

**EFFECTS OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP AND
ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS ON WORKPLACE
CYBERBULLYING AND JOB CONSEQUENCES
OF EMPLOYEES IN A THAI EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION:
MODERATING ROLE OF POLITICAL SKILL OF EMPLOYEES**

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**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Management)
International College,
National Institute of Development Administration
2020**

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation	EFFECTS OF ETHICAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS ON WORKPLACE CYBERBULLYING AND JOB CONSEQUENCES OF EMPLOYEES IN A THAI EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION: MODERATING ROLE OF POLITICAL SKILL OF EMPLOYEES
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Degree	Doctor of Philosophy (Management)
Year	2020

Cyberbullying is a significant and prevalent problem in Thai society. Cyberbullying can cause devastating consequences for the victim without physical violence. The dangers of cyberbullying are that cyberbullying can be more damaging to the victims because the bully can remain anonymous, it can rapidly occur at anytime, and the audience access is uncontrollable. Although research about cyberbullying has been conducted among teenagers and employees at private organizations, there remains a research gap regarding the issue of cyberbullying in educational institutions, particularly the antecedents and outcomes associated with it. The present study investigated the effect of ethical leadership and organizational politics on employees' exposure to workplace cyberbullying at one public university in Thailand. Theoretically, the role of ethical leadership and organizational politics were based on the emotion reaction model. Furthermore, this study investigated the outcomes of workplace cyberbullying by focusing on the effects on organizational commitment and burnout of employees. In addition, political skill of employees was proposed as the moderators to explain individual differences in handling with organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying experience for victims. Survey data were collected from 358 employees using stratified sampling. The results from Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling supported the positive effect of organizational politics on cyberbullying exposure. The analysis also found the relationship between ethical leadership and cyberbullying through organizational politics, as well as the effect of cyberbullying exposure on organizational commitment and burnout. Additionally, the political skill significantly moderated the effects of organizational politics on cyberbullying exposure.

This research provided two implications to the educational institution. Firstly, it is crucial to understand that cyberbullying can happen when employees have low political skill at work. Secondly, although it is inevitable to regulate employees to have political skills, the role of the supervisor's ethical leadership plays a vital role in creating the supportive and ethical climate in the work units to prevent organizational politics in the workplace which can reduce the chance that someone will be a victim for workplace.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my dissertation advisor, Asst. Prof. Dr. Peerayuth Chareonsukmongkol. He played a pivotal role in this dissertation and my overall experience at NIDA. He has always been a pleasure to work with as an advisor, both in academic and personal aspect of life. The fact that he consistently held me accountable on the quality of my works has tremendously improved my work ethics and has taught me to always strive for the best, which allows me to grow as a person. Under his supervision, my life as a graduate student has been so much more bearable than many people have led me to believe.

Second, I would like to thank my committee members: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Vesarach Aumeboonsuke and Dr. Surachanee Sriyai for their patience, kindness, and generosity while dealing with my dissertating process.

Finally, I want to acknowledge the love and support of my family. I am forever grateful for dad and mom for being the most effective “support team” whenever needed. I could not have finished this endeavor without their love and support.

Worakamol Tiamboonprasert

November 2020

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The widespread of technology have changed people's everyday lives and work. Although people have gained some benefits from using the technology, it can be misused in many ways as the communication technologies can also be used to abuse and harass others. Particularly, the improper usage of technology has enabled the traditional bullying in offline sphere to escalate into bullying in the online world or “cyberbullying”, which becomes an ongoing issue. Cyberbullying generally refers to negative acts via online communicative channels that occur repeatedly and over time (Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, & Tippet, 2006). It causes more harm than the traditional bullying due to inherent characteristics of digital technologies, which can quickly and adversely escalate a situation. As a matter of fact, bullying others in cyberspace is likely to be easier for anyone than committing it face-to-face because the perpetrators can remain anonymous in the cyberspace while the offline bullying can usually be detected (Farley, Coyne, Axtell, & Sprigg, 2016). Moreover, people feel less restrained by social norms and responsibilities. As a result, they are more likely to freely express themselves when communicating online (Calvete, Orue, Estévez, Villardón, & Padilla, 2010; Hinduja & Patchin, 2008). In addition, there is a lack of nonverbal cues including gestures, tone of voice and facial expressions, which lead to misinterpretations and misunderstandings relating to perceived impoliteness towards the victims (Runions, Shapka, Dooley, & Modecki, 2013; Slonje & Smith, 2008). Furthermore, online communication is boundless as it can begin anywhere at any time, which results in larger and uncontrollable audiences (Farley et al., 2016; Slonje & Smith, 2008).

Cyberbullying occur through various electronic channels such as social media platforms, instant messaging and email by using the digital devices like mobile phones, tablets, and computers (Farley et al., 2016). Negative and harmful behaviors

include harassment, spreading rumors, impersonation, trickery and isolation (Beswick, Gore, & Palferman, 2006; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). Moreover, these behaviors usually display in terms of text messages, comments, posts and photos (Vranjes, Baillien, Vandebosch, Erreygers, & De Witte, 2017).

Cyberbullying is the problem that happen in many countries and has caused detrimental impact to the victims. Recently, the phenomenon of cyberbullying is grabbing the attention of the public and the media. For example, in 2017, a 20-year-old student in Malaysia committed suicide by jumping off a building due to being bullied by anonymous posts online (V. Brown, 2017). Furthermore, South Korean singers, Sulli and Goo Hara committed suicide in 2019 supposedly from the result of hate speech and comments in social media (Choe & Lee). Thus, cyberbullying could potentially be considered a risk factor for physical and mental health as well as safety of the targets.

Cyberbullying in workplace becomes more prevalent because information technology and electronic devices such as desktop computers, laptop computers, smartphones are required in the offices. It has been suggested that exposure to workplace cyberbullying is a critical problem considering the negative consequences for individual and organization (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Cyberbullying among employees potentially causes mental and physical health problems such as anxiety, stress and emotional exhaustion (Baruch, 2005; Farley et al., 2016; Jönsson, Muhonen, Forssell, & Bäckström, 2017). Furthermore, it is related to lower job satisfaction, less commitment and higher turnover intention (Jönsson et al., 2017; Lim & Teo, 2009; Muhonen, Jönsson, & Bäckström, 2017). Previous studies revealed that cyberbullying at work is explained by factors based on the characteristics of the perpetrators and victims. Perpetrators are found to be of aggressive and unstable characters with controlling and directive personalities (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Vranjes et al., 2017). Meanwhile, victims of workplace cyberbullying are generally of poor physical health, are fearful, uncertain, and lack assertiveness. Prior researches demonstrated that conflict management skill could reduce the possibility of victimization in cyberbullying (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Vranjes, Baillien, Vandebosch, Erreygers, & De Witte, 2018a). For organizational factors, previous evidence demonstrated that positive work environment can decrease cyberbullying.

For example, employees in a supportive work climate within an organization that has an effective policy and/or codes of conduct report fewer cases of cyberbullying at work than their counterparts who work in a negative climate (R. C. Forsell, 2018; Gardner et al., 2016; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014).

Extant literature on cyberbullying has been conducted in various contexts. Much of the current cyberbullying researches were conducted among youth samples in school and university contexts focusing on the prevalence, occurrence, and outcomes of cyberbullying on perpetrators, victims as well as the bystanders (C. F. Brown, Demaray, & Secord, 2014; Casas, Del Rey, & Ortega-Ruiz, 2013; Riek & Mania, 2012; Schultze-Krumbholz & Scheithauer, 2009). Still, little research has been conducted among working adults, particularly within the workplace. The study of workplace cyberbullying in an early stage, focused on the prevalence of the issue and compare it with the traditional bullying. In subsequent years, there have been efforts to explore the impact and outcomes towards targets of cyberbullying. However, there are only a few papers conducted on determinants and factors that minimize the likelihood of being a perpetrator and/or a victim of workplace cyberbullying (e.g. D'Souza, Forsyth, Tappin, & Catley, 2018; Gardner et al., 2016; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Mehdad, Vali Nezhad, & Hosseini, 2018).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although previous studies have extensively examined the antecedents and consequences of cyberbullying, there are some gaps in the research that need to be explored further. Firstly, only few papers have studied the holistic connection between organizational factors as precursors of workplace cyberbullying and individual factors as moderators. Most of the previous papers only examined these factors separately. Organizational factor is one of the key determinants affecting cyberbullying in terms of being a stressor by itself and contributing to others work-related stresses in the organization, which ultimately cause cyberbullying. For example, studies have investigated the direct effect between leadership style and cyberbullying (Gardner et al., 2016; Vranjes et al., 2017). In addition, some researches in this field have examined organizational climate and work environment

factors such as social climate (R. C. Forssell, 2018), social influence (Y. Choi, 2018), organizational support (Gardner et al., 2016; Park & Choi, 2019), working pattern and organizational politics (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014). These early studies focused on examination of contributing factors of cyberbullying; however, past research did not study these factors in conjunction. Some previous studies have investigated the individual factors that mitigate cyberbullying such as gender (Rajalakshmi & Naresh, 2020; Weber, Koehler, & Schnauber-Stockmann, 2019). Thus, there is a gap to investigate the moderating role of individual factors on the antecedent-cyberbullying relationship. Moreover, although previous research have investigated the effect of antecedent factors on cyberbullying, the influence of workplace cyberbullying and victims outcomes, as well as the moderating role of individual factor on cyberbullying, there is still a gap in which all the variables did not connect with each other conceptually in order to illustrate a clearer picture of cyberbullying phenomenon.

Secondly, only little attention has been given to workplace cyberbullying in educational setting. For example, Cassidy, Faucher, and Jackson (2014) investigated the nature, extent, and impact of cyberbullying experienced among faculty members in Canadian university. Blizard (2016) conducted interviews to explore experiences of cyberbullied faculty members in Canada. Similarly, Cassidy, Faucher, and Jackson (2017) interviewed faculty members and administrators to explore the impacts, both from personal and professional aspects, of being victims of cyberbully in universities in Canada. Moreover, Coyne et al. (2017) also emphasized on the relationship between cyberbullying experience and the impacts of mental strain and job satisfaction among academic and non-academic employees in UK universities. Though workplace cyberbullying among educational personals has been studied, they have yet to examine the determinants and outcomes for the employees in this setting.

Thirdly, there is inconsistency in terms of empirical evidence about the antecedents of cyberbullying, particularly for the role of leadership. A large body of existing literature suggested that the leadership patterns and organizational factors are key determinants of the work environments, which are related to the stressors that subsequently enable bullying in the organization, for example, role conflicts, role ambiguity, flexibility in work methods (Feijó, Gräf, Pearce, & Fassa, 2019). In the

light of cyberbullying, few researches have proposed the leadership style as an antecedent, which include autocratic leadership (Vranjes et al., 2017), ethical leadership and destructive leadership (Gardner et al., 2016). There remains a paucity of research on this subject to confirm and conclude on the effects of leadership on cyberbullying.

The fourth gap is that prior research still lack evidence about the characteristics of individuals that might moderate the effect of cyberbullying on outcome variables. The traditional bullying literature has explored the moderating effect of workplace bullying and its outcomes. For example, attribution style (Goldsmid & Howie, 2013), psychological capital (Spence Laschinger & Nosko, 2015), and workplace resources (e.g., physical, intellectual, technical, financial and social resource) (Quine, 2001). Despite these findings, more research on moderating aspect of cyberbullying is needed in order to explore different individual's outcomes of cyberbullying.

Furthermore, most workplace cyberbullying research was conducted in western contexts. To the best of my knowledge, only few papers have provided the evidence in the context of Thailand. For example, Srivilai and Sorod (2019) conducted a study among white-collared employees in urban Thailand and found that the personality traits of neuroticism significantly predicted cyberbullying victimization in the workplace. The studies of cyberbullying in Thailand have been conducted primarily in schools and are mostly focused on children and teenagers. For example, Sittichai (2014) focused on cyberbullying exposure among students in southern Thailand while Sittichai and Smith (2018) examined both offline and cyberbullying victimization and coping strategies among children and young people in Thailand. Wachs, Jiskrova, Vazsonyi, Wolf, and Junger (2016) explored the correlation between cyberbullying and the mediation effect of self-esteem among adolescents from Germany, the Netherlands, the United States and Thailand. Samoh et al. (2019) studied perceptions of cyberbullying among youths in central Thailand and Auemaneekul, Powwattana, Kiatsiri, and Thananowan (2019) explored the etiological model of cyberbullying behaviors among Thai adolescents in Bangkok secondary schools.

1.3 Research Questions

This study focuses on answering the following questions:

- 1) What are the antecedents and consequences of workplace cyberbullying in the educational institutions?
- 2) Do the individual characteristics mitigate the negative effects of workplace cyberbullying?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

To address the existing gaps previously mentioned, this research is framed in the context of workplace cyberbullying using university employees as samples. The objective of this research is to examine the antecedents and outcomes associated with cyberbullying in educational institutions. For the antecedents, this research focuses on the role of ethical leadership and organizational politics as the determinants that might affect workplace cyberbullying. These two factors can have an impact on work and managerial aspects, which relate to work stressors in the organization. Organizational politics is perceived as dysfunctional behaviors of individuals in the organization focusing on achievement towards their own interests and advantages at expense of others (G. Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Previous studies have shown that organizational politics can lead to negative effects on work such as job stress and job anxiety (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008). Since politics is commonly viewed as unethical, it also creates negative work climate. Politics in the organization is likely to bring about higher risk of cyberbullying exposure. That being said, politics is also known as a relationship caused by interactions between two or more persons; therefore, politics in this sense is normal and unavoidable (Omisore & Nweke, 2014). By the same token, evidence indicated that social relationship is generally perceived as an essential mean for achievement in Thai organizations (Komin, 1990). Thus, organizational politics might be one of the important factors triggering cyberbullying exposure in Thai organizations. Relatedly, ethical leadership is described as leaders who behave ethically and being a role model to promote the ethical values in the organization (M.

E. Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005). It is perceived as an essential factor to generate ethical climate and positive work environment. Previous literature has shown that ethical leadership produces positive workplace outcomes such as pro-social behaviors, ethical behaviors and psychological well-beings (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & de Hoogh, 2013; David M Mayer, 2010). Hence, the ethical leadership may discourage cyberbullying in the workplace. Moreover, this research investigates whether organizational politics could be the mediator that explains the linkage between ethical leadership and cyberbullying. Ethical leadership may potentially alleviate organizational politics and contribute to more positive work environment. According to this point, when the organizational politics decreases, the workplace stressors is likely to be minimized; and ultimately, reducing the probability of cyberbullying in the organization.

For the outcomes associated with cyberbullying, this research focuses on the effect of cyberbullying on employee's organizational commitment and burnout. Additionally, this research explored whether the effect of cyberbullying could be mitigated by the characteristics of employees in the area of political skill. Individuals with political skill are astute observers. They can understand and interpret others, adapting dealing with different situations while exhibiting these behaviors in a sincere and genuine way (G. R. Ferris, Davidson, & Perrewé, 2005). In this sense, politically-skilled individuals are more likely to deal with the situation of being targets or victims of cyberbullying better than those with lower political skill. Therefore, political skill is used to further investigate whether individual's interpersonal skills may make a difference in terms of one's ability to handle work stressors and deal with cyberbullying experience as a victim.

From the theoretical perspective, this research adopts Emotion Reaction Model (ERM) of Vranjes et al. (2017) as the theoretical framework to support the role of ethical leadership and organizational politics as the determinants of cyberbullying. The ERM is also utilized to explain the effect of cyberbullying on employees' organizational commitment and job burnout, as well as the moderating effect of political skill. The model identifies the stress-strain relationship. The ERM begins with workplace stressors, which refer to problem related to job, teams and organizations. This workplace stressors can cause negative emotion for the targets

such as fear and sadness. These negative emotional reactions, in turn, lead to cyberbullying victimization. In addition to this, the ERM also emphasizes the reappraisal strategy to explain the process of cognitive thought in order to reduce negative impact of stressors. Putting it in the context of this particular research, ERM can explain the theoretical mechanism that: factors like ethical leadership and organizational politics are work stressors that trigger individual's emotional reactions, which could then affect his/her likelihood of being exposed to cyberbullying. This research model places one's political skill as a reappraisal strategy to reduce the effect of work stressors on cyberbullying. Furthermore, this research utilized the ERM in explaining the cyberbullying-outcomes effects in several ways. For instance, considering cyberbullying as another kind of workplace stressor that could subsequently lead to lower organizational commitment and job burnout.

1.5 Contributions of the Study

In terms of academic contributions, first of all, the results of this study will fill the research gaps regarding the inconsistent evidences of the effect of leadership on workplace cyberbullying. Secondly, this study will offer a more holistic picture of workplace cyberbullying by integrating ethical leadership, organizational politics and political skill of employees into the equation. This will provide a clearer understanding about the conditions that need to be taken together to predict workplace cyberbullying. Finally, the results of this research will contribute to the limited findings about workplace cyberbullying in the workplace context in Thailand. As for practical contributions, firstly, the result of this research may help one to understand the occurrence of workplace cyberbullying. Secondly, this research discusses a practical suggestion in addressing the issue of cyberbullying based on its findings. Finally, this research will contribute to the intervention effort in order to reduce and prevent workplace cyberbullying.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Workplace Bullying

The concept of workplace bullying is long-established since the 1990s. There are many terms that describe workplace bullying such as mobbing, workplace harassment and workplace victimization. An early description of Leymann (1990) received the most recognition in this field. He introduced the concept of workplace bullying called “mobbing”, which referred to a hostile and unethical communication conducted by an individual or multiple people and aimed at another individual or group (Leymann, 1990). Furthermore, he added that these actions of mobbing frequently occur and continue over a prolonged period; at least once or twice a week for at least six months (Leymann, 1996). Another common term is workplace harassment described as repeated negative behaviors from one person to another person or more to cause mental effects and discomfort (Björkqvist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994; Brodsky, 1976; Vartia, 1993). Later on, Aquino and Thau (2009) also proposed the concept of workplace victimization as an aggressive intent by perpetrators who bully others in order to harm those who are the targets of bullying. These aggressive actions could lead to negative emotions as well as psychological and physical consequences (Aquino & Thau, 2009). Likewise, Einarsen (1999, p. 16) studied the cause and nature of workplace bullying and described the occurrence as follows:

“Bullying occurs when someone at work is systematically subjected to aggressive behavior from one or more colleagues or superiors over a long period of time, in a situation where the target finds it difficult to defend him or herself or to escape the situation. Such treatment tends to stigmatise the target and may even cause severe psychological trauma”

All things considered, workplace bullying in this paper is defined as a situation in which individual(s) become a victim of bullying conducted by another employee in their organization such as supervisor, colleague and/or subordinate. The bullying behaviors can be of any repetitive forms of harm (e.g., offensiveness, abusiveness, social exclusion and any unfair practices, etc.) that intentionally hurt one's feeling and can affect their working life. Generally, a victim of workplace bullying suffers from inability to defend him/herself.

To differentiate workplace bullying from other hostile behaviors in workplace, three primary characteristics are indicated including 1) a deliberated intent to harm someone, 2) persistence of bullying appearance and 3) entailment of power imbalance (Hershcovis, 2011; D Olweus, 1993; Dan Olweus, 1999).

Firstly, bullying behaviors involved an intention to harm or hurt someone (Greene, 2000; Pornari & Wood, 2010). An intention implies that bullying behaviors are not an accident (Migliaccio & Raskauskas, 2016). According to Keashly and Rogers (2001), the intent of harmful action could appear more severe than those without intention. A bullying intent can be in either direct or indirect forms (Einarsen et al., 2009; Dan Olweus, 1994). Direct bullying refers to attacks aimed at a target. This involves physical bullying and verbal bullying, such as punching, threatening, intimidating, humiliating, unjustified criticism, unfair punishing and insulting (Griffin & Gross, 2004). On the other hand, indirect bullying includes behaviors that lead to social isolation and social rejection of someone due to reputational damage (Crick, Casas, & Nelson, 2002). Some examples of indirect bullying are spreading rumors and gossiping, excluding someone from a group or work participation, obstructing access to the information and withhold information (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Secondly, exposure to bullying behavior is persistent and repetitive (Einarsen, 2000). The targets of bullying have been bullied for several times and these hostile behaviors have been continued over a period of time. These habits may occur regularly at least once a week or more (Namie & Namie, 2009; Nansel et al., 2001). The timeframe in which these negative behaviors takes place may not be synchronous or simultaneous. Bullying can happen apart from other actions as continuous series or co-occur with other aggressions; nevertheless, there are still

a uniformed and distinctive pattern of these hostile behaviors (Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003).

Thirdly, power imbalance entailment describes asymmetry in power relation between the bullies and bullied (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Monks & Smith, 2006). Individuals who have low power in the workplace tend to be the victims while those powerful individuals tend to engage in bullying as perpetrators. Sources of power in this sense can be derived from either formal and informal organizational structures (Hershcovis, 2011; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). The formal power refers to the hierarchy of power in the organization such as the relationship between a supervisor who holds more power and his/her subordinates who hold less power. Individuals in higher position is more likely to obtain the formal power than people in lower position (Rayner et al., 2002). This power can be seen in the supervisory bullying when an individual exercise his/her superior power on a victim such as unfair work assignment, over monitoring and ignoring the information. Equally important, the informal power is the power derived from personality traits, ability to influence others, and network of people (Rayner et al., 2002). Exercising this power is not related to formal rankings as individuals obtained this power based on, for instance, seniority, gender, age, social standing, experience, expertise of knowledge, and target's dependency on perpetrators (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011; Helge Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

Directions of power over the perpetrator(s) is designated into four different classifications: 1) downward bullying; 2) horizontal bullying; 3) upwards bullying and; 4) cross-level co-bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011). First, downward bullying describes the condition that a perpetrator is of a higher status than the bullied who is lower in hierarchical status. The bullying in this case comes from a supervisor to subordinates such as giving unfair criticism, setting unreasonable goal, and purposely ignoring (Branch, Ramsay, & Barker, 2013; Lewis-Beck, Bryman, & Liao, 2003; McCarthy, Sheehan, & Kearns, 1995). Second, the horizontal bullying refers to the bullying between peers who are at an equal level (Einarsen et al., 2011; Lewis-Beck et al., 2003). The horizontal bullying can be seen when the perpetrator and the victim are colleagues. For example, gossiping about co-worker and exclusion from peer interaction (Katrinli, Atabay, Gunay, & Cangarli, 2010; Marks & De Meuse, 2005).

Third, the upward-level bullying emphasizes that the perpetrator is in a lower hierarchical status than the target (Branch et al., 2013; Branch, Ramsay, Barker, & Sheehan, 2005). To illustrate, this type of bullying happens when a subordinate bullies a superior employee by completing tasks inefficiently, going over the supervisor's head, and spreading a gossip and rumors (Birks, Budden, Stewart, & Chapman, 2014). Finally, the cross-level co-bullying is an event in which the perpetrators come from a mixed level that is a peer and/or a subordinate with their supervisor (D'Cruz & Rayner, 2013). An example of this type of bullying includes the establishment of a group between boss and their staffs who have things in common and aim at providing a harassment to a target who have something different such as preferences and gender. This can also take a form of making jokes, provocative insults as well as isolation. Among the four classifications, downward bullying is the most frequently occurred in organizations (D'Cruz & Rayner, 2013).

Furthermore, previous studies have categorized workplace bullying into work-related bullying and person-related bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009; Rai & Agarwal, 2017). Firstly, the work-related bullying is associated with work issues such as role, task and performance. It can be observed when individual attempts to dominate or hinder another individual's work (Einarsen et al., 2009). Examples of work-related bullying, according to Zapf (1999) include: 1) changing work tasks, demeaning work tasks, withholding information about job, removal of responsibility or excessive monitoring; 2) social isolation; 3) ridiculing or insulting for the personal attacks; 4) verbal threats; and 5) spreading rumors. Secondly, person-related bullying involves intimating and demoralizing behaviors due to individual's personal problems such as relationship, gender, morals and individual characteristics. These behaviors might be also seen as humiliation, ignoring, threats of violence, reminder of errors, insulting, persistency in criticism and spreading gossip and rumors (Beswick et al., 2006; Einarsen et al., 2009).

2.2 Workplace Cyberbullying

Workplace bullying also occurs through the computer-mediated communication. Recently, the information and communication technologies (ICTs) has become an integral aspect of work processes and personal life of employees in most organizations such as email, social media, and text messaging. While organizations have gained some indispensable benefits from the technologies, they can also be misused in many ways and one of these is workplace cyberbullying, which is a new form of bullying. In the past few years, researchers have attempted to study on the prevalence of workplace cyberbullying (Brack & Caltabiano, 2014; Davison & Stein, 2014; R. Forssell, 2016; R. Kowalski, Morgan, & Limber, 2012; Privitera & Campbell, 2009; Sprigg, Axtell, Farley, & Coyne, 2012). The study of Privitera and Campbell (2009) investigated the pervasiveness of workplace cyberbullying on Australian male workers and the research showed that almost 11 percent of the samples were cyberbullied and those who experienced cyberbullying were found to be also be victims of face-to-face bullying. Similarly, Gardner et al. (2016) found that most of the respondents who reported to have experienced cyberbullying were also targets of traditional bullying. Moreover, the study of R. Forssell (2016) found that 9.7 percent of the respondents in Sweden were cyberbullied; and the interestingly, the employees from managerial level were targeted more often than the employees from other levels.

There are differentiated explanation of workplace cyberbullying based on the previous literature of cyberbullying in school and workplace bullying (Farley et al., 2016). A study of Branch et al. (2013) determined that workplace cyberbullying is consisted of negative treatments conducted repeatedly by a perpetrator, who could be a supervisor, a colleague or a subordinate, via electronic devices. Similarly, Farley et al. (2016) described cyberbullying at work as work-related aggressive behaviors that appear repeatedly and over time by an individual or a group with intention to harass, threaten or create a negative impact by using electronic methods. Some suggested that workplace cyberbullying is similar to the traditional bullying in the workplace (Campbell, 2005), but some considered this situation as combination of traditional workplace bullying and general cyberbullying

(Kowalski, Giumetti, Schroeder, & Lattanner, 2014). Derived from the prior studies, this paper defines workplace cyberbullying as a situation in which the perpetrator exploits the ICTs to transmit an intention to bully, harass, and/or exhibit negative behaviors towards a victim, who is his/her supervisor, peer, and subordinate. These bullying behaviors in cyberspace should also occur repeatedly. Furthermore, the workplace cyberbullying can come from either working or personal issues, which could affect individual's working life and the organization.

In order to differentiate the cyberbullying from traditional bullying, there are some unique characteristics that make cyberbullying in the workplace more harmful than traditional bullying including 1) anonymous interaction, 2) nonverbal communication cues, and 3) boundarylessness (D'Souza et al., 2018; R. Forssell, 2016; Gardner et al., 2016; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014).

In term of anonymity, the perpetrators of cyberbullying can remain unknown while traditional bullying makes them obviously recognized. Most studies of workplace cyberbullying have focused on the concept of anonymity (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013; R. Forssell, 2016; Gardner et al., 2016; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Sixuan Zhang & Leidner, 2018). Anonymity refers to the concealed identity of perpetrator in online interactions (Barlett, Gentile, & Chew, 2016). Workplace cyberbullying can be done through several methods to conceal one's real identity such as fake email accounts and pseudonymous names (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013). An anonymous person is hard to track down and identify the person who initiates and involves in online harassment. According to Gardner et al. (2016), anonymity tends to allow the perpetrator to become apathetic towards risks; especially in the upward bullying. Considering the effect of apathy, cyberbullying allows the perpetrator to bully the victim easier than the traditional bullying in workplace. Consequently, anyone can be a bully in the cyber world, owing to the anonymity in the online communication (Calvete et al., 2010). Moreover, these unknown identity of perpetrator(s) could make the victims of bullying feel more uncertain and helpless (Farley, 2015).

Another point that makes cyberbullying more harmful than traditional bullying is that bullying via digital communication lacks non-verbal cues (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; R. M. Kowalski, Toth, & Morgan, 2018). Research suggested that

interactions via online channels are different from face-to-face interactions because one cannot gain the feedback from facial expressions of other party (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014). In simple terms, when bullying happens online, the perpetrator could not see the victim's facial expressions and reactions (Culnan & Markus, 1987; Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984). Without an immediate feedback from the victim, the perpetrator might ignore the reactions and reduce the sympathy towards the bullying target (Slonje & Smith, 2008). Thus, the perpetrators of online bullying develop moral disengagement towards the cyberbullies (Renati, Berrone, & Zanetti, 2012). This could make cyber-perpetrators unaware that they have committed a bullying act; and consequently, cyberbullying tends to happen over and over again (Dooley, Pyżalski, & Cross, 2009).

Another key characteristic of workplace cyberbullying is boundlessness. Cyberbullying is highly intrusive to individuals' private space. When the bullying is spread online, its transmission extends outside the workplace. There is no limit and no boundary to the extent of which cyberbullying is diffused (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013). Moreover, while the occurrences of workplace bullying tend to be during the office hours, they can happen outside the work boundary (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013). Likewise, the cyberbullying, especially on social media, can be intensified and repeated multiple of times since individuals can quickly share the information to others, forward to other devices, or save in offline (Alhabash et al., 2013; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Slonje & Smith, 2008). The information can diffuse not only among people in the organization, but also to the third parties such as friends, family and general public (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2013; Patchin & Hinduja, 2006; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Tokunaga, 2010). The virality of cyberbullying can be transmitted to huge audiences while the reach of traditional bullying is limited to only small groups of people in the organization. Therefore, compared with the traditional bullying, it is more difficult for the victims of cyberbullying to escape from the harassment as it haunts them everywhere; be it in the office, outside or even when they are at home (Ak, Özdemir, & Kuzucu, 2015; S Zhang & Leidner, 2014).

Cyberbullying at work can be done through organization-owned devices as well as employee's personal devices such as phones, tablets, laptops and computers. There are many communication channels used by employees for cyberbullying

including, email, texting, instant messaging and social network sites (Baruch, 2005; Brack & Caltabiano, 2014; Privitera & Campbell, 2009; Ramos Salazar, 2017; Sprigg et al., 2012). According to Jönsson et al. (2017), the eight types of communication devices used for workplace cyberbullying include: 1) Text messaging, 2) Pictures/photos or video clips; 3) Phone calls; 4) Email; 5) Chat rooms; 6) Instant messaging; 7) Websites; and 8) social networking websites. By means of these devices, it can provide ways for both direct and indirect bullying (Vranjes et al., 2017). To give an illustration of direct cyberbullying, it can be an offensive message through email or an insulting comment towards a post or a picture on social network. Whereas, the example of indirect cyberbullying is shown as ignoring a target's email or messaging in group chat. Doing so could make the targeted employees feel distressed and embarrassed as it adversely affects the targets' personality and reputation (Besley, 2009; Caponecchia & Wyatt, 2011; Weatherbee & Kelloway, 2006).

2.3 Workplace Cyberbullying Antecedents

Only few researches have examined the antecedents of workplace cyberbullying. Therefore, I used traditional workplace bullying to describe the antecedents. With regards to the antecedents, previous literature on this topic focused on job characteristics, individual characteristics and organizational characteristics as important factors that lead to cyberbullying.

2.3.1 Job Characteristics

A number of researchers have reported that role conflict, job insecurity, and role ambiguity can lead to workplace bullying behaviors (Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009; Balducci, Cecchin, & Fraccaroli, 2012; Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2011; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2009; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Notelaers, De Witte, & Einarsen, 2010). Some papers considered workload to be an antecedent of workplace bullying (Baillien et al., 2009; Balducci et al., 2011; Notelaers et al., 2010; Spagnoli, 2017). Furthermore, some studies recognized job demands to predict workplace bullying (Balducci et al., 2011; Ciby & Raya, 2014).

Additionally, the review of literature found that incentives and job resources can have an effect on workplace bullying (Balducci et al., 2011; Katrinli et al., 2010; Salin, 2003b). The details of job characteristics antecedents are illustrated in Table 2.1.

Particularly on the topic of cyberbullying, studies found that job design and organizational policy can predict the likelihood of cyberbullying. D'Souza et al. (2018) pointed out that job design and perceived time pressures and time constraints at work can be reasons for cyberbullying among nurses in New Zealand healthcare setting. Moreover, Heatherington and Coyne (2014) identified the working pattern as one of the factors contributing to cyberbullying. Relatedly, some studies focused on the organizational policy and strategy (Gardner et al., 2016; West, Foster, Levin, Edmison, & Robibero, 2014). Gardner et al. (2016) investigated cyberbullying experience among employees in New Zealand and found that ineffectiveness of organization's strategies could increase the risks of cyberbullying in workplace. The paper of Y. Choi (2018) suggested that monitoring and detection efforts of the organization can reduce cyberbullying intention in workplace among workers in South Korea. Additionally, the study of business and industrial sectors in Canada conducted by West et al. (2014) found that guidelines and strategies adopted to accommodate technological changes and social norms of people from different backgrounds such as culture, age, or education could reduce a likelihood of cyberbullying. They also suggested that education and training are a method to generate a shared understanding in order to discourage cyberbullying.

Table 2.1 Job Characteristic Antecedents of Workplace Bullying

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Baillien et al. (2009)	Employees in private organizations in Belgium.	Role conflict, job insecurity, workload, role ambiguity, frequency of conflicts are correlated with workplace bullying.
Notelaers et al. (2010)	Samples from Dutch-speaking part of Belgium in private organizations	Role conflicts, role ambiguity, skill utilization, participation in decision making, workload, cognitive demands, changes in the job, job insecurity, and

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
		task-related feedback tend to predict the workplace bullying.
Spagnoli (2017)	Italian workers	Workloads tend to predict workplace bullying.
Balducci et al. (2012)	Employees of a National Health Service agency in Italy	Role conflicts tend to predict workplace bullying.
Balducci et al. (2011)	Public sector employees in Italy	Job demands such as workload and role conflict are linked to workplace bullying.
Hauge et al. (2009)	Norwegian workforce	Role conflict and interpersonal conflicts tend to predict workplace bullying in the perspective of perpetration.
Ciby and Raya (2014)	Indian samples in Information Technology organizations	Job demands and interpersonal conflicts tend to predict workplace bullying victimization.
Matthiesen and Einarsen (2007)	Samples from Norwegian labor unions and Norwegian Employers' Federation	Role conflict leads to workplace bullying.
Salin (2003b)	A review paper	Incentives (reward systems, benefit, and internal competition) and triggering circumstances (organization change, composition of work group change, and restructuring) tend to explain the cause of bullying in organization.
Balducci et al.	Italian public sector	Job resources (decision authority,

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
(2011)	employees	supporting from co-worker, and salary/promotion prospects) decreases bullying.
Katrinli et al. (2010)	Nurses in Turkey	Promotion, tasks and resources allocation, appraisal, recruitment, dismissal, benefits allocation, and structuring decision are found to be political reasons for bullying.

2.3.2 Individual Characteristics

Previous studies have explored the effect of individual characteristics on workplace cyberbullying, which can be classified as perpetrator's characteristics and victim's characteristics.

2.3.2.1 Perpetrator Characteristics

With respect to personality traits of the perpetrators, previous papers suggested that negative emotions can lead to workplace bullying perpetration. For example, studies have found that aggressiveness is associated with perpetration in workplace bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Seigne, 2007). Some study posed that individuals with psychological problems are more prone to initiate workplace bullying (Katrinli et al., 2010). A research by Mathisen, Einarsen, and Mykletun (2011) also found that low level of sociability can lead to bullying. Parkins, Fishbein, and Ritchey (2006) emphasized that individuals with high social dominance orientation are more likely to get involved with bullying in workplace. Furthermore, a study of Hauge et al. (2009) determined that being a victim of bullying can lead an individual to become a perpetrator of bullying since bullying behaviors can occur when someone lacks the ability to cope with frustration (Baillien et al., 2009). The details of perpetrator characteristics are shown in Table 2.2.

Despite this, little efforts have been made to examine the characteristics of perpetrators in workplace cyberbullying context. A recent study similarly showed that negative emotions of individuals can trigger them to engage in cyberbullying (Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Vranjes et al., 2017). To be specific,

Vranjes et al. (2017) further described that organizational stressors can increase the feeling of anger in the perpetrators and these emotions, in turn, encourage individuals to commit a cyberbullying in workplace. Similarly, a semi-structured interview conducted by Heatherington and Coyne (2014) identified the emotions related to perpetration in cyberbullying, which include aggressive, unstable, directive, low emotional control, and low empathy. On the contrary, the positive perpetrator's characteristics can lessen the tendency of cyberbullying behaviors. A recent paper of Mehdad et al. (2018) drew a distinction between positive personality traits of perpetrator and cyberbullying behaviors in Iran public organization. The authors proposed the so-called adversity quotient components, which include three personality traits: 1) self-control, 2) sense of ownership, and 3) reach and tolerance. The study found that these three personality traits can reduce the propensity of people engaging in workplace cyberbullying behaviors.

Table 2.2 Perpetrator Characteristic Antecedent of Workplace Bullying

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Matthiesen and Einarsen (2007)	Norwegian leaders and employees	Workplace bullying perpetrators tend to exhibit a higher level of aggressiveness than non-perpetrator and victims.
Seigne (2007)	Workers in Dublin	Bullying perpetrators tend to demonstrate high level of aggressiveness, hostility, ego-centricism, selfishness as well as being extraverted and independent.
Baillien et al. (2009)	Belgian samples from small and medium-sized organizations	Employees who have lower skill in coping with frustrations have higher risk to convert the frustrations into negative behaviors and become perpetrators.
Katrinli et al. (2010)	Turkey nurses	Psychological problems, private life problems, and the need for power of

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
		perpetrators lead to their workplace bullying behaviors.
Mathisen et al. (2011)	Employees and supervisors in Norway restaurants	Low agreeable supervisors tend to engage in workplace bullying.
Hauge et al. (2009)	Norwegian workforce	Individual who are exposed to workplace bullying tend to demonstrate higher involvement in workplace bullying as a perpetrator.
Parkins et al. (2006)	University students in Midwestern university who self-reported the frequency of bullying in the workplace	Individuals with high social dominance orientation (SDO) and low social desirability tend to exhibit higher level of bullying behaviors.

2.3.2.2 Victim Characteristics

In the light of victim's characteristics, prior researches examined the association of five-factor personality traits and bullying victimization in workplace (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2007; Nielsen & Knardahl, 2015). Some authors provided the evidences for self-esteem to predict workplace bullying experience of the victims (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Vartia-Väänänen, 2003). On the other hand, individual with vulnerable personality is likely to be a victim of workplace bullying. Examples of these personalities include high level of domineering, vindictive, cold, socially avoidant, exploitable, overly nurturing, intrusive, and distrustful personality (Glasø, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2009). In addition, some papers identified coping and management skill of individuals as predictors of bullying victimization. For example, a paper conducted by Baillien et al. (2009) was mainly interested in individual's coping skill with frustration in predicting workplace victimization. Table 2.3 provided the summary of bully victim characteristics antecedent.

Previous studies of victimization in cyberbullying proposed the relationship of personal characteristics and workplace cyberbullying experience. Individuals with inferior personal characteristics may be considered as vulnerable person, which could enable them to be bullied. For example, study of Gardner et al. (2016) suggested that employees in New Zealand with poor physical health have a greater risk of being cyber-bullied in the workplace. Cassidy et al. (2014) found that gender differences and racial minority could lead the individuals to become victim in workplace cyberbullying among faculty members in Canadian universities. Besides, the previous studies have focused on negative emotions of the victims. The researchers suggested that the fear and sadness about workplace stressors can easily make them become a victim of cyberbullying (Vranjes et al., 2017). These findings were supported by a paper of Vranjes, Baillien, et al. (2018a). The paper tested the model with Belgium samples in public organizations who work in the high stress environments. According to the study, the respondents tend to emphasize the feeling of fear and sadness about the stressors in workplace and these emotions then lead to the increasing levels of cyberbullying in the workplace (Vranjes, Baillien, et al., 2018a). A study of Heatherington and Coyne (2014) also suggested that vulnerabilities such as feeling of fear, uncertainty, doubt, and lack of assertiveness are the attributes of victims in cyberbullying in the perspective of workers from various sectors. In addition to these emotions, Heatherington and Coyne (2014) pointed out the conflict management skill as a predictors of victim's characteristics in workplace cyberbullying.

Table 2.3 Victim Characteristic Antecedents of Workplace Bullying

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Nielsen and Knardahl (2015)	Norwegian employees	Neurotic employees tend to become victims of workplace bully.
Coyne et al. (2000)	Irish employees	Employees with less independent, less stable, more conscientious and higher extroverted tend to become victims of workplace bully.

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Glasø et al. (2007)	Members of Norwegian associations against bullying at work.	The characteristics of victims in workplace bullying were related to low levels of extrovert, conscientious, agreeableness, openness; and high levels of instability towards emotions.
Matthiesen and Einarsen (2007)	Norwegian leaders and employees	Individuals with lower self-esteem and social competency tend to become victims of workplace bully.
Vartia-Väänänen (2003)	Employees in Helsinki	Lower levels of self-esteem lead to the bullying victimization.
Baillien et al. (2009)	Samples in small and medium organizations in Belgium	Individuals with lower level of coping skill of frustration tend to become victims of workplace bullying.
Glasø et al. (2009)	Norwegian employees	Employees with more domineering, vindictive, cold, socially avoidant, exploitable, overly nurturing, intrusive, and distrustful tend to become victims of workplace bullying.

2.3.3 Organizational Characteristics

In relation to organizational characteristics, researches have showed that the rise of workplace bullying can be affected by 1) leadership and management styles and 2) organizational climate.

2.3.3.1 Leadership Styles

Regarding leadership and management styles, previous studies suggested that some traits of leadership can reduce workplace bullying. Examples of these are ethical leadership, authentic leadership, transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Mills, Keller, Chilcutt, & Nelson, 2019; Stouten, Baillien, Van den Broeck, Camps, & De Witte, 2010). On the other hand, ineffective leadership styles appear to create a higher chance of workplace bullying. Some key examples of ineffective leadership styles are laissez-faire

leadership, passive avoidant leadership, non-contingent punishment leadership, autocratic leadership; unsupportive leadership, and unprofessional styles of leadership (Ciby & Raya, 2014; Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Helge Hoel, Glasø, Hetland, Cooper, & Einarsen, 2010; Nielsen, 2013; Sischka & Steffgen, 2018). The details of leadership and management styles as the antecedents of workplace bullying are provided in the Table 2.4.

In the case of cyberbullying, study on leadership remains limited. Gardner et al. (2016) investigated the effect of ethical leadership and destructive leadership on cyberbullying among respondents in New Zealand; however, the result did not support the relationship between these leaderships styles and workplace cyberbullying, given that the nature of workplace cyberbullying is personally and intangibly harm to others; thus, becomes difficult to identify the negative relation between poor leadership and cyberbullying experiences.

Table 2.4 Leadership and Management Style Antecedent of Workplace Bullying

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Nielsen (2013)	Norwegian seafarers	Laissez-faire leadership predicts a higher level of bullying exposure, victimization and perpetration. Transformational leadership and authentic leadership tend to relate lower level of being exposed to bullying.
Dussault and Frenette (2015)	Samples in Canada	A high level of transformational and transactional leadership explain lower level of workplace bullying. On the other hand, Laissez-faire leadership leads to more workplace bullying.
Mills et al. (2019)	Hospital workers in the Southern United States	Transformational leaders lead to lower levels of bullying activity in workplace.

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Ciby and Raya (2014)	Indian samples in Information Technology organizations.	Autocratic, unsupportive, and unprofessional styles of leadership tend to stimulate workplace bullying.
Sischka and Steffgen (2018)	Employees in United State	Passive avoidant leadership style tends to predict workplace bullying in terms of perpetration; passive avoidant leadership style also moderates the relation between climate of competition and workplace victimization.
Helge Hoel et al. (2010)	Respondents from Great Britain nationwide	Non-contingent punishment leadership style tends to predict exposure to bullying.
(Stouten et al., 2010)	Belgian samples	Ethical leadership tends to predict lower levels of workplace bullying.

2.3.3.2 Organizational Climate

With respect to organizational climate, workplace bullying can be decreased in a good climate such as conflict management climate and social support climate (Baillien et al., 2009; Einarsen, Skogstad, Rørvik, Lande, & Nielsen, 2018). However, number of studies have found that a negative climate such as poor social climate can enhance workplace bullying (Qureshi, Rasli, & Zaman, 2014; Vartiainen, 2003). Moreover, it was reported in previous papers that the stressful climate such as competitive climate, organizational politics, and organizational change can affect workplace bullying (Amponsah-Tawiah & Annor, 2017; Baillien et al., 2009; Naseer, Raja, & Donia, 2016; Salin, 2003a; Sischka & Steffgen, 2018; Skogstad, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2007). The details of organizational climate and workplace bullying relationship are reported in Table 2.5.

Meanwhile, recent studies indicated that poor organization climate and work environments such as the misuse of technology, performance-driven work environment, low-support work environment, organizational change and politics in

workplace can also predict cyberbullying exposure (D'Souza et al., 2018; R. C. Forssell, 2018; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Iftikhar & Beh, 2018). Previous research identified that technology, which is one of the components of organizational climate, can predict the occurrence of cyberbullying among employees in service sectors organization (Iftikhar & Beh, 2018). This research concluded that a unsupportive work environment and a performance-driven work environment promote incentive systems and a competitive culture in the organization can lead to the occurrence of workplace cyberbullying among Nurse in New Zealand (D'Souza et al., 2018). The results among working adults in Sweden offered by R. C. Forssell (2018) suggested that negative social climate in the organization can encourage workplace cyberbullying exposure. For instance, in prior study of Heatherington and Coyne (2014), the authors demonstrated that the climate of organizational politics and the climate of organizational change tend to foster the workplace cyberbullying occurrence. On the other hand, research found that positive climate can prevent the cyberbullying. For example, individuals who work in a positive environment characterized by social influence and supportive climate tend to have less involvement in cyberbullying behaviors (J. Choi & Park, 2019; Y. Choi, 2018; R. C. Forssell, 2018; Gardner et al., 2016; Park & Choi, 2019). According to Y. Choi (2018), Korean workers who are influenced by the subjective and descriptive norms were found to be discouraged from cyberbullying. Research among samples in New Zealand by Gardner et al. (2016) concluded that supportive climate in workplace could reduce the risk of cyberbullying behaviors. The organizational support tends to help individuals minimize the negative feeling towards conflict, which can reduce the causes of bullying. This climate also helps individuals in dealing with the occurrence of bullying behaviors. Furthermore, recent study reported that organizational support can prevent workplace cyberbullying among nurses from various hospitals in South Korea (Park & Choi, 2019). Likewise, it has been supported by a subsequent study of R. C. Forssell (2018) that was conducted in Sweden. In case of women managers, the result shown that a support from colleagues can reduce cyberbullying exposure in the workplace (R. C. Forssell, 2018). More evidence found that relation-oriented organizational culture tends to mitigate cyberbullying behaviors in workplace among nurses in South Korea (J. Choi & Park, 2019).

Table 2.5 Organizational Climate Antecedent of Workplace Bullying

Authors	Research Contexts	Findings
Vartia-Väänänen (2003)	Employees in Helsinki, Finland	A poor social climate and a poor managerial climate are positively correlated with workplace bullying.
Qureshi et al. (2014)	Pakistan samples	Negative organizational climates tend to predict higher workplace bullying.
Einarsen et al. (2018)	Norwegian employees	The climate for conflict management (CCM) tend to relate with lower workplace bullying.
Baillien et al. (2009)	Samples from Dutch-speaking part of Belgium in private organizations	Organizational change tends to promote workplace bullying, on the other hand, Work environment characterized by high social support correlates with lower level of workplace bullying.
Skogstad et al. (2007)	Norwegian employees	Organizational change tends to predict the occurrence of bullying in workplace.
Sischka and Steffgen (2018)	Employees in United State	Competitive climate tends to predict workplace bullying in terms of victimization and perpetration.
Naseer et al. (2016)	Employees in Pakistan.	Organization with higher level of organizational politics and lower level of organizational support tend to have higher workplace bullying.
Salin (2003a)	Business professionals	Organizational politics is positively correlated to bullying in workplace.
Amponsah-Tawiah and Annor (2017)	Samples in Ghana from diverse occupations	Organizational politics tend to predict the occurrence of workplace victimization.

2.4 Workplace Cyberbullying Outcomes

Although the research agenda of cyberbullying in workplace is only in its infancy, there are still some scholars who attempted to explore its adverse outcomes. Similar to the traditional workplace bullying, the effects of workplace cyberbullying can cause detrimental impacts on individuals and organizations (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). For example, research generally showed that cyberbullying cause negative effect on health-related outcomes (Muhonen et al., 2017). Health impacts, particularly in the form of mental and physical (e.g., anxiety, depression, overwhelming stress, as well as mental and emotional exhaustion), are common consequences of workplace cyberbullying (Baruch, 2005; Farley, Coyne, Sprigg, Axtell, & Subramanian, 2015; Hong, Lin, Hwang, Hu, & Chen, 2014; Kopecký & René, 2016). In terms of work-related effects, studies found that cyberbullying can cause job dissatisfaction (Coyne et al., 2017; Gary W. Giumetti, Saunders, Brunette, DiFrancesco, & Graham, 2016; Sprigg et al., 2012). In addition, employees exposed to cyberbullying in workplace tend to develop negative attitudes and behaviors towards their organization (Keskin, Akgün, Ayar, & Kayman, 2016; R. M. Kowalski et al., 2018; Vranjes, Erreygers, Vandebosch, Baillien, & De Witte, 2018). They become less involved in their organization, thereby leads to an increase in turnover intention (Jönsson et al., 2017; Lim & Teo, 2009; Muhonen et al., 2017). Table 2.6 provides a summary of the previous studies of cyberbullying outcomes in the workplace and major findings highlighted to provide the overview of previous effects.

Table 2.6 Outcomes of Workplace Cyberbullying

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
Health-related	Farley et al. (2016)	Emotional exhaustion	Workplace cyberbullying negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
	Farley (2015)	Emotional exhaustion	Workplace cyberbullying could eventually lead to higher levels of emotional exhaustion, respectively.

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
	Hong et al. (2014)	Psychological effects	Employees from manufacturing industry in Taiwan who experienced cyberbullying tended to suffer from psychological impacts such as symptoms of depressions and lack of self-confidence.
	Vranjes, Baillien, Vandebosch, Erreygers, and De Witte (2018b)	Mental well-being	Individuals who exposure to workplace cyberbullying tended to have lower mental well-being in the six months after being bullied.
	Jönsson et al. (2017)	Mental distress / Depression	Working adults in Swedish and US who experienced high levels of cyberbullying tended to have poor psychological well-being in terms of mental distress and depression symptoms.
	R. M. Kowalski et al. (2018)	Depression	Workers in US who have experienced of online bullying tended to develop higher risk of depression.
	Baruch (2005)	Anxiety	Multi-national corporation employees who suffered from email bullying was found to have to higher level of anxiety.
	Snyman and Loh	Stress	White collar employees with

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
	(2015)		experiences workplace cyberbullying tended to have low optimism. The lower levels of optimism could predict higher levels of stress.
	Coyne et al. (2017)	Mental strain	The UK university staffs who exposure to cyber-bully were likely to suffer from mental strain.
	Sprigg et al. (2012)	Mental strain	Workers with higher degree of cyber-bullying experience tended to have a higher level of mental strain.
	Muhonen et al. (2017)	Mental and physical health condition	Cyberbullying behaviors in Swedish working adults had negative effect on mental and physical health condition. The social organizational climate was shown to mediate these indirect relationships.
	Farley et al. (2015)	Mental strain	Intern doctors who experienced cyberbullying tended to have greater risk of mental health problem.
	Nikolić, Čizmić, and Vukelić (2017)	Well-being	Employees who experienced cyberbullying tended to have poor psychological well-being. This relationship was

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
			found to be moderated by perceived organizational support. The lower level of organizational support could worsen the negative impact of cyberbullying on wellbeing.
	Ophoff, Machaka, and Stander (2015)	Emotional well-being	University staffs who exposure to cyber harassment and cyber incivility tended to suffer from negative emotional well-being such as anger, feelings of inferiority, feelings of fear, loss of self-esteem and stress.
	Kopecký and René (2016)	Emotional Impact	Secondary school teachers in the Czech Republic who exposed to cyberbullying had higher tendency to express negative emotions such as anger and sadness.
Work-related	Keskin et al. (2016)	Counter-productive Work Behaviors	Employees who are the victim in cyberbullying were likely to express higher levels of counter-productive work behaviors.
	R. M. Kowalski et al. (2018)	Counter-productive Work Behaviors / Job satisfaction /	Online bullying in workplace could lead to lower job satisfaction,

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
		Turnover	counter-productive work behaviors, increased turnover and absenteeism.
	Sprigg et al. (2012)	Job satisfaction	Workers with higher degree of cyber-bullying experience tended to have a lower level of job satisfaction.
	Snyman and Loh (2015)	Job satisfaction	White collar workers who experienced cyberbullying become less optimism. The lower level of optimism could lead to lower job satisfaction.
	Farley et al. (2015)	Job satisfaction	Trainee doctors who experienced cyberbullying tended to have lower job satisfaction.
	Coyne et al. (2017)	Job satisfaction	Cyberbullying exposure were corelated with less job satisfaction.
	Gary W. Giumetti et al. (2016)	Job satisfaction	Employees who experienced rude and discourteous behaviors in online communication tended to report lower levels of job satisfaction.
	Baruch (2005)	Job satisfaction / Intention to leave	Bullying via email decreases employees' job satisfaction and increases turnover

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
			intention.
	Coyne et al. (2017)	Job satisfaction	The university employees in UK who exposure to cyber-bully tended to have lower job satisfaction.
	Lim and Teo (2009)	Job satisfaction / Organizational commitment / Turnover	Employees in Singapore who experienced workplace cyber incivility tended to have lower job satisfaction, decreased organization involvement, and report more turnover intention.
	Vranjes, Erreygers, et al. (2018)	Work performance	Workplace cyberbullying affected to work performance of the victimized workers.
	Jönsson et al. (2017)	Work engagement / Turnover intention	Cyberbullied working adults in Sweden exhibited lower levels of work engagement and higher intention to quit.
	Muhonen et al. (2017)	Engagement/ Intention to leave	Swedish employees who experienced cyberbullying tend to have lower levels of engagement and develop negative perception about organizational climate. Additionally, a poor organizational climate perception could lead to employees' turnover

Types	Authors	Outcomes	Findings
	Farley (2015)	Engagement	intention. Individuals who experienced the cyberbullying tended to attribute more blame to organization and have higher perception of procedural injustice. These relationships could in turn decrease the levels of engagement in the organization
	Ophoff et al. (2015)	Productivity / Work Environment	University staffs who exposure to cyber harassment and cyber incivility tended to have lower their productivity and be unfavorable working environment.

2.5 Ethical Leadership

Over the past decade, the concept of ethical leadership has increasingly become more prominent in the area of leadership research. Early on, studies of ethical leadership proposed the definition of the term based on philosophical or normative explanations (Ciulla, 2014). Researchers described and prescribed the standards of leader's behaviors with regard to norms and morality (Kanungo & Mendonca, 1996; Minkes, Small, & Chatterjee, 1999). Some subsequent researchers focused on behaviors and characteristics of ethical leaders that influence their subordinates' behaviors such as morality, role-modelling, ethical communication; and rewards for ethical behaviors and punishments for unethical behaviors (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003; Trevino,

Hartman, & Brown, 2000). Although various concepts of ethical leadership have been suggested, this paper bases on the most commonly used definition given by M. E. Brown et al. (2005, p. 120), who described the characteristics of ethical leadership as the “demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to subordinates through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making”. Ethical leadership, therefore, reflects two dimensions included: 1) moral person and 2) moral manager (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Byun, Karau, Dai, & Lee, 2018; Moore et al., 2019; Treviño et al., 2003; Trevino et al., 2000). First, the “moral person” dimension refers to a personal role of leaders to do the right thing. This role is related to personal characteristics pertaining to morality; for example, honesty, integrity, fairness, trustworthiness, altruism and awareness (Byun et al., 2018; Den Hartog, 2015; Moore et al., 2019; Treviño et al., 2003; Trevino et al., 2000). As a moral person, leaders behave and make decisions based on ethical values and serve as a role model to demonstrate appropriate behaviors to their subordinates (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005). Second, the “moral manager” dimension refers to a professional role of managers who promote and manage the ethical values in their organization as well as protecting the interests of the organization and society (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Treviño et al., 2003). A moral manager tends to exercise authority ethically, be responsible and accountable to the interests of his/her subordinates, customers and organization by using a clear communication, rewards for ethical behaviors, and punishments for unethical behaviors (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Byun et al., 2018; David M Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum, & Kuenzi, 2012; Treviño et al., 2003; Trevino et al., 2000).

Much research has been conducted to investigate the impacts of ethical leadership on individual and organization (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Kalshoven, Den Hartog, & De Hoogh, 2011; David M. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009; David M Mayer, Kuenzi, & Greenbaum, 2010; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). At the individual level, ethical leadership leads to more positive effects on attitudes and behaviors of subordinates. For example,

studies found that ethical leaders can encourage person-related outcomes such as pro-social behavior (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Kalshoven et al., 2013; David M Mayer, 2010), ethical behaviors (David M. Mayer et al., 2009); and psychological well-being (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012; Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016; M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; Kalshoven & Boon, 2012). Moreover, ethical leaders are found to enhance the outcomes related to work such as employees' creativity (De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Javed, Khan, Bashir, & Arjoon, 2016); constructive employees' voice (Avey et al., 2012; Chen & Hou, 2015; Qi & Ming-Xia, 2014; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009); work engagement (I. Ahmad & Gao, 2018; Chughtai, Byrne, & Flood, 2015); organizational commitment (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009); Job satisfaction (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Kalshoven et al., 2011; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, & Chonko, 2009); organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (Avey, Palanski, & Walumbwa, 2011; Bonner, Greenbaum, & Mayer, 2014; DeConinck, 2015); employees' performance (Bonner et al., 2014; Piccolo et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Furthermore, ethical leadership discourages negative attributes of individuals including attitudes and behaviors such as emotional exhaustion (Chughtai et al., 2015); deviant behaviors (Hassan et al., 2013; Kalshoven et al., 2011; David M. Mayer et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009); relationship conflict (David M Mayer et al., 2012); organizational politics (K Michele Kacmar, Andrews, Harris, & Tepper, 2013); workplace bullying (Stouten et al., 2010); and turnover intention (DeConinck, 2015; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015).

2.6 Organizational Politics

Extant literature defined organizational politics in different ways. For example, Pfeffer (1981) introduced the concept of organizational politics, in a broad sense, as the use of power and resources by individuals or group of individuals at work to influence others' decision-making in order to achieve their preferred outcomes. In this respect, organizational politics can be considered as a tool for managing conflicts of interest at work, which can lead to the effectiveness of

organization (Pfeffer, 1981). However, G. Ferris et al. (1989, p. 145)'s study focused on organizational politics in a narrow sense as "a social influence process in which behavior is strategically designed to maximize short-term or long-term self-interest, which is either consistent with or at the expense of others' interests". According to this definition, organizational politics is perceived negatively as it refers to someone engaging in self-serving action in the manner of manipulative, offensive, and sometimes even unlawful behaviors in order to promote one's own interests (Drory, 1993; G. Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Throughout this research, I adopted the widely-used definition proposed by Ferris and colleagues, who demonstrated organizational politics as a dysfunctional scenario in which individuals focus on achievement towards their own interests and gaining the advantages at the expense of others.

That being said, organizational politics is subjective and individuals can perceive it differently (G. Ferris et al., 1989). According to G. Ferris, Harrell-Cook, and Dulebohn (2000, p. 90), The perception of organizational politics was considered as "an individual's subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work environment is characterized by coworkers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior". Thus, how others perceive organizational politics is more important than whether it is, in fact, true (G. Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980; Lewin, 1936; Weick, 2015). As explained by K Michele Kacmar and Ferris (1991), the perception of organizational politics can be categorized into three aspects: 1) general political behaviors, which refer to self-serving behaviors to attain the valued outcome 2) go along to get ahead, which refers to the behaviors in which individual(s) refrain from acting in order to maintain the valued outcomes; and 3) pay and promotion policies, which refer to political behaviors conducted through the enactment of policies.

Earlier studies have demonstrated that organizational politics is found to increase negative outcomes such as job stress (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Miller et al., 2008; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010), job distress (Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005), burnout (Basar & Basim, 2016; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Karatepe, Babakus, & Yavas, 2012); interpersonal deviance (Mohsin Bashir, Yousaf, Saqib, & Shabbir, 2019), and turnover intention (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Daskin & Tezer, 2012; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998; Miller et al., 2008; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010; Vigoda, 2000). Relatedly, it

decreases positive characteristics including lower organizational commitment (Chang et al., 2009; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998; Miller et al., 2008; Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun, 2005; Vigoda, 2000); lower job satisfaction (Chang et al., 2009; G. Ferris et al., 2000; K. Michele Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999; Miller et al., 2008; Vigoda, 2000); decreased job involvement (Ram & Prabhakar, 2010); lower organizational citizenship behaviors (Chang et al., 2009; Maslyn & Fedor, 1998); reduced employee performance (Chang et al., 2009; K. Michele Kacmar et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2000; Witt, 1998); and reduced organizational performance (Eisenhardt & Bourgeois, 1988; Zahra, 1987).

2.7 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is described as employees' psychological bonds to their organization, which can reduce their tendency to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 2000; J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991). Drawing on the concept of organizational commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a multi-dimensional construct comprising of three distinctive components: affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment. The authors defined affective commitment as "an emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1)." According to this definition, affective commitment involves the sense of enjoyment as a member, sense of belonging to the organization, willingness to provide more effort on behalf of the organization; and acceptance and internalization of organizational goals and values (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Secondly, continuance commitment is explained as an "awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67)." This term refers to employees' need to continue to work with their organization, which is based on the consideration of costs associated with leaving; namely, the appraisals of personal sacrifice and/or lack of employment alternatives (Allen & Meyer, 1990; J. P. Meyer & Allen, 1991). Thirdly, normative commitment is described as the "employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 1)." Among the three components of commitment, the focus of this paper is on affective commitment, which has been

linked to desirable behaviors and greatest implications for the organizations (J. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Vandenberghe, Bentein, & Stinglhamber, 2004).

Organizational commitment is reported to increase favorable outcomes; for example, higher job performance (Riketta, 2002), greater job satisfaction (Vandenberg & Lance, 1992), more organizational citizenship behaviors (Dalal, 2005), decreased absenteeism (D. Farrell & Stamm, 1988), lower turnover rate (Elanain, 2010; Yücel, 2012) and reduced counterproductive behaviors (Dalal, 2005). On the other hand, studies suggested that organizational commitment is influenced by antecedents such as task autonomy (Dunham, Grube, & Castañeda, 1994), job security (Yousef, 1998), job satisfaction (Yücel, 2012), leader-member exchanges (Nystrom, 1990), distributive justice (Elanain, 2010), and organizational support (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

2.8 Job Burnout

Burnout phenomenon is characterized as a psychological syndrome responding to prolonged exposure towards work-related stresses from both interpersonal relationships at work and emotionally demanding situations (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001; Pines & Aronson, 1988). It is conceptualized in three structures: emotional exhaustion, cynicism and inefficacy (M. P. Leiter & Maslach, 2004; Maslach, 1993; Maslach et al., 2001). Firstly, emotional exhaustion is considered as to be the key element of burnout in one's career. It can be defined as feeling of fatigue or emotionally and physically depleted (M. P. Leiter & Maslach, 2004; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach et al., 2001). Those who feel emotionally exhausted generally develop feeling of tiredness, feeling of emotionally drained and feeling of emotionally used-up due to excessive work stress in long term (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Maslach, 1982). Secondly, cynicism or depersonalization is a cognitive reaction to the demands at workplace by being emotionally and psychologically detached from oneself and/or one's work to increase psychological distance, which can help individuals in dealing with the stressors (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Thirdly, inefficacy is emphasized in term of the reduction of individual's

accomplishment. When current attitudes and work expectation are contradicting, individuals tend to develop ignorance, which could affect one's performance and resulted in incompetency and failure in work achievement (M. Leiter & Maslach, 1988). Based on these existing works, this paper focuses on the emotional exhaustion component which, if sustained over time, can lead to the depersonalization and lack of efficiency at work (M. P. Leiter & Maslach, 2004; Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

In terms of individual outcomes, burnout is found to be resulted in negative psychological reactions such as depression, anxiety and overall poor health condition (Ahola et al., 2005; Peterson et al., 2008). Beside these personal consequences, burnout can cause negative outcomes to the organizations, for example, job dissatisfaction (Charoensukmongkol, Moqbel, & Gutierrez-Wirsching, 2016; Piko, 2006; Shepherd, Tashchian, & Ridnour, 2013), reduced job performance (Parker & Kulik, 1995; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010); increased absenteeism (Wilmar B. Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010); and higher job turnover (Jourdain & Chênevert, 2010; M. Leiter & Maslach, 2009). Previous paper found that burnout is a product of both individual and occupational-related antecedents. For individual level, studies found personality disorders such as narcissism (Schwarzkopf et al., 2016), neuroticism (Bianchi, 2018; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010); low self-esteem (Janssen, Schaufelie, & Houkes, 1999); and big five personality (Bakker, Van Der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006) can cause burnout. In addition to these, occupational antecedent are found to predict job burnout such as high job demands (Demerouti, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Wilmar B. Schaufeli et al., 2009), role conflict and role ambiguity (Schwab & Iwanicki, 1982), interpersonal conflict at work (M. Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Wilmar B Schaufeli & Buunk, 2004), aggressive behavior (Van Dierendonck & Mevissen, 2002), low social support (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana, & Schwartz, 2002; Kalliath & Beck, 2001; Lindblom, Linton, Fedeli, & Bryngelsson, 2006).

2.9 Political Skill

The concept of political skill was initially introduced as a competency required for organizational success (Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981). It refers to the ability to persuade, influence, and control others (Mintzberg, 1983, 1985). The most commonly used definition of political skill was “the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives. (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311; see also G. Ferris et al., 2005, p. 127).” However, this dissertation uses the definition presented by Zellars, Perrewé, Rossi, Tepper, and Ferris (2008), who viewed political skill as an interpersonal style construct that comprise of social astuteness, which allows individual(s) to adapt in response to the demands of different situations with a sincere manner in order to effectively influence others. Based on this description, politically-skilled individuals are those who possess social astuteness and adaptability with the ability to understand and interpret one’s own behaviors and those of others during the social interactions in order to respond appropriately (G. R. Ferris et al., 2005).

G. R. Ferris et al. (2007) classified the effect of political skill into three varying degrees from oneself effect to group effect. At first level, the effect of political skill on oneself takes place within the individuals. This is related to capability to evaluate both people and situations; and as a result, individuals can respond effectively to others, which could lead to a sense of mastery over the situations. Secondly, effect of political skill on others occurs in an interpersonal context as a consequence of one’s self-reaction in the form strategies and tactics (e.g., influencing, networking and building a coalition) to gain trust, confidence and credibility. This effect can subsequently lead to competence impressions and reputation. Thirdly, effect of political skill on group is relate to leaders’ ability to comprehend subordinates’ behaviors in order to encourage, coordinate and control them through the process such as vision establishment, team climate diagnosis, encouraging interaction among group members. These strategies can then lead to favorable behaviors among subordinates as well as group performance effectiveness.

Previous studies found that political skill allows individuals to gain positive outcomes such as job satisfaction (Meisler, 2014; Todd, Harris, Harris, & Wheeler, 2009; Wang & McChamp, 2019), job promotion (Gentry, Gilmore, Shuffler, & Leslie, 2012; Todd et al., 2009), career success (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, 2015; Todd et al., 2009); proactive work behavior (Ejaz, Qurat-ul-ain, & Lacaze, 2017); and job performance (Blickle et al., 2011; Blickle et al., 2009; Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Nikolopoulos, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2011; Munyon et al., 2015). Moreover, political skill may have an indirect effect of mitigating undesirable outcomes in adverse situation. For example, lessening the negative impact of interpersonal conflict on strain and project performance (Meurs, Gallagher, & Perrewé, 2010; L. Zhang & Huo, 2015), weakening the effect of the role overload and strain (P. Perrewé et al., 2005), lessening the effect of workplace stressors (Meisler, Vigoda-Gadot, & Drory, 2017), lowering the effect of perception of political climate on depressive symptoms (Brouer, Ferris, Hochwarter, Laird, & Gilmore, 2006), and moderating the effect of perception of organizational politics on burnout (Yüksel, Bolat, & Bolat, 2016).

2.10 Theory: Emotion Reaction Model

This research utilizes the Emotion Reaction Model (ERM) by Vranjes et al. (2017) as a theoretical framework to explain the hypotheses related to cyberbullying. Vranjes et al. (2017) propose a model to describe the occurrence of workplace cyberbullying from the beginning stage of the events to the stage of exposure. The proposed model is based on constructs that come from Affective Events Theory (AET) by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) and the stress-strain framework used in workplace bullying and emotion regulation strategy by Gross (1998). AET model provides the explanation for emotions at work in micro-level, which indicate that the work-related events tend to elicit emotional reactions, which in turn influence work attitudes and lead to behaviors accordingly (Weiss & Beal, 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Vranjes et al. (2017) perceive AET model as the fuel behind cyberbullying behaviors. However, as noted by Weiss and Beal (2005), the AET model requires further clarification on the processes. As a result, Vranjes et al. (2017)

add more theoretical frameworks in their subsequent work and develop the ERM theory. ERM model further integrates the stress-strain framework, which has been widely used in the studies of workplace bullying. Stress-strain logic describes the relationship of work-related stressors and its effects. Previous studies revealed that dealing with work-related stressors cause negative effects on individuals well-being as well as physical, mental or behavioral strain (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Hurrell Jr, Nelson, & Simmons, 1998). In this sense, cyberbullying can be seen as a strain that is a consequence of stressors in workplace; therefore, Vranjes et al. (2017) adopted stressors-strain framework in to ERM. The ERM model is presented in Figure 2.1.

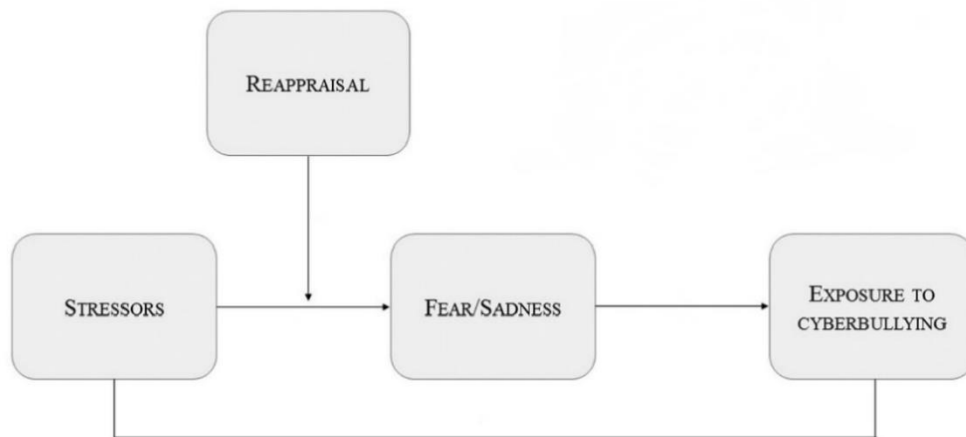


Figure 2.1 ERM Model

According to Vranjes et al. (2017), ERM is consisted of three main factors: 1) workplace stressors, 2) emotional reaction and 3) cyberbullying engagement (strain). Workplace stressors are generally designated as a cause of exposure to workplace cyberbullying (Vranjes et al., 2017; Vranjes, Baillien, et al., 2018a). Workplace stressor that appears in the early stage comprised of three subjects: 1) job-related factors like role overload, role ambiguity, role conflict, 2) team-related factors like leadership, team conflict, and 3) organizational factors like organizational climate and organizational change (Vranjes et al., 2017). Subsequently, emotional reaction is referred to negative feelings (e.g., fear and sadness in victims) that arise in response to workplace stressors; and these negative emotions consequently lead to

workplace cyberbullying victimization (Vranjes et al., 2017). In this sense, the negative emotions are accordingly described as the mediator of workplace stressors-cyberbullying victimization relationship. In other words, negative emotion caused by work-related stressors creates a sense of vulnerability that leads to exposure to cyberbullying in workplace (Balducci et al., 2012).

The ERM framework further pointed out a moderating role of emotions in ERM. According to Gross (1998), the emotion regulation strategy refers to the processes to influence emotional expression. Emotion regulation includes a strategy called reappraisal strategy to regulate the emotions (Gross, 1998). In line with the ERM, reappraisal strategy is perceived as a moderator of stressors-emotion relationship (Vranjes et al., 2017). Reappraisal strategy refers to a cognitive change towards the meaning of situation, which is perceived as antecedent of emotional reaction. This strategy, thus, contributes to the reduction of emotional impact on individuals (Gross, 1998). Although workplace stressors in ERM have a direct effect on negative emotions (e.g., sadness and fear), the model proposed that reappraisal strategy can buffer the effects of stressor on emotional reactions. Through the implementation of reappraisal strategy, one can improve his/her mental wellbeing as it can help increasing positive emotions and alleviating negative emotions (Liu, Prati, Perrewé, & Brymer, 2010). Thus, individuals who use reappraisal strategy tend to have lower fear and sadness towards workplace stressors; and these could lead to lower chance of becoming victims in workplace cyberbullying. On the contrary, those who are unable to reappraise the emotions tend to have higher negative feeling, which makes them susceptible to cyberbullying (Vranjes et al., 2017; Vranjes, Baillien, et al., 2018a).

Since ERM has just been developed recently, the empirical evidence on this model is limited. There are only few publications available in the literature related to workplace cyberbullying victimization (Vranjes, Baillien, et al., 2018a; Vranjes, Erreygers, et al., 2018). The first example is that of Vranjes, Baillien, et al. (2018a), which found that individuals who experience workplace stressors tend to have more fear and sadness. This, in turn, leads to cyberbullying victimization. Moreover, the study suggested that individuals who have appraisal strategy are likely to have lower fear and sadness towards the workplace stressors. Another paper by Vranjes,

Erreygers, et al. (2018) examined the association between emotion regulation strategy and cyberbullying behaviors in adolescents and adults samples; however, the research found no linkage of reappraisal strategy in the proposed relationship.

2.11 Hypothesis Development

2.11.1 Ethical Leadership and Workplace Cyberbullying

Previous studies reported that ethical leadership is positively related to outcomes among the subordinates in several ways; for example, mental wellbeing, moral identity, pro-social behaviors, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006; Chughtai et al., 2015; Haller, Fischer, & Frey, 2018; Zhu, 2008). Moreover, ethical leadership is found to improve stressful environment at work that may lead to misconducts or workplace deviant behaviors. The effects of ethical leadership on subordinates can be explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986). According to the theory, subordinates can learn about ethical behaviors from their leaders through experience and observation (Bandura, 1986; David M Mayer et al., 2012). Indeed, ethical leadership can bring about positive work environment that prevents the rise of workplace stressors.

Firstly, ethical leadership can reduce unethical behaviors, which are one of the main reasons for workplace stressors. To influence subordinates' behaviors, an ethical leader demonstrates the ethical conducts and provide a fair treatment to others. Moreover, an ethical leader can play a key role in setting the ethical standards as well as the reward and punishment in the organization (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Treviño et al., 2003). Previous research showed that such leaders tend to promote the positive characteristics in their subordinates such as moral reasoning and prosocial motivation (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; Cleek & Leonard, 1998; Singhapakdi, Vitell, & Franke, 1999; Stouten et al., 2010). From social learning perspective, an ethical leader tends to signal appropriate behaviors so that his/her subordinates can learn and subsequently regulate their behaviors in accordance with ethical values. In this respect, the subordinates are likely to refrain from engaging in unethical behaviors; therefore, encouragement of ethical leadership tends to diminish work stressors and aggression, which subsequently result in lowered workplace cyberbullying.

Secondly, ethical leadership can reduce job-related stressors such as high workload and low job control by creating a favorable working environment. Ethical leaders communicate to their subordinates through two-way communication, which allows leaders to gain feedback and expectations from their subordinates in order to improve the working conditions (Stouten et al., 2010). Furthermore, previous evidences suggested that an ethical leader tends to provide job autonomy and fairness of work distribution that allow subordinates to have controls over their works, to make decisions by themselves, and to reduce work overload (M. E. Brown et al., 2005; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2008; Stouten et al., 2010). These practices of ethical leaders allow the organization to have a more collaborative and low-stress working environment in which the subordinates are motivated to develop good interpersonal relationship with one another. In line with social learning theory, the subordinates can learn from their leader's efforts and act accordingly. As a result, the positive working environments contribute to subordinates' sense of meaning at work as they feel more competent and feeling useful at work, which lead to subordinates' self-efficacy and to fulfill subordinates' needs (Rantika & Yustina, 2017; Teimouri, Hosseini, & Ardeshiri, 2018; Zhu, 2008). In this view, ethical leader is a crucial factor in lower work stressors and increase in subordinates' well-being which can lower the chance of workplace cyberbullying.

To minimize workplace stressors, ethical leaders tend to foster positive work environments where subordinates can satisfy their expectations and discourage improper conducts among members in the organization. According to this point, ethical leadership is expected to lower workplace cyberbullying by means of establishing a positive work environment inhibiting work stressor (M. E. Brown et al., 2005). Previous researches reported that ethical leadership is negatively associated with workplace bullying (Holland, 2019; Islam, 2019; Stouten et al., 2010). A study also demonstrated the indirect effect of ethical leadership on workplace bullying via interactional justice at work (S. Ahmad, 2018). In addition to workplace bullying, a number of studies have confirmed the negative relationship between ethical leadership and subordinates' deviant behaviors such as misconducts and workplace incivility (David M Mayer et al., 2010) (Mo & Shi, 2017; Taylor & Pattie, 2014;

Walsh, Lee, Jensen, McGonagle, & Samnani, 2018; Young, Hassan, & Hatmaker, 2019). Considered all the empirical evidences, I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1: Ethical leadership is negatively related to workplace cyberbullying.

2.11.2 Organizational Politics and Workplace Cyberbullying

In this project, I proposed that the association between organizational politics and cyberbullying victimization can be described by the ERM framework. Previous studies have recognized organizational politics as a stressor in the workplace, which can cause unfavorable consequences (Brouer et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2009; G. Ferris et al., 1989; P. Perrewé, Rosen, & Maslach, 2012). To access the limited resources (e.g. status, career growth, power), competitions are inevitable in the organizations (G. Ferris et al., 1989; K Michele Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Morgan, 1997). Thus, organizational politics is perceived as hindrance impeding individuals' personal goals and career achievements (Chang et al., 2009; P. Perrewé et al., 2012). Being harmful to the individual growth, stressors such as this generally lead to feeling of threat, anxiety, and apprehensiveness (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; LePine, Podsakoff, & LePine, 2005; Wallace, Edwards, Arnold, Frazier, & Finch, 2009). Consequently, individuals feel that they are unable to control the situations and this feeling brings about fear (Lerner & Keltner, 2001; Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'connor, 1987). Once developed, fear makes one feels more vulnerable, which affects the likelihood of becoming a victim of workplace cyberbullying. In other words, individuals who are fearful of organizational politics are likely to become cyber-victims in workplace.

To my knowledge, no previous study has examined the effect of politics on cyberbullying behaviors; however, there are some prior studies on tradition workplace bullying that have some similar characteristics to workplace cyberbullying. For instance, Salin (2003a) found that workplace bullying is influenced by perception of organizational politics among business professionals in Finland. Similarly, Mohsin Bashir et al. (2019) studied Pakistani employees and revealed that individuals in highly political organization tend to experience more interpersonal deviances in the workplace. Moreover, Amponsah-Tawiah and Annor (2017) found that organizational politics is positively related to workplace victimization among employees in Ghana. These views supported the research of Vartia (1996), who found that a highly

competitive climate, where individuals act in line with their own interests, puts individuals at risk of victimization in workplace bullying. As a result, individuals who experience organizational politics in their workplace are more likely to become victims of workplace cyberbullying. Following this logic, I hypothesized as follow:

Hypothesis 2: Organizational politics is positively related to workplace cyberbullying.

2.11.3 Ethical Leadership and Organizational Politics

Existing literature suggested that ethical leadership is a prominent factor shaping the working environments (M. E. Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Jha & Singh, 2019; Stouten et al., 2010). Especially, ethical leadership shapes the environment to promote ethical behaviors and prohibits misconducts in the workplace. On the other hand, organizational politics mainly focuses on self-interests, unfair behaviors, and manipulations. In this sense, politics could be perceived as one of the unethical behaviors that is unfavorable for organizations. Ethical leaders should signal to their subordinates to discourage political behaviors in the organization; thereby making the subordinates then learn to act ethically.

Equally important, ethical leadership can establish the working environment that promote fairness in the workplace. The sense of fairness in ethical leadership could minimize stressful situations in workplace. This can be seen when an ethical leader provides treatments in the way that is fair to subordinates, such as supporting subordinates' goals, managing resource allocations fairly, providing more job autonomy, as well as reinforcing rewards and punishments for behaviors. These could lead to the perception of fairness and supportive environment. The subordinates, consequently, find no need to resort to organizational politics to pursue their expectations and goals in this organization.

Ethical leadership is, therefore, believed to reduce subordinates' perception of organizational politics in the workplace. This view is supported by K Michele Kacmar et al. (2013), who found that ethical leadership is negatively associated with the perception of organizational politics among employees in the United States while Asnakew and Mekonnen (2019) suggested that unethical leadership is positive related to subordinates' perception of organizational politics and perception of injustice

among employees of public organizations in Ethiopia. Based on the evidences presented, I generated a hypothesis that:

Hypothesis 3: Ethical leadership is negatively related to organizational politics.

2.11.4 Organizational Politics as a Mediator

It is possible to propose that ethical leadership is negatively related to the exposure to workplace cyberbullying via lower perception of organizational politics. This view is supported by previous studies. For example, Asnakew and Mekonnen (2019) found that the effect of ethical leadership on subordinates' deviant behaviors is mediated by the perception of organizational politics. K Michele Kacmar et al. (2013) also reported that organizational politics can mediate the relationships between ethical leadership and co-workers' helping behaviors. Comparatively, these findings are also supported by researches that emphasized the role of politics as the mediator in leadership styles and subordinates' behavioral outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, performance and organization citizenship behavior (Islam, ur Rehman, & Ahmed, 2013; Saleem, 2015; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Thus, this leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying is mediated through organizational politics.

2.11.5 Workplace Cyberbullying and Outcomes

Previous studies indicated that being a target in the stressful environment triggers negative emotional responses such as fear, anger, anxiety and distress (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Watson & Clark, 1984). These negative emotions, in turn, affect various outcomes such as depression, burnout, less job satisfaction, lower commitment, and turnover intention. Given that cyberbullying is one of the stressful environments at work, this research proposes that exposure to workplace cyberbullying can cause adverse outcomes to the victims such as lower commitment and job burnout. Individuals who are exposed to cyberbullying are more likely to have negative emotional reactions towards the stressors; and subsequently are more likely to develop emotional exhaustion (Gary W Giumetti et al., 2013). Additionally, those who react negatively when a stressful event occurs at work exhibit lower emotional

attachment towards their organization (McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2006).

Recent reviews of the literature showed that cyberbullying victimization is linked to lower organizational commitment (Jönsson et al., 2017; Lim & Teo, 2009; Muhonen et al., 2017; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). For example, the research of McCormack and colleagues found that exposure to workplace bullying negatively related to organizational affective commitment among employees in education sector in China (McCormack et al., 2006; McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2009). Furthermore, Courcy, Morin, and Madore (2019) found that exposure to psychological violence at work is negatively correlated to commitment among employees university in North America. Yuksel and Tunçsiper (2011) showed a negative effect between mobbing and organizational commitment among hospital employees in Turkey.

With regards to burnout, Farley et al. (2016) demonstrated that workplace cyberbullying is significantly associated with emotional exhaustion among samples from different settings. Similarly, the studies of workplace incivility have found that civility in online context increases the feeling of emotional exhaustion (Gary W Giumetti et al., 2013; Gary W Giumetti, McKibben, Hatfield, Schroeder, & Kowalski, 2012; Heischman, Nagy, & Settler, 2019). Moreover, studies in offline context found that workplace bullying is usually resulted in emotional exhaustion (Bass et al., 2016; Neto, Ferreira, Martinez, & Ferreira, 2017; Rossiter & Sochos, 2018). Based on the above discussion, I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 5: Workplace cyberbullying is negatively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6: Workplace cyberbullying is positively related to burnout.

2.11.6 Political Skill as a Moderator

In the light of the ERM framework, the outcomes of stress-strain relationship can be modified by the adoption of reappraisal strategies, which refer to individuals' cognitive evaluation to change the emotional reactions in the positive way (Vranjes et al., 2017). These strategies are designed to cope with individuals' negative emotions

towards stressors and to increase the positive emotions, which lead to positive outcomes in terms of well-being and social functioning such as more self-esteem (Vranjes et al., 2017). In this sense, political skill appears to be a form of reappraisals to effectively tackle and alter the stressful environment. Previous studies found that political skill enables individuals to experience less strain when confronting with the stressors (P. L. Perrewé et al., 2004). Politically-skilled individuals demonstrate skills; namely, understanding and influencing towards others, which result in them being able to function, manage and control in the interaction process and outcome (G. R. Ferris et al., 2005; P. Perrewé, Ferris, Frink, & Anthony, 2000).

2.11.6.1 A Moderator between Organizational Politics and Cyberbullying Victimization

In the relationship between organizational politics and cyberbullying victimization, politically-skilled individuals are more likely to reappraise and decrease negative emotional reactions, which in turn reduce the likelihood that individuals will be exposed to cyberbullying than those with lower political skill. For example, politically-skilled individuals may consider the situation then attempt to treat organizational politics as non-threatening event. Accordingly, individuals with more political skill may perceive that organizational politics pose no threat to them, and in turn, reduce the propensity of being exposed to cyberbullying. Previous studies have revealed that political skill serve as an antidote to stressful environment at work (P. Perrewé et al., 2000; P. Perrewé et al., 2005). For example, Rosen and Levy (2013) that political skill moderated perceived politics and job strain relationship. Yüksel et al. (2016) found that political skill moderated the positive effect of organizational politics and job burnout among employees in five-star hotels in Turkey. This is supported by Brouer et al. (2006), who discovered that the relationship between political climate at work and depression symptoms was moderated by political skill. Furthermore, Gallagher and Laird (2008) found that political skill serves as a moderator between political decision making and job satisfaction association among managerial employees in financial sector. Moreover, K Michele Kacmar et al. (2013) demonstrated that political skill moderates the impact of the perceptions of organizational politics on work-related outcomes state employees in the southern states of the US. It can, then, be reasonably assumed that:

Hypothesis 7: The relationship between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying is moderated by political skill. The effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying will be lower for individuals with higher political skill than those with lower political skill.

2.11.6.2 Moderator between Cyberbullying Victimization and Individual Outcomes

According to the ERM, being a victim of workplace cyberbullying leads to negative emotional responses, which in turn lead to adverse outcomes towards both individuals and organization. Considering political skill as a reappraisal strategy, victims from cyberbullying can utilize this strategy in different ways to alter job strain. To illustrate, politically-skilled victims can adjust themselves according to situational needs better than less politically-skilled victims (Kimura, 2015). Additionally, the politically-skilled victims will be able to express themselves as being more impressive and heartfelt in order to cultivate good image among others than the non-skilled victims (Schuette et al., 2015). Further, the politically-skilled victims can also enhance their social resources by excelling in work-related performance in order to gain rewards and others beneficial outcomes better than the non-skilled victims (Bentley, Treadway, Williams, Gazdag, & Yang, 2017). By utilizing their political skill, victims will be able to reduce negative feelings from victimization, which, in turn, leads to a reduction of job strain. Previous paper found that aggression in workplace and negative psychological effects could be moderated by political skill among nurses (Zhou, Yang, & Spector, 2015). It can, thus, be hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 8: The negative effect of workplace cyberbullying on organizational commitment will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.

Hypothesis 9: The effect of workplace cyberbullying on burnout will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill

All hypotheses are presented in the conceptual model as shown in Figure 2.2 They are also summarized in Table 2.7.

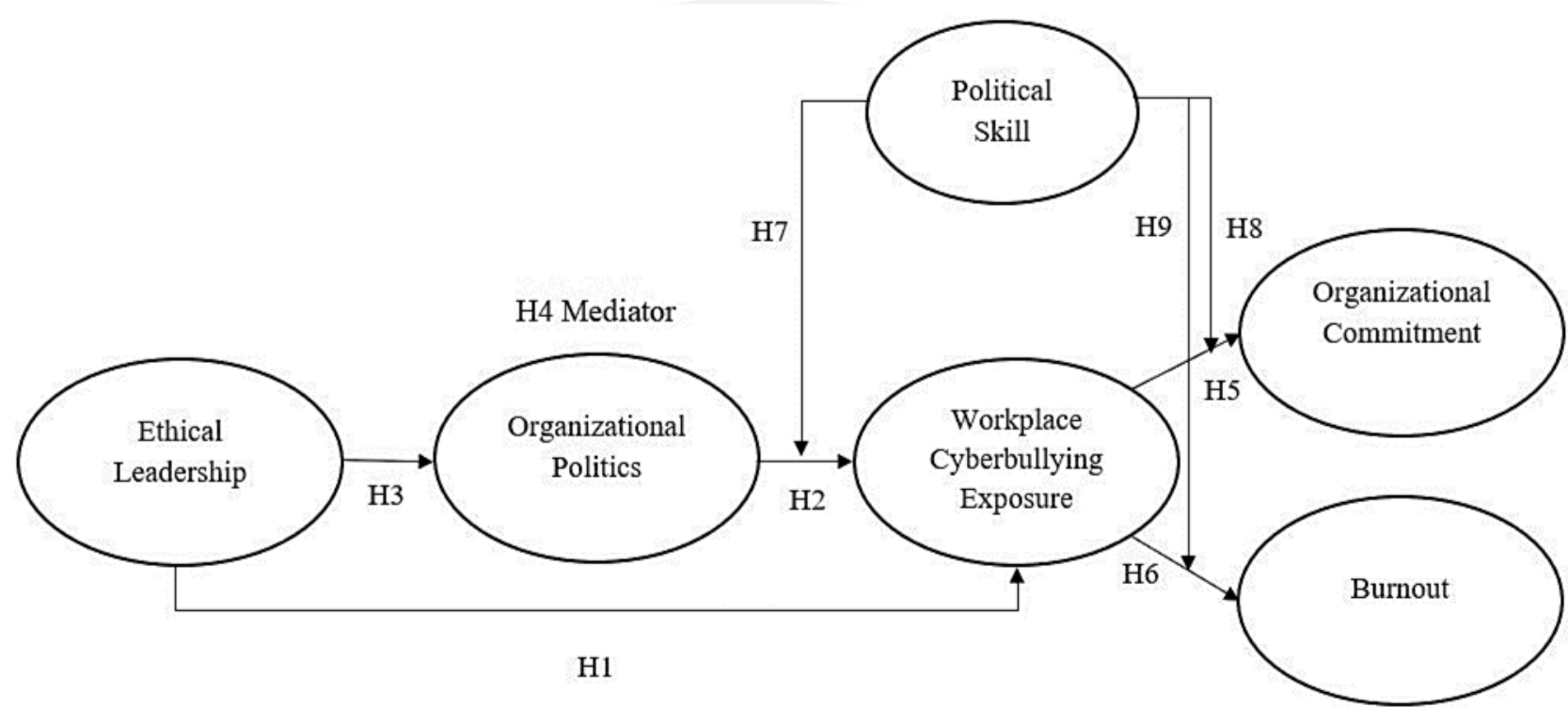


Figure 2.2 Conceptual Model

Table 2.7 The Summary of Research Hypothesis

Hypothesis	
H1	Ethical leadership is negatively related to workplace cyberbullying.
H2	Organizational politics is positively related to workplace cyberbullying.
H3	Ethical leadership is negatively related to organizational politics.
H4	The relationship between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying is mediated through organizational politics.
H5	Workplace cyberbullying is negatively related to organizational commitment.
H6	Workplace cyberbullying is positively related to burnout.
H7	The positive effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.
H8	The negative effect of workplace cyberbullying on organizational commitment will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.
H9	The positive effect of workplace cyberbullying on burnout will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Context

This study focuses on employees in a Thai educational institution. The research is conducted in the context of a medium-sized public university in Thailand. The university has two main campuses located in urban and rural area. The researcher chose this university because it is one of the leading universities in Thailand with more than 25,000 students and approximately 3,000 faculty members and 2,700 non-academic staffs. The university composes of mainly 21 faculties and colleges. The university offers degrees in bachelor's, master's and doctoral levels in several areas of study such as social science, health science as well as engineering and technology science.

In particular, this university is a suitable case to study about workplace cyberbullying because it has adopted a computer-mediated communication into working process, which may open the opportunity for cyberbullying to happen. Previous studies have shown that employees in educational institution such as academics, educators and administrators were exposed to cyberbullying (Blizard, 2016; Cassidy et al., 2014, 2017). The use of computer-mediated communication can also encourage the emergence of cyberbullying due to lack of social cues for meaningful comprehensions as well as reducing the face-to-face engagement between individuals (Favotto, Michaelson, & Davison, 2017). In recent years, the university has adopted the Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP), which is a technological-based system in order to manage the resources efficiently and improve academic services. It is convenient for staffs and students as it allows them to obtain a work-related information promptly by using office devices or personal devices. This, consequently, promotes computer-mediated communication in the organization. Thus, the employees in this university are familiar with using online communication in their

professional lives in order to manage and develop teaching and educational services. Previous research in higher education context found that online interactive communication can lead to intimidating behaviors in terms of cyberbullying (Piotrowski & King, 2016), this makes the university employees suitable for our investigation as they may affect the study.

3.2 Sample Selection

3.2.1 Sample Selection

The targeted samples in this study were drawn from full-time academics (e.g., lecturers and researchers) and non-academics (e.g., secretaries and administrators), who have worked for the university for at least 6 months. The sampling frame of this study comprised of 2,439 university employees. In terms of sampling process, this research applied probability sampling methodology. In particular, a stratified sampling method was used (Kalton, 1983). Firstly, the samples were stratified into 15 strata related to faculties and departments including: 1) Humanities, 2) Social Science, 3) Business and Economics, 4) Education, 5) Fine Arts, Media and Creative Industries, 6) Hospitality and Tourism, 7) Science, 8) Medicine, 9) Pharmacy, 10) Dentistry, 11) Sport and Physical Science, 12) Engineering, 13) Agriculture, 14) Nurse, 15) Graduate School, and 16) Central administration offices. All employees in these strata were invited to participate in the survey.

3.2.2 Sample Size

The sample size was calculated by a simplified formula by Yamane (1967) as the following equation:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

where n is a sample size and N is a population, which is approximately 2,439 academic and non-academic staffs and 'e' refer to margin of error. Let level of precision is 95% confident level, thus $e=0.05$ and $N=2,439$.

$$n = \frac{2,439}{1 + 2,439(0.05)^2}$$

By using Yamane's formula, a sampling frame of 2,439 was delegated into 344 samples of academic and non-academic staffs from 16 faculties and department.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

Initially, I contacted the representatives of each faculties and departments to ask their staffs for the participation in the survey. The data collection procedure in this research was self-administered survey method (Bryman & Bell, 2015). This method is useful for gathering a large sample size during a short time. Moreover, it is convenient for the respondents to answer the questions without the pressure of time limit. Furthermore, the nature of the questions emphasized on a sense of anonymity, which allowed the respondents to feel free to response truly. Lastly, the self-administered surveys are supposed to suffer lower bias from the interviewer.

Before distributing the survey, I asked for a permission from the president of the selected university to distribute the questionnaires packages to the employees in each faculty. After the permission is granted, I informed the dean/vice-dean or supervisor of each faculty and department to arrange for the time for survey distribution. The surveys were distributed to each faculty and departments at their office buildings. The survey should take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

A survey packet included the questionnaires with a cover letter and a return envelope. The cover letter provided the research objectives, and a return envelope is attached to the questionnaire to ensure the privacy of the respondents. Moreover, the participants were informed of their rights to participate in this research is voluntary. They did not need to participate if they did not want to. There was no question asking about the identity of the respondents and their department. They were also guaranteed that the data will be kept confidentially. Moreover, the questionnaires and the data will be permanently destroyed within one year after the research is completely done. In order to make the respondents feel secured and comfortable to answer the survey. The respondents can complete it at their convenience. They were also told that they can skip answering the questions that they do not wish to answer or feel

uncomfortable to answer. Moreover, they were informed that they can withdraw from the survey at any point without informing the researcher. In addition, this research offered two forms of the questionnaires: 1) paper-based ones and 2) web-based ones. First, the participants would receive paper-based questionnaires with a QR code provided in the cover page as an alternative for those respondents who are concerned about confidentiality and anonymity. These could protect and promote the openness for the respondents (Hewson, Laurent, & Vogel, 1996). The participants were not compensated for their participation. However, to encourage the responses, I proposed that I would be giving a donation of 10 Baht to Phra Bat Nam Phu Temple for each of the response I receive in this survey. The participants were given 3 days to return the questionnaires as I brought in a secured container to receive the questionnaires back from the participants.

3.4 Questionnaire Development

This research adapts preexisted questions from previous research due to the three obvious advantages from using such questions. For instance, the existing scales are more trustworthy because the validity and reliability has been confirmed in prior research (Hyman, Lamb, & Bulmer, 2006). Second, the results are more easily to be compared with other researches that adopt the same questions (Meadows, 2003). Lastly, it is time efficient to use existing questions (Hyman et al., 2006). The questions were first translated into Thai and subsequently using back-translation method by a native English speaker, who is also fluent in Thai, to ensure the accuracy of the meaning of the survey (Brislin, 1970).

3.5 Measurement

The first section of the survey includes the questions relating to demographics and work characteristics of the respondents, which include age, gender, education, employment status, and job position. The second part of the survey contains the questions about the usage of cyber applications in their professional life. The third part contains the questions about exposure to workplace cyberbullying with the

definition of cyberbullying included, perception of organizational politics, perception of ethical leadership, organizational commitment, job burnout and political skill.

3.5.1 Cyberbullying Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ)

Exposure to cyberbullying is measured by a shorter version of Cyberbullying Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ) developed by Jönsson et al. (2017). The CBQ is consisted of 20 items related to online bullying behaviors. The questionnaire also tapped on how often individuals experience cyberbullying over the last six months. The variables are constructed in 5-point scales ranging from never to daily (1 = never, 2 = now and then, 3 = monthly, 4 = weekly, 5 = daily), which includes the questions as follows:

Table 3.1 Cyberbullying Questions

Cyberbullying
1. Your supervisor/colleagues are not responding to your e-mails or text messages.
2. Your work performance has been commented upon in negative terms on the Internet.
3. Rude messages have been sent to you via digital media.
4. Persistent criticism of your work or performance has been made against you via digital media.
5. Necessary information has been withheld making your work more difficult (e.g. being excluded from e-mail lists).
6. Aggressively worded messages (e.g. capital letters, bold style or multiple exclamation marks) have been sent to you via e-mail, text messages or the like.
7. Threatening personal messages have been sent to you via digital media.
8. Allegations about you have been made on the Internet.
9. Threatening messages about your friends/your family have been sent to you via digital media.
10. Others have commented on the Internet that you should quit your work.
11. Attacks against you as a person, your values or your personal life have been made on digital media.

Cyberbullying

12. Your computer identity has been hijacked.
 13. Gossip or rumors about you have been spread on the Internet.
 14. Extracts from your messages have been copied so that the meaning of the original message is distorted.
 15. Offensive photos/videos of you have been posted on the Internet.
 16. Jokes about you have been spread on the Internet or via e-mail to several recipients.
 17. Viruses have intentionally been sent to your e-mail address.
 18. Your mistakes or errors at work are repeatedly commented about in e-mails, text messages, or the like.
 19. False statements about you have been spread on the Internet.
 20. Colleagues have excluded you from the social community online (e.g. Facebook, Twitter).
-

3.5.2 Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS)

Ethical leadership is measured by Ethical Leadership Scale (ELS) developed by M. E. Brown et al. (2005). The questionnaire included 10 statements in a form of 5-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The questions are as follow:

Table 3.2 Ethical Leadership Questions

Ethical Leadership

1. Conducts his/her personal life in an ethical manner.
2. Defines success not just by results but also by the way that they are obtained.
3. Listens to what employees have to say.
4. Disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.
5. Makes fair and balanced decisions.
6. Can be trusted.
7. Discusses business ethics or values with employees.
8. Sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics.

Ethical Leadership

9. Has the best interest of employees in mind.
 10. When making decisions, asks “what is the right thing to do?”
-

3.5.3 Organizational Politics Scale

Organizational politics is measured by Perception of Organizational Politics scale (POPs) proposed by Vigoda-Gadot and Talmud (2010), which was modified from the POPs scale of K Michele Kacmar and Carlson (1997). The scale was developed to investigate the organizational politics in the public university. The scale was derived from 12 statement measuring the level of organizational politics using 7-point scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The questions are as follow:

Table 3.3 Organizational Politics Questions

Organizational Politics

1. Favoritism, rather than merit, determines who gets ahead in this university.
2. There is no place for yes-men in this university: Good ideas are desired, even when it means disagreeing with superiors.
3. Faculty members are encouraged to speak out frankly, even when they are critical of well-established ideas.
4. There has always been an influential group of faculty members in this university that no one ever crosses.
5. Faculty members here usually don't speak up for fear of retaliation by others.
6. Rewards come only to those faculty members who work hard in this university.
7. Promotions in this university generally go to top performers.
8. Faculty members in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.
9. I have seen changes made in policies of this university that only serve the purposes of a few faculty members, not the faculty or the university.
10. There is a group of faculty members in this university who always get things their way because no one wants to challenge them.

Organizational Politics

11. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or a promotion that was inconsistent with the university's published policies.
 12. Since I have worked in this university, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically.
-

3.5.4 Organizational Commitment Scale

Organizational Commitment is measured by affective commitment scale items from Allen and Meyer's Organizational Commitment Scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The scale is comprised of 6 items in a form of 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to measure the affective aspect of organizational commitment as the questions included:

Table 3.4 Organizational Commitment Questions

Organizational Commitment

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
 2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
 3. I do not feel like 'part of my family' at this organization.
 4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.
 5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
 6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization.
-

3.5.5 Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS)

Burnout is measured Emotional Exhaustion (EE) subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Survey (MBI-GS) (W. Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). The EE sub-scale includes a seven-point scale to answer the frequency towards the burnout experience, ranging from 0 indicates "never", and 6 indicates "every day." The EE subscale questionnaire consists of 5 items:

Table 3.5 Burnout Questions

Burnout
1. I feel ‘burned out’ from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the day.
3. I feel emotionally drained by my work.
4. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
5. Working all day is really a strain for me.

3.5.6 Political Skill Inventory (PSI)

Political Skill is measured by the Abbreviated Political Skill Inventory of Bolander, Saturnino, Hughes, and Ferris (2015), which is adapted from Political Skill Inventory (PSI) developed by G. R. Ferris et al. (2005). The scale is composed of 12 items with Likert scale, which is ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The scale involves the dimensions of political skill including social astuteness, inter-personal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity. The questions are provided as follows:

Table 3.6 Political Skill Questions

Political Skill
1. I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agenda of others.
2. I understand people very well.
3. I have good intuition and am savvy about how to present myself to others.
4. I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.
5. I am good at getting people to like me.
6. It is easy for me to develop good rapport with most people.
7. I am good at building relationships with influential people at work.
8. I am good at using my connections and network to make things happen at work.
9. I spend a lot of time at work developing connections with others.
10. I try to show a genuine interest in other people.
11. It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do.

Political Skill

 12. When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.

3.6 Control Variable

Control variables are extraneous variables that have no significant association with hypotheses testing and its related theories; however, it is considered as confounding variable that may affect the dependent variable in the study (Carlson & Wu, 2012; Newcombe, 2003). The set of control variables that could provide alternative explanations to cyberbullying exposure and the associated outcomes of university staffs are included in the analysis. These variables should be evaluated in this research because they might have effect on the explanation of dependent variables. This study controls for gender, age, education, job tenure, job employment, job type, and the scope of usage for the computer-mediated communication (CMC) platform.

3.7 Estimation Method

This study uses a Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) technique in order to analyze the results. PLS-SEM is a widely accepted method which provide the useful method such as multiple regression analysis, path analysis and structural equation modelling (Hammer & Niamir, 1979, May). It has been broadly used in social science research such as marketing (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Joe F Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011), management (Richter, Cepeda, Roldán, & Ringle, 2015), and human resources (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). This study chooses to employ a PLS-SEM analysis since it can concurrently analyze multiple hypotheses with a single or multiple-item measurement. Furthermore, it can measure formative and reflective scales; and it does not require the data to be normally distributed (Chin, Marcolin, & Newsted, 2003; Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000; Joe F Hair et al., 2011). Finally, it requires a smaller sample size than other SEM analytical techniques (Joe F Hair et al., 2011).

CHAPTER 4

RESULT

4.1 Data

In this chapter, I focus on analyzing and presenting the collected data in a meaningful way in order to facilitate a discussion for the subsequent chapter. This chapter presents the characteristics of data in three sections. The first section describes the basic demographic characteristics of the respondents in the sample. Then, the second section emphasizes the information required for data preparation and analysis. Lastly, the results from hypothesis testing are presented.

For data analysis, a total of 358 self-administered surveys were received from the targeted 370 potential respondents, which constitutes a 96.7% response rate. Specifically, out of the 358 respondents, 253 (70.7%) were from the paper-based survey and 105 (29.3%) were from the online survey. Meanwhile, 91.9% (n=329) of these respondents have completed all the questions and met the requirement for this research, which was previously specified in Chapter 3. Among all the responses, only 29 responses were unusable. Little and Rubin (2019) suggested the missing data to be replaced by the column mean if the missing values are less than 10% of the total respondents. As a result, the missing values in this study were filled with mean column values.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic profiles of the respondents are presented, including gender, age, education, job tenure, employment, and job types. Moreover, demographic characteristics associated with technological usage are reported including the scope of CMC platform usage, CMC platform, access devices and frequency of usage to design the interventions to address this maladaptive behavior and prevent the consequences

of cyberbullying. In this research, majority of the respondents are female ($n = 245$, 68.4%) while 31.6% of the respondents are male. Majority of the respondents have a bachelor's degree ($n = 137$, 38.3%), followed by doctoral degree ($n = 109$, 30.4%), master's degree ($n = 89$, 24.9%) and below bachelor's degree ($n = 14$, 3.9%). For employment, most of the respondents were university employees ($n = 342$, 95.5%) and few are government officer ($n = 16$, 4.5%). In terms of job types, 210 (58.7%) are non-academic staffs while 148 of them (41.3%) are academic staffs. The demographic characteristics are presented in the Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 The Main Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	245	68.4%
	Male	113	31.6%
Education	Below bachelor's	14	3.9%
	Bachelor's	137	38.3%
	Master's	89	24.9%
	Doctoral	109	30.4%
Employment	University employees	342	95.5%
	Government officer	10	2.8%
Job type	Non-academic	148	41.3%
	Academic	210	58.7%

The average age of respondents is 39.41 years old ($SD = \pm 8.17$); the youngest employee being 23 years old while the oldest employee is 65 years old. For job tenure, the average tenure is 10.62 years ($SD = \pm 7.55$) ranging between 1 to 32 years. With regard to scope of CMC platform usage, the average was 2.8 platforms ($SD = \pm 1.31$). Age, work tenure, and platform usage are reported in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 The Age, Job Tenure, Scope of CMC Platform Usage of the Respondents

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	23	65	39.41	8.17
Job tenure	1	32	10.62	7.55
Scope of CMC platform usage	1	6	2.8	1.31

There were 40 (11.2%) respondents from central administration offices; 34 (9.5%) from Faculty of Fine Arts, Media and Creative; 20 (5.6%) from Faculty of Humanities; 20 (5.6%) from Faculty of Engineering; 19 (5.3%) from Faculty of Medicine; 19 (5.3%) from Faculty of Agriculture; 19 (5.3%) from Faculty of Social Sciences; 17 (4.7%) from Faculty of Business and Economics; 17 (4.7%) from Faculty of Sport and Physical Science; 15 (4.2%) from Faculty of Pharmacy; 13 (3.7%) from Faculty of Education; 9 (2.5%) from Faculty of Dental Medicine; 6 (1.7%) from Graduate School; 4 (1.1%) from Faculty of Science; and 1 (0.3%) from Faculty of Nursing. However, there are 105 (29.3%) responses from the online survey which did not specify the faculty. The breakdowns of faculty and department are presented in the Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 The Faculty and Department of the Respondents

Faculty/Department	Frequency	Percentage
Central administration	40	11.2%
Fine Arts, Media and Creative	34	9.5%
Humanities	20	5.6%
Engineering	20	5.6%
Medicine	19	5.3%
Agriculture	19	5.3%
Social Sciences	19	5.3%
Business and Economics	17	4.7%
Sport and Physical	17	4.7%
Pharmacy	15	4.2%

Faculty/Department	Frequency	Percentage
Education	13	3.7%
Dental Medicine	9	2.5%
Graduate School	6	1.7%
Science	4	1.1%
Nursing	1	0.3%
Not Specify	105	29.3%

The six webs and social network applications are reported by respondents as their common digital channels. The most used channel is Line application, which are reported by 336 (93.8%) respondents, followed by Email at 265 (74%), Facebook at 236 (65.9%), Instagram at 68 (19%), YouTube at 67 (18.7%), and Twitter at 32 (8.9%). Regarding the preferred devices, the most popular on is mobile phone (96.6%). In terms of time spent online per day, 142 (39.7%) respondents reported that they spend more than four hours daily online, 99 (27.6%) reported that they spend about one to two hours per day. The summary of channels, devices and time spent are reported in Table 4.4 below:

Table 4.4 The Summary of Channels, Devices and Time Use

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Channels</u>		
Line	336	93.8%
Email	265	74%
Facebook	236	65.9%
Instagram	68	19%
YouTube	67	18.7%
Twitter	32	8.9%
<u>Devices</u>		
Mobile Phone	346	96.6%
Desktop Computer	176	49.2%
Notebook Computer	98	27.4%

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Tablets	32	8.9%
<u>Time Use</u>		
More than 4 hours	142	39.7%
1-2 hours	99	27.6%
2-3 hours	95	26.5%
Less than 1 hour	14	3.9%

4.3 Model Assessment

Before examining the model, I have conducted a series of analyses to determine if the data meets the acceptable level of the validity and reliability. Validity analysis contains two approaches: convergent and discriminant validity. The convergency analysis is to confirm that the scale relates to other scales while the discriminant validity is to confirm that the scale is different from other scales. To estimate the reliability, the internal consistency of the scales was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) and a composite reliability. These assessments are to ensure the questionnaires' data validity and reliability and to show *no bias* in estimating the results (Joseph F Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012).

4.3.1 Validity Test

The validity test determines how well the testing constructs are measured (Joseph F Hair et al., 2012). The validity test of latent variables is required in order to indicate whether the constructs are measuring what you are supposed to measure (Chin, 1998). I performed the validity tests in this research for all the variables through the examination of convergent and discriminant validity.

4.3.1.1 Convergent Validity Test

Convergent validity is the analysis that describes the extent to which the indicators measure their constructs (Joe F Hair et al., 2011). It assumes that each construct is highly correlated with its relevant construct. Convergent validity of the variables in this analysis is examined using the factor loadings. According to J. Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009), a sufficient degree of validity can be acceptable

when each factor loading values more than 0.5, demonstrating correlations between constructs.

I conducted the test of factor loadings and cross loadings of six latent variables consisted of cyberbullying, ethical leadership, organizational politics, organizational commitment, burnout and political skills. The result reveals that most of the items have a value exceeding the minimum requirement of 0.5 recommended by Joseph F Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2009). The results of factor loadings and cross loadings are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 The Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings

Indicators	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
CB1	(0.423)	0.116	0.456	0.108	0.056	0.133
CB2	(0.654)	0.141	0.009	-0.152	-0.027	-0.102
CB3	(0.750)	-0.187	-0.147	0.004	-0.133	0.000
CB4	(0.784)	0.015	-0.003	0.001	-0.062	-0.020
CB5	(0.638)	-0.066	-0.003	-0.013	-0.046	-0.046
CB6	(0.775)	-0.029	-0.104	-0.125	-0.031	-0.011
CB7	(0.785)	-0.057	-0.023	-0.065	-0.054	-0.009
CB8	(0.823)	0.055	-0.144	-0.193	-0.057	-0.021
CB9	(0.762)	0.125	0.028	-0.151	0.051	0.096
CB10	(0.771)	-0.206	-0.242	-0.029	-0.130	0.070
CB11	(0.774)	-0.175	-0.104	-0.016	-0.014	0.085
CB12	(0.657)	-0.005	-0.035	-0.027	0.043	0.035
CB13	(0.827)	0.028	0.238	0.206	0.153	-0.100
CB14	(0.751)	0.172	0.266	0.060	0.089	-0.014
CB15	(0.764)	-0.031	-0.057	0.023	-0.100	0.077
CB16	(0.640)	0.008	-0.079	0.086	0.012	0.104
CB17	(0.536)	-0.057	-0.134	0.228	0.190	-0.037
CB18	(0.788)	0.017	0.120	0.109	0.101	-0.079
CB19	(0.826)	0.077	-0.008	0.023	0.064	-0.106
CB20	(0.716)	0.103	0.116	0.023	-0.042	0.015
EL1	-0.033	(0.909)	-0.086	-0.060	0.043	-0.002
EL2	-0.018	(0.910)	-0.118	-0.024	0.046	0.004

Indicators	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
EL3	0.013	(0.908)	-0.030	0.037	-0.015	-0.031
EL4	0.067	(0.797)	0.146	-0.018	-0.017	0.075
EL5	0.038	(0.927)	-0.049	0.024	0.000	-0.051
EL6	-0.030	(0.937)	0.064	-0.012	-0.054	-0.042
EL7	0.002	(0.947)	0.034	-0.039	-0.059	-0.016
EL8	0.015	(0.942)	0.020	0.060	0.006	0.042
EL9	-0.069	(0.908)	0.044	0.000	0.014	-0.009
EL10	0.023	(0.918)	-0.010	0.029	0.038	0.040
OP1	-0.014	-0.114	(0.746)	-0.136	-0.013	0.097
OP2	-0.066	-0.113	(0.654)	-0.050	-0.033	0.091
OP3	-0.120	-0.136	(0.596)	-0.063	0.033	-0.085
OP4	0.093	0.073	(0.775)	0.045	0.156	0.000
OP5	0.059	0.255	(0.732)	0.012	0.122	-0.104
OP6	-0.097	-0.062	(0.379)	0.104	-0.309	-0.002
OP7	-0.111	-0.045	(0.632)	0.188	-0.149	-0.094
OP8	0.071	-0.029	(0.714)	0.101	0.153	0.051
OP9	0.151	-0.039	(0.698)	-0.020	0.028	-0.014
OP10	0.083	0.172	(0.804)	-0.031	0.128	0.048
OP11	-0.074	-0.051	(0.567)	-0.107	-0.239	-0.006
OP12	-0.131	-0.024	(0.483)	-0.005	-0.172	-0.013
OC1	0.047	0.231	-0.165	(0.708)	-0.229	-0.038
OC2	-0.033	0.228	0.355	(0.523)	0.159	-0.122
OC3	-0.036	-0.212	-0.012	(0.673)	0.039	0.051
OC4	-0.018	-0.173	-0.087	(0.802)	-0.010	0.044
OC5	0.055	0.140	0.050	(0.783)	0.048	0.042
OC6	-0.031	-0.171	-0.046	(0.649)	0.034	-0.018
BO1	0.018	-0.069	0.025	-0.068	(0.857)	0.021
BO2	-0.004	-0.082	-0.320	-0.099	(0.831)	-0.053
BO3	-0.012	0.024	0.123	-0.039	(0.874)	-0.003
BO4	-0.035	0.074	0.023	-0.035	(0.896)	0.030
BO5	0.038	0.054	0.154	0.273	(0.756)	0.002
PS1	-0.012	-0.066	-0.043	-0.054	0.296	(0.378)
PS2	-0.014	0.180	0.010	-0.152	0.241	(0.543)

Indicators	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
PS3	0.035	0.015	-0.154	-0.128	0.206	(0.632)
PS4	-0.061	0.061	-0.103	-0.229	-0.002	(0.749)
PS5	0.019	-0.087	0.070	-0.017	-0.135	(0.780)
PS6	-0.006	-0.065	0.012	0.002	-0.098	(0.810)
PS7	0.012	0.042	-0.195	-0.434	-0.198	(0.558)
PS8	0.083	-0.153	-0.002	0.097	-0.161	(0.703)
PS9	0.111	-0.053	-0.010	0.012	-0.242	(0.594)
PS10	-0.032	-0.052	0.048	0.283	-0.003	(0.649)
PS11	-0.034	0.081	0.115	0.252	0.145	(0.701)
PS12	-0.095	0.136	0.198	0.277	0.126	(0.628)

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill

However, CB1(0.423), OP6(0.379), OP12(0.483), and PS1(0.378) showed a value lower than 0.5. Accordingly, these items are removed from the analysis. After the removal of those variables, the results of the second analysis show that all items now have the load value over 0.5; thus, the convergent validity is satisfactory. Table 4.6 presents the results from the second-round analysis after the removal of variables.

Table 4.6 The Factor Loadings and Cross Loadings After Removing the Low Items

Indicators	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
CB2	(0.648)	0.125	-0.036	-0.163	-0.016	-0.111
CB3	(0.752)	-0.161	-0.118	-0.006	-0.115	0.006
CB4	(0.786)	0.021	0.004	-0.007	-0.049	-0.026
CB5	(0.632)	-0.053	0.031	0.012	-0.030	-0.065
CB6	(0.777)	-0.029	-0.110	-0.123	-0.011	0.001
CB7	(0.785)	-0.052	-0.025	-0.082	-0.054	0.006
CB8	(0.826)	0.068	-0.135	-0.209	-0.056	-0.009
CB9	(0.764)	0.132	0.070	-0.124	0.050	0.110
CB10	(0.774)	-0.192	-0.208	-0.031	-0.129	0.076
CB11	(0.776)	-0.166	-0.075	-0.002	-0.013	0.094
CB12	(0.657)	0.020	0.038	0.000	0.026	0.034
CB13	(0.828)	0.008	0.197	0.180	0.143	-0.082
CB14	(0.751)	0.170	0.279	0.057	0.056	-0.013
CB15	(0.766)	0.005	0.020	0.050	-0.102	0.082
CB16	(0.640)	0.025	0.000	0.106	-0.018	0.093
CB17	(0.535)	-0.059	-0.121	0.257	0.212	-0.055
CB18	(0.787)	-0.017	0.063	0.097	0.124	-0.060
CB19	(0.830)	0.070	-0.020	0.020	0.069	-0.093
CB20	(0.715)	0.085	0.129	0.046	-0.045	0.002
EL1	-0.034	(0.909)	-0.064	-0.070	0.030	-0.008
EL2	-0.015	(0.910)	-0.106	-0.024	0.043	0.005
EL3	0.019	(0.908)	-0.023	0.047	-0.017	-0.034
EL4	0.071	(0.797)	0.162	0.013	0.003	0.069
EL5	0.042	(0.927)	-0.053	0.024	-0.007	-0.051
EL6	-0.036	(0.937)	0.056	-0.016	-0.056	-0.039
EL7	-0.004	(0.947)	0.014	-0.040	-0.043	-0.011
EL8	0.013	(0.942)	0.017	0.051	0.003	0.044
EL9	-0.073	(0.908)	0.024	-0.004	0.022	-0.005
EL10	0.025	(0.918)	-0.008	0.021	0.026	0.040
OP1	-0.026	-0.129	(0.751)	-0.105	-0.021	0.095
OP2	-0.090	-0.100	(0.653)	-0.049	-0.054	0.095
OP3	-0.135	-0.174	(0.570)	-0.081	0.039	-0.074

Indicators	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
OP4	0.072	0.094	(0.802)	0.074	0.111	-0.015
OP5	0.042	0.262	(0.766)	0.026	0.047	-0.112
OP7	-0.120	-0.126	(0.582)	0.151	-0.179	-0.096
OP8	0.055	-0.026	(0.735)	0.114	0.113	0.051
OP9	0.122	-0.003	(0.733)	0.009	-0.006	-0.013
OP10	0.056	0.182	(0.833)	-0.025	0.071	0.044
OP11	-0.081	-0.140	(0.515)	-0.153	-0.251	-0.003
OC1	0.052	0.258	-0.110	(0.708)	-0.241	-0.046
OC2	-0.053	0.227	0.368	(0.523)	0.137	-0.127
OC3	-0.048	-0.232	-0.071	(0.673)	0.065	0.074
OC4	-0.010	-0.190	-0.127	(0.802)	0.015	0.037
OC5	0.057	0.161	0.104	(0.783)	0.031	0.036
OC6	-0.021	-0.182	-0.072	(0.649)	0.029	-0.013
BO1	0.017	-0.070	0.027	-0.061	(0.857)	0.019
BO2	0.000	-0.069	-0.320	-0.094	(0.831)	-0.055
BO3	-0.011	0.010	0.116	-0.039	(0.874)	-0.002
BO4	-0.032	0.060	0.005	-0.030	(0.896)	0.028
BO5	0.032	0.073	0.180	0.253	(0.756)	0.008
PS2	-0.015	0.191	0.058	-0.120	0.227	(0.513)
PS3	0.053	0.032	-0.082	-0.093	0.176	(0.609)
PS4	-0.070	0.050	-0.123	-0.226	0.022	(0.748)
PS5	0.011	-0.086	0.058	-0.024	-0.084	(0.787)
PS6	-0.002	-0.081	-0.015	0.000	-0.051	(0.821)
PS7	0.025	0.074	-0.117	-0.392	-0.185	(0.560)
PS8	0.096	-0.170	-0.017	0.114	-0.116	(0.709)
PS9	0.104	-0.028	0.012	-0.009	-0.205	(0.607)
PS10	-0.042	-0.069	-0.006	0.225	-0.002	(0.660)
PS11	-0.041	0.072	0.083	0.211	0.150	(0.711)
PS12	-0.106	0.112	0.148	0.240	0.115	(0.632)

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics,
OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill

4.3.1.2 Discriminant Validity Test

The goal of discriminant validity test is to examine whether a particular latent variable is significantly different from other latent variables (A. M. Farrell, 2010). I performed discriminant validity test using a value of square root of the average variance extracted (AVE). The discriminant validity of a particular latent variable is accepted if the square root of AVE is greater than the correlation between the two variables (A. M. Farrell, 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hansen, Singh, Weilbaker, & Guesalaga, 2011). Based on the results reported in Table 4.7, the discriminant validity test is satisfactory.

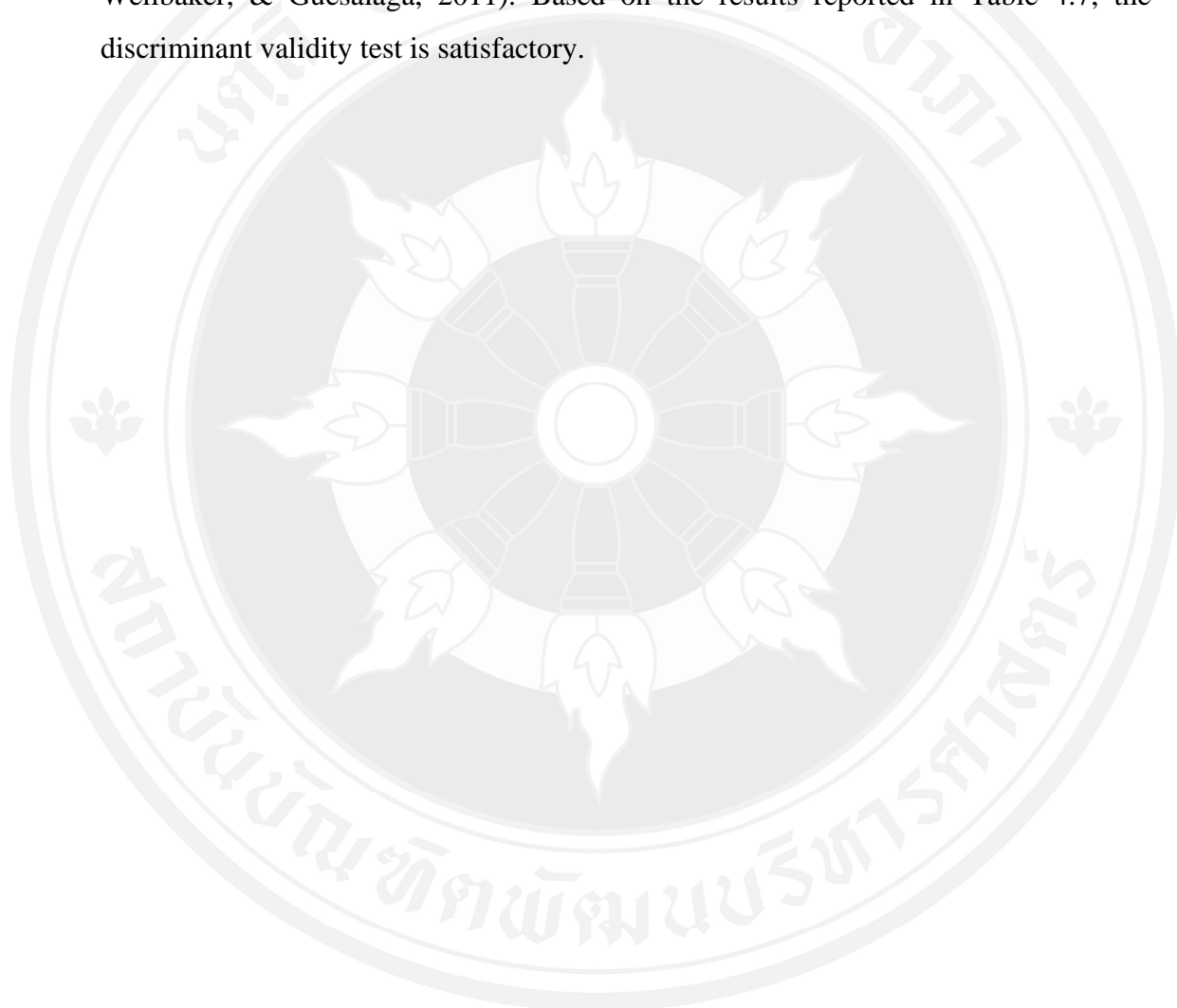


Table 4.7 The Results of Correlation Among Constructs and Average Variance Extracted

Variables	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS	GEN	AGE	TEN	ACA	INT
CB	(0.742)										
EL	-0.138**	(0.911)									
OP	0.243***	-0.696***	(0.701)								
OC	-0.211***	0.507***	-0.610***	(0.696)							
BO	0.287***	-0.432***	0.467***	-0.518***	(0.844)						
PS	-0.149**	0.271***	-0.288***	0.361***	-0.168**	(0.675)					
GEN	-0.014	0.020	-0.090	0.053	0.012	0.029	(1.000)				
AGE	0.073	0.041	-0.124*	0.228***	-0.189***	0.057	0.042	(1.000)			
TEN	0.076	0.010	-0.084	0.215***	-0.133*	0.032	0.069	0.763***	(1.000)		
ACA	0.067	0.180***	-0.153**	0.154**	-0.149**	0.154**	-0.130*	0.217***	0.026	(1.000)	
INT	0.019	0.137*	-0.090	0.075	0.007	0.118*	-0.041	-0.130*	-0.121	0.021	(1.000)

Notes: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill, GEN = Gender, TEN = Job Tenure, ACA = Academic Job, INT = Internet Use
 Square root of average variance of latent variables are manifested in the parentheses

*p-value<0.05, **p-value<0.01, ***p-value<0.001

4.3.2 Reliability Test

The reliability test ensures high internal consistency of the scales (Nunnally, 1994). This research utilizes two reliability tests, Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability to measure the internal consistency.

4.3.2.1 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

This research uses the Cronbach's alpha coefficient as an indicator of internal consistency of the scales (Joseph F Hair et al., 2012). It is the most commonly used measure for the reliability of the constructs. Nunnally (1994) suggested that a coefficient alpha of 0.70 is the minimum acceptable threshold of internal consistency. The results reveal that all measurement items have Cronbach's alpha value higher than the acceptable level of 0.7. Accordingly, these results indicate that the measurement scales in this study have a satisfactory level of reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of six variables are summarized in Table 4.8.

4.3.2.2 Composite Reliability

The composite reliability is utilized in this research as an additional indicator to assess reliability of the scales in PLS-SEM estimation. This test uses loadings of the indicators associated with the construct into consideration in the reliability analysis (Chin, 1998; Joseph F Hair et al., 2012; N. Kock & G. Lynn, 2012). The value of composite reliability is accepted at or more than 0.7 to confirm reliability in the PLS-SEM analysis (J. Hair et al., 2009; Hair Junior, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). Moreover, since the composite reliability value is generally higher than the Cronbach's alpha; therefore, the value of composite reliability of each construct will be acceptable if it is greater than the Cronbach's alpha of similar construct. The result of composite reliability test of all items shows the value over 0.8, which is higher than the minimum threshold. Therefore, the scales in this study is satisfactory and reliable for this research model. The results of composite reliability of six variables are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient and Composite Reliability of all Latent Variables

	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS
Cronbach's Alpha	0.954	0.977	0.882	0.781	0.898	0.877
Composite reliability	0.958	0.980	0.905	0.847	0.925	0.900

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill

4.4 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity, also known as collinearity, is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more independent variables in the model are highly correlated (Farrar & Glauber, 1967). To test for multicollinearity in the model, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) are estimated (N. Kock & G. Lynn, 2012). In the model of multiple regression, collinearity is usually determined as a predictor-to-predictor relationship, occurred when two or more predictors are measuring the same construct. This type of measurement is identified as vertical, or "classic", collinearity. However, N. Kock and G. Lynn (2012) introduced the lateral collinearity which is referred to predictor-to-criterion latent variable collinearity. This measurement investigates the collinearity that might encourage misleading results (N. Kock & G. Lynn, 2012). Thus, I tested for full collinearity VIF because it provides benefits for both lateral and vertical collinearity assessment. In addition, the full collinearity VIF test is a method that captures the possibility of common method bias (CMB) in the PLS model (N. Kock & G. S. Lynn, 2012). The threshold value for estimating the full VIF should be less than 3.30 to confirm that multicollinearity is not a serious problem in the analysis (N. Kock & G. Lynn, 2012). The results of full VIF of all variables are ranging from 1.044 to 2.736, which is below the maximum value of 3.3 as suggested by Petter, Straub, and Rai (2007), indicating the satisfactory results. Hence, the CMB and multicollinearity is not considered as a serious issue in this research. The results of VIF testing are shown in the Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Full VIF Statistics of all Variables

	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS	GEN	AGE	TEN	ACA	INT
Full VIF	1.232	2.120	2.482	2.002	1.582	1.212	1.044	2.736	2.568	1.200	1.060

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill, GEN = Gender, TEN = Job Tenure, ACA = Academic Job, INT = Internet Use

4.5 Normal Distribution

To examine the normality of the data, I performed two tests, which are Jarque-Bera test of normality (Normal-JB) and Robust Jarque-Bera test of (Normal-RJB). To understand the results of normality test: “Yes” means that the variable is normally distributed while “No” means the variable violates the normal distribution’s assumption.

The results indicate that most of the variables are not normally distributed. This reinforces that the PLS analysis should be used as the estimator as it is designed to deal with this kind of data. Previous studies have provided the evidences that PLS-SEM leads to a robustness result even in the data with non-normal distributions (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999; Joseph F Hair et al., 2012; Reinartz, Haenlein, & Henseler, 2009). The results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10 The Normalization of the Data

	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS	GEN	AGE	TEN	ACA	INT
Normal-JB	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Normal-RJB	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill, GEN = Gender, TEN = Job Tenure, ACA = Academic Job, INT = Internet Use

In addition, there are other analyses of normality such as the skewness analysis and Exc.kurtosis analysis. The results demonstrate that the data is not normally distributed, which is the reason why the PLS is suitable for this analysis. The result of skewness and Exc.kurtosis are presented in Table 4.11 while Figure 4.1 to 4.11 illustrate the data distribution of all variables.

Table 4.11 The Skewness and Exc.kurtosis Results

	CB	EL	OP	OC	BO	PS	GEN	AGE	TEN	ACA	INT
Skewness	2.533	-0.968	0.329	-0.330	0.171	-0.484	-0.860	0.348	0.906	0.421	0.453
Exc. kurtosis	7.390	0.796	-0.013	-0.054	-0.112	3.207	-1.244	-0.269	0.056	-1.797	0.136

Note: CB = Cyberbullying, EL = Ethical Leadership, OP = Organizational Politics, OC = Organizational Commitment, BO = Burnout, PS = Political Skill, GEN = Gender, TEN = Job Tenure, ACA = Academic Job, INT = Internet Use

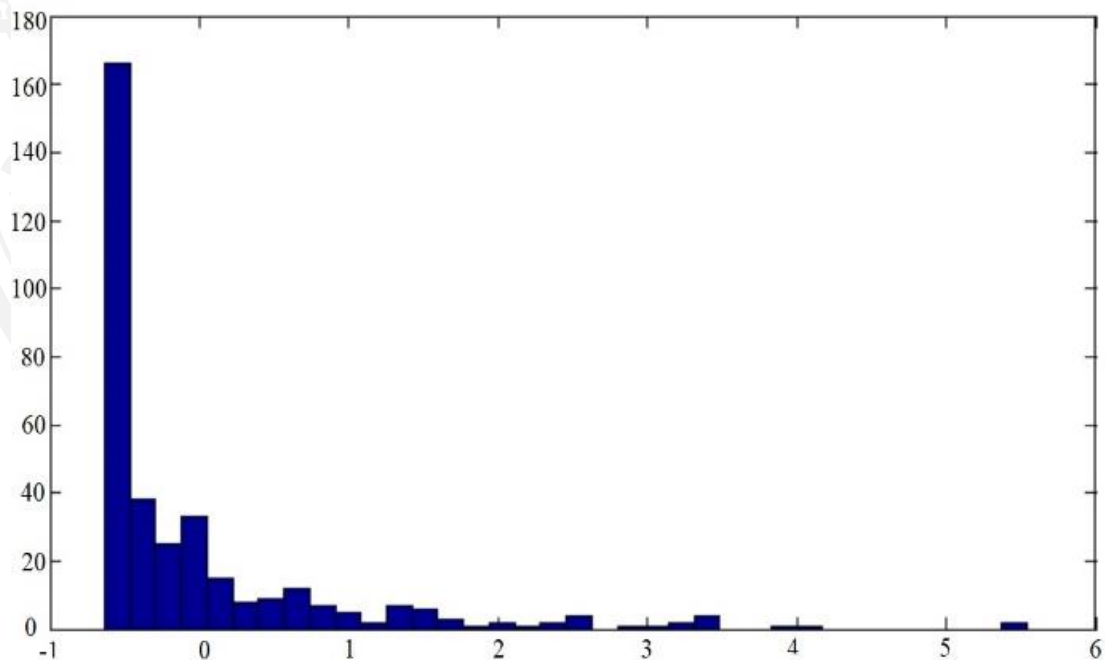


Figure 4.1 Histogram for Cyberbullying

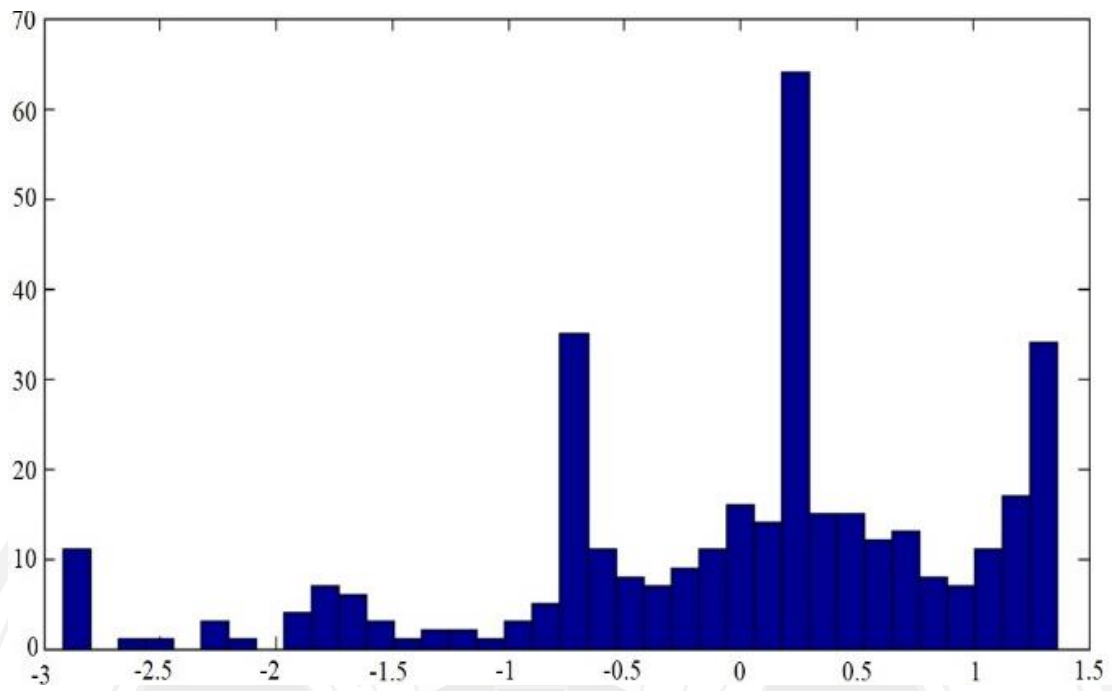


Figure 4.2 Histogram for Ethical Leadership

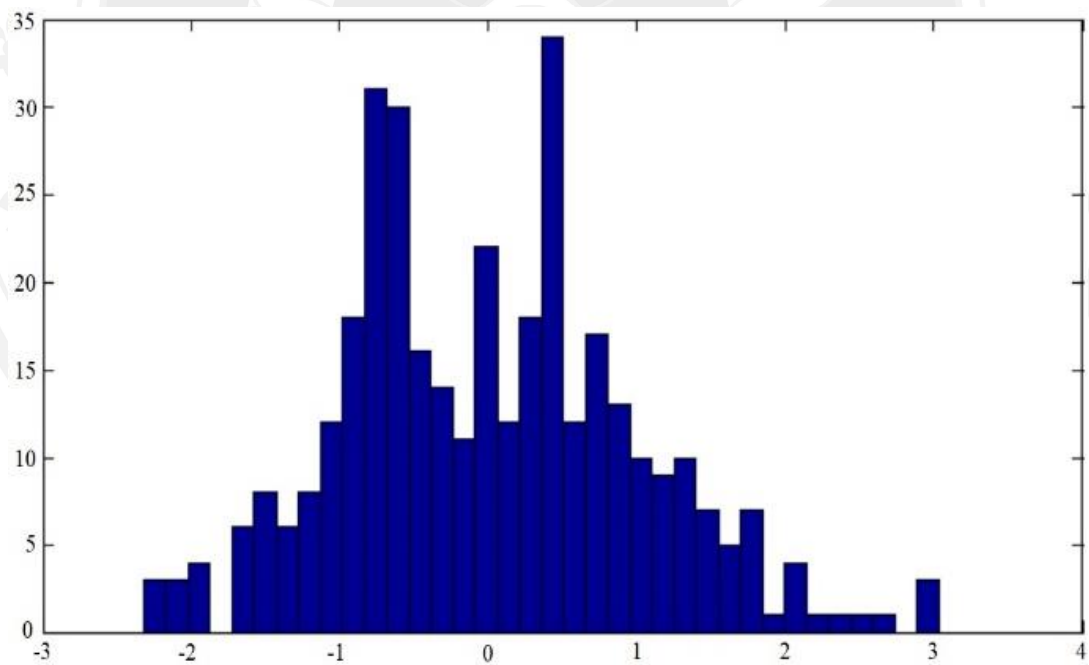


Figure 4.3 Histogram for Organizational Politics

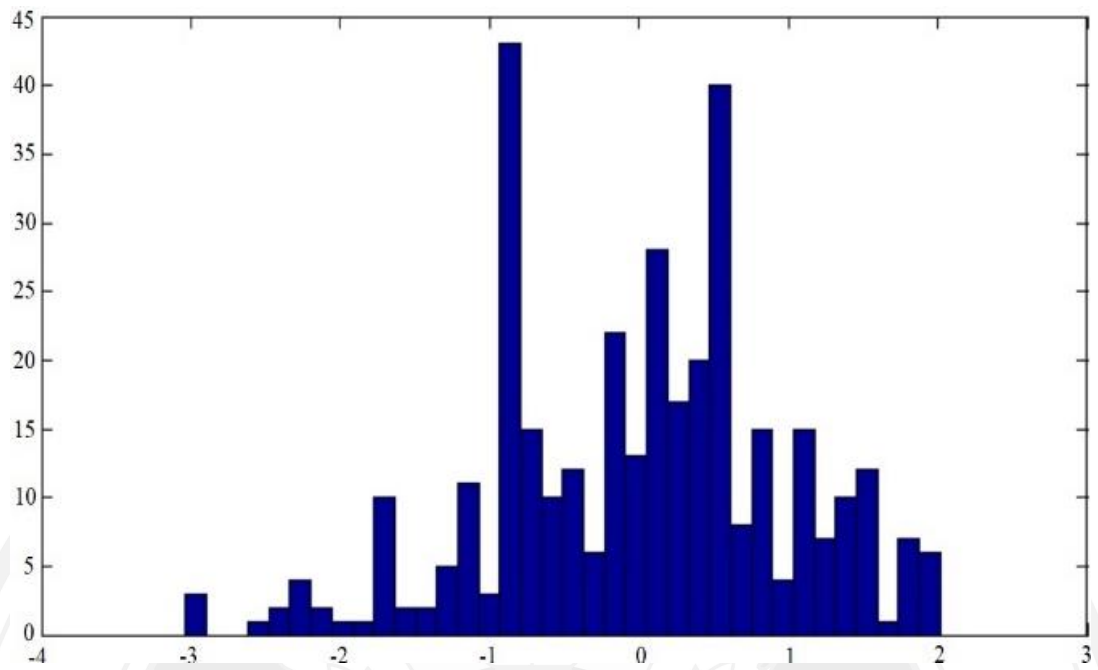


Figure 4.4 Histogram for Commitment

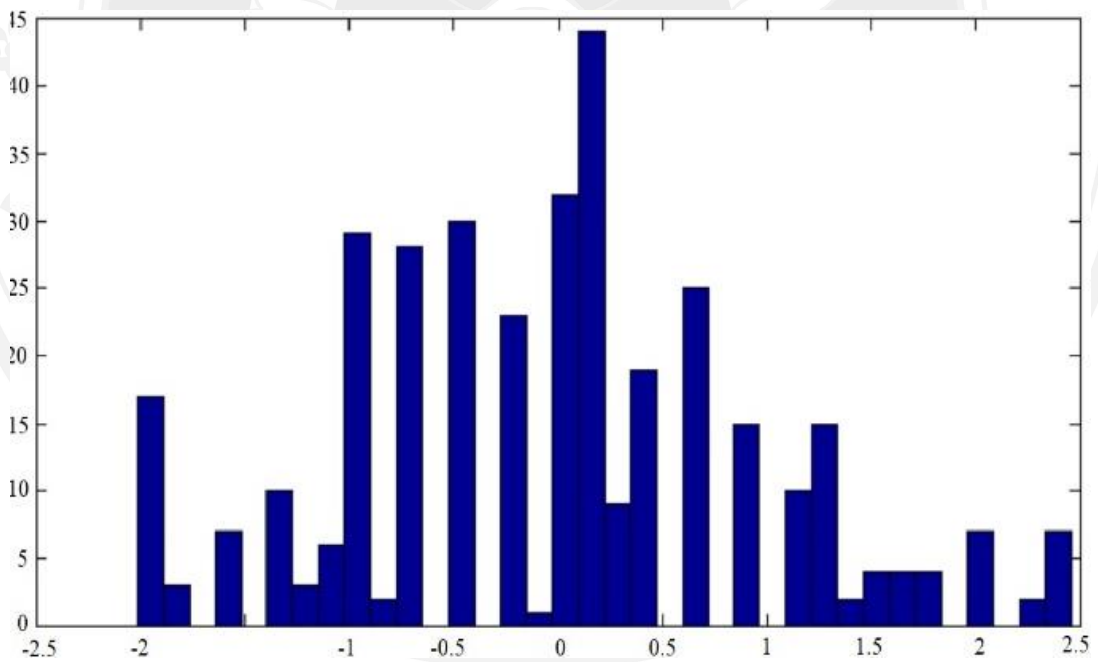


Figure 4.5 Histogram for Burnout

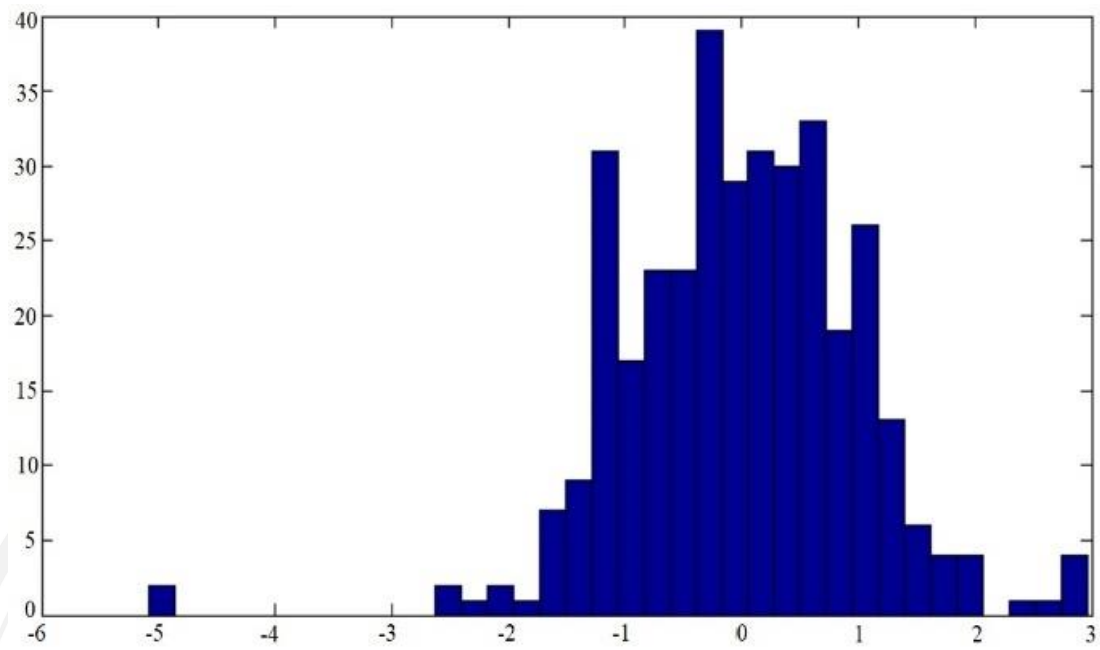


Figure 4.6 Histogram for Political Skills

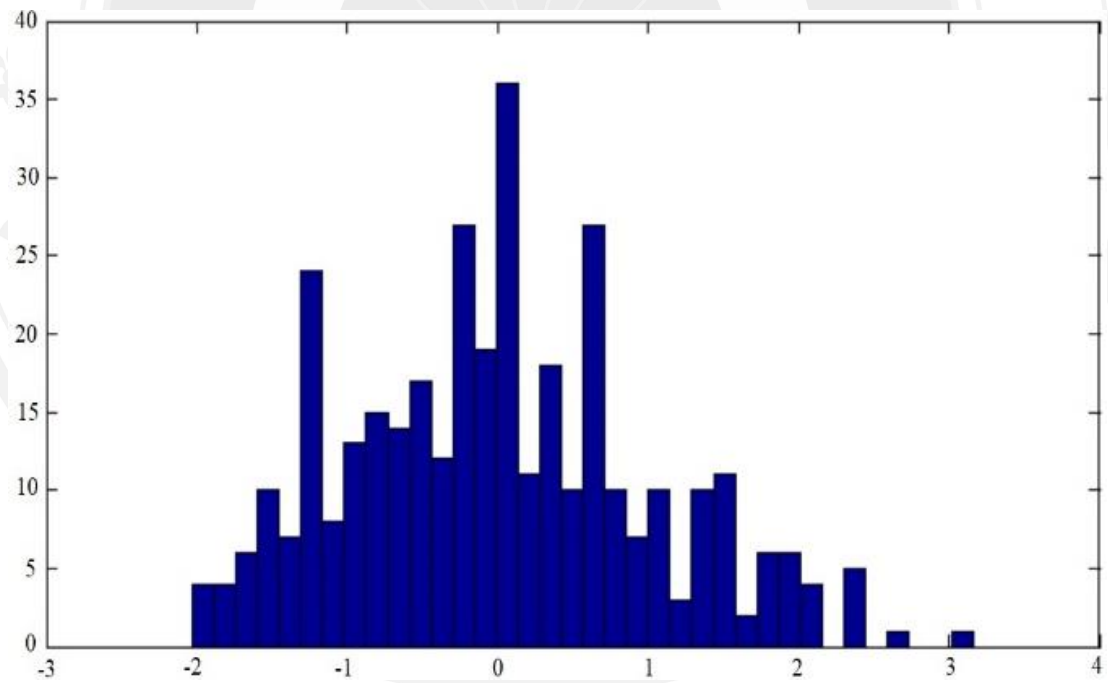


Figure 4.7 Histogram for Age

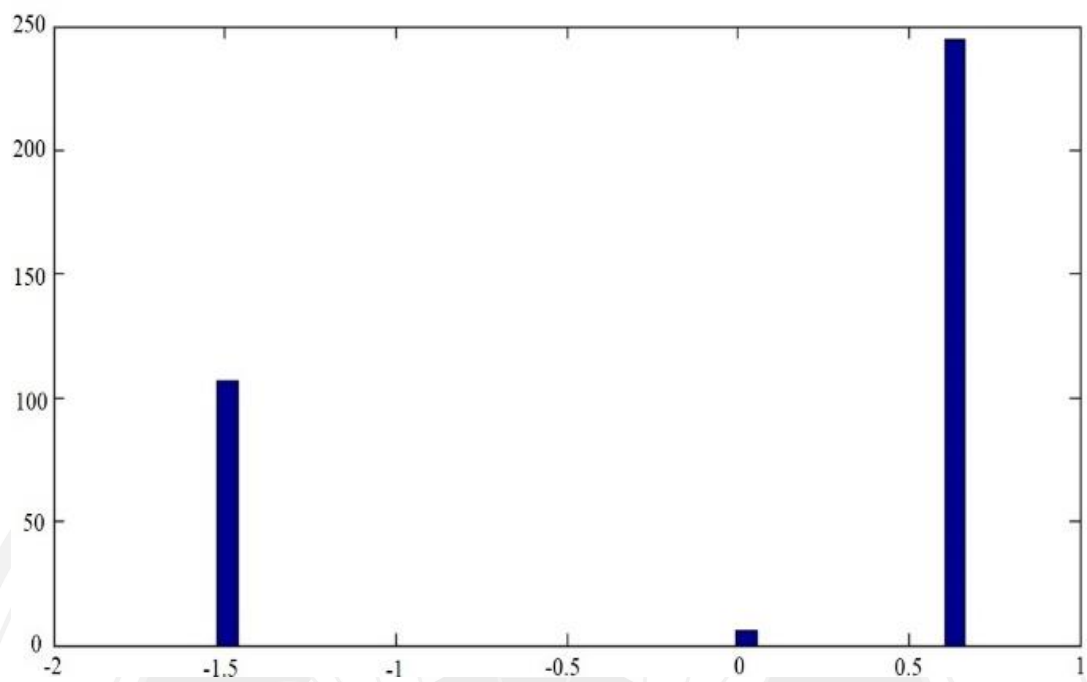


Figure 4.8 Histogram for Gender

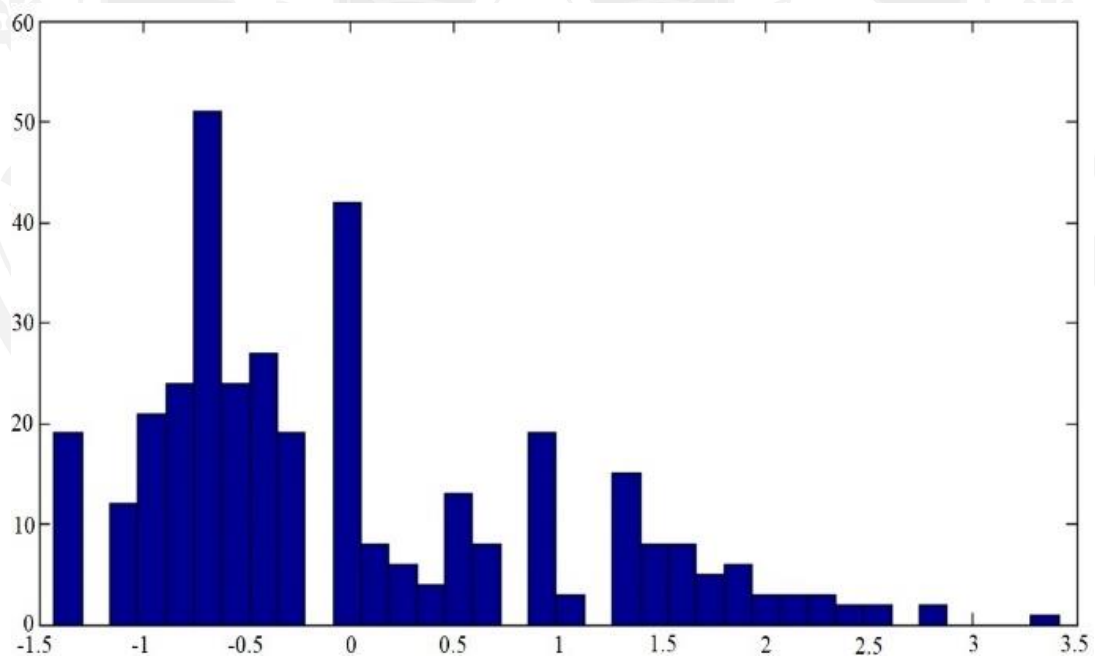


Figure 4.9 Histogram for Job Tenure

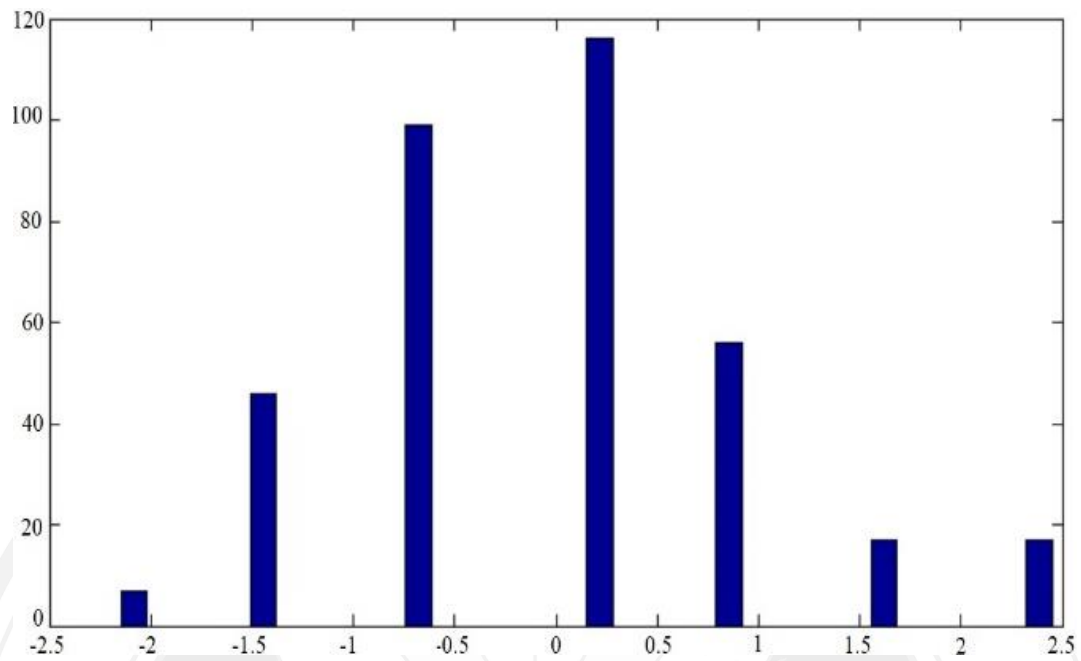


Figure 4.10 Histogram for Academic Job

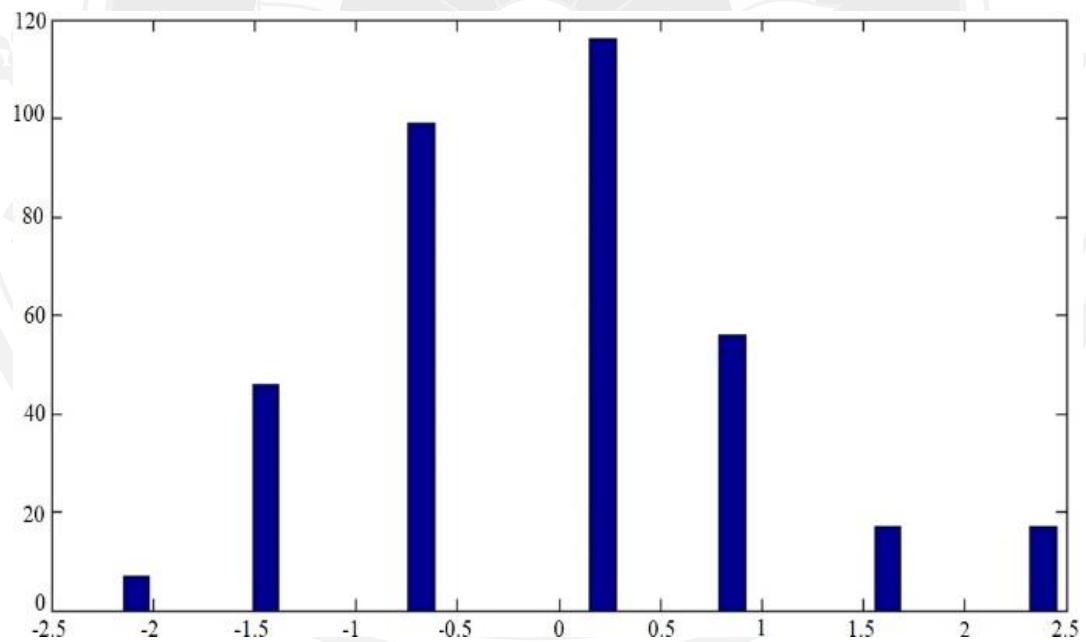


Figure 4.11 Histogram for Internet Use

4.6 Model Fit Indices

The model fit indices are a set of indicators measuring the quality of the hypothesized structural model in PLS-SEM. It provides an indication for the researcher to compare which model is better suited for the study (N. Kock & G. Lynn, 2012). To examine the research model, ten global model fit and quality indices are provided by WarpPLS 6.0. The ten model fit indices are : 1) Average path coefficient (APC); 2) Average R-squared (ARS); 3) Average adjusted R-squared (AARS); 4) Average block VIF (AVIF); 5) Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF); 6) Tenenhaus GoF (GoF); 7) Sympton's paradox ratio (SPR); 8) R-squared contribution ratio; 9) Statistical suppression ratio (SSR); and 10) Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR).

4.6.1 Average Path Coefficient (APC)

The average path coefficient (APC) represents the average of all the path coefficients in the model. It indicates how strong the paths are in the overall model by using p-value that is recommended. The suggested value should equal to or below 0.05. The result from PLS analysis shows that APC has a value of 0.128 with p-value of 0.003, which is lower than 0.01. Thus, APC is statistically significant.

4.6.2 Average R-Squared (ARS)

The average R-squared (ARS) is used to measure whether the model has enough overall explanatory power. It is recommended that the p-value for a model measures should be equal to or less than 0.05. The result reveals that ARS value is 0.240 (p-values < 0.001), which indicates that the ARS is statistically significant.

4.6.3 Average Adjusted R-Squared (AARS)

Average adjusted R-squared (AARS) is different from the average R-squared (ARS) because the AARS corrects for a spurious increase in R-squared coefficients from additional predictors that add no explanatory value to each latent variable block. The p-value is utilized to indicate the AARS; and the suggested value is equal to or

below 0.05. The result reveals that AARS value is 0.225 with p-values < 0.001 . Thus, the AARS is statistically significant.

4.6.4 Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF)

The average variance inflation factor (AVIF) measures model's vertical or classic collinearity. It is suggested by WarpPLS that an acceptable value of AVIF should be equal to or less than 5 and the ideal value of AVIF is recommended to be equal to or less than 3.3. The result reveals that AVIF index is 1.539, which is lower than the ideal value of 3.3 as suggested by WarpPLS. Therefore, the collinearity in this model is acceptable.

4.6.5 Average Full Variance Inflation Factor (AFVIF)

The average full variance inflation factor (AFVIF) is an approach for the assessment of both vertical and lateral collinearity, or multicollinearity towards the model. It is suggested by WarpPLS that an acceptable value of AFVIF is equal to or less than 5 and the ideal value of AFVIF is equal to or less than 3.3. The result indicates that AFVIF value of this model is 1.660, which is lower than the value of 3.3 that is suggested by WarpPLS. Thus, the multicollinearity in this model is acceptable.

4.6.6 Tenenhaus GoF (GoF index)

GoF index or Tenenhaus GoF is a measurement of model's explanatory power to examine the overall predictive power of the model. First, the GoF index that is equal to or more than 0.1 indicates small explanatory power. Second, The GoF index that is equal or greater than 0.25 indicates medium explanatory power. Thirdly, the GoF index that is equal to or higher than 0.36 indicates large explanatory power. The result reveals that GoF index of this model is 0.408, which indicate a large explanatory power of the model.

4.6.7 Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)

The Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR) is an indicator that demonstrates a possibility to obtain Simpson's paradox in the model (Wagner, 1982). The SPR

indicates the acceptable value at 0.7 or 70 percent of paths in the model, which mean the model is free from Simpson's paradox. The result shows the SPR in at an acceptable value at 0.880 or equal to 88 percent, which means that there is no Simpson's paradox issue in this research model.

4.6.8 Squared Contribution Ratio (RSCR)

The R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) is the method to measure a negative r-squared resulted from a Simpson's paradox issue (Pearl, 2009). An acceptable value of RSCR is equal to or above 0.9 and has a positive sign. The result from PLS analysis emphasizes that the RSCR index is 0.992 or equal to 99.2 percent of r-squared in this model have a positive sign. Therefore, the RSCR index of this model is acceptable indicating no sign of a Simpson's paradox issue.

4.6.9 Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)

The statistical suppression ratio (SSR) is the measurement for the causality problem in the model (Spirtes, Glymour, Scheines, & Causation, 1993). The SSR indicates that the unreasonable hypothesized path in the model should be reversed. The ideal SSR index of 1 represents that there is no SSR issue in the model. Moreover, the acceptable value is 0.7. The result of this model means 76 percent of paths in the model are free from SSR. Thus, this model is acceptable.

4.6.10 Nonlinear Bivariate Causality Direction Ratio (NLBCDR)

The nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) estimates the correctness of direction of non-linear causality. Acceptable value of NLBCDR is equal to or greater than 0.7 The result shows that NLBCDR in this study is 0.880 indicating that this model is acceptable for the non-linear causality direction. However, this model is proposed in linear relationship which means NLBCDR should not be considered in the test.

The results from ten model fit indices are in acceptable range or above, which is enough to confirm that the I have selected a suitable technique for this data and research model (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). All model fit indices are shown in Table 4.12 below.

Table 4.12 Model Fit Indices

Model Fit Indices	Coefficient	Result
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.128**	Significant
Average R-squared (ARS)	0.240***	Significant
Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.225***	Significant
Average block VIF (AVIF)	1.539	Ideally
Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF)	1.660	Ideally
Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	0.408	Large
Simpson's paradox ratio (SPR)	0.880	Acceptable
R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)	0.992	Acceptable
Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)	0.760	Acceptable
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ration (NLBCDR).	0.880	Acceptable

Notes: *** means significant at 0.001;

** means significant at 0.01;

* means significant at 0.05.

4.7 Structural Regression Model

4.7.1 Test of Hypotheses

The hypothesis testing results from empirical analyses using PLS-SEM are presented in this section. First, the path analysis indicates the strength of direction that link between variables. Second, the p-value determines whether the null hypothesis should be accepted. In the field of behavioral sciences, if the P-value is less than 0.05, then the null hypothesis would be rejected, and the alternative hypothesis will be accepted. Thirdly, r-squared coefficient indicates how well the regression model fits the data. In this sense, the higher the r-squared, the better the overall model's explanatory power. The results from PLS analysis are shown in Table 4.13 and Figure 4.12

Table 4.13 Summary of the Results and the Effect Sizes

Relationship between Variables	Effect and effect size	
	β	f^2
Ethical Leadership → Workplace Cyberbullying	$\beta=.053$; $p=.156$	$f^2 = 0.007(<.02)$
Organizational Politics → Workplace Cyberbullying	$\beta=.324$; $p<.001$	$f^2 = 0.079(>.02)$
Ethical Leadership → Organizational Politics	$\beta=-.696$; $p<.001$	$f^2 = 0.484(>.02)$
Cyberbullying → Organizational Commitment	$\beta=-.180$; $p<.001$	$f^2 = 0.038(>.02)$
Cyberbullying → Job Burnout	$\beta=.285$; $p<.001$	$f^2 = 0.082(>.02)$
Political skill → Interaction between Politics and Cyberbullying	$\beta=-.097$; $p=.031$	$f^2 = 0.007(<.02)$
Political skill → Interaction between Cyberbullying and Commitment	$\beta=.053$; $p=.154$	$f^2 = 0.003(<.02)$
Political skill → Interaction between Cyberbullying and Burnout	$\beta=-.043$; $p=.206$	$f^2 = 0.003(<.02)$

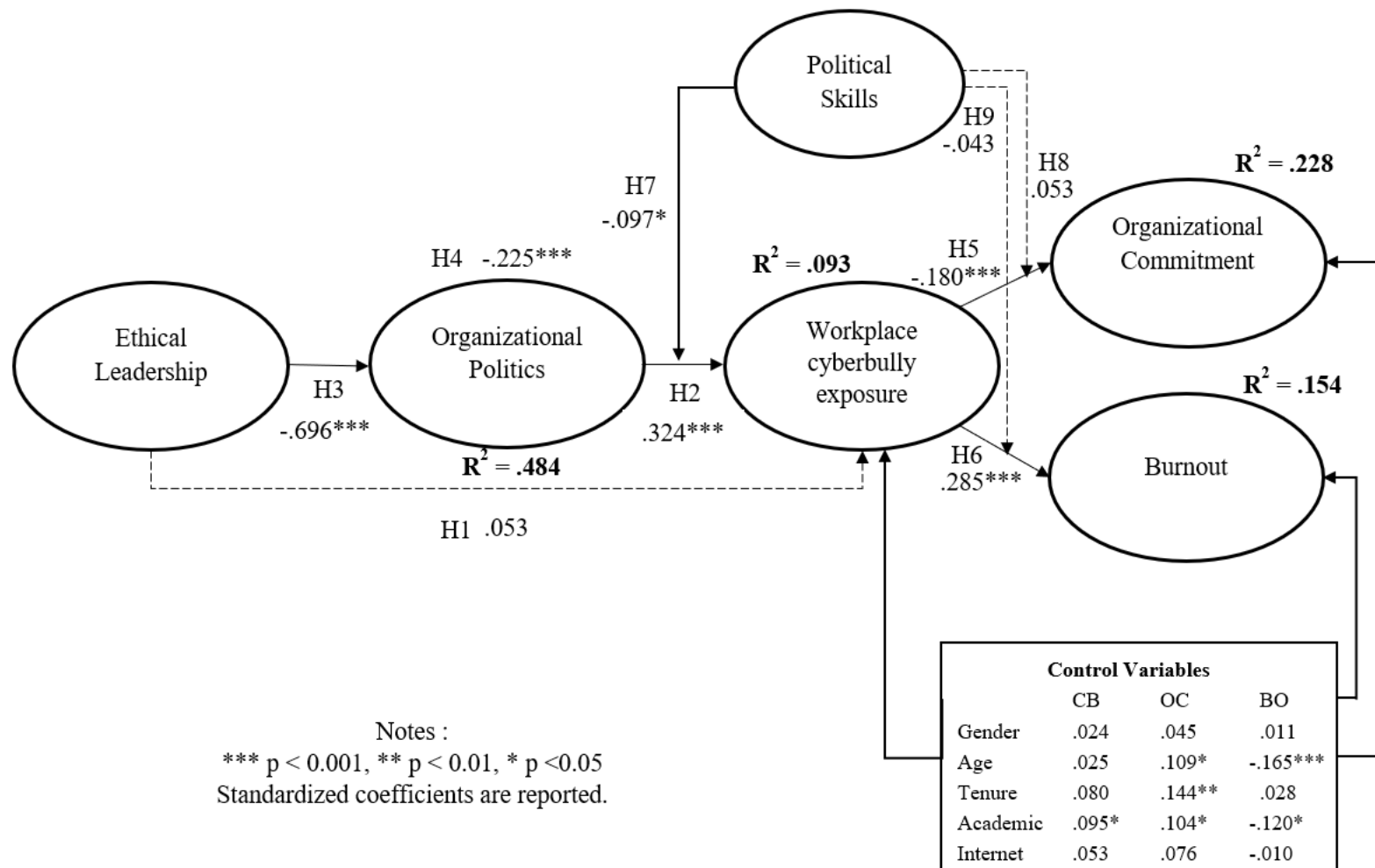


Figure 4.12 Results from PLS-SEM Estimation

Hypothesis 1 proposed that there is a negative relationship between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying. The result reveals that ethical leadership is positively related to workplace cyberbullying ($\beta = .053$; $p = .156$; $f^2 = 0.007$). This result contradicts with the result in the correlation analysis, which shows that ethical leadership negatively and significantly correlates with workplace cyberbullying ($r = -0.138$, $p < 0.01$). This means that the beta-coefficient from the PLS-SEM analysis could happen due to the suppression effect in multiple regression (Lewis-Beck et al., 2003). Actually, ethical leadership should relate negatively with workplace cyberbullying, as indicated by their negative correlation. Individuals who work under ethical leadership tend to experience lower cyberbullying. However, with the p-value less than 0.05, this result is not statistically significant. Thus, I found no support for this first hypothesis.

The hypothesis 2 stated that there is a positive link between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying. The result shows that organizational politics has a significant positive effect on workplace cyberbullying ($\beta = .324$; $p < .001$; $f^2 = 0.079$), which suggests that the individuals working under high politics in the organization tend to expose higher levels of workplace cyberbullying. Thus, the researcher found support for the second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 3 postulated the negative effect of ethical leadership on organizational politics. The result shows that the ethical leadership has a significant negative effect on the organizational politics in workplace ($\beta = -.696$; $p < .001$; $f^2 = 0.484$), which indicates that individuals working under high levels of ethical leadership tend to experience lower organizational politics. Hence, the hypothesis 3 is supported.

The hypothesis 4 proposed that the organizational politics will mediate the negative relationship between the ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying. The test of mediating effect was conducted by the method recommended by Preacher and Hayes (2004), which was calculated by the WrapPLS software. The result demonstrates that the relationship between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying is mediated by organizational politics; the result was also statistically significant ($\beta = -.225$; $p < .001$). Therefore, the hypothesis 4 is supported.

Hypothesis 5 stated that there is a negative association between workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment. The result demonstrates that the negative effect of workplace cyberbullying on organizational commitment is statistically significant ($\beta = -.180$; $p < .001$; $f^2 = 0.038$), which can be interpreted that individuals exposed to cyberbullying in workplace tend to have low organizational commitment. Hence, the hypothesis 5 is supported.

The hypothesis 6 proposed that there is a positive relationship between workplace cyberbullying and burnout. The result emphasizes that the positive association between workplace cyberbullying and burnout is statistically significant ($\beta = .285$; $p < .001$; $f^2 = 0.082$). This result can be interpreted that individuals exposed to cyberbullying in workplace tend to experience greater level of burnout. Therefore, the hypothesis 6 is supported.

The hypothesis 7 postulated that the link between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying is moderated by the political skill. To test the moderating effect, the interaction between organizational politics and political skill was put in the analysis to explain workplace cyberbullying. The result found that the interaction term of organizational politics and cyberbullying has a negative beta ($\beta = -.097$; $p = 0.031$; $f^2 = 0.007$) indicating that the effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying is weaker for individuals with high political skill than those with lower political skill. The result is also statistically significant; thus, this hypothesis is supported.

The hypothesis 8 proposed that the relationship between workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment is moderated by political skill. The result demonstrates that the interaction term of workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment has a positive beta ($\beta = .053$; $p = .154$; $f^2 = 0.003$). The positive moderation suggests that the effect of workplace cyberbullying and organizational effective commitment is stronger for the highly politically-skilled individuals than the low skill counterparts. However, with the p-value of 0.154, this relationship is not statistically significant. Therefore, hypothesis 8 is not supported.

The hypothesis 9 stated that the association between workplace cyberbullying and burnout is moderated by political skill. The result shows that the interaction term of workplace cyberbullying and political skill has a negative beta ($\beta = -.043$; $p = 0.206$; $f^2 = 0.003$), which implies that the effect of workplace cyberbullying on burnout is weaker for individuals with higher level of political skill than those with lower level of political skill. However, this relation is not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis 9 is not supported.

The graphs that illustrate the moderating effects of political skill are presented in Figure 4.13, Figure 4.14 and Figure 4.15. the line graphs are constructed according to the procedures suggested by Aiken and West (1991) using standardized values. For example, the line graph that represents the relationship between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying moderated by political skill was constructed by plotting organizational politics scores one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean across the high political skill (+1.00 SD) and low political skill (-1.00 SD).

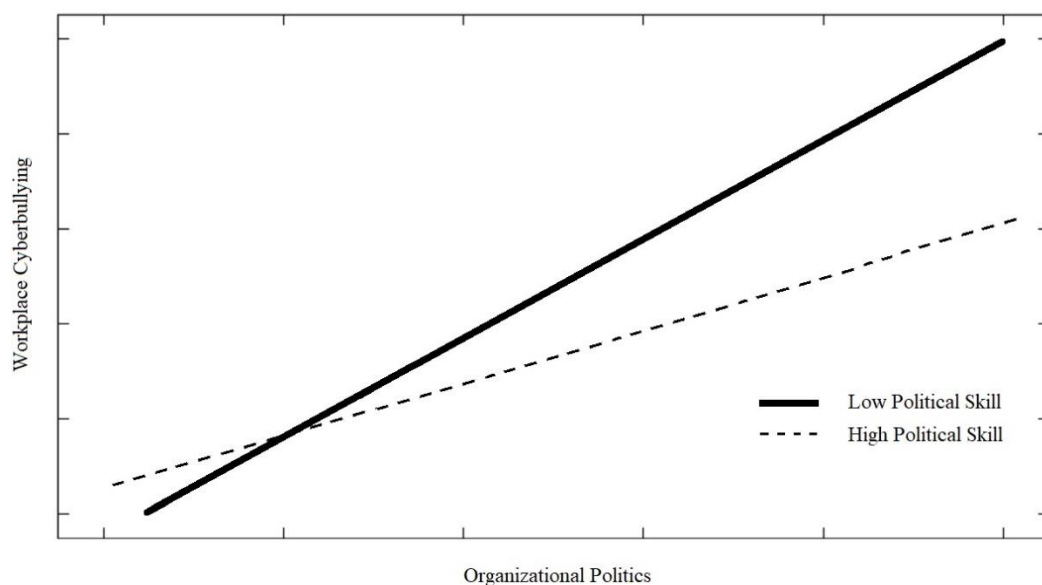


Figure 4.13 The Moderating Effect of Political Skills on the Relationship between Organizational Politics and Workplace Cyberbullying

Figure 4.13 demonstrates the negative moderating effects of political skill on the association between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying. The dashed line represents high political skill, whereas the solid line represents low political skill. The comparison of the regression slopes indicates that the effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying is lower for employees with high political skill than the employees with lower political skill. This implies that the positive effect of organizational politics on cyberbullying is weaker for the highly political skilled employees than the employees who are poor at political skill. This difference is supported by the statistics.

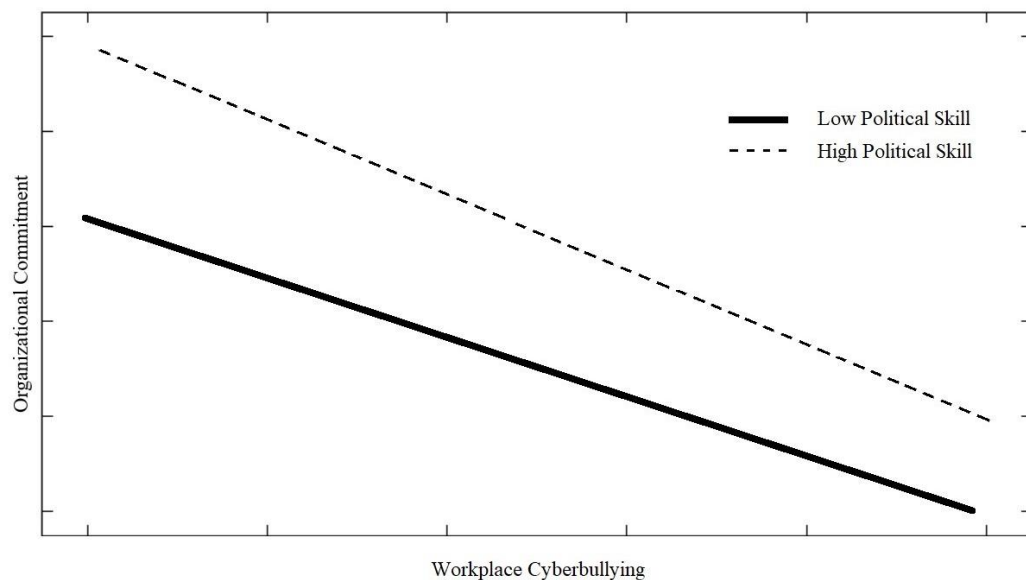


Figure 4.14 The Moderating Effect of Political Skill on the Negative Relationship between and Organizational Commitment

Figure 4.14 presents the positive moderating effects of political skill on the relationship between workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment. The comparison of the regression slopes indicates that the effect of workplace cyberbullying on organizational commitment is higher for the employee with high political skill than the employees with lower political skill. However, this difference is not statistically supported.

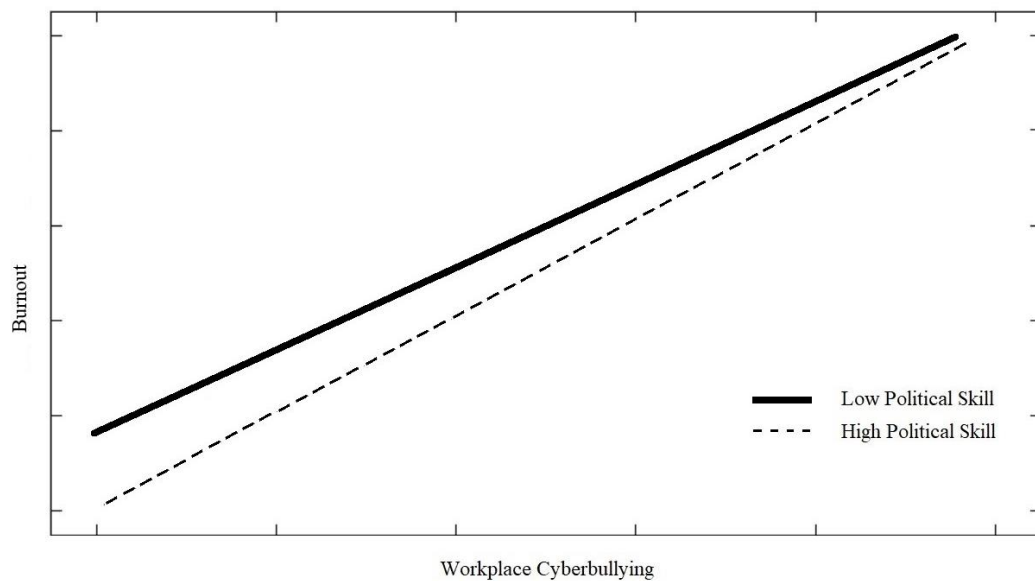


Figure 4.15 The Moderating Effect of Political Skills on the Positive Relationship between Workplace Cyberbullying and Burnout

Figure 4.15 emphasizes the negative moderating effects of political skill on the association between workplace cyberbullying and burnout. The comparison of the regression slopes indicates that the effect of workplace cyberbullying on burnout is lower for employees with high political skill than the employees with lower political skill. However, this difference is not statistically supported.

4.7.2 Control Variables

The results regarding the effect of the control variables are as follow. First, workplace cyberbullying has a positive relationship with gender ($\beta = .024$; $p = .328$), age ($\beta = .025$; $p = .315$), job tenure ($\beta = .080$; $p = .064$), job types ($\beta = .095$; $p = .035$) and the scope of CMC platform usage ($\beta = .053$; $p = .155$). This result suggests that employees, especially older females with a longer tenure on their job in the academia and using CMC platform more frequently tend to have a higher chance of exposing to workplace cyberbullying. However, among these control variables, the effect of job type is the only one that is statistically significant. In this sense, academic employees might be more likely to be exposed to cyberbullying at work than non-academic employees.

Second, organizational commitment is also positively related with gender ($\beta = .045$; $p = .198$), age ($\beta = .109$; $p = .019$), job tenure ($\beta = .144$; $p = .003$), job types ($\beta = .104$; $p = .023$) and the scope of CMC platform usage ($\beta = .076$; $p = .075$). This implies that older female employees with a longer tenure on their job in the academia and using CMC platform more frequently tend to have higher level of organizational commitment. However, the gender variable is not a statistically significant predictor of organizational commitment.

Third, burnout is positively related with gender ($\beta = .011$; $p = .420$) and negatively related to age ($\beta = -.165$; $p < .001$), job tenure ($\beta = -.028$; $p = .300$), job type ($\beta = -.120$; $p = .011$) and CMC platform usage ($\beta = -.010$; $p = .427$). This implies that employees who are female, older, having longer job tenure, working in academic job, and using CMC platform more frequently tend to have higher levels of burnout. However, among these control variables, only the effect of age and job type is significant statistically. In this view, younger employee in non-academic job might be less likely to be burned out at work than the older employees and those working in academic job.

4.7.3 R-Squared

This study will use a Partial Least Square Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) technique in order to analyze the model. PLS-SEM is a widely accepted method which provide the useful method such as multiple regression analysis, path analysis and structural equation modelling (Hammer & Niamir, 1979, May). It has been broadly used in social science research such as marketing (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Joe F Hair et al., 2011), management (Richter et al., 2015), and human resources (Suan & Nasurdin, 2014). This study applies PLS-SEM analysis since it can concurrently analyze multiple hypotheses which is a single or multiple items measurement. Furthermore, it can measure formative and reflective scales and it does not require data to be normally distributed (Chin et al., 2003; Gefen et al., 2000; Joe F Hair et al., 2011). Finally, it prefers smaller sample sizes than other SEM analytical techniques (Joe F Hair et al., 2011). The research will be used Warp PLS version 6.0 to perform PLS-SEM estimation.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overall Finding

This section describes the results from PLS-SEM analysis. The results indicate that six out of nine hypotheses in this research are statistically supported. The results are summarized in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Result

Hypotheses	Result
H1 Ethical leadership is negatively related to workplace cyberbullying.	Not supported
H2 Organizational politics is positively related to workplace cyberbullying.	Supported
H3 Ethical leadership is negatively related to organizational politics.	Supported
H4 The relationship between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying is mediated through organizational politics.	Supported
H5 Workplace cyberbullying is negatively related to organizational commitment.	Supported
H6 Workplace cyberbullying is positively related to burnout.	Supported
H7 The positive effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.	Supported
H8 The negative effect of workplace cyberbullying on organizational commitment will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.	Not supported
H9 The positive effect of workplace cyberbullying on burnout will be lower for individuals with high political skill than those with low political skill.	Not supported

5.2 General Discussion

Because of the implementation of computer-mediated communication in educational institutions, the existence of workplace cyberbullying is inevitable. To reduce the occurrence of workplace cyberbullying, it is important to explore the antecedents and outcomes of workplace cyberbullying. The main purpose of this research is to identify the determinants and outcomes associated with workplace cyberbullying among employees in a university in Thailand. Ethical leadership and organizational politics are proposed as the important determinants of cyberbullying at work. The organizational commitment and burnout are proposed as the outcome variables of workplace cyberbullying. In addition, political skill is involved in this study as the moderating variable that is hypothesized to weaken the correlation between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying. Moreover, political skill is proposed to weaken the impact of workplace cyberbullying on the outcome variables, which are organizational commitment and burnout. Six out of the nine hypotheses are supported. The results demonstrate that there is a prevalence of workplace cyberbullying in the educational institution. The discussion of findings based on the results of PLS-SEM analysis is presented as follows.

5.2.1 Discussion of the Antecedences of Workplace Cyberbullying

First, this study hypothesized that ethical leadership decreases workplace cyberbullying. Ethical leadership was proposed as an organizational factor that influences the workplace cyberbullying in the educational institution. However, the result does not support the direct effect of ethical leadership on workplace cyberbullying. This finding also aligns with the study of Gardner et al. (2016) in the context of employee in New Zealand, which found that ethical leadership is unrelated to cyberbullying. Nevertheless, this result is contradicting with some previous research findings in the field of workplace bullying, which suggested that leadership plays a significant role in reducing workplace bullying in the organization (Dussault & Frenette, 2015; Mills et al., 2019; Nielsen, 2013; Stouten et al., 2010). It is possible that ethical leadership does not directly lower workplace cyberbullying, but it plays a crucial role on lowering organizational politics that cause workplace cyberbullying.

This mediating role of organizational politics also provide support to the hypothesis stating that organizational politics mediates the link between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying. As expected, this result implies that ethical leadership can decrease workplace cyberbullying through the lower levels of organizational politics. This finding provides an additional support to prior leadership research, which showed that leaders tend to play an important role of promoting employees' positive behaviors through the reduction of organizational politics (Islam et al., 2013; K Michele Kacmar et al., 2013; Saleem, 2015; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). The result is also consistent with the study of K Michele Kacmar et al. (2013), which suggested that workplaces under the management of ethical leadership are less likely to have organizational politics. Thus, it is likely that ethical leadership in the university might also reduce the chance of workplace cyberbullying by modulating the political climate in the workplace that induces workplace cyberbullying. In addition, the result supports the hypothesis stating that organizational politics is positively related to workplace cyberbullying. In particular, the result shows that ethical leadership negatively affect organizational politics is consistent with previous studies that reported the direct effect of leadership on subordinates' perception of organizational politics (Asnakew & Mekonnen, 2019; Islam et al., 2013; K Michele Kacmar et al., 2013; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

With respect to the hypothesized relationship of organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying in the context of educational institution. Organizational politics is additionally proposed as the organizational factor that affect the workplace cyberbullying in the educational institution. The result reveals that organizational politics has a positive association with workplace cyberbullying. The finding is in line with extant literature demonstrating that organizational politics is the main factor that influences the occurrence of workplace bullying and cyberbullying in diverse types of organization such as, banks, pharmaceutical companies, telecommunication companies, charitable organizations, state and government agencies, and universities (Amponsah-Tawiah & Annor, 2017; Heatherington & Coyne, 2014; Naseer et al., 2016; Salin, 2003a). This result is consistent with the study of Amponsah-Tawiah and Annor (2017), which found that the prevalence of organizational politics has a stronger influence on the occurrence of bullying victimization. It is also supported by

Naseer et al. (2016)'s findings, which showed that organization politics can create an environment where employees are more prone to be bullied in workplace.

5.2.2 Discussion of the Outcomes of Workplace Cyberbullying

This study proposes that workplace cyberbullying negatively affects organizational commitment in the educational institution. The finding supports a negative relationship between cyberbullying and its outcome on employees' organizational commitment indicating that employees who are exposed to workplace cyberbullying in the educational institution exhibit lower level of commitment toward their organization. This finding is in line with the studies in several contexts, which demonstrated that workplace cyberbullying is one of the factors contributing to the reduction of employees' organizational commitment (Jönsson et al., 2017; Lim & Teo, 2009; Muhonen et al., 2017; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Lim and Teo (2009) found that being the victims of cyber aggression can lead to lower organizational commitment in the banking and financial industry in Singapore. This finding is in agreement with the research on workplace bullying conducted by Nielsen and Einarsen (2012), which showed that workplace bullying is found to be a major contributor of the decreased organizational commitment.

Furthermore on outcomes, this research hypothesized that workplace cyberbullying increases employees' burnout. The finding confirms that there is a positive impact of workplace cyberbullying on the employee burnout. This indicates that employees in the educational institution who are exposed to cyberbullying at work experience a higher level of burnout than those non-victims. This finding is in agreement with prior research in several contexts (Bass et al., 2016; Farley et al., 2016; Gary W Giumetti et al., 2013; Gary W Giumetti et al., 2012; Heischman et al., 2019). The finding is supported by the study of Bass et al. (2016), who found similar outcomes in the educational institution in the Northeastern U.S. that the employees who experience the violence at work tend to have higher burnout. More specifically, this result is also consistent with the finding of Farley et al. (2016), which suggested that workplace cyberbullying is associated with higher levels of emotional exhaustion among employees in different work settings in UK such as educational institutions and hospitals.

5.2.3 Discussion of the Moderating Effect of Political Skill

Regarding the moderating effect, the study proposed political skill as the moderator between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying exposure. The result statistically confirmed the moderating role of political skill that mitigates the effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying among employees in educational institution. This result is one of the major highlights of this study as it implies that the positive relationship between the politics in organization and exposure to cyberbullying can be weakened by enhancing individuals' political skill. In other words, when the organizational politics is high, the employees who have greater political skill are less likely to be exposed to workplace cyberbullying than employees who have lower political skill. So far, no previous research in other contexts has included political skill as a moderator between the workplace cyberbullying and its antecedents. However, this result is in line with the prior study of Pamela L Perrewé et al., (2004), which support the importance of political skills as a moderator between workplace stressors and employee adverse outcomes in the oil companies in Brazil. Moreover, this result is consistent with prior research which suggest that political skill might be crucial for individuals to deal with unfavorable climate. In particular, the finding is in line with the study of Brouer et al. (2006), which suggested that the politically-skilled employees tend to have lower negative attitudes when they perceive high politics in their work environment. The result also provides additional support to prior research suggesting political skill as an *emotional resilience*, which make the employees understand and being able handle the adverse situation in the workplace (Bentley et al., 2017; Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005). The finding from this study demonstrates that the chance of workplace cyberbullying exposure of employees in a highly political workplace can be mitigated if employees have good political skills.

Surprisingly, some results of moderation hypotheses are not supported. Although this study hypothesized that political skill moderates the effects of cyberbullying on organizational commitment and burnout in the educational institution, their relationship is not statistically significant. It implies that political skill is not an important factor in mitigating the relationship between cyberbullying and its effects on organizational commitment and burnout.

Regarding the hypothesis about the moderating effect of political skill on workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment, the study proposes that the negative relationship between workplace cyberbullying and organizational commitment would be lower for politically-skilled employees, but the result shows otherwise. The result shows that individuals with high political skill are more likely to have lower organizational commitment when being cyberbullied in the workplace than those with low political skill. Considering the previous empirical evidence, employees tend to reduce their organizational commitment when they perceive the violation towards their obligations at work, which could lead to the negative feeling towards the organization that, in turn, results in lower organizational commitment (Knights & Kennedy, 2005; Nouri & Parker, 2013; Weng & McElroy, 2012). Perceiving workplace cyberbullying as a violation, in this sense, political skilled employees may be able to comprehend the situation better than the lower skilled employees and consequently reduce their commitment towards the organization. Nonetheless, this relationship is not significant, which may indicate that this does not largely matter.

As for the hypothesis about the moderating effect of political skills on workplace cyberbullying and job burnout, the study proposes that the positive relationship between workplace cyberbullying and job burnout will be lower for employees with high political skill; and the result confirms that. In other words, employees with high political skill are more likely to have lower job burnout than the employees with lower political skill when they are exposed to workplace cyberbullying. This could be because the politically skilled individuals tend to have the coping resources to effectively cope with work stress that could subsequently leads to job strain (P. Perrewé et al., 2000; P. L. Perrewé et al., 2004). However, this result is not statistically significant; as a result, I cannot confidently infer this part of the moderating effect of political skill.

5.3 Discussion of the Control Variables

Pertaining the control variables of workplace cyberbullying, only job types are strong predictor of cyberbullying. The positive association between job types and workplace cyberbullying implies that academic employees in the university is more likely to be exposed to cyberbullying than the non-academic employees. This is consistent with the prior research on workplace cyberbullying, which suggested that higher-ranked employees are exposed to more cyberbullying incidences at work than the lower-ranked employees (R. Forssell, 2016; Gardner et al., 2016). In particular, the anonymity in cyberspace allows individuals who have lower power with regards to organizational position to conceal their personal identity; as a result, the lower-ranked employees might decide to bully the higher-ranked employees on cyberspace because it is difficult to track their identity (Campbell, 2005; R. Forssell, 2016). This leads to a greater possibility of higher-ranked employees to become a victim of cyberbullying. For this reason, academic employees may be more likely to be targeted for workplace cyberbullying than non-academic staffs. This is consistent with the previous study on workplace bullying by Raineri, Frear, and Edmonds (2011), which found that the ranking of faculty members is related to workplace bullying as the academics are more likely to be bullied than the non-academics.

For the effect of control variables on organizational commitment, the results find that age, job tenure and job types are significantly related with organizational commitment. The positive relationship between age and organizational commitment implies that employees who are older tend to have higher levels of organizational commitment, which is consistent with what has been found in previous research (Allen & Meyer, 1993; Salami, 2008). Moreover, there is a positive relationship between job tenure and organizational commitment, which indicates that employees with longer tenure in the organization tend to demonstrate a higher level of organizational commitment than lower-tenured employees. Long-tenured employees have been exposed to more organizational values, which might make them become more attached to the organization (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001). This finding is consistent with the evidence in prior research that found similar results (Azeem, 2010; Cohen, 1993). Furthermore, the positive relationship between job type

and organizational commitment suggests that academic employees are more committed to the organization than non-academic employees. The results also find that age and job types are significantly related with burnout. The negative relationship between age and burnout implied that younger employees demonstrate a high level of burnout than older employees, Younger employees tend to experience more burnout because they are less resilient about the working environment than older workers (Maslach et al., 2001). This finding is consistent with the evidence in prior research that found similar results (Lau, Yuen, & Chan, 2005). In addition, the negative relationship between job types and burnout indicates that the non-academic employees show more burnout than academic employees. This can be explained by the work nature of non-academic employees, which may need to be responsible to many administrative works. This is also congruent with previous research, which found that non-academic staffs tend to suffer and with anxiety due to the lack of authority in the workplace, which consequently leads to job burnout (Hosgorur & Apikoglu, 2013).

5.4 Discussion of the Theory

The findings provide support for the ERM framework that was proposed as the main theory in this research to explain the prevalence of workplace cyberbullying. ERM suggests that workplace stressors are generally indicated as a cause of workplace cyberbullying and reappraisal strategy should be adopted to reduce the negative impact of workplace stressors. The findings in this study are in congruence with the ERM framework as they suggest that the role of ethical leadership have a significant role in promoting the ethical and supportive work climate in order to lower workplace stressors that are antecedents of workplace cyberbullying. Moreover, this role of ethical leadership is consistent with the leadership theory, which suggests that leaders have a strong influence in creating a favorable climate in the organization that promotes employees' work morale and ethical behaviors (Phungsoonthorn & Charoensukmongkol, 2018). Furthermore, in line with the ERM, the role of ethical leadership is to reduce organizational politics, which is a workplace stressor that precedes workplace cyberbullying. Furthermore, the findings support the role of

employees' political skill as the appraisal strategy that facilitates employees to deal with the negative effects of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying exposure. In other words, political skill alleviates the negative effects of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying. Hence, from the theoretical perspective, the results regarding the effect of ethical leadership, organizational politics and the moderating role of political skills on workplace cyberbullying exposure provide evidence that are consistent with the ERM of Vranjes et al. (2017).



CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1 Research Summary

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the antecedents and effects that workplace cyberbullying has on employees in an educational institution. I proposed that ethical leadership and organizational politics are the determinants that affect the prevalence of workplace cyberbullying. The findings confirmed only the positive, direct association between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying. This result suggested that organizational politics may increase the risk of being exposed to cyberbullying in workplace. Thus, the employees who is exposed to strong politics in the workplace are more prone to experience to cyberbullying at work than employees who are not expose to politics in the workplace. However, for the ethical leadership, this research did not find the direct association between ethical leadership and workplace cyberbullying. Rather, the results indicated that the effect of ethical leadership on workplace cyberbullying is indirectly explained through organizational politics. This result implied that ethical leadership may lower cyberbullying in workplace by reducing the level of organizational politics. Therefore, employees who work under ethical leaders are less likely to experience politics in workplace, which further prevents them from cyberbullying exposure. Regarding work-related outcomes, organizational commitment and burnout were proposed to be the outcomes of workplace cyberbullying. The findings confirmed that cyberbullying can adversely affect both employees' organizational commitment and job burnout. These findings supported the prior research that workplace cyberbullying leads to lower organizational commitment and higher job burnout. This means that employees who experience more cyberbullying exposure are more likely to have low commitment to the organization and are more prone to burnout. Lastly, the study additionally proposed the political skills as moderator of the association between

organizational politics and cyberbullying exposure, and the relationship between cyberbullying and organizational commitment as well as job political skills of employees could moderate the effect of organizational politics on cyberbullying exposure, as well as the effect of cyberbullying on organizational commitment and burnout. The findings confirmed only the moderating role of political skills on the relationship between organizational politics and workplace cyberbullying. In other words, the negative effect of organizational politics on cyberbullying could be lessened only in the case of employees with high political skill as organizational politics might buffer the negative effect of cyberbullying in the workplace for the employees who possess political skills. On the contrary, organizational politics could have more intense effect on cyberbullying for employees with low political skill.

The overall results from the PLS-SEM analysis represents that most of the predictions are supported. In conclusion, this study was obtained from the university employees of a public university in Thailand. Employees working under the supervisor who exhibits a high degree of ethical leadership characteristics have fewer exposure to cyberbullying in the workplace through reducing the organizational politics in the work environments, which in turn, allow the employees to increase their commitment to the organization, and to minimize their job burnout. This result is consistent with prior research findings that leadership tends to play an influential role in determining the positive work environment such as organizational politics (K Michele Kacmar et al., 2013). This political environment plays a key role in determining the chance of workplace deviant behaviors that happens in the organization such as workplace cyberbullying (Amponsah-Tawiah & Annor, 2017; Naseer et al., 2016). In addition to these, the result sheds some light on a significant role of political skill in preventing the effect of organizational politics on cyberbullying exposure.

From the theoretical perspective, this research provided additional evidence to support the theoretical framework of ERM proposed by Vranjes et al. (2017). ERM indicated that workplace stressor can cause workplace cyberbullying through the development of negative emotions. This study confirmed the effect of organizational politics as workplace stressor on cyberbullying exposure, and the role of political skill as a reappraisal strategy to prevent the effects of workplace stressors on cyberbullying in the workplace. This research's findings are found to align well with the ERM in

order to explain the occurrence of workplace cyberbullying in the educational institution in Thailand.

6.2 Academic Contributions

Overall, this study contributes to prior research in the area of workplace cyberbullying in various way. Firstly, the evidence regarding the antecedents and outcomes of cyberbullying using the sample of university employees in Thailand confirms the problem of cyberbullying in educational institutions, which is unexplored in prior research. This study also provides more evidence to the limited findings about workplace cyberbullying within the context of Thailand by identifying leadership and work environment in predicting the phenomenon of cyberbullying among working adults. Moreover, to the best of my knowledge, the empirical study of the effect of political skills on organizational politics and the exposure to workplace cyberbullying has not been addressed before. Thus, this research can contribute to the knowledge from prior research. Additionally, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in cyberbullying research by showing that the political skills of employees plays an influential role in reducing the effect of organizational politics on workplace cyberbullying exposure, as well as instigating the effect of workplace cyberbullying exposure on organizational commitment and job burnout. The results contribute new knowledge by showing that the degree to which employees are affected by workplace cyberbullying and the consequence that follows could somehow depend on some conditional factor in terms of the personal skill of the employees. Political skills comprise social astuteness, which may allow employees to understand and interpret the situations as well as generate a suitable response towards the satiation (G. R. Ferris et al., 2005). This could enable them to adapt effectively with the stressful work environments such as organizational politics. Thus, political skill is important in buffering the negative impact of workplace politics on cyberbullying victimization. The results clarify that when employees have political skills, they may not be affected much by cyberbullying, and the role of organizational politics in triggering the cyberbullying problem may not be as essential. Overall, this research provides more understanding about the antecedents and outcomes associated with workplace

cyberbullying and the moderating condition that need to be taken in order. The framework of this research provides a holistic and clearer picture of cyberbullying phenomenon in the workplace.

6.3 Practical Contributions

The results from this research yield several implications for the management of educational institutions, particularly for the university, regarding the effects that cyberbullying may cause to employees, as well as practice and policy recommendations to prevent cyberbullying in the institution. First, the results suggest that the role of the supervisor's ethical leadership plays a vital role in creating a positive work environment (M. E. Brown & Treviño, 2006). The ethical leadership of the superiors should be promoted to generate the ethical climate at work that can reduce employees' organizational politics, which in turn prevents the chance that someone will utilize the technology to cyberbully other employees. Thus, it might be important for the management of educational institutions to focus on the development of ethical leadership of the employees who take a supervisory position. Particularly, the management of the university may encourage employees who take a supervisory position to be the ethical leaders by means of training. The management of the university might also need to monitor unethical behaviors of the employees who take a supervisory position. Furthermore, the management may consider selecting the candidate who have more ethics and moral for the job promotion. Given that cyberbullying can be harmful to commitment and job burnout among employees in the institution, the management of the university must promote ethical behaviors of supervisors to prevent the organizational politics and subsequently prevent the occurrence of cyberbullying and the negative outcomes that may follow.

Second, the study indicates that the role of organizational politics plays a significant role in prediction of cyberbullying victimization in workplace. In particular, the politics tend to be rampant among the Thai employees. It has been suggested that politics, which is known as social relationship, is recognized as a method to attain the achievement in the Thai organization (Komin, 1990; Omisore & Nweke, 2014). According to this point, the employees may perceive organizational

politics as normal which motivate workplace cyberbullying behaviors, and result on poor commitment and burnout towards the employees especially in Thailand context. As such, to reduce and prevent cyberbullying behavior in the workplace, it is important to lower the politics that resides in the organization. Therefore, the management should provide an equal opportunity for employees to access the scarce resources including career growth and promotion in order to reduce unhealthy competition in the institution. For example, the management may implement the rules and regulation for resources allocation and apply clear policies to minimize favoritisms and inequality in the organization. Moreover, the management may support the employees to address and attain their personal goals and career achievement by employing two-way and clear communication to clarify the career path as well as offering a training for the development to achieve personal goals. These means could result in the work environment that discourage workplace politics. Considering that organizational politics leads to cyberbullying, which consequently lowers employees' commitment and increases job burnout, the management of the university must discourage political environment to prevent workplace cyberbullying and the subsequent effects it may cause.

Third, this research also found that political skills plays an important role in buffering the detrimental effect of workplace politics on cyberbullying. The preventive role of organizational politics seems to be particularly important among the politically-skilled employees. The results emphasized that employees who have political skills can effectively deal with the work environment is intensely political. On the contrary, the employees who report a lack of political skills tend to be vulnerable to workplace cyberbullying when they perceived high political environment in their workplace. Therefore, the management could develop employees' political skills to enable them to cope with the politics in workplace. This can be done by organizing a training program and promoting specific coaching for the necessary political skills so that employees are able to utilize their skill to reduce a chance of cyberbullying victimization at work. This can subsequently help employees protect themselves from the impact of cyberbullying when they inevitably work in a highly political workplace.

6.4 Limitation

Although this study offers some important academic and practical contribution, there are some limitations that need to be acknowledged. First, the study obtained the sample from one public university in Thailand; therefore, the results may not be generalized to other universities in Thailand and in other countries. Second, this research used cross-sectional research design and correlational analysis to obtain the results which may prevent the researcher to interpret the findings in terms of the cause and effect relationships. Thirdly, the results from this research is based on self-reported data, which may have some possibility of subjective bias. Lastly, this research collected data about cyberbullying only from the victim of cyberbullying. It did not consider cyberbullying from the perspective of perpetrators of cyberbullying and bystanders. Therefore, the workplace cyberbullying phenomenon that are captured in this research might not reflect the real case that happen in the institution. In addition, I only examined organizational politics from the employee's perception, which may not explain the actual politics that occurs in the organization.

6.5 Future Research

Findings of this study highlight a number of future research directions. First, the future researchers should test the model in other educational settings to confirm whether the results from this research could be generalized to different contexts. Moreover, there is a need for future study to be conducted in other educational institutions to contextualize the research findings and increase generalizability. Second, the future studies could employ longitudinal design to verify the causal relationship in the model. Third, future research should provide more examination of workplace cyberbullying in the view of perpetrators and bystanders to get a more complete view of this phenomenon. Lastly, given that research in workplace cyberbullying still lacks evidence regarding the conditional factors that can limit or enhance the effect of cyberbullying on outcome variables. Therefore, future researchers should explore other moderating factors affecting the impact of cyberbullying. For example, future researchers may integrate some personal

characteristics of employees and organizational aspects as the moderators to test the possibility that they may influence the effect of cyberbullying.



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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY

แบบสอบถามเพื่อการวิจัย

คำชี้แจง

1. แบบสอบถามนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของงานวิจัยเกี่ยวกับปัจจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการถูกระรานทางไซเบอร์ (Cyberbullying) ของบุคลากรในสถานศึกษา
2. แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้ประกอบด้วย 8 ตอน ได้แก่ ข้อมูลทั่วไป ภาวะผู้นำเชิงจริยธรรม การรับรู้ต่อการเมืองในองค์กร ความผูกพันด้านจิตใจต่อองค์กร ภาวะหมดไฟในการทำงาน ทักษะทางการเมือง การถูกระรานทางไซเบอร์ และระดับของการมีสติ
3. การตอบแบบสอบถามขึ้นอยู่กับความสมัครใจของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม
4. คำตอบของทุกท่านจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับ โดยจะ ไม่มีการเปิดเผยชื่อผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม และชื่อหน่วยงานของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม
5. ขอความกรุณาตอบคำถามโดยใช้ความรู้สึก และความคิดเห็นที่แท้จริง ในการเลือกคำตอบที่ท่านคิดว่าสามารถอธิบายความรู้สึกของท่านได้ตรงที่สุดในการตอบคำถามแต่ละข้อ
6. ท่านสามารถตอบแบบสอบถามในเอกสารที่แนบมา หรือเพื่อความเป็นส่วนตัว ท่านสามารถตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ได้ผ่านทางเว็บไซต์โดยการสแกนคิวอาร์โค้ดนี้:



ตอนที่ 1: ข้อมูลส่วนตัว	
1. เพศ	<input type="checkbox"/> ชาย <input type="checkbox"/> หญิง
2. อายุปี
3. การศึกษาสูงสุด	<input type="checkbox"/> ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี <input type="checkbox"/> ปริญญาตรี <input type="checkbox"/> ปริญญาโท <input type="checkbox"/> ปริญญาเอก
4. อายุการทำงานที่สถาบันนี้ปี
5. การจ้างงาน	<input type="checkbox"/> ข้าราชการ <input type="checkbox"/> พนักงานมหาลัย
6. ประเภทบุคลากร	<input type="checkbox"/> สายบริหาร <input type="checkbox"/> สายวิชาการ <input type="checkbox"/> สายปฏิบัติการ
7. ในรอบ 6 เดือนที่ผ่านมา ท่าน ติดต่อสื่อสารผ่านช่องทาง ออนไลน์ใดบ่อยครั้ง (ตอบได้ มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)	<input type="checkbox"/> เฟซบุ๊ก <input type="checkbox"/> ไลน์ <input type="checkbox"/> อีเมล <input type="checkbox"/> ยูทูบ <input type="checkbox"/> อินสตาแกรม <input type="checkbox"/> ทวิตเตอร์ <input type="checkbox"/> อื่น ๆ
8. ท่านใช้อุปกรณ์ใดในการ ติดต่อสื่อสารมากที่สุด (ตอบได้ มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)	<input type="checkbox"/> โทรศัพท์มือถือ <input type="checkbox"/> แท็บเล็ต <input type="checkbox"/> โน้ตบุ๊ก <input type="checkbox"/> คอมพิวเตอร์ (PC)
9. ท่านใช้เวลากับสื่อออนไลน์ทุก ชนิด เฉลี่ยรวมวันละกี่ชั่วโมง	<input type="checkbox"/> น้อยกว่า 1 ชั่วโมง <input type="checkbox"/> 1-2 ชั่วโมง <input type="checkbox"/> 3-4 ชั่วโมง <input type="checkbox"/> มากกว่า 4 ชั่วโมง

ตอนที่ 2: แบบสอบถามการรับรู้ต่อภาวะผู้นำเชิงจริยธรรม

คำชี้แจง : ท่านมีความเห็นเกี่ยวกับลักษณะการทำงานของหัวหน้าในหน่วยงานของท่านอย่างไร

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยมาก
1. ประพฤติปฏิบัติตนตามหลักคุณธรรม					
2. ให้ความสำคัญกับกระบวนการที่ถูกต้องที่จะนำไปสู่ความสำเร็จ					
3. รับฟังในสิ่งที่ลูกน้องต้องการจะพูด					
4. ให้ความสำคัญกับลูกน้องที่ฝ่าฝืนมาตรฐานจริยธรรม					
5. สร้างความยุติธรรมและตัดสินใจอย่างเป็นกลาง					
7. เป็นบุคคลที่ท่านสามารถไว้วางใจได้					
8. เน้นหลักจริยธรรมหรือค่านิยมที่ดีในการปฏิบัติงานกับผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา					
9. แสดงตัวอย่างของการปฏิบัติตัวที่ถูกต้องตามหลักจริยธรรม					
10. คำนึงถึงประโยชน์สูงสุดของผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา					
11. ก่อนตัดสินใจเรื่องใดเรื่องหนึ่งจะตั้งข้อสังเกตเสมอว่าเป็นสิ่งที่ถูกต้องหรือไม่					

ตอนที่ 3: แบบสอบถามการรับรู้ต่อการเมืองในองค์กร

คำชี้แจง : ท่านมีความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับลักษณะของงานในหน่วยงานของท่านอย่างไร

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยมาก
1. ความก้าวหน้าในหน่วยงานนี้ขึ้นอยู่กับการใช้เส้นสายมากกว่าความรู้ความสามารถ					
2. หน่วยงานนี้ไม่สนับสนุนคนประจบประแจง ที่นี้ต้องการความคิดเห็นที่ดี แม้ว่าความคิดเห็นนั้นจะแตกต่างจากหัวหน้างาน					
3. คณาจารย์และเจ้าหน้าที่ที่นี่ถูกส่งเสริมให้พูดอย่างตรงไปตรงมา แม้กระทั่งในการวิจารณ์แนวคิดที่เป็นที่ยอมรับ					
4. หน่วยงานนี้มีกลุ่มผู้ทรงอิทธิพลที่ไม่มีใครสามารถจะเอาชนะได้					
5. คณาจารย์และเจ้าหน้าที่ที่นี่ไม่กล้าแสดงความคิดเห็นใดๆ เพราะกลัวการตอบโต้จากคนอื่น					
6. ในหน่วยงานนี้เฉพาะคนที่ทุ่มเททำงานหนักเท่านั้นที่ควรได้รับรางวัลตอบแทน					
7. การเลื่อนขั้นหรือตำแหน่งในหน่วยงานนี้จะคัดเลือกจากผู้ที่มีผลงานโดดเด่นเสมอ					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็น ด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็น ด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วย มาก
8. คนที่นี้พยายามทำลายฝ่ายตรงข้ามเพื่อให้กลุ่มของตนได้ดี					
9. ฉันเห็นความเปลี่ยนแปลงของนโยบายของหน่วยงานของฉันซึ่งเป็นประโยชน์ต่อบุคลากรบางท่านเท่านั้น ไม่ได้ทำเพื่อประโยชน์ของหน่วยงานโดยรวม					
10. มีกลุ่มคนในหน่วยงานนี้ที่ได้ในสิ่งที่เขาต้องการเสมอ และไม่มีใครอยากที่จะทำลายพวกเขา					
12. ฉันมั่นใจว่าไม่มีใครได้เลื่อนขั้นหรือเลื่อนตำแหน่งโดยที่ไม่สอดคล้องกับกฎเกณฑ์ในมหาลัย					
13. ตั้งแต่ทำงานที่มหาลัยนี้ฉันยังไม่เคยเห็นนโยบายการเลื่อนขั้นหรือเลื่อนตำแหน่งใดถูกนำมาใช้เพื่อประโยชน์ทางการเมือง					

ตอนที่ 4: แบบสอบถาม ความผูกพันด้านจิตใจต่อองค์กร

คำชี้แจง : ท่านมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร ต่อความรู้สึกต่อไปนี้

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยมาก
1. ฉันมีความสุขที่จะได้ทำงานที่นี้ไปตลอดจนเกษียณ					
2. ฉันรู้สึกว่าเป็นปัญหาของหน่วยงานคือปัญหาของฉัน					
3. ฉันไม่รู้สึกว่าเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของหน่วยงานนี้					
4. ฉันไม่รู้สึกผูกพันกับหน่วยงาน					
5. หน่วยงานนี้มีความหมายสำหรับฉันมาก					
6. ฉันไม่รู้สึกถึงความเป็นเจ้าของต่อหน่วยงานนี้					

ตอนที่ 5: แบบสอบถาม ภาวะหมดไฟในการทำงาน

คำชี้แจง : บ่อยครั้งแค่ไหนที่ท่านเคยมีประสบการณ์ต่างๆต่อไปนี้

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยมาก
1. ฉันรู้สึกหมดไฟในการทำงาน					
2. ฉันรู้สึกหมดแรงเมื่อเลิกงาน					
3. ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยใจในการทำงาน					
4. ฉันรู้สึกเหนื่อยเมื่อตื่นนอนตอนเช้าและจะต้องไปทำงาน					
5. ฉันรู้สึกเครียดเวลาที่ฉันต้องทำงานทั้งวัน					

ตอนที่ 6: แบบสอบถาม ทักษะทางการเมือง

คำชี้แจง : ท่านมีความเห็นเกี่ยวกับทักษะและความสามารถของท่านในด้านต่อไปนี้เพียงใด

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยมาก
1. ฉันมีความสามารถในการรับรู้ถึงแรงจูงใจและวัตถุประสงค์แอบแฝงของผู้อื่น					
2. ฉันเข้าใจความคิดของผู้อื่นเป็นอย่างดี					
3. ฉันมีสติปัญญาและความชาญฉลาดในการแสดงออกต่อผู้อื่น					
4. ฉันสามารถสื่อสารกับผู้อื่นอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพและเข้าใจง่าย					
6. ฉันมีความสามารถทำให้ผู้อื่นประทับใจในตัวฉัน					
7. ฉันสามารถสานสัมพันธ์กับผู้อื่นได้อย่างง่ายดาย					
8. ฉันสามารถสร้างความสัมพันธ์กับกลุ่มผู้มีอิทธิพลในองค์กรได้					
9. ฉันเก่งในเรื่องการใช้เครือข่ายและการเชื่อมโยงกับคนกลุ่มอื่นเพื่อทำงานสำเร็จลุล่วง					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เห็น ด้วยมาก	ไม่เห็น ด้วย	ปานกลาง	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วย มาก
10. ฉันใช้เวลาส่วนมากในที่ ทำงานสร้างความสัมพันธ์ เชื่อมโยงกับผู้อื่น					
11. ฉันแสดงความสนใจต่อผู้อื่น ด้วยความจริงใจ					
12. ฉันให้ความสำคัญกับ ความคิดของผู้อื่นที่มีต่อฉัน ว่าฉันจริงใจในคำพูดและการ กระทำ					
13. ฉันจริงใจกับคำพูดและการ กระทำของฉันในการ ติดต่อสื่อสารกับผู้อื่น					

ตอนที่ 7: แบบสอบถาม การถูกระรานทางไซเบอร์

คำชี้แจง : ในรอบ 6 เดือนที่ผ่านมา บ่อยครั้งแค่ไหนที่ท่านได้รับการปฏิบัติในเชิงลบจากบุคคล
อื่นในหน่วยงานของท่าน ผ่านสื่ออิเล็กทรอนิกส์ต่าง ๆ ต่อไปนี้

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
1. หัวหน้าหรือเพื่อนร่วมงาน ของท่านเคยจงใจเพิกเฉยต่อ อีเมลหรือไลน์ของท่าน					
2. ท่านเคยถูกวิพากษ์วิจารณ์ การทำงานในเชิงลบในสื่อ สังคมออนไลน์ เช่น ไลน์ เฟสบุ๊ก เป็นต้น					
3. ข้อความหยาบคายถูกส่งถึง					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
ท่านผ่านช่องทางดิจิทัล เช่น อีเมล ไลน์ เป็นต้น					
4. ท่านเคยถูกวิพากษ์วิจารณ์การทำงานหรือผลงานอย่างต่อเนื่องในระยะเวลาหนึ่งผ่านช่องทางดิจิทัล เช่น อีเมล ไลน์ เฟซบุ๊ก เป็นต้น					
5. ท่านถูกปิดบังไม่ให้เข้าถึงข้อมูลที่เป็นต่อการทำงานซึ่งทำให้ท่านทำงานลำบากขึ้น เช่น ถูกกีดกันออกจากบัญชีรายชื่อในอีเมล ถูกงดเว้นการส่งไลน์หรือข้อความในสื่อสังคมออนไลน์ เป็นต้น					
6. ท่านเคยได้รับข้อความที่มีเนื้อหาก้าวร้าวผ่านสื่ออิเล็กทรอนิกส์ เช่น อีเมล ไลน์ เป็นต้น					
7. เคยมีข้อความคุกคามส่งถึงท่านผ่านช่องทางดิจิทัล					
8. ท่านเคยถูกกล่าวหาบนอินเทอร์เน็ตหรือสื่อสังคมออนไลน์					
9. ท่านเคยได้รับข้อความที่มีเนื้อหาคุกคามต่อครอบครัวหรือเพื่อนของท่านผ่าน					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
ช่องทางดิจิทัล					
10. มีคนวิจารณ์ท่านในโลกออนไลน์หรือเฟซบุ๊กให้ท่านลาออกจากหน่วยงานนี้					
11. เรื่องส่วนตัวของท่านถูกนำมาเปิดเผยผ่านช่องทางดิจิทัลเพื่อมุ่งทำลายตัวท่าน เช่น ข้อมูลส่วนตัว ภาพถ่าย บทสนทนาในแอปไลน์ เป็นต้น					
12. ท่านเคยถูกขโมยข้อมูลในคอมพิวเตอร์					
14. ข่าวลือและก่นินทาเกี่ยวกับท่านถูกเผยแพร่ในโลกออนไลน์					
15. ชื่อความของท่านถูกบิดเบือนและถูกคัดลอกเพื่อส่งต่อในโลกออนไลน์					
16. รูปภาพและคลิปวิดีโอที่ไม่พึงประสงค์หรือมุ่งร้ายต่อท่านถูกเผยแพร่ในอินเทอร์เน็ต					
17. เรื่องน่าขบขันเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านถูกเผยแพร่ผ่านอีเมลและสื่อสังคมออนไลน์					
18. ไวรัสคอมพิวเตอร์ถูกส่งถึงท่านผ่านทางอีเมลและสื่อ					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
สังคมออนไลน์					
19. ข้อผิดพลาดในการทำงานของท่านถูกวิพากษ์วิจารณ์เป็นประจำผ่านอีเมล หรือ สื่อสังคมออนไลน์ เช่น ไลน์ เฟซบุ๊ก เป็นต้น					
20. ข้อความเท็จเกี่ยวกับท่านถูกเผยแพร่ลงในอินเทอร์เน็ต					
21. เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่านคิดกันไม่让您เข้าร่วมกลุ่มไลน์ หรือ เฟซบุ๊ก					

ตอนที่ 8: แบบสอบถาม ระดับของการมีสติ

คำชี้แจง : บ่อยครั้งแค่ไหนที่ท่านเคยมีประสบการณ์ต่าง ๆ ต่อไปนี้

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
1. ท่านพบว่าท่านเป็นคนรู้สึกตัวช้า หรือมีความรู้สึกช้า					
2. ท่านมักคิดฟุ้งซ่านจนทำของตกหล่นโดยไม่ทันระวัง					
3. ท่านรู้สึกว่าเป็นการยากที่ท่านจะมีสมาธิกับสิ่งที่ท่านทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
4. ท่านมักเดินไปไหนมาไหน ไร ๆ โดยไม่สนใจสิ่งต่าง ๆ					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
รอบตัว					
5. ท่านไม่ค่อยใส่ใจกับอาการที่ร่างกายรู้สึก ตราบใดที่อาการนั้นไม่รุนแรง					
6. ท่านมักลืมชื่อคนง่ายแม้ว่าท่านเพิ่งได้รู้จักกันไม่นาน					
7. ท่านมักจะทำอะไรโดยที่ท่านไม่รู้เนื้อรู้ตัว					
8. ท่านมักทำอะไรด้วยความรวดเร็วโดยไม่ใส่ใจรายละเอียด					
9. ท่านมักคิดถึงเรื่องอนาคตมากไปจนไม่ใส่ใจสิ่งที่ท่านกำลังทำอยู่ในปัจจุบัน					
10. บางครั้งท่านทำกิจกรรมบางอย่างโดยที่ท่านเองไม่รู้ตัว					
11. ระหว่างที่ท่านทำกิจกรรมบางอย่างท่านมักไม่ใส่ใจฟังเวลาคนอื่นพูด					
12. บางครั้งท่านไปไหนมาไหนโดยท่านเองก็ไม่ได้รู้ว่าไปที่นั่นทำไม					
13. ท่านมักครุ่นคิดกับเรื่องอดีต					

ข้อคำถาม	ไม่เคย	แทบจะไม่	นาน ๆ ครั้ง	บ่อย	บ่อยมาก
ที่ผ่านไปแล้วและอนาคตที่ยัง มาไม่ถึง					
14. ท่านพบว่าบ่อยครั้งที่ท่านทำ อะไรโดยไม่ใส่ใจในสิ่ง ๆ นั้น					
15. ท่านเพลิดเพลินกับการกิน ขนมและของขบเคี้ยวโดยไม่ ค่อยรู้ตัว					

BIOGRAPHY

NAME	Worakamol Tiamboonprasert
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