarsen, 2017; Silva, de Aquino & Pinto, 2017). Silva, de Aquino and Pinto (2017) also adopted the NAQ and the tool produced high levels of validity and reliability. The study obtained reliability of 0.83. Charilaos et al. (2015) used the NAQ to measure workplace bullying among Greek teachers. Hence, this questionnaire is suitable for use in a university setting.

- **Bullying types**

In this study, bullying is five main types identified in existing literature. These are: threat to professional status, threat to personal standing, isolation, overwork and destabilization (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Each type will be represented by a set of questions in the questionnaire.

1.6.4 Data analysis

The study utilised descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The descriptive statistics included frequency tables and percentiles on the biographic data and mean and standard deviation on organisational culture and workplace bullying questions. Descriptive statistics were utilised to describe the key constructs of the study by using means and standard deviation figures. Regression analysis was used to test the associations among constructs of organisational culture (independent variable) and workplace bullying (dependent variable).

1.6.5 Reliability, Validity and Objectivity

Reliability test allude to the consistency of the data collection tools to produce findings which can be depended upon even though the instrument is used in another setting (Yilmaz, 2013). It is crucial for scholars to administer reliability test prior to continuing to other statistical analysis to enhance the rigour of findings. In this investigation, internal consistency test was applied to decide the consistency of the estimates. The test was estimated utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α) which typically goes from 0 to 1. Information that get alpha above 0.6 was considered dependable while beneath 0.6 shows unacceptable and were disposed of from additional investigation. As indicated by Yilmaz (2013), validity alludes to whether an instrument really gauges what it is supposed to measure. In addition to adopting a questionnaire previously used in past researches with high reliability and validity, the researcher also pretested the questionnaire to attain reliability and validity.

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher got ethical clearance from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC) and the university management before data collection. The participants were assured that their confidentiality and anonymity will be observed and respected. Information collected from the participants was not used for other reasons other than for the purpose of the study. The identities of the participants were not disclosed and any information leading to their recognition was withheld. Before the collection of data, the participants were informed about the nature of the study and that their participation is voluntary. Participants were given an informed consent letter to read and sign. The nature and purpose of the study was explained.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Workplace bullying has become rampant among institutions of higher learning and causing much calamitous effects to the universities concerned (Farley & Sprigg, 2014). Therefore, a study of this nature could increase the comprehension of the connection between organisational culture and workplace bullying and the impact these two variables have on behaviour of non-academic staff and the achievement of goals of the university. This then could inform policy makers and universities when they compile policies to mitigate workplace bullying. The findings of the study could also contribute theoretically to the body of knowledge on organisational studies.

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter provided the background of the study. Furthermore, it outlined the problem statement followed by the aim and objectives of the study. A brief literature review showed that workplace bullying is common within institutions of higher learning. Another crucial element which emerged in this chapter is the significance of this study towards informing policy and contributing to the body of knowledge.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 2 discusses the major variables of the study which are organisational culture. In this chapter each of these variables is defined after which its historical development is given. The historical development traces studies which have been conducted by several authors to advance the field.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework, empirical research and conceptual framework

Chapter 3 provides the theoretical framework used as a guideline for this study. The chapter also discusses the empirical research related to the hypotheses of the study. Henceforth, a conceptual framework for this study is provided to show diagrammatically show the hypothesised relationships.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology used in this study. The chapter outlines the research paradigms which connects to the research approach chosen for this study. The chapter also discusses the research design deemed necessary to attain the objectives of this study. Furthermore, the chapter outlines issues related to the population, sample and sampling methods as well as data collection methods. Ethical considerations are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5: Research results

This chapter present the findings of the study. The findings are presented in form of graphs, tables and pie charts. The descriptive statistics are presented first after which correlation results are presented.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 6 provides summaries of the main findings of the study. The chapter also provides limitations, recommendations, and areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The first chapter introduced the study by clearly outlining the research problem, aim and objectives. The purpose of the literature review is to discuss existing studies and the theories related to this study. The literature review comprises of 2 chapters. Chapter 2 discusses the key variables of the study which are organisational culture and workplace bullying. Chapter 3 additionally presents and discuss the theoretical framework and hypothesis development. It was crucial to separate chapters for the literature review as a way to deepen the discussions from the key variables of the study. Chapter 2 starts by defining key terms of the study which are: organisational culture and workplace bullying. The historical development of each key variable is expounded to allow for theory development. The chapter also outlines the

antecedents of workplace bullying after which the effects are discussed. Thereafter, the chapter outlines workplace bullying issues experienced by non- academic staff.

2.2 DEFINITION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Shelley et al. (2021) assert that organisational culture is a complex phenomenon as indicated by a lack of consensus in the way it is defined in the existing literature. Idowu (2016) argues that the term organisational culture has been defined wrongly in several instances. Idowu (2016) further asserts that, to make out the significance of organisational culture, it is vital to define it clearly. Schein (2020) defines organisational culture as a set of values and beliefs that shapes the behaviour of an organisation. Organisational culture develops when people learn how to respond to challenges as they arise in an organisation (Schein, 2020). Nikpour (2016) remarks that organisational culture is built on the organisation's experience on how they have responded to issues. On that note, organisational culture is built over a long period of time. As a result, this can now qualify to be taught and shared among all organisations' members. Key among the characteristics of organisational culture also are, mission, involvement, consistency and adaptability (Seidu, Mensah, Issau & Amoah-Mensah, 2021).

Schein (2020) views organisational culture as the paste that holds the organisation together, that is; its people, processes and how things are done in general. A study by Seidu et al. (2021) views organisational culture as an invisible force responsible for bringing stability in the organisation by setting precedence on how things are done, styles of leadership and communication patterns. Beyer and Haug (2014) defines organisational culture as the personality that distinguishes the organisation from others. Each organisation seems to have a unique culture that shapes the way it does things. It therefore, shapes how the organisation implements ideas, recruit its staff, dress code, communication channels and language. In some instances, some sub-cultures emerge in an organisation based on social affiliation, interests and personalities among others (El Leithy, 2017). However, these remain unnoticed in the case where the dominant organisational culture is strong and able to stand the test of time.

2.2.1 Commonly accepted organisational culture definition

Notwithstanding the differing perspectives on how organisational culture is defined, a sizeable number of studies agree that organisational culture is characterised by shared common norms, values, beliefs and philosophies (Idowu, 2016). According to Schein (2020), organisational culture is purposefully formed by its owners. As such, it is passed from top management to subordinates through language, communication, jokes and rituals. Repetition of such activities and behaviours strengthens the organisational culture and in some instances it becomes as strong as a religion. Hence, it shapes how people behave and respond to situations. According to Alvesson and Wilmott (2012), organisational culture can be so restrictive that new members have to adjust or leave the organisation. In some organisations, organisational culture has become so strong that it is difficult to unlearn it and implement change. It is crucial to understand organisational culture as it shapes organisational processes (Aleksić et al., 2019). A sizeable number of organisations loose direction due to the inability to recognise the critical role played by organisational culture as a contextual factor to many organisational variables. Understanding the prevailing organisational culture is crucial if valuable reforms are to be attained in organisations (Idowu, 2016).

In this study, organisational culture is defined as a set of values, morals and rituals shaping the behaviour of people in an organisation. The four categories of organisational culture (clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market) as conceptualised by Cameron and Quin (1999) were adopted in this study.

2.3 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

The concept of organisational culture has evolved over a number of decades (Mzangwa & Serpa, 2019). The historical origins of organisational culture can be traced from the 1970s where Davis (1971) termed it corporate culture. According to Davis (1971), organisational culture by then was used by managers to effect change in their organisations. In the 1980s organisational culture began to take different directions for example Schein (1985) viewed it as a concept inseparable from leadership while Deal and Kennedy (1982) maintained that organisational culture is an organisation's personality, which can be seen through the myths and rituals held by different organisations. Various models have been postulated in attempts to explain organisational culture.

2.3.1 Harrison conceptualisation of organisational culture

Harrison (1972) coined organisational culture as a concept which can be understood in terms of power culture, role culture, task culture and person culture. Harrison (1972) explains the power culture as a situation where control is centred on certain individuals. As such, issues of inequality are imminent as those with authority and power abuses the less powerful subordinates. Another characteristic of this type of culture is that decision making is centralised, and communication is normally top-down and one-way communication (Harrison, 1972). The top management trusts that it is within their powers to dictate things over subordinates to achieve organisational goals. Role culture is when the organisation's authority revolves around one's position in an organisation's structure, while the task culture explains an organisational culture where authority revolves around a team with critical skills required by the organisation and person culture explains the situation where the authority revolves around employees with a certain skill set.

2.3.2 Hofstede conceptualisation of organisational culture

In an attempt to understand in depth factors that can influence the direction of a business, Hofstede (1980) carried out a study using a sample of 160 00 employees from IBM. The study was conducted in 50 countries of the targeted 3 regions. The main aim was to validate the influence of culture on the business. Hofstede (1980) maintains that culture varies from one region to another as a result of the differing socialisation process in different organisations. Hofstede (1980), conceptualises organisational culture in terms of the following four aspects; power distance, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus feminity. The power distance explains a culture where the power gap between the top management and subordinates is manifested and is deemed functional. In such a situation, the top management views themselves as authority bearers and powerful beings while subordinates always want to close that gap to improve equity and reduce abuse.

With regards to uncertainty avoidance, Hofstede (1980) asserts that organisations differ on how they perceive the issue of risking taking. Some organisations have a huge appetite for risk while others are not. Therefore, to avoid uncertainty in future events in the organisations, the management leverages on recent technology to build systems that can help them to monitor organisational activities, they can also subscribe to lawyers as well as some rituals.

Accordingly, in relation to individualism versus collectivism, the national or regional culture is reflected in the way employees behave and relate with others in an organisation. Some international cultures for example, America is inclined towards individualism. In such a culture, individuals are driven by self-fulfilment of own goals and competition is highly encouraged. Contrarily, collectivism cultures value team work and togetherness (Hofstede, 1980). The members believe in working together to respond to challenges and to solving everyday issues. Therefore, since organisational culture is shaped mostly by top management, whether an organisation's culture leans towards individualism or collectivism solely depends on the owners' cultural background.

Elucidating on the continuum between masculinity versus femininity, Hofstede (1980) highlights that the way certain societies are engendered influences organisational cultures. For instance, how the issues of gender roles and power issues are treated in certain national cultures will automatically reflect in a certain organisational culture. This is based on the premise that, organisational members and leaders come from different social and cultural orientations which will be carried and shared among others in the workplace. Repetition of such behaviours, beliefs, rituals and values will gradually become a norm and members are expected to abide to such. For people to accept change, there is need for some education to reshape the mind-set (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede and Bond (1998) improved the existing scale by adding another aspect; short term versus long term orientation to explain organisational culture better. However, studies such as Trompanaar (1993) and Sondergaard (1994) strongly criticise Hofstede's (1980) model citing that the dimensions included lacks depth to critically explain organisational culture.

2.3.3 Schein conceptualisation of organisational culture

According to Schein (1985), organisational culture can be explained using three layers which are: artefacts, values and basic underlying assumptions as observed by an individual. In that context, organisational culture is described as "a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid, and therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1985). Schein's organisational culture model is shown by Figure 2.1 below;

Artefacts layer

Values layer

Basic underlying
assumptions
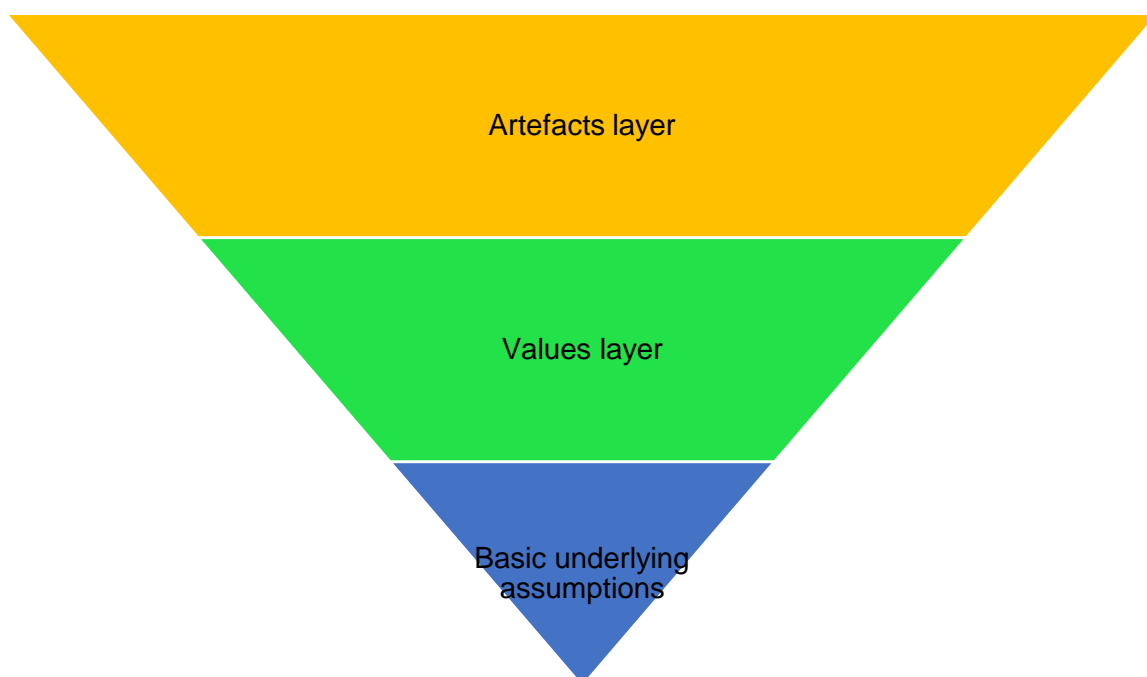
Source: Schein (1990)

Figure 2.1: Schein's organisational culture model

As indicated by Figure 2.1 above, the artefacts layer is described as the physical manifestation of organisational culture consisting of tangible and visible things such as office colours, language, dress code and awards won by the organisation. This first layer is more visible as people can easily see the organisation's official colours, trophies they have won, and the buildings. One can make an inference of the organisation's culture based on that.

The second layer represent values which consist of both organisational and personal values all fused together. The basic underlying assumptions represents the deeper

part of organisational culture which is invisible and difficult to see as indicated by Figure 2.1. This layer determines the structural stability of an organisational culture (Schein, 2010). It takes employees who have worked in the organisation for many years to understand it.

According to Schein (2020), culture is characterised by stability, pervasiveness, depth and integration. It can become something that is so embedded in the organisational teams that change may not be easy to implement. Schein (2020) remarks that most attempts for organisational culture change fails because the change agents fail to understand the last layer of the basic underlying assumptions. This implies that, for change to take place, long serving members in the organisation have to be consulted and fully involved lest the efforts for change will be fruitless. The conceptualisation of organisational culture by Schein (2020) greatly helps to acknowledge the development of organisational culture.

At present, the notion of organisational culture has drawn great attention among scholars in academic institutions and corporates (Bendak, Shikhli & Abdel-Razek, 2020). This is because of the perceived influence this concept has on various organisational outcomes. According to Mzangwa and Serpa (2019) it has become crucial to study organisational culture in the context of academic institutions. This is because South African institutions of higher learning are supposed to undergo serious transformation emanating from past cultures which are retarding equality among all the citizens. Since organisational culture plays a crucial role in positioning universities, more research is required about this concept (Kokt & Makumbe, 2020). Therefore, it is from this background that this study is premised to shed more light in the context of the dominant organisational culture in an academic institution of higher learning.

2.4 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE DEVELOPMENT

As alluded to by existing literature organisational culture develops from the first day an organisation is established (Latchigadu, 2016). The way the organisation is set up, choice of colours and chain of command and organisational structure play a crucial role in organisational culture. This is usually transferred to the rest of the organisation through communication channels where the vision, mission, objectives

and core values are shared among organisational members. The central role players in organisational development are the founders or the leaders of the organisation. The subsequent sections will discuss the levels of and steps of organisational culture respectively.

2.4.1 Levels of organisational culture

As outlined by Schein (2020), organisational culture is shaped by the social, industrial and finally organisational spheres. It follows that the social sphere is the core of organisational culture development. As such, the values and beliefs systems shared by the broader society shapes how organisations do things (Khan & Law, 2018). It is crucial to understand the surrounding environments in which the organisation is embedded in, so as to critically understand a certain organisational culture. Understanding the exchange among societal and industry levels of culture with attributes of the organisation is crucial for an exact analysis of culture and for direction on the most proficient method to alter culture (Khan & Law, 2018). Because of the different cultural backgrounds of organisational members, it eventually opens up an organisation to a number of organisational cultures which in a way can superimpose themselves in how things are done in that particular firm (Schein, 2020). The dominant practices and beliefs can eventually become the standardised norms of what gets shared by everyone, while the weaker ones become subcultures in that particular organisation. The subsequent section will discuss the levels of organisational culture.

i. Societal level

As pointed out by Khan and Law (2018), the societal sphere plays a pertinent role in organisational culture development. It is the first point of call as indicated by figure 2.2 below. How the society is structured in terms of belief systems, values, traditions, myths, and rituals affects how the organisations within it functions (Schein, 2020). In certain societies, their culture is protected to an extent that any breach by the member or organisation within is a highly punishable offense (Schein, 2020). It should be understood that societal sphere will dictate what type of products, dress code and language is acceptable. This is embedded in their education systems, traditional learning spheres so as the political sphere (Schein, 2020). It follows that

the organisation has to align its practices, belief systems and values in congruent to the overall societal sphere lest it risk chances of failure or lawsuit with societal leaders (Abdulla, 2018).

ii. Industrial level

Chipunza & Malo (2017) underscore that in as much as the industrial level is affected by the societal level, it too has its own cultural dynamics which shapes how things are done in that particular industry. It follows that, in every industry, there is always the values system, beliefs, language, communication dress code, policies and grievance procedures that sets it apart from other industries (Schein, 2020). These could have developed over a long time based on how the industry learned to solve problems as they arose, values and myths which became engraved in how they perceive reality. For example, the academic profession in this case a university, is regarded as a professional industry, where all matters which arise are supposed to be solved amicably using clearly stipulated dispute procedures, in line with Chipunza & Malo, (2017). In addition, the employees in that profession are expected to behave in a professional manner, dressed properly, and understanding diversity. This sets the academic profession, for example from the taxi industry, where order and formalness are secondary issues. It can be inferred that an organisation operating in a certain industry should acclimatise itself with that particular industry's cultural dynamics to avoid trouble in the organisation. However, sometimes it's not feasible for an organisation to accommodate all the industrial level cultural dynamics, but it should constantly check for alignment to ensure sustainability of the business.

iii. Organisational level

This is the most important level yet delicate as it is the one in contact with employees (Schein, 2020). The organisational culture as mentioned above, develop from its first stages of inception. The values, beliefs, rituals and behaviours shared by the leaders is transferred to everyone in the organisation (Vilas-Boas, 2019). In some organisations, the culture can become so strong that other members may fail to cope. The organisational culture becomes the unique personality of that particular organisation in the sense that they do things differently from the next organisation (Schein, 2020). It is characterised by leadership dynamics, degree of control and

flexibility, communication channels, compensation policies as well as conflict handling policies (Vilas-Boas, 2019).
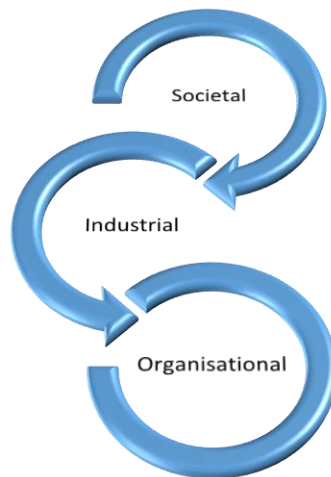
Figure 2.2: Levels of organisational culture

2.5 WORKPLACE BULLYING DEFINITIONS

Due to the difficulty of finding a standardised description of workplace bullying, a variety of researchers have come up with several ways to understand workplace bullying (Mokgolo, 2017). However, this has caused lots of challenges in dealing with this phenomenon in the workplace (Eriksen, Hogh & Hansen, 2016). Mokgolo (2017) asserts that, the lack of a common description for bullying might be probably the chief factor that makes this phenomenon is difficult to tackle effectively. In spite of the fact that scholars have examined workplace bullying since 1980, they have neglected to concede to a conclusive meaning of the term. Tracking down a fitting, acknowledged and exact meaning of bullying keeps on challenging researchers (Mokgolo, 2017).

Leymann's (1990) meaning of mobbing as unfriendly activities that exclusively can be harmless yet collectively and over the long haul can be harming keeps on being "the standard meaning of workplace bullying" (Chirilă and Constantin, 2013). The most regularly utilised expressions to depict the concept of workplace bullying in

Europe are bullying and mobbing; in the United States, nonetheless, ideas like psychological abuse, workplace trauma and hostility and workplace harassment are the labels of such conduct (Chirilă and Constantin, 2013).

In the United States, harassment must be demonstrated by victims who are individuals from a secured status group (Namie and Namie, 2011), yet conduct that result in emotional pain for victims might be the subject of criminal procedures (Eisenberg, 2016). Konrad (1991) first utilised the term mobbing to portray animal group conduct in which a gathering of more modest creatures intimidates a single bigger creature. Swedish therapist Heinz Leymann thusly utilised the word mobbing to portray comparable conduct among youngsters and in the working environment.

Pheko (2017) describes workplace bullying as repetitive and hurtful behaviours directed at others with an intention to cause emotional or physical distress. These behaviours can be expressed verbally or through covert ways which are difficult to tress or notice by those not targeted. Similarly, Nielsen and Einarsen (2018) assert that workplace bullying escalates when the perpetrators utilises both verbal and other non-verbal behaviours to hurt others. As such, workplace bullying consists of harassment incidences where the perpetrator covertly isolates the victim for a period of time approximately six months. Laharnar, Perrin, Hanson, Anger and Glass (2015) define bullying as an action whereby certain individuals verbally and physically target others with an intention to cause harm or emotional strain.

Despite the differing perspectives on the description of workplace bullying, it was noted that there is something common about the phenomenon, for example that for an act to qualify as bullying, it should have taken place for a long time persistently so (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). In addition, different authors seem to agree on the use of the subjective criteria to understand workplace bullying which is an approach adopted by this study. In this study, workplace bullying is defined as persistent and deleterious actions directed towards others with an intention to cause emotional discomfort.

2.5.1 Characteristics of workplace bullying

Workplace bullying may appear as physical aggression towards the victim (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). More modern practices, for example, rejection and social

segregation regularly portray workplace bullying (Wu, Lyons, and Leong, 2015). Workplace bullying alludes to a wide range of conduct going from unpretentious and harmless incivility to brutality (De Cieri et al., 2019). Deviant conduct in the working environment goes from gentle incivility to manslaughter (Namie and Namie, 2011). Boddy (2011) describes workplace bullying as a rehashed unethical and troublesome treatment of one individual by another in the working environment. Impoliteness, mockery, deliberately exhausting a staff member, embarrassment and dangers or brutality are cases of workplace bullying (Boddy, 2011).

Nel (2019) states that bullying incidences are sometimes difficult to locate as the bullies have mastered the art of bullying. Accordingly, the perpetrators can use sophisticated methods to harm their victims, which makes everything to look perfect on the surface at sight of management, bad unbearable and on the side of the victims. Sadly, most victims find it difficult to come out of a bullying situation or environment without compromising their jobs (Muhonen et al., 2016).

The elements of workplace commitments and trades includes complex relationships in which the differentiation among suitable and unsuitable practices might not be clear (Swearer and Hymel, 2015). Organisational structure, hierarchy, and asset allotment, to a great extent decide the idea of relationships in the workplace. Over a two year period, practically a large portion of the British labor force experienced outlandish treatment, 40% experienced incivility, and 75% witnessed abuse of colleagues (Fevre, Robinson, Jones, and Lewis, 2012). Social reciprocity is key to the work relationship (Otto and Mamatoglu, 2015); supervisors are liable for dealing with the employment relationship, and events might emerge when exchanges can be robust.

Meglich, Faley, and DuBois (2012) assembled workplace bullying practices into purposefully vindictive verbal practices, like rough comments and threats, and deliberately pernicious nonverbal practices, for example, subverting or taking work yield, which increase in mercilessness over a 6-month or longer term. Workplace bullying can be unpretentious or self-evident, however it generally includes rehashed negative practices of animosity, incivility, terrorising and aggression, introduced by an individual or group against an individual or group in an inconsistent power relationship (D'Cruz and Noronha, 2014). Workplace bullying is an ever-increasing

issue that leads to the victim feeling inferior (Conway, Høgh, Balducci, & Ebbesen, 2021).

Conway et al. (2021) express that bullying is based on perception whereby the victim perceives that a certain verbal or nonverbal communication by another part is directed to them in a negative manner to cause emotional discomfort or as a threat to their professional being. Koval (2014) highlights the need for differentiating between subjective (perception) and objective workplace bullying if robust diagnostic solutions are to be generated. Similarly, Healy-Cullen (2017) argues that there is still a gap in literature about this differentiation. There is need for further clarity on what is real bullying and just mere accusation of foul play. However, Healy-Cullen (2017) still persists that the subjective view of the victim should always be considered lest the bullying incidences will continue to sprout. Subjective bullying is associated with an individual perceiving that some behaviours by others are maliciously targeted at them to cause harm. This is the most commonly reported in the workplace (Healy-Cullen, 2017). On the other hand, objective bullying is workplace bullying witnessed by others.

Bullying incidences have proliferated over the past which has alarmed many organisations for it's in-depth investigation by those who witness bullying (Pilch & Turska, 2015). Workplace bullying is subjective and usually involves two people that is the perpetrator and the victim (Tambur, 2015). Eisenberg et al., (2016) express that victims are usually defenseless which makes them easy targets. Usually the perpetrators will take advantage of this to fulfil their own agendas. However, in some instances it can also include bystanders witnessing the bullying incident. Be that as it may, literature explaining third party witnesses in a bullying incidence is thinly distributed (Desrumaux, Machado, Vallery & Michel, 2016). The subjective nature of workplace bullying makes it difficult to separate bullying from non-bullying behaviours since it is sorely dependent on perception (Rockett, Fan, Dwyer & Foy, 2017). Consequently, this makes it a daunting task for most organisations to end bullying incidences in the workplace (Fox & Cowan, 2015).

However, some researchers, for example Parzefall and Salin (2010) argue that workplace bullying is not always intentional as alluded by a plethora of studies. Because of some people's proclivity towards perceiving and categorising some

actions as maliciously targeted towards them, they end up reporting that they are victims of bullying, even though the incident does not qualify to be such.

2.5.2 Historical development of workplace bullying

The concept of workplace bullying originated in Scandinavia and then, at that point spread to different parts of the world after the publication of two books by Brodsky (1976) and Leymann (1990). Before that, organisations were overshadowed by issues of workplace bullying, and nobody knew the diagnosis (Berry, Gillespie, Fisher & Gormley, 2016). Workplace bullying has since gained interest from various countries as it is among the chief problems experienced by most organisations.

In other countries such as United States, workplace bullying studies started as late as 1980 (Yamada, 2013). The concept of workplace bullying can be traced from the book by Brodsky (1976) called The Harassed Worker. In this book, Brodsky (1976) defined workplace bullying as persistent negative actions directed to others with the intention to intimidate and cause emotional despair. According to Brodsky (1976), the bullying acts are usually directed towards top achievers whom, the bully, who in most cases is a superior, believes that he/she can use power to intimidate others.

Leymann (1990) developed the concept of workplace bullying but instead termed it mobbing. Leymann (1990) compared the issue of mobbing in the workplace to the behaviour of small animals which team up to attack a bigger host. Defining mobbing in the workplace, Leymann (1990) asserted that mobbing is recurring negative and hostile communication directed towards victims which are in most cases defenseless. This usually takes place for a period of six months and above. Leymann (1990) underscores that workplace bullying is a phenomenon which usually manifest due to power imbalances.

In Scandinavia, the term mobbing is generally used to depict all circumstances where a worker, supervisor, or manager is systematically and repeatedly abused and misled by fellow workers, subordinates, or superiors (Einarsen, 2000). Although the terms, mobbing and bullying are used interchangeably in existing literature, bullying

has been used frequently by most researchers (Carden & Boyd, 2013). Yamada (2013) ascertains this wide adoption to the influence of media where the bullying was used more frequently. Existing literature points to a number of models which have been put forward to explain workplace bullying. These are discussed below.

At present the concept of workplace bullying has fully developed and it is widely accepted by several scholars worldwide (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Nevertheless, scholars continue to build up on this concept to fully understand deviant behaviours in the workplace. In South Africa workplace bullying has also became widely acknowledged (Goosen, Mokoena, & Lekalakala-Mokgele, 2019) even though there is no legislation to criminalise it on perpetrators. It is from this understanding that this study is developed to further build on the work of existing scholars to add new empirical evidence to the body of knowledge.

2.6 WORKPLACE BULLYING MODELS

I. Social Interactionist Theory 1983

Felson and Tedeschi (1993) developed the Social Interactionist Theory to explain workplace bullying. The theory was later updated by Neuman and Baron (2011). The Social Interactionist Theory postulate that workplace bullying results from frustrated employees where it opens up random mistakes, submissive behaviours and defencelessness. It follows therefore that when one makes mistakes due to frustration, it makes them targets for bullying from others. According to Neuman and Baron (2011), usually after a series of mistakes from frustration, the individual can be social distressed and prefer to be alone. This creates a favourable condition for bullies to target them as they usually go after isolated individuals who prove to be defenceless and have no one by their side. Social-Interactionist Theory explicate that there are certain stressors in the workplace which destabilises individuals physically and emotionally resulting in a series of negative behaviours and random mistakes in their work which perpetuate bullying incidences (Reknes, Einarsen, Knardahl & Lau, 2014). Reknes et al. (2014) further assert that due to the absence of stress handling policies and in many organisations, usually the frustrated individual might end up failing to meet certain targets which invites constant criticism from bosses or aggressive behaviour. This might persist in the long term hence, resulting

in the act of bullying. The Social Interactionist Theory have been used widely in the existing literature (Neuman et al., 2011; Baillien et al., 2009; Reknes et al., 2014; Baillien & De Witte, 2010).

II.   Social Learning Theory 1977

Bandura (1978) used the Social Learning Theory of aggression to explain workplace bullying. Bandura argues that some people will learn to be bullies if they were once exposed to bullying. Learning usually takes place by observing. Hence, when people grow up in an environment where bullying is rife, the chances are that they can become bullies in future. For instance, the bystanders to a bullying incidence can as well learn to become bullies if they note that the bully was celebrated and positively reinforced (Samnani & Singh, 2012). As such it makes them eager to bully others in a similar vein (Salin, 2003). The Social Learning Theory is important in explaining bullying from the perspectives of the perpetrator and the victim (Vartia-Väänänen, 2003).

 In support of the Social Learning Theory, studies such as, Kieseker and Marchant (1999) as well as Indvik and Johnson (2012) underscore that individuals' childhood exposure to bullying condition them to become bullies at a certain stage in life. On that note, Indvik and Johnson (2012) note that bullies have difficulty in coping well with family members and their insecurities can be unleashed in the workplace resulting in the prevalence of workplace bullying. Consequently, bullies will develop hostile characters where they target weaker individuals whom they maliciously target to elevate themselves by bringing the targets down.

III.   Attribution Theory 1972

Kelly (1972) propounded the Attribution Theory to explain workplace bullying. The theory was later shaped by Baron in 1990. The Attribution Theory explains that people will always want to point a bad outcome or occurrence as emanating from the negative behaviours of their colleagues or their environment. Using the Attribution Theory, people avoid taking responsibility for any negative outcome but rather, they attribute it either to their colleagues or the environment. Accordingly, Leymann

(1990) remarks that people can sometimes fall sick trying to ascertain how their own personality could have caused a bullying incident. For example, in a bullying incident, it might happen that the victims have a certain personality or characteristics which perpetuate bullying. However, based on the explanations of the Attribution Theory, the victims will always point to the bullies as culprits in the whole bullying incident.

In South Africa, studies on workplace bullying can be linked to the work of Marais-Steinman (2002) where the author aimed at identifying the existence of workplace bullying in different organisations across all industries. Another follow up study was conducted by De Wet (2011) to investigate the symptoms of workplace bullying using the victims as respondents of the study in order to come up with measures to mitigate this recurring issue. Burton (2015) also added to the field by alluding that workplace bullying is by product of violent behaviours in the workplace.

Rothmann and Rothmann (2006) investigated workplace bullying from the health perspective of it in relation to the victims. Workplace bullying started gaining momentum as indicated by a number of studies published from 2007. Pietersen (2007) studied the field using the academics as the area of investigation. One of the outcomes of the study was that workplace bullying is still underdeveloped, under researched and as such receives less attention. In the same year, Denton and Van Lill (2007), decided to look at workplace bullying based on industrial experiences. A study by Botha (2008), approached workplace bullying we the aim to gain first-hand information from the victims on how they perceive workplace bulling and how they deal with such situations. Regardless of their different methodologies and case studies, the mentioned studies in South Africa, all agree that workplace bullying is a reality and requires urgent attention as it is costly to both the employees and the organisation.

2.7 TYPES OF WORKPLACE BULLYING

Existing literature identifies five main types of bullying which are; threat to professional status, threat to personal standing, isolation, overwork and destabilization (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). These are adopted by this study as measures of workplace bullying.

- **Threat to professional status**

The bullies have a tendency of blackmailing someone to tarnish their public image. Other things involve questioning someone's professional status in public and display of negative behaviours aimed at humiliating the victim. According to Einarsen et al. (2018), some supervisors have a tendency to question people's professional standing by accusing them of not have skills to execute their job well. On that note the bullies can resort to covert and negative behaviours such as withholding important instructions about executing a task, information about meetings, deadlines and workshops (Shah & Hashmi, 2019). The intention is to create a general impression that the targets are incompetent and unprofessional hence, not fit to be on that particular job or position. In some instances, bullies deploy employees to work tasks they are not qualified on so that they can have a chance to disregard them as experts in their own area of specialisation (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). De Wet (2014) critically notes that bullies have a tendency to always move their targeted victims around as a malicious strategy to deter them from acquiring certain skills crucial in that industry. This is usually done in covert ways that other people around find it difficult to notice except the victims who are deep rooted in the bullying situation.

- **Threat to personal standing**

This is a situation where the perpetrators try to cause discomfort in another person by mocking them (Park, Lee & Park, 2017). This is usually expressed verbally where the bully makes demeaning jokes and laughs around in a sarcastic manner. In some incidences the bullies can resort to disrespectful behaviours where they do not treat their colleagues in a professional manner. Such negative and disrespectful behaviours can be expressed through ignoring the victims in a contribution in meetings and avoiding a handshake from a colleague at work in front of everyone. According to David and Dalton (2016), this can also involve the perpetrators being sarcastic about the target's religious or cultural beliefs. In a study conducted by De Wet (2014) another victim of workplace bullying indicated that she was emotionally tormented because she did not belong to the same church affiliation of the existing employees. Another strand of literature alludes that the perpetrators can belittle others by passing on mockery comments.

- **Isolation**

The bullies have a tendency of segregating targeted individuals. As such, the perpetrators ensure that the targets do not get certain information, opportunities and other announcements which makes them not to meet certain deadlines. The ultimate goal is to cause emotional discomfort on the victims. In most cases the bullies will spread bad rumors aimed at making other colleagues to cut ties with the targeted individuals. According to Nielsen and Einarsen (2018), this can also take the form of social isolation where the perpetrators exclude the victims from certain groups as a way to make them succumb to their pressure. As indicated by Pheko (2018), the isolated groups can be those belonging to a minority race or gender. In the case of race or ethnicity, those affiliated from a minority race are soft targets for bullying. This is the same case with gender, for instance, in male dominated careers, males will always want to outshine the females. If this is not the case males will then use covert and malicious behaviours targeted to harm females in a bid to isolate them. Another device used for isolating is favouritism (Park et al., 2017). Regardless of how good or innocent a targeted victim can be, the perpetrators will openly favour those who affiliates to their ideologies and same way they perceive reality.

- **Overwork**

This involves giving the victim cumbersome workloads and unrealistic deadlines (Park et al., 2017). In most cases, in the case of the boss versus a subordinate, the boss can withhold particular instructions or give ambiguous instructions leading to the victim making so many mistakes which gives the perpetrator an opportunity to exhaust them emotionally and physically. It was established from the findings of De Wet (2014) that the perpetrators in this case supervisors can overwork the victims to an extent that they start deteriorating health wise. Einarsen et al. (2018) concur and assert that the supervisors sometimes give their targeted victims ambiguous task with unclear goals so as to set them up for failure. Nevertheless, the victims should be able to differentiate overwork with changes in their routine tasks.

- **Destabilisation**

Destabilisation involves actions done by the perpetrator to the victim, where the earlier devices some actions to reduce the later's self-confidence. These actions

include withholding credit when the victim excels, always looking for mistakes in the victim's work and changing of targets without communicating effectively to the victim among others. Pietersen (2007) explicate destabilisation using a case where managers withhold recognition or benefits after an employee has completed a task in an outstanding manner. In the study, it was established that some of the respondents indicated that they were never given the recognition they deserved after volunteering to do some tasks for which they executed whole heartedly.

2.8 VERTICAL VERSUS HORIZONTAL WORKPLACE BULLYING

2.8.1 Bosses bullying subordinates

According to De Cieri et al. (2019), bullying can take the form of bosses bullying their subordinates, line managers bullying their top management, employee bullying another employee and can be between employees and customers. Incidences of bullying are mainly linked to the bosses tormenting their subordinates (vertical bullying) Dzurec, Kennison and Gillen (2017). Napoletano, Elgar, Saul, Dirks and Craig (2015) assert that top management are the major players in a bullying incident. This is because the bosses abuse their power to bully the less powerful and connected employees. In agreement, Hodgins, MacCurtain, & McNamara, (2020) note that top management have reward power which revolves around them and therefore they will end up using it to bully their subordinates who by virtue of fearing to forfeit certain benefits end up succumbing to the demands of the perpetrators at the expense of their physical and emotional being. Integral to the talk on bullying is the abuse of power.

The way wherein individuals exercise power in an organisation impacts the occurrence of harassing in the organisation. Positional power is a significant determinant and antecedent for bullies to exercise power over the target (Hodgins et al., 2020). The apparent seriousness of bullying relies upon the focal point of the bullying behaviour and on the power imbalance among targets and perpetrators (De Cieri et al., 2019). The blossoming literature about the recurrence and results of workplace bullying incorporates little with respect to the seriousness of bullying and

the impact it has on the target's understanding and reaction to the situation. Data on the seriousness and impacts of bullying would explain the bullying construct.

Power makes both temporary and enduring psychological changes that change the manner in which people assimilate and separate their self from others (Hodgins et al., 2020). Such change alludes to the manner by which people in places of power act as leaders, just as how followers act. Individuals' self-understanding and point of view play an interceding role to decide the practices of powerful and powerless people. Organisational culture, designs, and personality traits moderate this connection (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018).

A study conducted by de Wet (2014) revealed that 66.1% of the bullying that took place among the respondents, came from their superiors. In the same vein, Mokgolo (2017) notes that people with power usually end up using it as a manipulative tool to pursue their personal interests. Samnani (2021) is of the view that managers end up being the major perpetrators because of the capitalist approach they use to drive up productivity. The only challenge is that they end up over doing it, hence, harming their subordinates both emotionally and physically.

2.8.2 Employees bullying supervisors

However, David and Dalton (2016) allude that sometimes vertical bullying can be the employees teaming up to bully the supervisor. Mokgolo (2017) expands the above assertion and pinpoint that employees end up teaming up to bully their superiors as response to long periods of being bullied by the top management. In a way, they regard this as a way to retaliate as employees in a joined manner. Regardless of this manifestation of workplace bullying being under researched, Semmer, Meier and Beehr (2016) note that subordinates can behave in a manner that can cause serious discomfort and emotional strain to their superiors.

2.8.3 Peer to peer workplace bullying

Goosen, Mokoena and Lekalakala-Mokgele (2019) note that bullying can also be among peers at the same level in the workplace (horizontal bullying). In an investigation conducted by De Wet (2014) among educators, one of the findings was

that peers at the same level sometimes have a tendency of bullying others by spreading malicious rumours in a manner to tarnish the targets' professional image.

Mokgolo (2017) asserts that horizontal workplace bullying can emanate from interdependence nature of certain jobs in the workplace where employees at the same level end up bullying each other over resources. Misawa & Rowland, (2015) opine that workplace bullying takes any form either vertical or horizontal. De Wet (2014) concludes that vertical bullying in form of supervisors bullying their subordinates is the most dominant form of workplace bullying. This in alignment with the context of this study where the research intends to examine workplace bulling among non-academic staff members at a South African university.

2.9 CAUSES OF WORKPLACE BULLYING

In order for organisations to effectively deal with workplace bullying, it is important to find its root causes (Samnani, Boekhorst & Harrison, 2015). A plethora of studies agree that both organisational and individual (employee) factors cause workplace bullying (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). In their study on workplace bullying among universities, Zabrodska and Kveton's (2013) respondents identified the following as causes of workplace bullying in universities as attributed in figure 2.3 below.

Figure 2.3 shows the perceived causes of workplace bullying in universities in a study conducted by Zabrodska and Kveton (2013). The study revealed that most workplace bullying incidences are caused by the personality of perpetrators. These bullies have "psychopathic", "narcissistic" and "aggressive" personalities, which causes them to bully others. In the study, the respondents revealed that some of these perpetrators are unaware that they are bullying others in the workplace. Poor management was also identified as one of the major causes of workplace bullying. Some managers do not have problem-solving skills and strategies to deal with workplace bullying incidences. This makes workplace bullying go unpunished in the workplace (Zabrodska & Kveton, 2013).
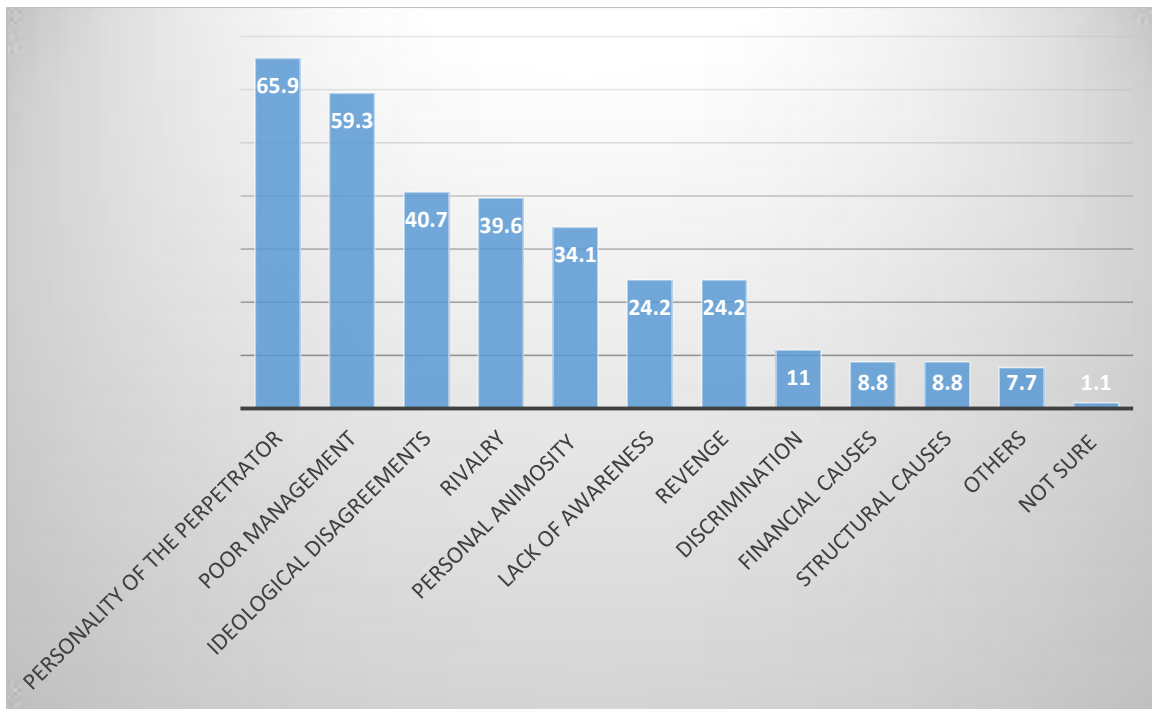
Figure 2.3: Causes of workplace bullying in universities

Hershcovis, Reich & Niven, (2015) identify perpetrator characteristics, target characteristics and situational characteristics as causes of workplace bullying. These are critically discussed in the following section.

2.9.1 Perpetrator characteristics

The perpetrators are mostly people with anger issues, unresolved issues and have a narcissist trait and high anxiety (Mokgolo, 2017). Aquino and Byron (2002) express that bullies are hostile by nature. Nielsen and Einarsen (2018) agree and assert that bullies use aggression in most times they fail to use their intellectual capacity to get people or resources on their side. Instead they resort to aggressive behaviours intended at harming others in a bid to create a submissive atmosphere. Other scholars are of the view that some people can end up as bullies because they were once victims (Mokgolo, 2017). Therefore, this entails that these people will adopt a vengeful behaviour that is aimed at causing harm to others.

Other studies such as Einarsen, Skogstad, Rørvik, Lande and Nielsen (2018) underscore that bullies are people with low emotional intelligence. They fail to control their emotions and end up expressing themselves in a harsh manner over others. As

a matter of fact, bullies do not care about how others feel hence, they end up super imposing their ambiguous demands over others (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). In addition, bullies tend to view themselves as superior to others to an extent that they believe no one else can do what they do (Shelley et al., 2021). To reinforce this, they try to bring down everyone whom they perceive is a threat to their personal standing. As such, bullies survive by making others feel less of themselves, giving up, developing self-doubt and low self-esteem.

2.9.2 Target characteristics

On the other hand, the targets are usually high performers who the perpetrators would like to bring down. Hodson, Roscigno and Lopez (2006) support this and assert that perpetrators are not comfortable working around people who appear to be smarter than them. If such perception arises, they develop hatred and other malicious behaviours aimed at toppling the high performers. Tepper, Moss and Duffy (2011) opine that most victims seem to have a unique character which threatens those around them, hence, this creates jealousy, anger and resentment against them by others.

Deniz and Ertosun (2010) identify one's personality as an antecedent to workplace bullying. Personality in this regard is defined as a set of characteristics in an individual which determines how they perceive or respond to their surrounding environment. It follows that due to certain characteristics, some individuals are likely to report issues of bullying than others. Hogh, Mikkelsen and Hansen (2010) concur and highlight that generally there are certain individuals with depressive tendencies and trust issues, hence, they will tend to suspect that everyone is against them. As indicated by Mokgolo (2017), the victims of workplace bullying tend to have a submissive personality which makes them easy targets of bullying.

Baillien, Escartín, Gross and Zapf (2017) indicate that victimisation through bullying corresponds with shyness, depression, low social skills, neuroticism and prior symptoms of anxiety. Additionally, victims will in general be obedient, agreeable, avoiding conflict, honest, traditional, dependable, peaceful, reserved, restless, and sensitive. They favour calm places and experience issues adapting successfully to upsetting situations. Despite the fact that they announced that no experimental proof

yet shows the degree or extent to which attributes make the 49 generally potential for exploitation, their discoveries compare well to the Social Interactionist Theory.

According to Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf and Cooper (2020), the person in question and social system together can be reasons for bullying, showing that a portion of the bullying cases might exist in the actual victims. While just 2% of the victims in their examination conceded that their performance was less than ideal, they conceded to different qualities that support Social Interactionist Theory. Such instances of these characteristics include deficiencies in social abilities, performance, or accuracy, as well as aggressive or grumbling behaviour. Notwithstanding victims' characteristics inciting bullying, they clarify that there is a distinction between discovering a reason and allocating fault or responsibility. Accordingly, it tends to be hard to decide if the victim battled to find a way to fit into the organisation, or whether the group of people struggled to coordinate the individual who was unique (Einarsen et al., 2020). Usually they are defenceless and isolated because of they do not affiliate to any groups or networks.

Mokgolo (2017) reasons that bullying incidences are difficult to eradicate because the targets of workplace bullying usually dismiss the fact that they have a certain personality which attracts bullies. As such, other measures to resolve workplace bullying has to be put in place other than focusing on trying to change the personality of workplace victims. Salin (2008) indicates that bullies usually take advantage of the fact that their targets are sensitive people who always cooperate just to get over the situation or conflict. However, this creates a long-lasting scenario, where they are taken advantage of over others who can stand their ground against bullies.

Another branch of existing literature uses a different angle to explain workplace bullying. For example, Einarsen et al. (2020) illuminate that people who are aggressive and antisocial open themselves up for criticism and by others who possess similar characteristics. Duffy et al. (2006) points out that aggressive people have undesirable behaviours and personality which can hurt others in a certain way. Similarly, Aquino (2000) alludes that people with a blunt and difficulty personality provoke others to retaliate hence, perpetuating incidences of workplace bullying. In most cases, the bullying that will result is reactive where others devise some ways to fix the bully. Namie and Namie (2003) express that bullying is usually targeted at

individuals who are difficult and refuse to submit. In that case it opens up issues of bullying where the superiors devise some covert strategies to intentionally punish and hurt the non-submissive individuals.

Nevertheless, this thread of literature seems too shallow and weak in explicating workplace bullying. The more commonly accepted cause is based on the fact that the victims possess a softer personality which makes the bullies to assume that they are a weak link for bullying.

2.9.3 Situational characteristics

The foundations of situational factors as antecedents of workplace bullying can be traced from the model by Leymann (1990, 1993, 1996). In this model Leymann proposes that workplace bullying emanates from dysfunctional leadership, poor work design, employees' social position and issues of morale. Leymann (1996) further highlights that deficiencies in the above-mentioned factors result in a conflict which fuels workplace bullying. For instance, when there is poor leadership, the conflicts escalate into something serious hence, making different groups target each other with an intention to cause harm.

Hodson, Roscigno and Lopez (2006) explain workplace bullying using the two-dimensional model of power imbalances in the workplace. The model explains that workplace bullying emanates from power imbalances, where some are perceived as powerful individuals, groups, or class bully those perceived as less powerful. Hodson et al. (2006) assert that the workplace is galvanised with power dynamics and people always strive to be more powerful than others to manipulate others to achieve their own goals. As such, the model pinpoint that using the two-dimensional approach to workplace bullying, people perceived to be subscribed to a minority group, those with temporary contracts, unskilled employees are the main targets for bullying. The two-dimensional model of workplace bullying identifies job insecurity as the weakest link used by most bullies to torment their victims. It follows therefore that those employees who are uncertain about the renewal of their contracts by the organisation are taken advantage of through name-calling, harassment, isolation, verbal abuse and emotional blackmail. Hodson et al. (2006) elucidate the model further and indicate that there are certain factors in the workplace that either escalate

or suppress incidences of bullying. In unpacking this aspect, Hodson et al. (2006) remark that workplace bullying does not survive in organisations where the management is transparent and accountable for its actions but is more rampant in chaotic work environments.

Several studies also agree that situational factors are among the chief causes of workplace bullying (Baillien, De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011). Factors such as the organisational structure, work relationships, communication flows, leadership styles, organisational climate and organisational culture are among the situational factors which influence the levels of workplace bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010).

Bruursema, Kessler and Spector (2011) further add work structure as another factor that can cause workplace bullying. On that note, their study argues that people with less workload may end up bullying others because they have too much time which is unutilised. Hershcovis et al. (2015) allude that situational factors such as unsupportive leadership breeds bullying. This is a situation where the power is concentrated in a small number of people leading to abuse of power. It has emerged also that leadership styles such as the autocratic style is linked to workplace bullying (Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper & Einarsen, 2010).

2.10 EFFECTS OF WORKPLACE BULLYING

Workplace bullying does not only affect the victim but has grave effects also on the witness of a bullying incident as well as the organisation at large (Nel, 2019). If follows that for an organisation to function efficiently, these parties mentioned should be working with one accord but with the presence of workplace bullying this is eroded and results in conflicts and suspicion where the employees no longer trust the organisation's top management. The effects of workplace bullying are discussed in the context of the employees, bystanders and the organization.

2.10.1 Effects on employees

Workplace bullying creates a hostile and unsafe environment for employees to execute their duties properly (Zeka, 2018). Bullying causes the victims to suffer emotionally and, in some instances, to lose interest in their work (Salin, 2015). Salin (2015) further asserts that victims in a bullying incident report dissatisfaction with their organisations. Sojo, Wood and Genat (2016) report that bullying can have more

grave effects than any other organisational variable. If these factors are not monitored, workplace bullying is costly to both the individual and the organisation (Tag-Eldeen et al., 2017).

Targets of bullying often show signs of deteriorating health (Conway et al., 2021). Namie (2014) further elucidate this and point out that workplace bullying can cause employees to suffer from sleeplessness, anxiety and internal anger issues. In some instances, the victims end up suffering from severe stress which affects them negatively. High stress levels lead to absenteeism and high turnover (Tag-Eldeen et al., 2017).

Zeka (2018) is of the view that workplace bullying erodes the competitiveness and morale of employees as they fear being targets. Bartlett and Bartlett (2011) report that workplace bullying can damage individuals' creativity which negatively affects their performance. Nielsen and Einarsen (2018) studied the effect of workplace bullying and concluded that workplace bullying predicts high levels of anxiety, burnout and health problems. The study further disclosed that workplace bullying is associated with an objective to quit, high absenteeism and high turnover. These effects if not quickly abated, persist into the long-term which causes much deterioration in the victim's physical health.

According to Tag-Eldeen et al. (2017), the victims can be affected to an extent that they develop self-doubt and low self-esteem. In some instances, victims end up not reporting bullying incidences in the event that the bullies are protected by top management (Einarsen et al., 2018). To avoid losing their jobs, they will suffer internally until they finally decide to leave the organization (Tag-Eldeen et al., 2017). This is the worst response as it makes workplace bullying to flourish even more. Einarsen et al. (2018) remark that some employees end up being suicidal in the long run, if the workplace bullying incidences are not dealt with effectively. The worst cases of bullying can cause the victims to suffer financially due to random medical bills (Eriksen et al., 2016).

Another salient consequence of workplace bullying on the victims is destabilisation in family life. Most of these employees have to play a role in their families after work, but this is weakened if not erased totally due to high levels of stress which can make

the victim failing to cope with family roles and responsibilities. For instance, lack of money due to health-related bills resulting from long periods of workplace bullying can cause problems in the family setup where the victim cannot meet day to day family financial demands. Bartlett and Bartlett (2011:77) summarised the effects of workplace bullying on the victim (employee) as shown below;

Table 2.1: The consequences of workplace bullying on employees

Work	Psychological Health	Physical Health	Affective Domain
✓ Absenteeism ✓ Burnout ✓ Errors in workplace ✓ Income loss ✓ Career impact ✓ Concentration loss ✓ Lowered morale ✓ Intolerance of criticism ✓ Job dissatisfaction ✓ Lowered performance /productivity ✓ Quit / thinking of quitting ✓ Social interactions inside work ✓ Work hours ✓ Loss of time (hours cut)	✓ Depression ✓ Psychological health / psychological affects ✓ Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) ✓ Suicide	✓ Cardiovascular disease ✓ Chronic disease ✓ Headaches ✓ Health decrease ✓ Increased smoking, alcohol, and drug use/abuse ✓ Higher body mass ✓ Medical costs ✓ Physical health ✓ Sick time ✓ Sleep disruption ✓ Sleep-inducing drugs	✓ Anxiety ✓ Anger ✓ Easily upset/ tenseness ✓ Fear ✓ Exhaustion ✓ Humiliation ✓ Impatience ✓ Powerlessness ✓ Motivation ✓ Isolation feeling ✓ Concentration loss ✓ Powerlessness ✓ Sadness ✓ Self-confidence ✓ Social interactions outside of work ✓ Stress

Source: Bartlett and Bartlett (2011)

2.10.2 Effects on witnesses

Bystanders in a bullying incident can also suffer emotionally from witnessing a bullying incident. Zeka (2018) argues that it is important for organisations to also craft policies that cater for bystanders in a bullying incident because they are equally affected as the direct victims. Witnesses in a bullying incident may become emotional during the bullying incident and may develop hatred and mechanisms to fix the bully (Hershcovis et al., 2015). Cardoso, Fornés-Vives and Gili (2016)

bystanders are likely to be equally affected by a bullying incident in the workplace because they observe everything. In agreement, Eisenberg, McMorris, Gower and Chatterjee (2016) express that bystanders can suffer emotional distress in the long run just like the workplace bullying direct victims. This is because the bystanders fear that they are likely to be bullied in future (Naimie, 2014). The bystanders can develop negative attitudes toward the management and the organisation to an extent that they can even quit their job.

2.10.3 Effects on the organisation

As noted by Mokgolo (2017), workplace bullying reduces the organisation's effectiveness in terms of achieving its goals. Consequently, organisations lose a lot of money in terms of reduced productivity and performance (Høgh et al., 2021). Accordingly, organisations lose a lot of money through hiring and training new staff (Rockett et al., 2017). Zeka (2018) adds that also the cost that comes with lawsuits cannot be underestimated. Demotivated employees are likely to produce poor quality products which negatively affects the organisation's sales and profitability (Høgh et al., 2021). Crumpton (2014) reports that organisations lose an estimated value of $180 million due to low productivity and absenteeism. As indicated by Høgh et al. (2021), another significant amount of money is lost through lawsuits, where dissatisfied employees take the organisation's management to court for failing to protect their rights. The major goal of any organisation is to have employees that perform well and enable the organization to meet its goals.

However, workplace bullying causes employees to lose focus and interest in their work. According to Høgh et al. (2021), workplace bullying can be costly to an organisation in the event that employees' team up and aggressively damage property or sabotage the management. Aleassa and Megdadi (2014) agree and point out that the victims usually develop hostile behaviours aimed at sabotaging the organization through reduced productivity, random mistakes, intentional machine break downs, wrong invoicing among others. It follows that just one mistake and a slight delay in the production process costs the organisation millions of rands. Another significant amount of money is lost when key and skilled employees leave the organisation. This will cost the organisation in trying to source new talent and lost productivity.

Sometimes it put the organisation in disrepute due to failure to meet customer demands and paying off suppliers in time (Mokgolo, 2017). Eventually, this has also negative implications on corporate image, value and reputation (Smit, 2014). Existing literature indicates that this negative reputation is usually difficult to correct and can still affect the organisation even after the bullying incident (Mokgolo, 2017). This has severe negative effects on the key organisation's key stakeholders such as suppliers, customers and the general public.

Mokgolo (2017) points out that workplace bullying causes communication breakdown which leads to conflicts between management and employees. This is a serious challenge in the event that it negatively affects how people relate and consequently, the organisation suffer more costs due to resistance from employees and possibly litigation.

Table 2.2: The effects of workplace bullying on organisation

Productivity	Cost	Culture	Litigation	Reputation
✓ High absenteeism ✓ Decreased performance ✓ Employees use of time ✓ Loss of creative potential employee(s) ✓ Missed deadlines ✓ Workplace errors	✓ Medical costs increase ✓ Recruitment & training ✓ Turnover / retention ✓ Employee attrition ✓ Employee compensation claims ✓ Company internet usage	✓ Toxic climate ✓ Abuse of electronic communication ✓ Ineffective interpersonal relationships (peers / supervisors) ✓ Ineffective teamwork ✓ Lowered morale ✓ Organisational commitment ✓ Work environment	✓ Wrongful discharge lawsuits	✓ Customer relations

Source: Bartlett and Bartlett (2011).

Based on the above discussion, workplace bullying is very costly to both the organisation and employees. As such, this phenomenon should not be tolerated, and a plethora of initiatives has to be devised to tackle this issue effectively.

2.11 WORKPLACE BULLYING ISSUES AND PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED BY NON-ACADEMIC STAFF

The majority of workplace bullying studies were conducted abroad. It is just a few which were conducted in the context of developing countries. Worse still, most workplace bullying studies have broadly focused on the corporate workplace. There is a lack of studies that have studied workplace bullying in the context of universities with a special focus on non-academic staff. This calls for more studies as this isolated group is crucial for the success of university programmes as they play a supportive role. Universities are institutions where knowledge production takes place. In South Africa, there are 26 public universities. In these universities there is a distinction between academic and non-academic staff members. In most cases, the non-academic staff members provide support services to the academic staff members. Non-academic staff members include secretaries, messengers, administrators, student records staff, technical staff and drivers.

2.11.1 International perspective of workplace bullying among non-academic staff

According to Shelley, Pickett, Mancini, McDougle, Rissler and Cleary (2021), bullying is experienced in almost every organisation. As alluded by Healy-Cullen (2017), workplace bullying has become one of the top challenges organisations world-wide have to deal with effectively. Due to the severity of problems created by bullying, it has been criminalised in a number of countries such as the United Kingdom and Australia among others (Colaneri, 2017). In UK bullying incidences have been recorded in some universities (Devlin & Marsh, 2018). "Hundreds of academics have been accused of bullying students and colleagues in the past five years, prompting concerns that a culture of harassment and intimidation is thriving in Britain's leading universities" (Devlin & Marsh, 2018). Devlin and Marsh (2018) report that most universities in UK have forwarded complains about bullying incidences. These incidences are identified as sabotage, isolation, work overload and ignoring the victim (Devlin & Marsh, 2018).

Devlin & Marsh (2018) report that workplace bullying in universities also cascade to non-staff members. This group is directly and indirectly affected by workplace bullying because they work with academic staff members every day. It is difficult for non-staff members to avoid incidences of bullying since they play the supportive role to ensure a smooth flow of academic activities. Non-academic staff members such as administrators are usually bullied by their bosses and other lecturers who perceive themselves as more qualified than them. The perpetrators usually use hateful speeches aimed at destroying the target's confidence.

Universities are breeding grounds for workplace bullying (Shelley et al., 2021). Since workplace bullying is a familiar phenomenon in universities, it is easier for it to be extended and affect non- academic staff. Workplace bullying creates a negative work environment for everyone in the academic setting (Björklund et al., 2020). Non-academic staffs' work is hands-on and characterised by multiple interactions that a day will not pass without an issue of bullying being recorded. McKay, Arnold, Fratzl & Thomas (2008) study in Canada show that universities are insulated with bullying incidences. The study established that even non-academic staff such as librarians complained of bullying issues.

Giorgi (2012) also assessed workplace issues in universities. The study discovered that workplace bullying was relatively high among administrators among Italian universities. This is sad because less attention has been given to this group in the existing literature which exposes them to long term bullying as nobody has invested much in understanding how non-academic staff report on bullying.

2.11.2 Local perspective of workplace bullying among non-academic staff

South Africa is also faced with cases of bullying issues. Every year, there are cases of employees taking their organisations to court due to incidences of bullying. Giorgi (2012) underscore that most studies about the organisational culture and workplace bullying nexus have been conducted mostly among Anglo-American cultures but however, Escartín, Zapf, Arrieta and Rodríguez-Carballeira (2011) assert that it remains indistinct as to how other cultures in other countries and organisational settings predict workplace bullying levels. In explicating that fact further, Giorgi (2012) underscore that some other countries may have different organisational

cultures and dynamics which might give different results as the ones reported from studies conducted in Anglo-American organisations.

Pietersen (2007) opines that workplace bullying have not received serious attention in South Africa. Hence, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) recommend that more empirical studies are required in South Africa if the concept of workplace bullying is to be dealt with effectively. This act is detrimental to an organisation as it is purely a violation to people's rights (Beale & Hoel, 2011). De Wet (2014) remarks that bullying in an institution of higher learning has the potential to destabilise the functionality of most academic activities if not effectively monitored.

However, less consideration has been given to this irksome issue particularly among non-academic staff (Upton, 2010). Workplace bullying issues are one of the worst challenges in a university setup (Giorgi, 2012). Bullying incidences are rampant among non-academic stuff. The administrative post is a hectic career. Sadly, Keashly and Neuman (2010) remark that regardless of the proliferation of bullying cases in academic institutions, less has been done to address the problem. Administrators are always working under pressure, heavy workloads, work with people of diverse backgrounds which exposes them to incidences of bullying.

Keashly and Neuman (2010) allude that workplace bullying among university employees is somewhat not hostile but consist of covert behaviours such as name calling, ignoring emails and threats. Koval (2014) notes that these employees are mainly exposed to bullying related to work overload, threat to professional status and isolation. Zabrodska and Kveton (2013) found workplace bullying among university employees to be mainly work related such as having one's contributions or ideas ignored. Harlos and Axelrod (2008) report that administrators in hospitals are exposed to mistreatments such as verbal abuse, work obstruction and emotional neglect.

Harlos and Axelrod (2008) further allude that administrators are likely to experience verbal abuse because they work with many people daily. King and Piotrowski (2015) note that the incidences of bullying in academic setting can also be between one administrator to another. Cassell (2011) is of the view that incidences of bullying are common among non-academic stuff because they are led by people who are just

protected by a certain organisational culture but not professionally trained for such positions. This makes bullying to be prevalent in universities.

2.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed literature review on the variables of the study, which are organisational culture, workplace bullying and university staff. The definitions of the key variables were given. Thereafter, the chapter provided a historical development of both organisational culture and workplace bullying. A review of literature on the workplace bullying issues faced by non-academic staff in South Africa shows that this issue is a serious problem. The literature review showed that such problems are also experienced abroad in other countries but have been given less attention. The following chapter will look at the theoretical framework and empirical literature associated with relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying.

CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on discussing the theories guiding this study. The chapter also discusses empirical findings related to the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying. The chapter starts by outlining and discussing the theories related to organisational culture and workplace bullying. Thereafter the chapter discusses the empirical literature where the hypotheses formulated in this study are discussed based on the work of other researchers.

3.2 ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE THEORY

This study adopts the conceptualisation of organisational culture as propounded by Cameron and Quinn (1999) as cited in Übius and Alas (2009) Cameron and Quinn's (1999) model of organisational culture hinges on the four types of organisational culture which are: adhocracy, clan, hierarchy and market culture. Cameron and Quinn's (1999) believe that every organisation tends to exhibit these four different

types of organisational culture, however, in varying proportions. The variations emanate from the way the organisational culture is structured in terms of dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success. Furthermore, Cameron and Quinn (1999) underscore that the one type among these four that employees perceive to be prevalent becomes the dominant organisational culture adopted by the organisation. In this study, each of the four organisational types (adhocracy, clan, hierarchy, and market culture) will be tested against workplace bullying.

3.2.1 Hierarchy culture

The hierarchy organisational culture can be linked to a bureaucratic organisational structure and this organisational culture is characterised by strict controls, rules and regulations, formalities and a strict chain of command (Yu & Wu, 2009). Under this culture, the boss-subordinate relationship is emphasised and those in authority such as top management employ the top-down communication (Übius and Alas, 2009). Hierarchical organisational culture mainly focuses on the internal functionality of an organisation. Furthermore, it leverages on the stability that creativity maybe quashed. Such organisational cultures are most appropriate in the military where subordinates take orders from high-ranking bosses. In the context of institutions of higher learning, such an organisational culture may produce negative results.

3.2.2 Clan culture

According to Yu and Wu (2009), clan culture is more flexible than hierarchical organisational culture. Features of clan culture are loyalty, teamwork, togetherness, and self-driven behaviour. Just like hierarchical organisational culture, it focusses on the internal performance of an organisation. The loyalty of employees is induced through socialisation. On that note long serving members in the organisation take on the roles of mentors over new employees (Latchigadu, 2016). In most cases, such issues as group norms emerge which put pressure on the members to conform to such norms and values. Consequently, this gives rise to aspects like group think which might be bad for overall organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Hellriegel, 2004). Beyer and Haug (2014) note that a clan culture boosts employees' morale and confidence in the management because of the spirit of trust and mutual respect

for others. In the context of an institution of higher learning, clan culture may promote teamwork and boost morale within the organisation. When employees identify each other and work together, issues of workplace bullying may be avoided.

3.2.3 Adhocracy culture

Adhocracy culture has an external focus (Übius & Alas, 2009). Temporary teams and projects characterise adhocracy culture. The management leverage on innovation and employees are free to come up with new ideas and propose for the implementation thereof. When employees are given a platform to suggest new ideas, they are likely to be motivated. The important element of adhocracy culture is that there is greater scope for trust and respect between top management and employees. Based on that the possibility of conflicts and malicious behaviour towards others is minimised.

3.2.4 Market culture

Market culture is more competitive and endeavours to set the organisation as the best among others in the market or industry. Competition is highly encouraged, and the supervisor-employee relationship is flexible but there is a certain degree of control. The ultimate goal is to please the external stakeholders (Beyer & Haug, 2014). More importantly, employees perform better because the management communicates the targets and expected rewards from the onset.

The four competing values model by Cameron and Quinn (1999) is an important theory for this study as it is a recent theory that is suited to the 21st century organisations as compared to the preceding organisational culture models which applied to the 1980s type of organisations. Yu and Wu (2009) concur and allude that the competing value model is robust, and a practical measure of organisational culture as compared to different models propounded to measure organisational culture. In addition, this model has been used in existing literature to predict bullying

incidences in the workplace (Omari, 2007; Acar, Kıyak & Sine, 2014; Pilch & Turska, 2015).

3.3 WORKPLACE BULLYING THEORY

Tajfel and Turner (1979) used the Social Identity Theory (SIT) to explain workplace bullying. According to the Social Identity Theory (SIT), people tend to categorise themselves into different groups such as in and outgroups where the dominating one is the "in group". The dominant group (in group) develops a positive self-image, increased self-esteem and a boost to their ego when circumstances are always favouring their group. When circumstances favour the out group, destructive competition manifests where the in group uses hate speeches, terror, intimidation, prejudice, discrimination, stereotyping and favouritism to suppress the members of the out-group. According to Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf and Cooper (2011), the in group can take the form of people protecting their ego or a certain culture, for example men can bully women to restrain them from participating in formerly male-dominated jobs.

Dixon, Chang and Johnson (2015) improved on the Social Identity Theory by developing the Moral Aggression Model to explain the antecedents of workplace bullying. The model explains that the perpetrators believe that it is morally justified to bully their subordinates who are referred as the out-group members. In some instances, workplace bullying is used as a tool to force subordinates to comply with the perpetrator's beliefs and their conceptualisation of reality. The perpetrators can go as far as using emotional black mail in order to force others to believe in their ideas or ways of doing things. Those who seem to have different views or perspectives are harassed or sidelined through antisocial means to make them submit and join the in-group members. Cunniff and Mostert (2012) assert that it is vital to note that the word "group" used in the context of the Social Identity Theory (SIT) can take different forms in the workplace such as males against females, young versus old, managers against shop floor employees and black versus white among others.

The Social Identity Theory (SIT) discussed above provides a rich theoretical framework to understand how bullying manifests in organisations. Furthermore, it highlights the causes of workplace bullying as well as intervention measures an

organisation can adopt to mitigate the issues of bullying, which is the major purpose of this study.

3.4 HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying has gained popularity in both business and the academia (Tong, Schwendimann & Zúñiga, 2017). This is because of the pertinent role played by this relationship in determining overall organisational performance. There is still a shortage of studies on the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying (Pilch & Turska, 2015). Whether organisational culture clearly predicts workplace bullying levels remains indistinct. A number of studies note the importance of creating a favourable working environment by minimising issues of workplace bullying.

It follows that a certain organisational culture is a clear reflection of the top management behaviour, beliefs and power orientation (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2015). As such, the organisational members can become fixated to some behaviours which once helped them overcome a certain challenge even though it has a potential of harming others emotions along the way. In agreement, Alvesson and Sveningsson (2015) express that organisational culture can become so strong that employees have to adjust their behaviour to suit the prevailing organisational culture. As pointed out by Hofstede (2015), some organisational cultures can undermine employees leading to serious cases of bullying. In such a situation, workplace bullying becomes inevitable.

Organisational culture plays an important role in shaping how authority, power, relationships, communication, reward system and grievances are handled in an organisation. This stands as a critical determinant of workplace bullying levels in an organisation. Organisational culture is among the key determinants of workplace bullying in most organisations (Koh, 2016).

Bullying that organisational leader permit to continue uncontrolled becomes a normalised self-perpetuating workplace behaviour that escalates and leads to low staff morale and reduced productivity (Laschinger & Fida, 2014). The work setting contributes to workplace bullying behaviour more than the disposition and personality of the bully does (Mathisen, Einarsen & Mykletun, 2011).

Universities are not immune to the cases of workplace bullying (Björklund et al., 2020). A variety of scholars have perceived the degree to which the silo environment endemic in universities facilitates workplace bullying (Zabrodska and Kveton, 2013). Workplace bullying is a critical stressor for targets, and such pressure brings about work-related stress to employees (Avey, Luthans, Hannah, Sweetman & Peterson, 2012) and decreased efficiency (Karam, 2011). Stress explicitly influences work fulfilment and employees' commitment to the organisation (Kobussen, Kalagnanam, & Vaidyanathan, 2014; Tanaka, Maruyama, Ooshima, & Ito, 2011).

It follows that how people at different levels relate is determined by the prevailing organisational culture. In some instances, norms enforced in a particular organisational culture can breed workplace bullying where those who do not conform are harassed and mobbed. Lieber (2010) indicates that workplace bullying is a product of organisational culture. Tambur (2015) argues that it is important to critically investigate the role of organisational culture towards workplace bullying levels in organisations. A plethora of studies about the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying have been put forward but the clear effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying remains indistinct. Tambur (2015) further notes that organisational culture has an effect on how people relate and view others. Norms embedded in a certain organisational culture can suppress or escalate workplace bullying. Zeka (2018) highlight that sometimes workplace bullying thrives in some organisations and become part of the culture because the management lack thorough knowledge of the phenomenon.

3.4.1 Relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying

There is evidence that, support oriented cultures such as clan culture reduce the occurrence of workplace bullying (Aleksić, Načinović, Braje & Rašić Jelavić, 2019). This is because employees can easily team up against a bully due to the fact that clan culture promotes teamwork (Vilas-Boas, 2019). Moreover, this culture tends to promote openness to communication and the leaders are continuously engaged with employees as they act as their mentors. This creates an environment of trust which eliminates the feeling that one is consistently harassed or bullied. The most interesting aspect of clan culture is that it emphasises togetherness and strong bonds amongst individuals that they end up with a strong relationship exhibited in a

family. This is supported by Vilas-Boas (2019) who also discovered that clan culture significantly reduced workplace bullying as the results showed that the prevailing climate of trust ensured that the employees were always united and looked for each other.

A study by Kwan and Tuckey and Dollard (2016) also expressed that a clan culture, where employees feel safe and respected by the management reduces the chances of individuals feeling that they are suffocated or being targeted. In this setting, bullies are suffocated as the culture does not tolerate individuals with deviant behaviours. The findings of Kwan et al. (2016) are also supported by Di Stefano, Scrima, Parry (2019). The study investigated the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying irregular conduct in the workplace using 954 from the selected 30 public and private companies. The study used clan, hierarchy, adhocracy and market culture to conceptualize organizational culture. The results indicated that clan culture is related to lower levels of deviant workplace behaviours. This entails that workplace bullying does not blossom in supportive cultures where employees work in a collaborative manner with each other and with management.

On the off chance that leaders reduce negative conduct, they cultivate positive workplaces where workplace bullying is minimal (Laschinger & Fida, 2014). Appelbaum, Semerjian & Mohan (2012) found that ethical and transformational leadership styles are the best procedures organisations can use to counter bullying, while Sheppard, Sarros, and Santora (2013) suggested that in complex globalised organisations, collaborative leadership is the best leadership style. Collaborative leadership results in positive employee relations climate by growing relationships and networks throughout the organisation (Samnani, 2021).

Based on the above discussion, the hypothesis is that;

H_1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

3.4.2 Relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying

Chaotic organisations characterised by an unstructured organisational culture breeds workplace bullying (Vilas-Boas, 2019). According to Vilas-Boas (2019), continuous

change and too much workload can stress employees where the managers may end up exerting too much pressure on employees to innovate. Furthermore, organisational cultures such as adhocracy where the management put emphasis on innovation and creativity may become breeding grounds for workplace bullying. This is because the management may overlook employees' wellbeing and conflict management among organisational members which result in an increase in aggressive and deviant behaviours in the workplace (Vilas-Boas, 2019). This view is supported by Zahlquist, Hetland, Skogstad, Bakker and Einarsen (2019). According to Zahlquist et al. (2019), when employees perceive that the workplace lacks a climate of continuous conflict management systems and processes, they are likely to feel they are being undermined and being setup for bullying.

Bullying is prone to happen in organisational cultures where the leadership does not have systems and procedures to handle conflict (Alaslawi, 2017). Without such instruments and social frameworks, the employee relations environment will in general be more ill-disposed and uncivil, which prompts increased degrees of contention, harassing and despondency among employees. Incapable and uncivil leaders make a milieu of stress, conflict, bullying, and incivility in their associations (Pilch & Turska, 2015).

Schein (2020) argue that leadership has a strong influence in bullying incidences since, the philosophy, values and beliefs cascade from leaders to subordinates. It follows that, leaders who condone violent and inappropriate behaviours in the workplace, increases the issues of bullying. The leadership in an organisation are responsible for setting dictates on how conflict is handled in eventually it determines the level of workplace bullying (Parchment & Andrews, 2019). In fact, the task of maintaining a safe and healthy organisational climate frequently hinges on leadership style, as it often shapes the organisational culture directly (Al-Asmri, 2014).

Another view is that emphasis on creativity and efficiency can pressurise employees which makes them to feel that they are being targeted or bullied. O'Farrell and Nordstrom (2013) tested the impact of dysfunctional organizational cultures on employees. The study reported that employees working in chaotic organisational cultures characterised by unclear policies, poor reward systems and lack of

accountability suffer from high levels of bullying. Nevertheless, Di Stefano, Scrima and Parry (2019) found contrasting findings from the above. The study discovered that adhocracy culture predicts lower levels of workplace bullying. Tambur (2015) investigated the prevalence and causes of workplace bullying in Estonia. The study concluded that adhocracy culture negatively predicts workplace bullying.

Based on the above arguments, the hypothesis is that;

H_2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among participants.

3.4.3 Relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying

There are also studies which link emphasis on productivity and goal attainment to workplace bullying (Parchment & Andrews, 2019). In most cases, the job demands may be extremely too hard to attain which leads to a feeling that one is being maliciously targeted in the workplace (Zahlquist et al., 2019).

In most cases, the leaders (perpetrators) develop negative and hostile behaviours as tactics to boost productivity. Barrow, Kolberg, Mirabella and Roter (2013) supports this assertion and remark that most organisations' management are only interested in generating profits above everything else. This can give rise to accidental workplace bullying where the top management are so obsessed with goal attainment that they end up compromising subordinates' rights. The perpetrators can even make use of both overt and covert means to achieve their set targets (Walton, 2016). Georgakopoulos, Wilkin and Kent (2011) report that if the organisation's top management are bullies, it cascades down to other subordinates as the perceive bullying as normal. This is supported by the idea that organisation's leaders have an influence on their subordinates. Hence, their behaviours can easily be reflected in the way subordinates behave. According to Salin and Hoel (2020), this creates a culture of bullying whereby even new managers who join the organisation at a later stage thinks it is normal to bully their subordinates since they are protected by the top management.

Vilas-Boas (2019) examined the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying. The study used Cameron and Quin (1999) conceptualisation of

organisational culture to predict workplace bullying levels. The study found that market culture where productivity and competition is prioritised may encourage negative behaviours in the workplace. This breeds workplace bullying in that employees end up using malicious ways to secure resources or to bring others down, so that they can be rewarded for being top achievers (Shah & Hashmi, 2019). In such circumstances, when the individuals who bully meet efficiency targets and acquire rewards, they cause the targets or victims to feel obstructed and baffled.

Nevertheless, a study by Acar, Kiyak and Sine (2014), reveals a negative relationship between organisational culture components market and workplace bullying.

Based on the above arguments, the hypothesis is that;

H₃: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

3.4.4 Relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying

Hierarchical culture is also linked to predicting high levels of workplace bullying. For example, Vilas-Boas (2019) argues that the hierarchy culture promotes workplace bullying. The study notes that the tight controls and rigid structures can expose employees to deviant behaviours in the workplace. It follows that leaders in hierarchical cultures tend to resort to workplace bullying to force employees to conform to strict rules and norms within the organisation. Hierarchical culture tends to be highly politicised as often than not, the leaders employ authoritarian and autocratic leadership styles that do not tolerate nonconformity to values of bureaucracy.

Parchment and Andrews (2019) explain that unsupportive cultures escalate cases of bullying. Schein (2020) posits that the management should be familiar with the

organizational culture such that they can tell when change is needed. In addition, it allows them to experience and get first-hand information about bullying incidences. As further alluded by Schein (2020), it is crucial for organisations to design controls aimed at mitigating and addressing issues of bullying. However, it becomes a challenge when the bullying is initiated and perpetrated by the management themselves, which is usually the case in hierarchical organizational cultures. As such, Koh (2016) advocates for organisational culture change to reduce bullying incidences.

An and Kang (2016) identify organisational culture as one of the primary causes of workplace bullying. An and Kang (2016) further allude that, some organisational cultures can be categorised as bullying organisational cultures. These organisational cultures lack mechanisms and policies to suppress acts of bullying. To diagnose such negative cultures, An and Kang (2016) indicate that organisations should revisit their norms and visions and eliminate the elements which might support workplace bullying.

Pilch and Turska (2015) identify organisational policy as one of the determinants of workplace bullying. According to Pilch and Turska (2015), workplace bullying is prevalent in most organisations due to lack of zero- tolerance policies to thwart bullying incidences which is common in most hierarchical cultures. Instead, the culture gives those with power for instance, managers to bully others in a bid to achieve organisational goals (De Cieri et al., 2019). An and Kang (2016) agree and point out that bullying emanates mostly from the leadership orientation. The study further alludes that, there is need for leadership alignment and transformation if bullying is to be dealt with effectively.

It is sad to note that most leaders in an organization are aware of bullying incidences but choose not to intervene in time (Namie & Namie, 2014). Tambur and Vadi (2012) are of the view that workplace bullying emanates from autocratic leadership. Powerful leaders give components and social frameworks in their organisations that increase positive employee relations and diminish workplace conflict and bullying (Fernandes & Tewari, 2012). Einarsen et al. (2016) remark that unsupportive and

autocratic leaders make subordinates to feel suppressed. This can result in anxiety and discomfort which are elements of bullying.

Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper and Einarsen (2011) highlight that when bullies are supported by top management, a culture of fear prevails among the employees. They will tend to have a sense of self-doubt, low morale and lower self-esteem. As a result, employees are afraid to report issues of bullying for fear of being victimised even more or lose their job. Some organisational cultures motivate and perpetuate incidences of bullying in organisations (Pheko, Monteiro & Segopolo, 2017).

According to An and Kang (2015), weak organisational cultures permeates workplace bullying. Omari (2007) found a significant relationship between three cultures (clan, adhocracy and hierarchy) of the four competing values model and bullying. In the study, clan and adhocracy cultures were associated with lower levels of bullying and the hierarchy culture was associated with high levels of bullying.

Pilch and Turska (2015) opine that strong leadership shun away bullying incidences. Zeka (2018) asserts that poor organisational policies can also escalate workplace bullying. In addition, some forced norms in a certain organisational culture may be a fertile ground for breeding bullying in the workplace, where those who do not conform are harassed. Hutchinson and Jackson (2014) note that workplace bullying is perpetrated when the bullies are protected by the organisation's leadership. As such, Zeka (2018) advices organisational management to build systems and procedures which makes it easy for victims to expose bullies without any chance of being further victimised. Bullying is a biproduct of negative organisational cultures (Heap & Harvey, 2012).

Vilas-Boas (2019) examins the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying. The study used Cameron and Quin (199) conceptualisation of organisational culture to predict workplace bullying levels. The study found that hierarchical culture breeds negative behaviours which can be detrimental to employees. The argument was that this type of culture only emphasises conformity to norms, rules and rigid structures where employees' views are not considered. On that note, this opens platforms for abuse of power which can result in management belittling their subordinates. When such incidences occur, it creates an atmosphere of mistrust and burnout where

employees feel that they are being targeted and their rights being infringed (Di Stefano et al., 2017).

Aleksić, Načinović Braje and Rašić Jelavić (2019) also explored the link between culture and bullying in the workplace. The study found that negative behaviours such as name calling, isolating others and sabotage tend to be common in a hierarchical culture. A study by Fulmore (2018) also shared the same findings. Similar studies by Hodgins, MacCurtain and Mannix-McNamara (2014) as well as An and Kang (2016) established that workplace bullying was higher in organisational cultures exhibiting hierarchy culture. A study by Tambur and Vadi (2012) reported a positive relationship between hierarchical organisational culture and workplace bullying.

Based on the above arguments, the hypothesis is that;

H$_4$: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

Overall, it can be noted that there are mixed discoveries about the connection between different organisational culture types and workplace bullying. Also, An and Kang (2016) pointed out that there is no consensus in the existing literature on the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying. The inconclusiveness of existing literature on the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying creates a research gap for this study to generate more empirical evidence and clarity on the subject matter. A study by Aleksić et al. (2019) submits that it is crucial to explore how each of the different organisational culture types do influence workplace bullying. A clear understanding of how each culture predicts bullying in the workplace can go a long way in promoting and building cultures which eliminate workplace bullying which enhance the wellbeing of employees within organizations.

3.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

According to Figure 3.1, each organisational culture type is tested against workplace bullying to empirically find out which exact organisational type affects workplace bullying. Workplace bullying is treated as a unidimensional variable where all the variables will be combined into one scale.
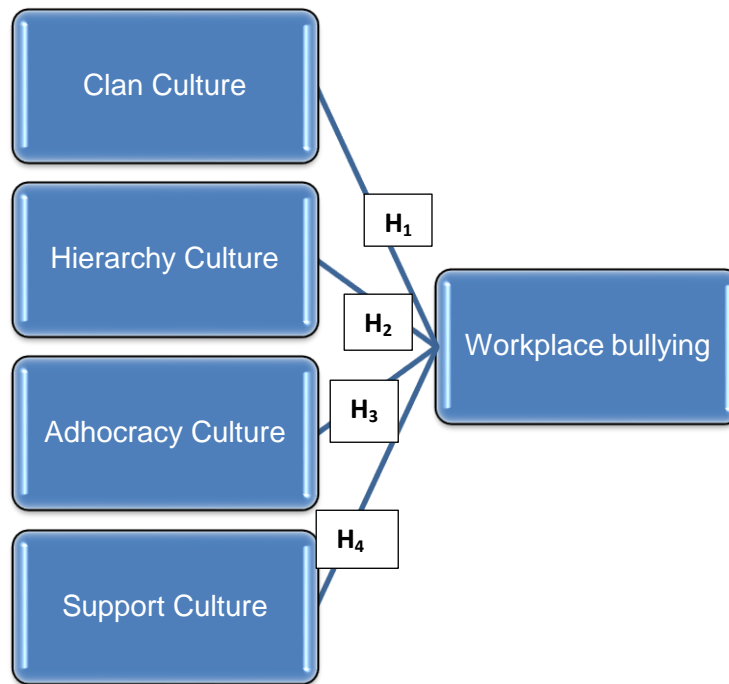
Figure 3.1: Relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying

The hypotheses are stated as

H_1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_3: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

H_4: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided the theoretical framework for this study and discussed existing empirical findings on the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying. Considering the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying, the review of empirical literature showed that the connection between the

two variables is inconclusive which warrants for further research. The following chapter will present the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the literature review on the link between organisational culture and workplace bullying. The present chapter aims to outline the research methodology used in this study. A research methodology details the roadmap followed by the researcher in answering the research questions. Basically, it forces the researcher to select the appropriate research instruments to collect quality data

that can guarantee quality results. This chapter outlines the study area, research design, population and sample of the study, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations.

4.2 RESEARCH METHOD

The quantitative and qualitative research approaches are reported extensively as the major research approaches in research. Each is used depending on the research questions of the study and the intended coverage in terms of the number of respondents.

4.2.1 Qualitative research approach

A qualitative research approach is defined as a research approach which is subjective in nature (Creswell & Clark, 2017). A qualitative research approach is informed by the Interpretivism research paradigm and believes that a phenomenon can be researched fully if the researcher can allow participants to explain what they feel about a given topic. In a qualitative research approach, the major goal is to gather facts then construct a theory from the findings. A qualitative research approach has several advantages which makes it to be widely used in the existing literature. One of the advantages is that it allows the researcher to observe how the respondents feel about the topic (Queirós, Faria & Almeida, 2017). According to Saunders and Lewis (2012), a qualitative research design allows the researcher to understand why the participants behave in a certain manner. However, qualitative research may have its shortcomings. For example, it is hard to generalise the discoveries from a qualitative study to other samples since the participants' characteristics may differ from one another (Bell et al., 2018). Furthermore, interviews used in qualitative studies may be time consuming and strenuous. Sometimes people may refuse to be interviewed. Also, since qualitative approaches can be subjective, it may lead to bias.

4.2.2 Quantitative research approach

Quantitative research is defined as a design which uses numerical data to test a hypothesis (Barnham, 2015). A study by Bryman and Cramer (2012) defined quantitative research as, "A research strategy that emphasises quantification in the

collection and analysis of data." In other words, Barnham (2015) explicates that in a quantitative research design, the researcher is aware of the phenomenon they want to investigate and derive a conclusion on. It is important to note that the quantitative research design has its roots from the positivist philosophy which holds the assumption that the human experiences can be quantified (Rahman, 2020). A quantitative research design is also useful in the context where a researcher wants to investigate a relationship between two variables that is an independent and a dependent variable (Babbie, 2010). The unique part of the quantitative research design is that the results are measurable, hence objective. According to Barnham (2015), quantitative research design is factual in nature and tries to answer the "what" question in research. According to Rahman (2020), some key characteristics of a quantitative research design include the following;

- The data is usually gathered using structured research instruments.

- The results are based on larger sample sizes that are representative of the population.

- The research study can usually be replicated or repeated, given its high reliability.

- Researcher has a clearly defined research question to which objective answers are sought.

- All aspects of the study are carefully designed before data is collected.

- Data are in the form of numbers and statistics, often arranged in tables, charts, figures, or other non-textual forms.

- Project can be used to generalize concepts more widely, predict future results, or investigate causal relationships.

- Researcher uses tools, such as questionnaires or computer software, to collect numerical data.

4.2.3 Research method adopted in this study

A quantitative research design was used in this study. A survey method was used where data was collected using structured questionnaires. The quantitative research design was chosen in this study because the researcher aimed to gather numerical data on the key variables of the study. This research approach was also deemed suitable for this study because of its objective nature which makes it possible to replicate the findings to other samples. In addition, the use of the quantitative research design made it easier to use statistical tools and data to make inferences on the results generated from the study.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

"The research design is the use of evidence-based procedures, protocols, and guidelines that provide the tools and framework for conducting a research study" (Majid, 2018). This study adopted the descriptive and causal research designs. The descriptive research design was used to describe findings regarding the first and second objectives. On the other hand, the causal research design was used to on the hypothesised relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying.

4.3.1 Sampling

4.3.1.1 Population

Population in research is defined as the total number of units or respondents in whose features are to be investigated (Majid, 2018). The study was conducted at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus), a previously disadvantaged university found within Limpopo Province near Polokwane. This study area was chosen because it is big enough that the desired number of participants could be attained. The University of Limpopo consist of 545 non-academic staff members (University of Limpopo Payrol, 2019). The non- academic staff members occupy the operational positions such as secretarial, administrators, peer chancellors, drivers, technical and maintenance staff. This is made up of 468 administration staff, 1 non-staff member and 76 service staff. The targeted respondents work in different sections which are the administration section of the university, finance and the four university faculties. All these are internal staff members of the university. According to Majid (2018), researcher needs to outline the demographic characteristics of the population as a

prerequisite to set inclusion and exclusion criteria. The population considered consist of people of all age groups who possess matric and tertiary qualifications.

4.3.1.2 Sampling

Sampling is defined as a process of subdividing the population into a manageable number of participants that can be considered for a study (Van den Broeck, Sandøy & Brestoff, 2013). The sampling step should be well thought out and organised, as it affects the results of the study (Majid, 2018). There are different sampling methods a researcher can use to draw a sample from the population (Kamangar & Islami, 2013). These include probability and non-probability sampling methods.

In probability sampling method, each participant has a chance of being selected to participate in the survey and generalisability of findings is possible. Examples of probability sampling are simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, systematic sapling and cluster sampling. Contrarily, in non-probability sampling, the researcher cannot specify the probability; each member of the population does not have a known chance of being chosen to be part of the sample. Examples of non-probability sampling include quota sampling, purposive sampling, convenience sampling and snowball sampling, to name a few (Saunders et al., 2009).

Etikan et al. (2016) warn researchers of outstanding problems associated with non-probability sampling method. These include high levels of bias, random outliers and that the sample is usually not representative of the entire population's characteristics. However, the upside of probability sampling is that it empowers the researcher to demonstrate the probability with which sample results go amiss in varying degrees from the relating populace values. It empowers the researcher to assess the sampling error which identifies the unrepresentativeness of a sample. Therefore, given the design of the study and the population characteristics, simple random sampling method was deemed appropriate for this study.

4.3.1.3 Sample

A sample is defined as a subset of the total population. As asserted by Bell et al. (2018), in some instances, it is not feasible to consider the whole population due to time and budgetary constraints. Hence, sampling becomes the best option to embark

on. Another important characteristic of a good sample size is that it should be big enough to answer the research question (Majid, 2018). Furthermore, a well-calculated sample size can help eliminate or in keeping statistical errors at a minimal level (Kamangar & Islami, 2013). As such, a sample size of 200 non-academic staff was randomly surveyed for the purpose of this study. The sample size was calculated using the formula $n=[p(100-p)z^2]/e^2$ with confidence level of 95% (Taherdoost, 2017).

4.3.2 Data collection

4.3.2.1 Data collection approach and method

This study used the survey method where a structured questionnaire was used to collect the required data. Survey research is defined as "the collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions" (Check & Schutt, 2012). Ponto (2015) explicates that the survey method is widely used in several researches and have been in use for a long time. According to Ponto (2015), a questionnaire is commonly used under the survey methods. A questionnaire is defined as a set of questions which reflect the aim of the study (Ponto, 2015). A questionnaire is administered to targeted participants to give their responses on the provided themes or variables of interest to the researcher.

Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2014) underscore that a questionnaire should be clearly designed to increase the response rate. For instance, the study advises that all technical issues such as font size should be tailored to the targeted respondents and the sequence in which questions are structured should be logical. The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) was used to measure workplace bullying while the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI) developed by Cameron and Quinn (199) was used to measure organisational culture.

4.3.2.2 Development and testing of the data collection instrument

- **Questionnaire content**

It is important for researchers to outline the contents of the questionnaire to make it easy for readers to understand the key variables of the study (Ponto, 2015). In addition, a clearly outlined questionnaire content section allows readers to determine

and rate the reliability and validity of the questionnaires used to collect data (DuBenske, Gustafson, Namkoong, Hawkins, Atwood, Brown & Govindan, 2014). In this study, the questionnaire consisted of three sections as described below;

Table 4.1: Questionnaire content

Variable	Number of Items
Biographical information	5
Organisational culture assessment instrument (OCAI)	24
Negative acts questionnaire (NAQ)	23

Source: Author, 2018

Section A: Biographical information

The biographical section measured the participant's characteristics such as gender, age, marital status, level of education and number of years working in the organisation.

Section B: Organisational culture assessment instrument (OCAI)

The OCAI is a tool developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) to measure organisational culture in different organisations. The OCAI categorises organisational culture into; clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market culture. These different cultures are explained using six factors which are; dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success. The OCAI has since been adopted by several researchers to measure and diagnose organisational culture (Omari, 2007; Acar, Kıyak & Sine, 2014; Pilch & Turska, 2015). The tool showed high degrees of validity and Cronbach's alpha scores above the recommended 0.70 and the primary trait score was implemented.

Section C: Negative acts questionnaire (NAQ)

The NAQ is a tool developed by Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellesøy, 1994; to measure bullying in the workplace. The scale has 23 items describing negative acts

of personal as well as a work-related nature. The NAQ has been used widely in existing literature (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers; 2009; Charilaos, Michael, Chryssa, Panagiota, George & Christina, 2015; Gupta, Bakhshi, & Einarsen, 2017; Silva, de Aquino & Pinto, 2017). A study by Einarsen, Hoel and Notelaers (2009) used the NAQ and the tool exhibited high levels validity and a reliability score of 0.90 was obtained. Silva, de Aquino and Pinto (2017) also adopted the NAQ and the tool produced high levels of validity and reliability. The study obtained reliability of 0.83. Charilaos et al. (2015) used the NAQ to measure workplace bullying among Greek teachers. Hence, this questionnaire is suitable for use in a university setting.

4.3.2.4 Data collection process

A letter outlining the intentions of the study to the participants was attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaires were also hand delivered to the respondents to increase the response rate. This agrees with a study by Ponto, Ellington, Mellon & Beck (2010) which advise researchers to utilize both internet aided methods as well as physical distribution of the questionnaire. Accordingly, this can give the respondents much flexibility to choose which method is ideal for them given time constraints and other limiting factors. Dillman, Smyth and Christian (2014) add on and say, combining the two survey administrations methods makes it possible for all targeted respondents to participate which reduces coverage error. The participants were assured that they would be acknowledged when the study is complete, to motivate them to participate. In addition, a letter of gratitude was sent to the respondents after the completion of the study. The data collection took two months to complete.

4.3.2.5 Ethical considerations related to data collection

Ethical behaviour remains a key issue in all research that include living organisms. Some of the critical steps taken by the researcher to maintain desired ethical standards during data collection are as follows;

- **Permission to conduct study**

The researcher obtained an ethical clearance letter from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC) and the university management before the data collection process.

- **Confidentiality and anonymity**

The respondents were guaranteed that their confidentiality and anonymity will be observed and respected. The participants were also assured that information collected from them would be used for the purpose of the study only. Anything that identifies the participants was removed from the questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

- **Informed consent**

Before data collection, the participants were informed about the nature of the study and that their participation is voluntary. Participants were given an informed consent letter to read and sign. The nature and purpose of the study was explained.

- **Debriefing of participants**

Given the nature of the investigation, it is possible that some participants may show some adverse emotional reactions during the study, such participants were referred to relevant authorities for assistance.

4.3.3 Data analysis

Data analysis is a systematic process where data is transformed to more useful information. As a systematic process, data analysis involves a series of steps such as data coding, data cleaning and finally analysis where statistical tools are used to compute the data into meaningful statistics. Once all the coded data has been transfer into the computer, the researcher is required to perform the data cleaning to check for the consistency and performing treatment to any missing responses. The researcher consistently checked the data to exclude any responses that are out of range, inconsistent or data that having extreme values.

There are a wide range of data analysis tests and tools a researcher can use depending on the type of design and variables under study. The results were analysed using Microsoft Excel software and Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) Version 25 with the assistance of the Department of Research

Administration and Development at the University of Limpopo. The study utilised descriptive statistics and regression analysis. The descriptive statistics included frequency tables and percentiles on the biographic data and mean and standard deviation on organisational culture and workplace bullying questions.

To describe the key constructs of the study, descriptive statistics was used by making use of means and standard deviation figures. Linear regression was used to test the relationships among variables of organisational culture (independent variable) and workplace bullying (dependent variable).

4.2 INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL VALIDITY OF THE STUDY

Reliability test allude to the consistency of the data collection tools to produce findings which can be depended upon even though the instrument is used in another setting (Yilmaz, 2013). It is crucial for scholars to administer reliability test prior to continuing to other statistical analysis to enhance the rigour of findings. In this investigation, internal consistency test was applied to decide the consistency of the estimates. The test was estimated utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α) which typically goes from 0 to 1. Information that get alpha above 0.6 was considered dependable while beneath 0.6 shows unacceptable and were disposed of from additional investigation. As indicated by Yilmaz (2013), validity alludes to whether an instrument really gauges what it is supposed to measure. In addition to adopting a questionnaire previously used in past researches with high reliability and validity, the researcher also pretested the questionnaire to attain reliability and validity by asking the opinion of the supervisor and five other lecturers within the department to confirm whether the questionnaires were going to answer the objectives of the study to ensure validity.

4.5 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 outlined the research methodology of the study. The study considered University of Limpopo as the study area. The quantitative research design where the survey method was used to collect data was adopted for this study. The chapter also discussed the population, sample and sampling methods. The population was non-academic stuff members at University of Limpopo and the convenience sampling

method was used to draw the sample. Data was collected using structured questionnaires which were distributed via emails. The chapter also discussed the data analysis methods as well as ethical considerations steps adhered to before and during data collection. The next chapter will present the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined the research methodology chosen for this study. The current chapter is about research findings. The study aimed to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and workplace bullying among non-academic staff at a South African University. The chapter starts by reporting on the demographic characteristics of the participants and then present the descriptive statistics on organisational culture and workplace bullying. The last section presents regression analysis findings based on the relationship between the different organizational culture types and workplace bullying. The findings in this study are presented in form of pie charts, graphs and tables.

5.2 DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS

5.2.1 Response rate

The participants in this study were non-academic staff at the University of Limpopo. During the survey, 200 questionnaires were distributed to the participants. One hundred and ninety-nine questionnaires were returned and filled properly. There was an active participation rate in this survey indicated by a response rate of 99.5%. The high response rate can be attributed to the reason that the questionnaires were distributed using emails and some delivered in person.

Table 5.1: Response rate

Questionnaires sent	Questionnaires returned and filled properly	Response rate
200	199	99.5%

5.2.2.1 Demographic information

Demographic factors considered in this study were gender, age, level of education, marital status and duration of employment in the organisation. These variables are presented in the following section.

Figure 5.1 shows findings on the gender of respondents. The findings showed that 55% of the participants were females while 45% were males.
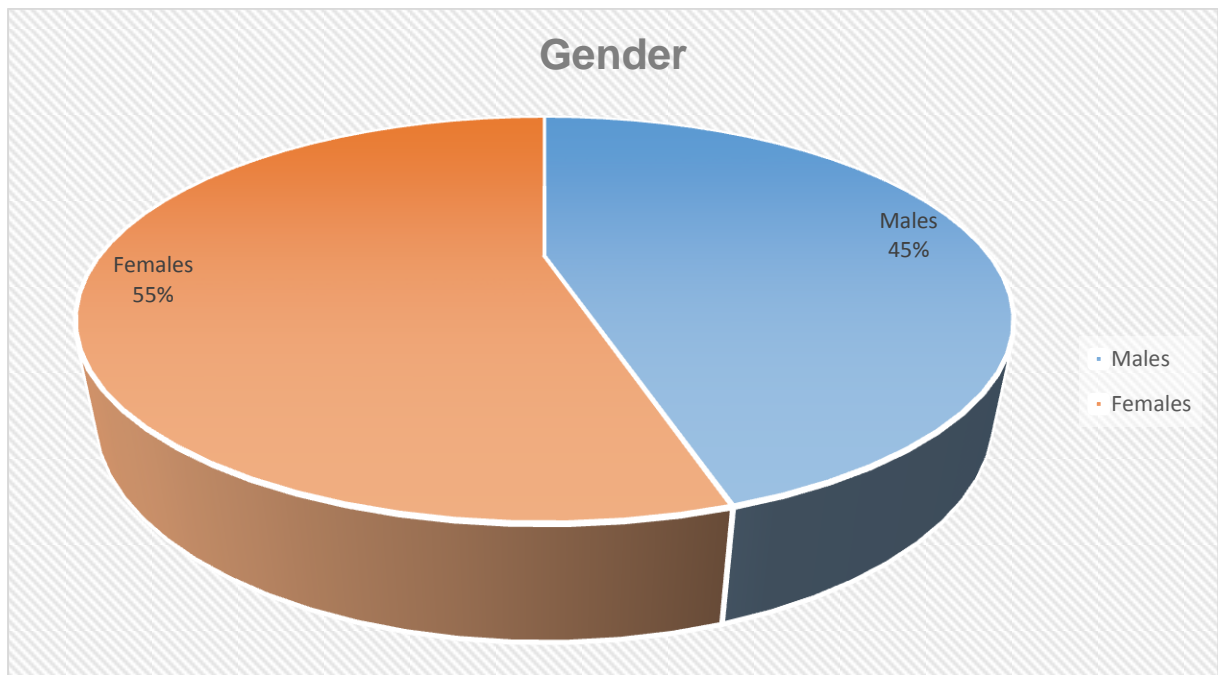
Figure 5.1 Gender of participants

5.2.2.2 Age of participants

Table 5.2 shows the age distribution of the participants. The age group with the highest participants was 21-35 (36.7), followed by 36-50 age group (34.2%), 51-50 age group (19.1%), 61 and above age group (8.5%. The participants below 20 years were very few constituting only 1.5%. The lower percentage on participants below 20 years might mean that the university takes few employees below 20 years as they might not meet the required years of experience. Considering the low number of the 61 and above age group, it might mean that some could have already approaching their retirement age, hence, leave the organisation.

Table 5.2 Age of the participants

AGE				
Age Category	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below 20	3	1.5	1.5	1.5
21-35	73	36.7	36.7	38.2
36-50	68	34.2	34.2	72.4
51-50	38	19.1	19.1	91.5

	61 and above	17	8.5	8.5	100.0
	Total	199	100.0	100.0	

5.2.2.3 Level of education of participants

Level of education was also considered in this study. The findings show that the highest number of participants (42%) possessed a degree qualification, 28% were diploma holders while 22% possessed postgraduate qualifications and only 8% of the participants reported that they possess matric as their highest qualification.
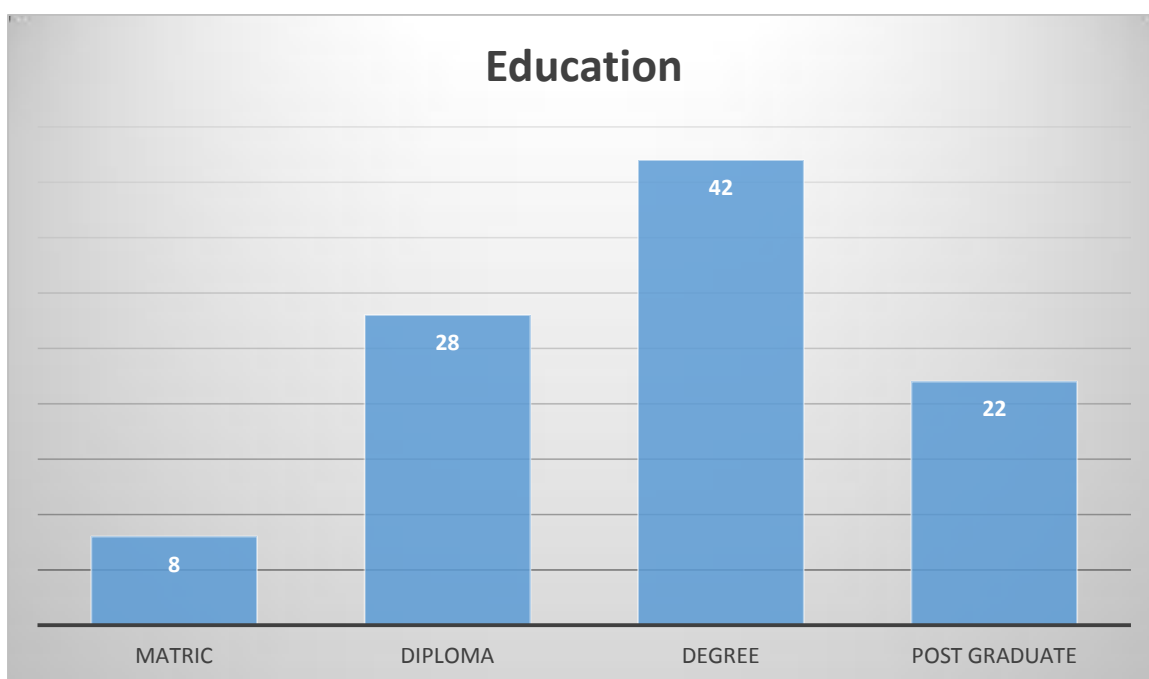
Figure 5.2: Level of education of participants

5.2.2.4 Marital status

Table 5.3 present findings on marital status of the participants. The findings show that the participants who reported that they were married constituted the highest percentage 44.7%, followed by single (32.7%), divorced (16.6%) and widowed (6%).

Table 5.3: Marital status of the participants

Category	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	89	44.7	44.7
Single	65	32.7	77.4
Divorced	33	16.6	94.0
Widowed	12	6.0	100.0
Total	199	100.0	

5.2.2.5 Duration in the organisation

It was also important to consider the length at which the participants have worked at the university. This was crucial because bullying qualifies to be a bullying incident only when it is established that such an act has persisted consistently for a long period of time. As indicated by Figure 5.3, 35% of the participants reported that they have been in the organization for 6-10 years, 32% reported that they have been in the organization for at least 5 years and below, 26% of the participants reported that they have worked at the university for 11-20 years and 13% indicated that they have worked for the university for 21 years and above.
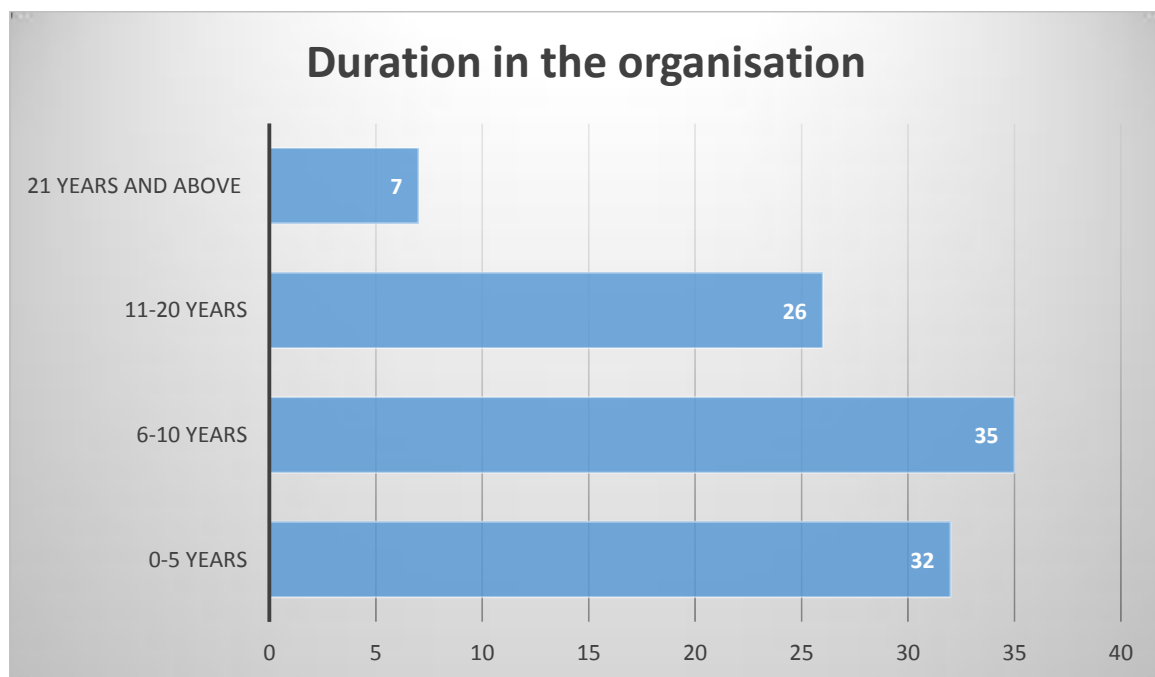
Figure 5.3: Duration in the organisation

5.3 RESEARCH RESULTS

5.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Organisational Culture

The first objective of this study intended to measure the different cultures in the organisation and identify the dominant culture as perceived by the participants. Table 5.4 presents descriptive statistics for organisational culture types present at the surveyed organisation. The different organisational cultures assessed were clan,

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adhocracy, market and hierarchical culture. These different organisational cultures manifested in under the topics such as; dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success. The results show that the dominant organisational culture in this organisation is hierarchical culture. This is based on the scores presented in Table 5.4. Hierarchical organisational culture has the highest scores followed by clan, adhocracy and lastly market culture. The scores above 3 shows moderate levels of hierarchical organisational culture, which emphasises, stability, control and formalisation. In terms of standard deviation, the findings show that the largest standard deviation is 1.058. the rest fall below 1. The small standard deviations show that the responses from the participants were close to the mean.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistics for organizational culture

Questionnaire Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Clan culture			
A1	199	2.03	.940
A2	199	1.91	1.029
A3	199	2.03	1.058
A4	199	1.86	.983
A5	199	1.86	.908
A6	199	1.95	.923
Adhocracy culture			
B1	199	1.43	.572
B2	199	1.50	.703
B3	199	1.50	.695
B4	199	1.53	.709
B5	199	1.56	.616
B6	199	1.56	.678
Market culture			
C1	199	1.48	.642
C2	199	1.56	.721
C3	199	1.46	.609
C4	199	1.48	.642
C5	199	1.52	.558
C6	199	1.47	.548
Hierarchical culture			
D1	199	3.24	.981
D2	199	3.20	.964
D3	199	3.27	.972
D4	199	3.21	.950
D5	199	3.18	.982
D6	199	3.16	.970

5.3.2 Descriptive statistics for workplace bullying (Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ)

Table 5.5 shows descriptive statistics for workplace bullying. Workplace bullying was represented by 22 questions. The findings show that there is high workplace bullying in the organisation from which the survey took place. The high scores revolving around 4 and above shows that incidences of workplace bullying are experienced on a weekly basis by the participants entailing that there is high prevalence of workplace bullying. The high averages also entail that the intensity of workplace bullying is high in the organisation from which this study took place. In terms of standard deviation, the findings show that all the standard deviation figures are below 1. The small standard deviations show that the responses from the participants were close to the mean.

Table 5.5: Descriptive statistics for workplace bullying

Question Items	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
WB1	199	3.90	.951
WB2	199	3.86	.973
WB3	199	3.99	.980
WB4	199	4.03	.984
WB5	199	3.99	.982
WB6	199	4.10	.969
WB7	199	4.02	.979
WB8	199	4.10	.969
WB9	199	4.10	.959
WB10	199	4.10	.964
WB11	199	4.04	.984
WB12	199	4.13	.964
WB13	199	4.15	.952
WB14	199	4.10	.959
WB15	199	4.18	.961
WB16	199	4.15	.963
WB17	199	4.03	.974
WB18	199	4.22	.953
WB19	199	4.26	.933
WB20	199	4.19	.955
WB21	199	4.15	.950
WB22	199	4.39	.892

5.3.2 Regression analysis

This study employed linear regression analysis to test the stated hypothesis. The findings are presented in line with each hypothesis as shown below.

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

Table 5.6 shows the findings on the link between clan culture and workplace bullying. According the regression results (-0.476; sig 0.000), there is a negative significant relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying. This means that as the level of clan culture increases, the level of workplace bullying decreases. Based on the findings above, the decision is to accept Hypothesis one which states that there is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants.

Table 5.6: Relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying

Model Summary[b]				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.476[a]	.227	.222	16.44482
a. Predictors: (Constant), clan culture				
b. Dependent Variable: workplace bullying				

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	70.254	4.324		16.249	.000
	Clan	-.152	.022	-.476	-6.760	.000

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

Table 5.7 presents the relationship between adhocracy culture and workplace bullying. The regression results (0.072; sig 0.366) indicate that the link between adhocracy culture and workplace bullying is insignificant. This means that as adhocracy culture does not impact on the levels of workplace bullying among non-academic staff. increases, the level of workplace bullying decreases holding other things constant. Based on the results above, the decision was to reject Hypothesis two which stated that there is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants.

Table 5.7: Relationship between adhocracy culture and workplace bullying

Model Summary[b]				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate

1	.072[a]	.005	-.001	18.64964	

a. Predictors: (Constant), adhocracy culture
b. Dependent Variable: workplace bullying

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	36.814	6.338		5.808	.000
	Adhocracy culture	.042	.046	.072	.906	.366

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

Table 5.8: shows the relationship between market culture and workplace bullying. Based on the regression results (0.120; sig 0.135), it shows that market culture is not related to workplace bullying. In this context, it means market culture does not influence workplace bullying levels among non-academic staff members. Based on the findings above, the decision was to reject Hypothesis three which stated that there is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants.

Table 5.8: Relationship between market culture and workplace bullying

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.120[a]	.014	.008	18.56459

a. Predictors: (Constant), market culture
b. Dependent Variable: workplace bullying

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	34.363	5.544		6.198	.000
	Market Culture	.062	.041	.120	1.504	.135

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

Table 5.9 present findings on the relationship between hierarchy culture and workplace bullying. The regression results (0.215; sig 007) show that hierarchy culture is positively and significantly related to workplace bullying. This entails that an increase in hierarchical organisational culture can lead to more incidences of workplace bullying. The findings above confirmed hypothesis 4 which stated that

there is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants. Hence, the decision was to accept hypothesis 4.

Table 5.9: Relationship between hierarchy culture and workplace bullying

Model Summary[b]				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.215[a]	.046	.040	18.26325
a. Predictors: (Constant), hierarchical culture				
b. Dependent Variable: workplace bullying				

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	31.148	4.351		7.160	.000
	hierarchical culture	.080	.029	.215	2.744	.007

5.3.4 Summary of tested hypotheses

Table 5.6 shows a summary of tested hypotheses. This study consisted of four hypotheses. Based on the results, 2 hypotheses were supported and 2 were not supported.

Table 5.10: Summary of Tested Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Results supported or not supported
H₁: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants	Supported
H₂: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants	Not supported
H₃: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants	Not supported
H₄: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants	Supported

5.4 OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the findings of this study in relation to existing literature. In that light, the discussion will be applied on each objective and hypothesis. The next section discusses the findings on the descriptive statistics.

5.4.1 Discussion of descriptive statistics

- **Objective 1: Measure the Different Cultures in the Organisation and Identify the Dominant Culture as Perceived by the Participants**

The first objective aimed at measuring the different cultures in the organisation and identify the dominant culture as perceived by the participants. The different organisational cultures assessed were clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchical culture. These different organisational cultures manifested in under the topics such as; dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success. The results show that the dominant organisational culture in this organisation is hierarchical culture. This is based on the scores presented in Table 5.4. Hierarchical organisational culture has the highest scores followed by clan, adhocracy and lastly market culture. The scores above three shows moderate levels of hierarchical organisational culture, which emphasises, stability, control and formalisation. The findings of this study clearly explain the work climate surrounding non-academic staff members. Non-academic staff operate under a set of rules and they are required to follow strict organisational structure from their immediate line manager to the top management. In this setting, communication is usually top-down and non-academic staff members only receive orders such as typing certain reports, printing, fixing machines with no scope for their inputs and creativity. This describes why there are relatively high levels of workplace bullying among this group as indicated by the descriptive statistics. This is supported

by Björklund et al. (2020). According to Björklund et al. (2020) hierarchical organisational culture is characterised by strict controls, rules and regulations, formalities and strict chain of command. Moreover, under hierarchical culture, the boss- subordinate relationship is emphasised and those in authority such as top management employ the top down communication. As such this can create a poor organisational climate which promotes workplace bullying (Björklund et al., 2020). Hierarchical organisational culture mainly focuses on the internal functionality of an organisation (Farashah & Blomqusit, 2021). Furthermore, it leverages on stability that creativity maybe quashed. Such organisational cultures are mostly appropriate in the military where subordinates take orders from the high-ranking bosses. In the context of institutions of higher learning, such an organisational culture may produce negative results.

- **Objective 2: Determine the Frequency, Intensity and Prevalence of Workplace Bullying to Identify the Dominant Types of Bullying in the Organisation as Perceived by the Participants**

The second objective of this study was; to determine the frequency, intensity and prevalence of workplace bullying to identify the dominant types of bullying in the organisation as perceived by the participants. The findings showed that there is high workplace bullying in the organisation from which the survey took place. The high scores revolving around 4 and above shows that incidences of workplace bullying are experienced on a weekly basis by the participants entailing that there is high prevalence of workplace bullying.

The discoveries of this study are supported by various existing studies. According to Shelley, Pickett, Mancini, McDougle, Rissler and Cleary (2021), bullying is experienced in almost every organisation. As alluded by Healy-Cullen (2017), workplace bullying has become one of the top challenges organisations world-wide have to deal with effectively. Due to the severity of problems created by bullying, it has been criminalised in a number of countries such as the United Kingdom and Australia among others (Colaneri, 2017). In UK bullying incidences have been recorded in some universities (Devlin & Marsh, 2018). "Hundreds of academics have been accused of bullying students and colleagues in the past five years, prompting

concerns that a culture of harassment and intimidation is thriving in Britain's leading universities" (Devlin & Marsh, 2018). Devlin and Marsh (2018) reported that most universities in UK have forwarded complains about bullying incidences. These incidences are identified as sabotage, isolation, work overload and ignoring the victim (Devlin & Marsh, 2018).

Devlin & Marsh (2018) report that workplace bullying in universities also cascade to non-staff members. This group is directly and indirectly affected with workplace bullying because they work with academic stuff members every day. It is difficult for non-staff members to avoid incidences of bullying since they play the supportive role to ensure a smooth flow of academic activities. Non-academic stuff members such as administrators are usually bullied by their bosses and other lecturers who perceive themselves as more qualified than them. The perpetrators usually use hateful speeches aimed at destroying the target's confidence. Universities are breeding ground for workplace bullying (Shelley et al., 2021). Since workplace bullying is a regular phenomenon in universities, it is easier for it to be extended and affect non- academic staff. Workplace bullying creates a negative work environment for everyone in the academic setting (Björklund et al., 2020).

Non-academic staffs' work is hands on and characterised with multiple interaction that a day will not pass without an issue of bullying being recorded. A study by Freedman & Vreven (2017) showed that universities are insulated with bullying incidences. The study establishes that even non-academic staff such as librarians complained of bullying issues. Giorgi (2012) also assessed workplace issues in universities. The study found out that workplace bullying was relatively high among administrators among Italian universities. This is sad because less attention has been given to this group in existing literature which exposes them to long term bullying as nobody has invested much in understanding how non-academic staff report on bullying.

In South Africa, the findings of this study are supported by various studies (Beale & Hoel, 2011; De Wet, 2014). According to De Wet (2014), bullying in an institution of higher learning has a potential to destabilise the functionality of most academic activities if not effectively monitored. Björklund et al. (2020) allude that workplace

bullying among university employees consists of covert behaviours such as name calling, ignoring emails and threats. Koval (2014) notes that these employees are mainly exposed to bullying related to work overload, threat to professional status and isolation. Zabrodska and Kveton (2013) found workplace bullying among university employees to be mainly work-related such as having one's contributions or ideas ignored.

Harlos and Axelrod (2008) report that administrators in hospitals are exposed to mistreatments such as verbal abuse, work obstruction and emotional neglect. Harlos and Axelrod (2008) further allude that administrators are likely to experience verbal abuse because they work with many people daily. King and Piotrowski (2015) note that the incidences of bullying in an academic setting can also be between one administrator to another. Macgorine (2011) is of the view that incidences of bullying are common among non-academic staff because they are led by people who are just protected by a certain organisational culture but not professionally trained for such positions. This makes bullying to be prevalent in universities.

Since most non-academic staff members within the considered institution take orders from their superiors, this exposes them to vertical workplace bullying where those with power or example managers and heads of departments may end up bullying the operational staff. This is supported by existing studies. According to De Cieri et al. (2019), bullying can take the form of bosses bullying their subordinates, line managers bullying their top management, employees bullying another employee and can be between employees and customers. Incidences of bullying are mainly linked to the bosses tormenting their subordinates (vertical bullying) (Dzurec, Kennison and Gillen (2017). Napoletano, Elgar, Saul, Dirks and Craig (2015) assert that top management are the major players in a bullying incident. This is because the bosses abuse their power to bully the less powerful and connected employees. In agreement, Hodgins et al. (2020) note that top management have reward power that revolves around them and therefore they will end up using it to bully their subordinates who by virtue of fearing to forfeit certain benefits end up succumbing to the demands of the perpetrators at the expense of their physical and emotional being. Vital to the talk on bullying is the abuse of power.

The way individuals practice power in an organisation impacts the rate of bullying in the organisation. Positional power is a significant consideration and forerunner for bullies to practice control over the target (Hodgins et al., 2020). The perceived severity of bullying depends on the focus of the bullying behaviours and on the power imbalance between targets and perpetrators (De Cieri et al., 2019). The burgeoning literature about the frequency and outcomes of workplace bullying includes little regarding the severity of bullying and the influence the severity of bullying has on the target's interpretation and response to the situation. Information on the severity and effects of bullying would clarify the bullying construct.

Power creates both temporary and enduring cognitive changes that transform the way individuals assimilate and differentiate their self from others (Hodgins et al., 2020). Such change alludes to the manner by which people in places of power act as leaders, just as how followers act. Individuals' self-interpretation and point of view play an intervening part to decide the practices of powerful and powerless people. Organisational culture, designs, and character attributes moderate this connection (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018).

5.4.2 Analysing the relationship between workplace bullying and types of organisational culture

H_1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

A negative significant relationship was found between clan culture and workplace bullying. This means that as the level of clan culture increases, the level of workplace bullying decreases. Based on the findings above, the decision is to accept hypothesis one which states that there is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants.

The findings of the current study are supported by other empirical studies conducted abroad. There is evidence that clan culture reduces the occurrence of workplace bullying (Aleksić et al., 2019). This is because employees can easily team up against a bully due to the fact that clan culture promotes teamwork (Vilas-Boas, 2019). Moreover, this culture tends to promote openness to communication and the leaders are continuously engaged with employees as they act as their mentors. This creates

an environment of trust which eliminates the feeling that one is consistently harassed or bullied. The most interesting aspect of clan culture is that it emphasises togetherness and strong bonds amongst individuals that they end up with a strong relationship exhibited in a family. This is supported by Vilas-Boas (2019) who also found that clan culture significantly reduced workplace bullying as the results showed that the prevailing climate of trust ensured that the employees were always united and looked for each other.

A study by Kwan and Tuckey and Dollard (2016) also expressed that a clan culture where employees feel safe and respected by the management reduces the chances of individuals feeling that they are suffocated or being targeted. In this setting, bullies are suffocated as the culture does not tolerate individuals with deviant behaviours. The findings of Kwan et al. (2016) are supported by Di Stefano et al. (2017). The study investigated the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying deviant behaviors in the workplace using 954 from the selected 30 public and private companies. The study used clan, hierarchy, adhocracy and market culture to conceptualize organizational culture. The results indicated that clan culture is related to lower levels of deviant workplace behaviours. This entails that workplace bullying does not blossom in supportive cultures where employees work in a collaborative manner with each other and with management.

In the event that leaders diminish negative conduct, they cultivate positive workplaces where workplace bullying is insignificant (Laschinger and Fida, 2014). Appelbaum et al. (2012) tracked down that moral and transformational leadership styles are the best counter bullying systems accessible to organisations, while Sheppard, Sarros, and Santora (2013) recommended that in complex globalised organisations, collaborative leadership is the best kind of leadership. Collaborative leadership establishes a positive employee relations environment by creating connections and networks all through the organisation (Samnani, 2021).

H2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

An insignificant relationship was established between adhocracy culture and workplace bullying. This means that adhocracy culture does not have an effect on

the levels of workplace bullying among non-academic staff. increases, the level of workplace bullying decreases holding other things constant. Based on the results above, the decision was to reject hypothesis 2 which stated that there is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants. The findings of the current study differ from other existing studies.

For example, Vilas-Boas (2019) reported that chaotic organisations such as adhocracy culture characterised by an unstructured organisational culture breed workplace bullying. According to Vilas-Boas (2019), continuous change and too much workload can stress employees where the managers may end up exerting too much pressure on employees to innovate. Furthermore, organisational cultures such as adhocracy, where the management put emphasis on innovation and creativity may become breeding grounds for workplace bullying. This is because the management may overlook employees' wellbeing and conflict management among organisational members which result in an increase in aggressive and deviant behaviours in the workplace (Vilas-Boas, 2019). This view is supported by Zahlquist, Hetland, Skogstad, Bakker and Einarsen (2019). According to Zahlquist et al. (2019), when employees perceive that the workplace lacks a climate of continuous conflict management systems and processes, they are likely to feel they are being undermined and being setup for bullying.

Bullying is prone to happen in organisational cultures where the leadership does not have systems and procedures to handle conflict (Alaslawi, 2017). Without such components and social frameworks, the employee relations environment will in general be more ill-disposed and uncivil, which prompts increased degrees of contention, harassment and depression among workers. Ineffectual and uncivil leaders make a milieu of stress, conflict, bullying, and incivility in their organisations (Pilch & Turska, 2015).

Schein (2020) argue that leadership has a strong influence on bullying incidences since, the philosophy, values and beliefs cascade from leaders to subordinates. It follows that, leaders who condone violent and inappropriate behaviours in the workplace, increase the issues of bullying. The leadership in an organisation are responsible for setting dictates on how conflict is handled in eventually it determines the level of workplace bullying (Parchment & Andrews, 2019). The task of

maintaining a safe and healthy organisational climate frequently hinges on leadership style, as it often shapes the organisational culture directly (Al-Asmri, 2014). O'Farrell and Nordstrom (2013) tested the impact of dysfunctional organisational cultures on employees. The study reported that employees working in chaotic organisational cultures characterised by unclear policies, poor reward systems and lack of accountability suffer from high levels of bullying.

The reason for the differing findings can be attributed to the fact that this study was conducted in an academic setting particularly among non-academic staff whereas other studies have been conducted using corporate employees. Hence, the differing context can be the reason why adhocracy culture did not predict workplace bullying among non-academic staff members. Another point is that that adhocracy culture is more suited and mostly practised by private firms which leverage on innovation and creativity which is then fostered among all the employees. Hence, in the case of an academic setting particularly non-academic staff, they are only tasked to execute without much consideration for innovation and creativity, hence this culture type cannot predict workplace bullying levels in this context.

H3: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

An insignificant relationship was found between market culture and workplace bullying. This shows that market culture does not predict workplace bullying among non-academic staff members. Based on the findings above, the decision was to reject hypothesis 3 which stated that there is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants. The findings of this study diverge from the existing findings.

For example, there are studies which link market culture to workplace bullying (Parchment & Andrews, 2019). In most cases, the job demands may be extremely too hard to attain which leads to a feeling that one is being maliciously targeted in the workplace (Zahlquist et al., 2019). In most cases, the leaders (perpetrators) develop negative and hostile behaviours as tactics to boost productivity. Barrow, Kolberg, Mirabella and Roter (2013) supports this assertion and remark that most organisations' management are only interested in generating profits above

everything else. This can give rise to accidental workplace bullying where the top management are so obsessed with goal attainment that they end up compromising subordinates' rights. The perpetrators can even make use of both overt and covert means to achieve their set targets (Tofler, 2016; Walton, 2016).

Georgakopoulos, Wilkin and Kent (2011) report that if the organisation's top management are bullies, it cascades down to other subordinates as they perceive bullying as normal. This is supported by the idea that an organisation's leaders influence on their subordinates. Hence, their behaviours can easily be reflected in the way subordinates behave. According to Salin and Helge (2010), this creates a culture of bullying whereby even new managers who join the organisation at a later stage thinks it is normal to bully their subordinates since they are protected by the top management.

Vilas-Boas (2019) examined the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying. The study used Cameron and Quin (199) conceptualisation of organisational culture to predict workplace bullying levels. The study found that market culture where productivity and competition is prioritised may encourage negative behaviours in the workplace. This breeds workplace bullying in that employees end up using malicious ways to secure resources or to bring others down so that they can be rewarded for being top achievers (Shah & Hashmi, 2019). In such circumstances, when the individuals who bully meet productivity targets and acquire rewards, they cause the targets or victims to feel impeded and frustrated.

The author of this study believes that the divergence in findings between the current study and existing scholars is because this study was conducted in an academic setting particularly among non-academic staff whereas other studies have been conducted using corporate employees. Hence, the differing context can be the reason why market culture did not predict workplace bullying among non-academic staff members. Another point is that that market culture is more suited and mostly practiced by private firms which emphasize productivity and competitiveness which is then fostered among all the employees. Hence, in the case of an academic setting particularly non-academic staff, the staff is only tasked to execute tasks such as printing, driving, doing online bookings for university events and preparing meeting agendas without much consideration for external focus in terms of marketing the

institution, hence this culture type cannot predict workplace bullying levels in this context.

H4: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

A positive significant relationship was found between hierarchy culture and workplace bullying. This entails that an increase in hierarchical organisational culture can lead to more incidences of workplace bullying. The findings above confirmed hypothesis four which stated that there is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants. Hence, the decision was to accept hypothesis four. From the above findings, it can be inferred that organisational culture significantly predicts workplace bullying frequency, intensity and prevalence in organisations.

The findings of this study are sufficiently supported with existing similar studies. Hierarchical culture is also linked to predicting high levels of workplace bullying. For example, Vilas-Boas (2019) argues that the hierarchy culture promotes workplace bullying. The study notes that the tight controls and rigid structures can expose employees to deviant behaviours in the workplace. It follows that leaders in hierarchical cultures tend to resort to workplace bullying to force employees to conform to strict rules and norms within the organisation. Hierarchical culture tends to be highly politicised as often than not, the leaders employ authoritarian and autocratic leadership styles that do not tolerate nonconformity to values of bureaucracy.

Parchment and Andrews (2019) explain that unsupportive cultures escalate cases of bullying. Schein (2020) posits that the management should be familiar with the organizational culture such that they can tell when change is needed. In addition, it allows them to experience and get first-hand information about bullying incidences. As further alluded by Schein (2020), it is crucial for organisations to design controls aimed at mitigating and addressing issues of bullying. However, it becomes a challenge when the bullying is initiated and perpetrated by the management themselves, which is usually the case in hierarchical organisational cultures. As

such, Koh (2016) advocates for organisational culture change to reduce bullying incidences.

An and Kang (2016) identify organisational culture as one of the primary causes of workplace bullying. An and Kang (2016) further allude that, some organisational cultures can be categorised as bullying organisational cultures. These organisational cultures lack mechanisms and policies to suppress acts of bullying. To diagnose such negative cultures, An and Kang (2016) indicate that organisations should revisit their norms and visions and eliminate the elements which might support workplace bullying.

Pilch and Turska (2015) identify organisational policy as one of the determinants of workplace bullying. According to Pilch and Turska (2015), workplace bullying is prevalent in most organisations due to lack of zero- tolerance policies to thwart bullying incidences which is common in most hierarchical cultures. Instead, the culture gives those with power for instance, managers to bully others in a bid to achieve organisational goals (De Cieri et al., 2019). An and Kang (2016) agree and point out that bullying emanates mostly from the leadership orientation. The study further alludes that, there is need for leadership alignment and transformation if bullying is to be dealt with effectively.

It is sad to note that most leaders in an organisation are aware of bullying incidences but choose not to intervene in time (Namie & Namie, 2014). Tambur and Vadi (2012) are of the view that workplace bullying emanates from autocratic leadership.

Successful leaders give instruments and social frameworks in their organisations that increase positive employee relations and diminish workplace conflict and bullying (Fernandes & Tewari, 2012). Einarsen et al. (2016) remark that unsupportive and autocratic leaders make subordinates to feel suppressed. This can result in anxiety and discomfort which are elements of bullying.

Hoel, Sheehan, Cooper and Einarsen (2011) highlight that when bullies are supported by top management, a culture of fear prevails among the employees. They will tend to have a sense of self-doubt, low morale and lower self-esteem. As a result, employees are afraid to report issues of bullying for fear of being victimised

even more or lose their job. Some organisational cultures motivate and perpetuate incidences of bullying in organisations (Pheko, Monteiro & Segopolo, 2017).

According to An and Kang (2015), weak organisational cultures permeate workplace bullying. Omari (2007) found a significant relationship between three cultures (clan, adhocracy and hierarchy) of the four competing values model and bullying. In the study, clan and adhocracy cultures were associated with lower levels of bullying and the hierarchy culture was associated with high levels of bullying.

Pilch and Turska (2015) opine that strong leadership shun away bullying incidences. Zeka (2018) asserts that poor organisational policies can also escalate workplace bullying. In addition, some forced norms in a certain organisational culture may be a fertile ground for breeding bullying in the workplace, where those who do not conform are harassed. Hutchinson and Jackson (2014) note that workplace bullying is perpetrated when the bullies are protected by the organisation's leadership. As such, Zeka (2018) advices organisational management to build systems and procedures which makes it easy for victims to expose bullies without any chance of being further victimised. Bullying is a biproduct of negative organisational cultures (Heap & Harvey, 2012).

Vilas-Boas (2019) examined the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying. The study used Cameron and Quin (199) conceptualisation of organisational culture to predict workplace bullying levels. The study found that hierarchical culture breeds negative behaviours which can be detrimental to employees. The argument was that this type of culture only emphasizes conformity to norms, rules and rigid structures where employees' views are not considered. On that note, this opens platforms for abuse of power which can result in management belittling their subordinates. When such incidences occur, it creates an atmosphere of mistrust and burnout where employees feel that they are being targeted and their rights being infringed (Di Stefano et al., 2017).

Aleksić, Načinović Braje and Rašić Jelavić (2019) also explored the link between culture and bullying in the workplace. The study found that negative behaviours such as name calling, isolating others and sabotage tend to be common in a hierarchical culture. A study by Fulmore (2018) also shared the same findings. Similar studies by

Hodgins, MacCurtain and Mannix-McNamara (2014) as well as An and Kang (2016) discovered out that workplace bullying was higher in organisational cultures exhibiting hierarchy culture. A study by Tambur and Vadi (2012) reported a positive relationship between hierarchical organisational culture and workplace bullying.

All in all, the view that organisational culture is a crucial determinant of workplace bullying in organisations is extensively supported by existing literature. Hence, the findings of this study remain valid despite the disagreement with a few existing studies.

5.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the results of this study. Chapter started by outlining the response rate. A high response rate was recorded. This allowed the researcher to get quality data which is sufficient to answer the research problem. The descriptive statistics on organisational culture showed that hierarchical culture was the dominant culture in the organisation even though the scores were moderate. Considering workplace bullying, the descriptive statistics showed that the incidence, intensity and prevalence of workplace is high in the organisation. The high scores revolving around four shows that workplace bullying in the surveyed organisation happens weekly. The regression results indicated that there is a negative relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying. On the other hand, the results showed that adhocracy and market culture were insignificant predictors of workplace bullying. The case was different altogether when it comes to hierarchical culture. The findings showed that hierarchical culture is associated with high levels of workplace bullying. Overall, the results showed that organisational culture is a crucial determinant of workplace bullying.

The findings of this study were also discussed in relation to existing literature. The findings of this study were sufficiently supported with similar existing studies. There was an agreement in existing studies that organisational culture types such as clan and hierarchical significantly predicts workplace bullying levels in an organisation. This was confirmed in this study, though the focus was on non-academic staff members. Nevertheless, cultural types such as adhocracy and market were found to

be insignificant predictors of workplace bulling among non-academic staff. The next chapter will provide conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present summaries of the entire study. This is intended to capture key points which emerged from each section. Emphasis is put on the outcomes from the key objectives of the study. Henceforth, the chapter will provide recommendations, the limitations of the current study and areas for future research.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

The study was conducted at the University of Limpopo (Turfloop Campus), a previously disadvantaged university found within Limpopo Province near Polokwane. The University of Limpopo consist of 545 non-academic staff members (University of Limpopo Payrol, 2019). A sample size of 200 non-academic staff was conveniently surveyed for the purpose of this study. This study adopted the descriptive and causal research designs. The descriptive research design was used to describe findings regarding the first and second objectives.

6.3 SUMMARY AND INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

- **Objective 1: Measure the different cultures in the organisation and identify the dominant culture as perceived by the participants**

The first objective aimed at measuring the different cultures in the organisation and identify the dominant culture as perceived by the participants. This was crucial in

order to understand the basis of workplace bullying since organisational culture is linked to workplace bullying. The different organisational cultures such as clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchical culture have different effects to workplace bullying. As such, it was crucial to single out the dominant culture at the targeted organisation. It emerged that each of the organisational cultures is identified based on dominant characteristics, organisational leadership, management of employees, organisational glue, strategic emphasis and criteria of success.

The results showed that the dominant organisational culture in this organisation is hierarchical culture. This is based on the scores presented in Table 5.4. Hierarchical organisational culture has the highest scores followed by clan, adhocracy and lastly market culture. The scores above three shows moderate levels of hierarchical organisational culture, which emphasises, stability, control and formalisation.

- **Objective 2: Determine the frequency, intensity and prevalence of workplace bullying to identify the dominant types of bullying in the organisation as perceived by the participants**

The second objective of this study was; to determine the frequency, intensity and prevalence of workplace bullying to identify the dominant types of bullying in the organisation as perceived by the participants. The findings showed that there is high workplace bullying in the organisation from which the survey took place. The high scores revolving around and above shows that incidences of workplace bullying are experienced on a weekly basis by the participants entailing that there is high prevalence of workplace bullying.

The findings of this study confirmed the findings of other researchers that there is high workplace bullying in institutions of higher learning. This is mostly experienced by non-academic staff. These include administrators and caretakers.

- **Objective 3: Analyse the relationship between workplace bullying and types of organisational culture**

Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Types of Organisational Culture

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants

A negative significant relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying. This means that as the level of clan culture increases, the level of workplace bullying decreases. Based on the findings above, the decision is to accept Hypothesis 1 which states that there is a negative relationship between the clan culture and workplace bullying among the participants. The findings of the current study were fully supported by other existing studies.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

An insignificant relationship was found between adhocracy culture and workplace bullying. This means that as adhocracy culture does not have an effect on the levels of workplace bullying among non-academic staff. increases. Based on the results above, the decision was to reject hypothesis two which stated that there is a negative relationship between the adhocracy culture and workplace bullying among the participants. The above findings differed with other existing scholars' work. The reason for the differing findings can be attributed to the fact that this study was conducted in an academic setting particularly among non-academic staff whereas other studies have been conducted using corporate employees. Hence, the differing context can be the reason why adhocracy culture did not predict workplace bullying among non-academic staff members. Another point is that that adhocracy culture is more suited and mostly practiced by private firms which leverage on innovation and creativity which is then fostered among all the employees. Hence, in the case of an academic setting particularly non-academic staff, they are only tasked to execute without much consideration for innovation and creativity, hence this culture type cannot predict workplace bullying levels in this context.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants

An insignificant relationship was found between market culture and workplace bullying. In this context, it means market culture does not influence workplace bullying levels among non-academic staff members. Based on the findings above,

the decision was to reject hypothesis three which stated that there is a negative relationship between the market culture and workplace bullying among the participants. The above findings differed with other existing scholars' work. The author of this study believes that the divergence in findings between the current study and existing scholars is because this study was conducted in an academic setting particularly among non-academic staff whereas other studies have been conducted using corporate employees. Hence, the differing context can be the reason why market culture did not predict workplace bullying among non-academic staff members. Another point is that that market culture is more suited and mostly practiced by private firms which emphasize productivity and competitiveness which is then fostered among all the employees. Hence, in the case of an academic setting particularly non-academic staff, the staff is only tasked to execute tasks such as printing, driving, doing online bookings for university events and preparing meeting agendas without much consideration for external focus in terms of marketing the institution, hence this culture type cannot predict workplace bullying levels in this context.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants

A significant positive relationship between was found between hierarchy culture and workplace bullying. This entails that an increase in hierarchical organisational culture can lead to more incidences of workplace bullying. The findings above confirmed hypothesis four which stated that there is a positive relationship between the hierarchy culture and workplace bullying among the participants. Hence, the decision was to accept hypothesis four. The findings of this study clearly explain the work climate surrounding non-academic staff members. Non-academic staff operate under a set of rules and they are required to follow strict organizational structure from their immediate line manager to the top management. In this setting, communication is usually top-down and non-academic staff members only receive orders such as typing certain reports, printing, and fixing machines from their superiors with no scope for their inputs and creativity. This describes why there are relatively high levels of workplace bullying among this group as indicated by the descriptive statistics.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusively, the objectives and research hypotheses were attained. The key findings of the study showed that hierarchical organisational culture was dominant within the organisation which was surveyed. The findings also showed that workplace bullying was prevalent within the organisation. It was discovered that most workplace bullying issues occurred on a weekly basis. Considering hypothesis testing, regression analysis results showed a significant negative relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying. A significant positive relationship was also found between hierarchical culture and workplace bullying. On the other hand, the link between adhocracy and market culture with workplace bullying was found to be insignificant. The implication of the above findings is that workplace bullying does not occur in workplaces where employees work collaboratively with management. Such a culture (clan culture) eliminates deviant behaviours because organisational members work as a team and the spirit of togetherness is always encouraged. Also, the management values the inputs of employees which enhance the wellbeing of employees.

Whereas work environments characterised by hierarchical culture tend to be associated with high levels of workplace bullying as was confirmed by the findings of this study. This culture type increases the chances of workplace bullying because management is obsessed with enforcing rules and compliance with norms and structures without paying much attention to the needs of employees. This creates an environment where there is lack of trust between employees and top management. As such, workplace bullying can find a fertile ground to blossom because the communication and organisational glue can be so poor. On the other hand, the implication on the insignificant relationship between adhocracy and market culture with workplace bullying is that these culture types are more inclined towards private companies which leverages on innovation and market presence. Hence, in the case of an academic setting particularly non-academic staff, they are only tasked to execute without much consideration for innovation and competitiveness in terms of marketing the university products/services. As such, adhocracy and market cultures may not predict workplace bullying in this context. All in all, the study managed to attain its objectives.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of the study clearly showed that workplace bullying is relatively high within the institution which was focused on. This was evidenced by high scores revolving around a score of four which shows that incidences of workplace bullying are experienced on a weekly basis by the participants entailing that there is high prevalence of workplace bullying. The high averages also entail that the intensity of workplace bullying is high in the organisation from which this study took place. This was linked to high dominance of the hierarchical organisational culture. This organisational culture stifles work morale and may promote workplace bullying. With reference to the above evidence of the prevalence of workplace bullying among non-academic staff at institutions of higher learning, it becomes crucial to initiate a series of actions to abate such incidences. Based on that, this study makes recommendations to different players who may possibly play a crucial role towards mitigating or eliminating workplace bullying among non-academic staff at institutions of higher learning. This study makes recommendations to the Department of Education, university management and the non-academic staff themselves.

6.5.1 Department of Higher Education and Training

The Department of Higher Education and Training has crucial role to play in mitigating or eliminating workplace bullying within institutions of higher learning. The department has the power to influence policy which can be used to eliminate workplace bullying within universities. This can be done by setting out procedures for victims of workplace bullying to follow and put to task the perpetrators. Another way to eliminate workplace bullying within universities is by promoting and protecting whistle blowers. In some instances, employees notice and sometimes live the experiences of being bullied in their workplaces. Nevertheless, they are afraid to report incidences due to fear of victimisation. Hence, if the department can assure the victims of workplace bullying of protection when they report such cases, it can solve this recurring problem within universities. The Department of Higher Education and Training representatives should also visit universities regularly to observe how things are done. Rather than just waiting for complains to be reported to them, they

can have a glimpse of what happens within institutions of higher learning if they can go and observe. This enables them to get primary evidence and take action.

6.5.2 University management

Recommendations are also made for the university top management to acknowledge that workplace bullying is indeed a serious problem within their institutions. One of the barriers towards eliminating workplace bullying within universities is denial by top management that workplace bullying is indeed taking place in their organisations. Based on that, this makes them unreceptive to reports and complaints about workplace bullying incidences. This study recommends the top management within universities to initiate a set of internal policies which clearly details the reporting procedures and how the perpetrators of workplace bullying are dealt with. Another measure they can implement is to put complains boxes where the staff can write and drop their complains. With this it eliminates situations where the victim attracts more trouble when the bully knows about who reported. This can help reduce the prevalence, frequency and intensity of workplace bullying.

6.5.3 Non-academic staff

The findings from the study showed that workplace bullying is relatively high among university non-academic staff. It also emerged that the nature of the job of non-academic staff members exposes them to workplace bullying. Based on that, non-academic staff should report incidences of workplace bullying to the relevant authorities. This is because unreported incidences of workplace bullying may result in stress and may also aggravate incidences of suicide.

However, it also emerged from literature review that workplace bulling is based on one's perception that they are being bullied. In some incidences, it might be just perception without solid evidence that somebody has intentions to cause discomfort in the other. Hence, non-academic staff are encouraged to investigate fully if a certain behaviour qualifies to be a bullying act.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Even though the study managed to attain the intended objective, it has a few limitations. One of the limitations is that the study was quantitative in nature. This could limit the quality of responses derived from the participants since closed

questions were used. This could have been improved if a qualitative study was used. Another limitation is that this study was conducted on one university. Hence, it could have been improved if it used more universities in South Africa to enhance generalisability of the findings.

6.8 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research can consider investigating the following areas;

The effect of organizational culture on workplace bullying in South Africa.

Understanding the role of university top management towards identifying and eliminating workplace bullying.

Investigate the relationship between personality and workplace bullying within institutions of higher learning.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study investigated the effect of organisational culture on workplace bullying. The major aim was to understand the relationship between organisational culture types such as clan, adhocracy, market and hierarchical culture. To achieve this, the study used a quantitative research method using a sample of 200 non-academic staff members at a South African university. The findings showed that chapter provided summaries for all the chapters. Conclusively, all the objectives and research hypotheses were attained. The key findings of the study showed that hierarchical organisational culture was dominant within the organisation which was surveyed. The findings also showed that workplace bullying was prevalent within the organisation. It was discovered that most workplace bullying issues occurred on a weekly basis. Considering hypothesis testing, regression analysis results showed a significant negative relationship between clan culture and workplace bullying. A significant positive relationship was also found between hierarchical culture and workplace bullying. On the other hand, the link between adhocracy and market culture with workplace bullying was found to be insignificant. This study recommended the top management within universities to initiate a set of internal policies which clearly details the reporting procedures and how the perpetrators of workplace bullying are dealt with.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1- Questionnaire

Dear participant

My name is Tapiwa Napoleon Dongo (201208795) a Master of Commerce Student in Human Resource Management at university of Limpopo. I am kindly inviting you to participate in my study titled "**Organisational culture and workplace bullying among NON-ACADEMIC STAFF at a South African university.** This study is entirely for academic purposes and I want to assure you that confidentiality will be exercised on the information you will provide. Your participation in the survey is voluntary and you are free to withdraw at any time. Please do not write your name or anything that identifies you on the questionnaire for anonymity. Furthermore, be advised that there is no wrong or correct answer to the questions.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

2. What is your age?

Below 20	21-35	36-50	51-60	Above 60

3. What is your level of education?

Bellow grade 12	Matric	Diploma	Degree	Post Graduate

4. What is your marital status?

Married		Single		Divorced		Widowed	

5. How long have you been in the organisation?

0-5 years		6-10 years		11-20 years		21 years and above	

SECTION B: ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT (OCAI)

The OCAI consists of six questions. Each question has four alternatives. Divide 100 points among these four alternatives depending on the extent to which each alternative is similar to your own organization. Give a higher number of points to the alternative that is most similar to your organization. For example, in question one, if you think alternative A is very similar to your organization, alternative B and C are somewhat similar, and alternative D is hardly similar at all, you might give 55 points to A, 20 points to B and C, and five points to D. Just be sure your total equals 100 points for each question.

1. Dominant characteristics		**Score**
A	The organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family. People seem to share a lot of themselves.	
B	The organization is a very dynamic entrepreneurial place. People are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.	
C	The organization is very results oriented. A major concern is with getting the job done. People are very competitive and achievement oriented.	
D	The organization is a very controlled and structured place. Formal	

	procedures generally govern what people do.	
Total		
2. Organisational leadership		
A	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify mentoring, facilitating, or nurturing.	
B	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify entrepreneurship, innovating, or risk taking.	
C	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive, results-oriented focus.	
D	The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify coordinating, organizing, or smooth-running efficiency.	
Total		
3. Management of Employees		
A	The management style in the organization is characterized by teamwork, consensus, and participation.	
B	The management style in the organization is characterized by individual risk-taking, innovation, freedom, and uniqueness.	
C	The management style in the organization is characterized by harddriving competitiveness, high demands, and achievement.	
D	The management style in the organization is characterized by security of employment, conformity, predictability, and stability in relationships.	
Total		
4. Organisational glue		
A	The glue that holds the organization together is loyalty and mutual trust. Commitment to this organization runs high.	

B	The glue that holds the organization together is commitment to innovation and development. There is an emphasis on being on the cutting edge.	
C	The glue that holds the organization together is the emphasis on achievement and goal accomplishment. Aggressiveness and winning are common themes.	
D	The glue that holds the organization together is formal rules and policies. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is important.	
Total		
5. strategic emphasis		
A	The organization emphasizes human development. High trust, openness, and participation persist.	
B	The organization emphasizes acquiring new resources and creating new challenges. Trying new things and prospecting for opportunities are valued.	
C	The organization emphasizes competitive actions and achievement. Hitting stretch targets and winning in the marketplace are dominant.	
D	The organization emphasizes permanence and stability. Efficiency, control and smooth operations are important.	
Total		
6. Criteria of success		
A	The organization defines success on the basis of the development of human resources, teamwork, employee commitment, and concern for people.	
B	The organization defines success on the basis of having the most unique or newest products. It is a product leader and innovator.	
C	The organization defines success on the basis of winning in the	

	marketplace and outpacing the competition. Competitive market leadership is key.	
D	The organization defines success on the basis of efficiency. Dependable delivery, smooth scheduling and low-cost production are critical.	
Total		

SECTION C: WORKPLACE BULLYING (NEGATIVE ACTS QUESTIONNAIRE (NAQ)

Please indicate the level of frequency for the following statements in terms of what has happened to you at your workplace during the last 6 months

1= Never, 2= Now and then, 3= Monthly, 4= Weekly, 5= Daily

No	items	Ratings				
1.	Someone withholding information that affects your performance	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Being ignored or excluded	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person, your attitudes, or your private life	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Intimidating behaviors such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	1	2	3	4	5

11.	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Persistent criticism of your errors or mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Having your opinions ignored	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get along with	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Having allegations made against you	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Excessive monitoring of your work	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Pressure not to claim something to which by right you are entitled (e.g sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION