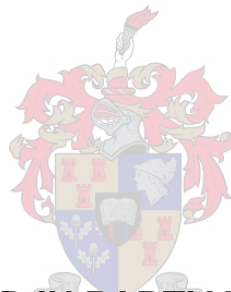


THE NATURE AND PREVALENCE OF WORKPLACE BULLYING IN THE WESTERN CAPE – A SOUTH AFRICAN STUDY

by

Donovan Jaco Kalamdien



**THESIS PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE MASTERS OF
COMMERCE (INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY) AT THE
UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH**

**Supervisor: Ms Marietha De Wet
Faculty of Economic and Management Science
Department of Industrial Psychology**

8 November 2013

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely wife (Samantha Anthea Kalamdien) and beautiful daughter (Donuh Kalamdien) for their love and tireless understanding, support, and encouragement of my studies. It is my hope that they never become the target or perpetrator of bullying in their interaction with others.

DECLARATION

I, Donovan Jaco Kalamdien, hereby declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Signature:

November 2013

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank our Heavenly Father for the strength, determination, and dedication, and for making it possible for me to complete this study despite much adversity.

I am grateful to the following people for their immense contribution for this achievement:

- My wife (Samantha), daughter (Donuh), mothers (Emily & Amanda), fathers (Jacobus & Anthony), sister (Wendy), brothers (Steven, Ettiene & Anthony), family, friends and colleagues for their continued support and believe in me.
- My supervisor, Ms Marietha De Wet, for her time, guidance, patience, support, encouragement, and enthusiasm during this study.
- Prof M Kidd, Stellenbosch University, for his assistance and guidance with the statistical analysis of this study.
- The two participating organisations (South African National Defence Force & Power Group) for granting me access to your workplace and your willingness to participate in the study.
- To every single respondent in this study for their willingness to participate, and honesty with which they completed the research questionnaire.

ABSTRACT

Workplace bullying as a serious psychosocial workplace problem have been a subject of immense discussion in foreign literature since the mid-1980s. In a nutshell, workplace bullying refers to instances where an employee is systematically and continually being subjected to mistreatment and victimisation in the workplace by another or several others through recurring negative harmful acts. The negative effects of workplace bullying on the victim, bystander and organisation is well documented in research literature. However, in South Africa inquiry into the phenomenon is not nearly as extensive as in the global community. As a result, the purpose of the present study was to partially address the deficiency that exists in South African workplace bullying literature. The primary aim of the present study was to investigate the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in two distinct workplaces, the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and Power Group, in the Western Cape, South Africa. A quantitative non-experimental ex-post facto design is employed in the investigation.

Data from both the SANDF ($n=105$) and Power Group ($n=73$) are presented ($N=178$). Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations (SD), and percentages) are used to describe the total sample and the response data on different factors. The Chi-Square and F test were computed in order to test several differences between numerous variables for the total sample, SANDF, and Power Group.

The results of the present study show that workplace bullying is a widespread problem in both the SANDF and Power Group. Between 30% and 50% of respondents had been bullied in their respective workplaces. The SANDF were found to have a higher reported prevalence of workplace bullying than Power Group.

Victims are frequently subjected to work-related bullying on either a weekly or monthly basis for a period ranging between twelve months and two years. Significantly more men than women were reported as the perpetrator of workplace bullying. Those in leadership positions were more often reported as perpetrators of workplace bullying than colleagues/peers, subordinates, or clients. The results of the present study show no significant difference in the reported victimisation for gender, age, ethnicity, and level of responsibility. Those with a certificate or lower level of education were found to be at a higher risk of being bullied in the workplace than those with a diploma or higher level of education. In the case of Power Group, significant differences were found in the reported victimisation for levels of responsibility and levels of education. Workplace bullying is addressed more frequently at Power Group than in the SANDF, despite it being reported in both work environments. The present study found that neither the SANDF nor Power Group had a workplace bullying policy in the organisation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Dedication	i
Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
Table of contents	vi
List of tables	xii
List of figures	xiii
CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND SETTING	1
1.1 Introduction and background to the study	1
1.2 Context of the study	3
1.3 Aim of the study	7
1.4 Objectives	8
1.5 Significance of the study	9
1.6 Outline of chapters	11
1.7 Chapter conclusion	13
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	14
2.1 Background discussion and introduction	14
2.2 Conceptualisation and definition of workplace bullying	17
2.2.1 Descriptive features of workplace bullying	22
2.3 Understanding of workplace bullying within South Africa	27

2.4	Theoretical models of workplace bullying	29
2.4.1	The Heinz Leymann model of workplace bullying	30
2.4.2	Salin's model of workplace bullying	33
2.4.3	The Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell and Salem model of workplace bullying	34
2.4.4	Johnson's ecological model of workplace bullying	35
2.5	Prevalence of workplace bullying	37
2.5.1	Frequency and duration	42
2.5.2	Witnessing workplace bullying	45
2.5.3	The gender and status of the perpetrator(s)	46
2.5.4	Risk groups	48
2.6	Workplace bullying behaviours	51
2.7	Types of workplace bullying	55
2.7.1	Keryl Egan's classification of bullies	56
2.7.2	Gary and Ruth Namie's classification of bullies	57
2.8	Role players in workplace bullying	58
2.9	Contributing factors of workplace bullying	60
2.9.1	Characteristics of the victim and perpetrator	61
2.9.2	Contributing factors of the workplace	64
2.10	Consequences of workplace bullying	69
2.10.1	Effects on the victim	70
2.10.2	Witnesses experience of workplace bullying	72

2.10.3	Consequences for the organisation	72
2.11	Chapter conclusion	74
CHAPTER 3:	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	75
3.1	Introduction	75
3.2	Research design	75
3.3	Sampling design	77
3.3.1	The SANDF	78
3.3.2	Power Group	79
3.4	Procedure for data collection	80
3.4.1	The SANDF	80
3.4.2	Power Group	81
3.5	Ethical deliberation	82
3.6	The research instrument	83
3.6.1	Biographical information	83
3.6.2	Workplace bullying definition linked questions	84
3.6.3	Negative Acts Questionnaire	85
3.6.4	Work Harassment Scale	86
3.7	Data analysis	87
3.8	Chapter conclusion	87

CHAPTER 4:	PRESENTATION OF RESULTS	88
4.1	Introduction	88
4.2	Descriptive statistics for the total sample	88
4.2.1	Descriptive statistics for the SANDF	90
4.2.2	Descriptive statistics for Power Group	91
4.3	Reported prevalence of workplace bullying for the total sample	93
4.3.1	Prevalence of workplace bullying based on witness accounts	94
4.3.2	Prevalence of workplace bullying based on the NAQ	95
4.3.3	Prevalence of workplace bullying based on the WHS	98
4.3.4	Prevalence of workplace bullying in the SANDF	100
4.3.5	Prevalence of workplace bullying at Power Group	104
4.4	Frequency and duration of workplace bullying	108
4.5	The reported gender and status of the perpetrators	112
4.5.1	The reported gender and status of the perpetrator in the SANDF	114
4.5.2	The reported gender and status of the perpetrator at Power Group	115
4.6	Risk groups in the total sample	116
4.6.1	Risk groups in the SANDF	117
4.6.2	Risk groups at Power Group	118
4.7	Responses to episodes of workplace bullying	119

4.7.1	Responses to episodes of workplace bullying in the SANDF	121
4.7.2	Responses to episodes of workplace bullying at Power Group	123
4.8	Organisational workplace bullying policies	124
4.9	Chapter conclusion	125
CHAPTER 5:	DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS	126
5.1	Introduction	126
5.1.1	Overview of research aim and questions	126
5.1.2	Chapter overview	127
5.2	Prevalence of workplace bullying	128
5.3	The most frequent experienced negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours	138
5.4	Frequency and duration of workplace bullying	141
5.5	Gender and status of the perpetrator	144
5.6	Risk groups	147
5.6.1	Gender and workplace bullying	147
5.6.2	Age and workplace bullying	148
5.6.3	Ethnicity and workplace bullying	148
5.6.4	Level of responsibility and workplace bullying	149
5.6.5	Education and workplace bullying	149
5.7	Organisational and individual responses to workplace bullying	150
5.8	Organisational workplace bullying policies	152
5.9	Chapter conclusion	153

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	154
6.1 Conclusion	154
6.2 Limitations of the present study	156
6.3 Recommendations	157
REFERENCES	160
APPENDIX	178

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Interchangeably used terms	18
Table 2	Terms and definitions used to describe workplace bullying by various researchers.	21
Table 3	Reported prevalence rates of workplace bullying in different countries	38
Table 4	Individual impacts of workplace bullying	71
Table 5	Organisational impacts of workplace bullying	73
Table 6	Descriptive statistics for the total sample	89
Table 7	Descriptive statistics for the SANDF sample	91
Table 8	Descriptive statistics for the Power Group sample	92
Table 9	Frequency and duration of workplace bullying episodes	108
Table 10	Spearman correlations between frequency and duration	112
Table 11	The most frequently reported negative acts	138
Table 12	The most frequently reported degrading and oppressing behaviours	139

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Leymann's model of workplace bullying	30
Figure 2	Enabling, motivating and precipitating structures and processes	33
Figure 3	Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell and Salem model for workplace bullying	35
Figure 4	Ecological model of workplace bullying	36
Figure 5	Three distinct groupings of workplace bullying	53
Figure 6	Histogram of the respondents self-identification as victims of workplace bullying per industry	93
Figure 7	Histogram of the NAQ for the total sample	96
Figure 8	Histogram of the WHS for the total sample	98
Figure 9	Histogram of the NAQ for the SANDF	101
Figure 10	Histogram of the WHS for the SANDF	102
Figure 11	Histogram of the NAQ for Power Group	105
Figure 12	Histogram of the WHS for Power Group	107
Figure 13	<i>F</i> test for the SANDF and Power Group with regards to frequency	109

Figure 14	<i>F</i> test for the SANDF and Power Group with regards to duration	110
Figure 15	Histogram of the status of the perpetrators for the total sample	113
Figure 16	Histogram of reported victimisation between ethnic groups for the total sample	117
Figure 17	Histogram of victims and non-victims tendency to report incidents of workplace bullying	120

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM AND SETTING

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

During the mid 1970s and 1980s in the United States of America and Norway respectively, two analogous scientific enquiries reported on dissimilar groups of employees who suffered from ill-health and severe stress reactions for which there were no clear physical or medical explanation (Brodsky, 1976; Leymann, 1986). These groups of employees were found to be the victims of prolonged systematic subtle and discrete forms of abuse and mistreatment in the workplace. This phenomenon Carroll Brodsky labelled “harassment”, whereas Heinz Leymann referred to it as “mobbing”. Subsequent investigation into the phenomenon ensued, mainly under the branding “workplace bullying”.

Internationally, workplace bullying has attracted mounting attention and interest among scholars and practitioners as a form of interpersonal aggression among adults. Realisation of the enormity and gravity of the phenomenon is reflected in the ever-increasing academic and public awareness it receives worldwide. This awareness progressively amplified since the mid-1980s and tremendously during the mid-1990s. Workplace bullying has since been a recurrent theme of discussion in countries like Scandinavia (e.g., Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001), the United Kingdom (e.g., Rayner & Hoel, 1997), United States of America (e.g., Fox & Stallworth, 2005, 2009), and Australia (e.g., Vickers, 2010).

Since the mid-1980s a variety of surveys and studies have been conducted; numerous articles and books have been published; and a number of symposiums and conferences were held to investigate and report on the phenomenon, thereby highlighting its severity and intricacy (e.g., Besag, 1989; Einarsen & Nielsen, 2004; Fox & Stallworth, 2005, 2009; Zapf, Knorz & Kulla, 1996).

The books frequently aspire to provide assistance on how to manage the severity and intricacy of workplace bullying. Likewise, the symposiums and conferences usually review the phenomenon and often underline the main areas of workplace bullying as it is reflected in surveys, studies, articles and books.

It is argued within the precincts of the present study that an employee's prolonged exposure to systematic subtle and discrete forms of abuse and mistreatment in the workplace existed ever since people interacted with each other in any work setting. The genesis of concepts such as "harassment", "mobbing" and "workplace bullying" purely shaped increased curiosity into a long existing psychosocial workplace problem. Kitt (2004, p. 1) highlights that "with this recognition comes an awareness of the prevalence and seriousness of the problem". Today still, the phenomenon is frequently being vividly documented as a serious psychosocial workplace problem (e.g. Berry, Gillespie, Gates & Schafer, 2012; Glaso, Bele, Nielsen & Einarsen, 2011; Sims & Sun, 2012).

Notwithstanding the remarkable attention workplace bullying has received internationally, little is known and reported about the phenomenon within the South African work context. Inquiry into the phenomenon in South Africa is not nearly as extensive as in the global community. It is thus noticeable, through a review of current literature on workplace bullying, that South African researchers' have been somewhat slower than their international contemporaries to report on the phenomenon.

Nonetheless, one has to acknowledge the exceptional contributions made by several South African researchers' in responding to the deficiency in workplace bullying literature in the country, especially within the last few years (e.g., Botha, 2008; Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Momberg, 2011; Pietersen, 2007; Rycroft, 2009; Steinman, 2003; Upton, 2010; Van Schalkwyk, Els & Rothmann, 2011; Visagie, Havenga, Linde & Botha, 2012).

The number of publications on workplace bullying from a South African perspective over the past few years certainly suggest that researchers in the country is beginning to appreciate the importance of affording workplace bullying the recognition it deserve. Moreover, in continuing to address the definite deficiency that exists in South African workplace bullying literature more articulate delineations of the phenomenon is required. This will ensure that a thorough understanding of the phenomenon is attained and that valuable responses can be launched. More importantly, workplace bullying in South Africa would then ideally receive the distinct recognition and attention it deserves.

In light of the preceding discussion, this study will extend current research and further broaden our understanding of the phenomenon, particularly within South Africa, by examining workplace bullying within a South African context, with a specific focus on the Western Cape.

1.2 Context of the study

It is no secret that people spent a considerable amount of time at work during their existence. In fact, for many individuals work and vocational life start at a young age. It is thus not surprising that work and vocational life is regarded as an essential constituent of many people's life and inextricably linked with their overall happiness and satisfaction.

Ideally, the experience of work and vocational life should positively contribute to a person's sense of being. However, this remains an ideal that is arguably rarely achieved. The reasons therefore are limitless. It thus makes sense that the occupational existence and well-being of people at work enjoy legislative recognition not only in South Africa, but in countries worldwide. With reference to South Africa, a number of legislative provisions that promotes the occupational existence and well-being of people in the workplace include among others:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, No 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996).
- The Occupational Health and Safety Act, No 85 of 1993 (Republic of South Africa, 1993).
- The Labour Relations Act, No 66 of 1995 (Republic of South Africa, 1995).
- The Basic Conditions of Employment Act, No 75 of 1997 (Republic of South Africa, 1997).
- The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, No 4 of 2000 (Republic of South Africa, 2000).
- The Skills Development Act, 97 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998).

Notable in the South African Constitution is the recognition of eleven official languages. This provides a rather small indication of exactly how diverse the South African population is in terms of their backgrounds. Until the early 1990s the South African population shared an asymmetrical distribution of labour, the reasons of which is insignificant for the purpose of the present study. In order to ensure a symmetrical distribution of labour, which mirror the diversity of the people, the South African Government adopted a range of legislative documents since the mid-1990s, inclusive of the aforementioned. Amongst others, these legislative provisions purposely focus on the dignity, equality, safety, security, well-being and freedom of the countries diverse population in the workplace (e.g. RSA, 1996). Whether public or private, since the mid-1990s the South African work environment has undergone significant changes, particular with regards to their personnel composition. In order to ensure that organisations reflect the image of the South African population and engender equality they had to absorb a rapid influx of people from various distinct backgrounds into their workplaces.

To illustrate, since its inception in 1994 the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) had to contend with the integration of pre-1994 belligerent forces into a cohesive national defence force; as well as the restructuring and transformation of the military environment and culture to reflect the democratic ethos of the South African public. Today, akin to many other work environments in South Africa, the SANDF are comparatively diverse. This implies that the South African work environment plays host to employees who bring to the workplace their own expectations, perceptions, social and cultural norms. This diversity expectedly brings various challenges and changes to the organisational culture and practices, which could essentially lead to a variety of workplace conflicts; such as workplace bullying.

Furthermore, whether public or private, organisations are constantly required to function and survive in a complex and dynamic environment. Global competition, legislative and technological changes, and an increased requirement for ethical conduct and social responsibility has resulted in increased flexibility and adaptation requirements, demands for efficiency, insecurity and hostility within the work environment. This too has the potential to lead to different workplace conflicts; such as workplace bullying.

For example, one can only imagine the demands placed on employees at a private engineering/construction company like Power Group. Whilst focusing on improving the quality of life of others through innovative infrastructure development, employees in this particular industry also have to contend with and attempt to stay with continual legislative and technology developments in their environment. Additionally, they also have to respond to global competition and changes. Moreover, they are often compelled to be as effective as possible in the most efficient way as private organisations debatably target the highest probable capital gain.

It is thus not surprising that organisational changes and developments are documented to be associated with a variety of negative emotions, including: feelings of disbelief, uncertainty, denial, distrust, powerlessness, anger, and rage among employees (Skogstad, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). Such unpleasant emotions could serve as a breeding ground for a miscellaneous amount of interpersonal conflicts, such as “workplace bullying”.

The quality of employee relationships at work is widely regarded as important for several reasons. Job performance and satisfaction is notably allied with good social support and interpersonal relationships. In order to remain productive and competitive, organisations are constantly compelled by the turbulent environments in which they operate to have a highly specialized and diverse labour force that enjoy good social support and interpersonal relationships. Allied with organisational changes, the diversity of an organisations labour force is arguably one of the main themes threatening employee relationships, in that it often set the stage for various interpersonal destructive behaviours. Among others, one such type of interpersonal destructive behaviour is “workplace bullying”.

Publicly, bullying is more likely to be associated with the schoolyard than with the workplace (Smith, 1997). This is pronounced in the substantial attention schoolyard bullying has received in research literature alone. However, a literature search provides clear evidence that bullying among adults in the workplace is akin to bullying on the schoolyard, in that it is also a subject of great concern.

In South Africa workplace bullying has attracted inadequate attention and interest among scholars and practitioners. Scholars like Pietersen (2007) considered the phenomenon to be a South African infant. According to Rycroft (2009) this could arguably be attributed to the phenomenon not often being viewed as a form of harassment falling into a recognized category.

It is notable that interpersonal conflict or aggressive behaviours that does not stem from race, gender or other legally protected attributes is often under-investigated. Given the severity of workplace bullying as a serious psychosocial workplace problem it is considered essential within the present study for the South African infant to become a toddler, an adolescent, and eventually an adult with great urgency.

Notable reported negative consequences of workplace bullying in existing research literature (e.g. Hansen, Hogh & Persson, 2011; Lovell & Lee, 2011) induce one to comprehend that no one is immune from workplace bullying, either in the form of being a victim or perpetrator. Additionally, workplace bullying is alleged to be commonplace in various organisational settings and workplaces. This therefore merits continued investigation of the phenomenon (Wiedmer, 2011). Whilst being mindful of the aforementioned, the current South African work environment is especially pertinent and worthy of further inquiry into workplace bullying.

Having said that, this study provides greater insight into the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying as a distinct form of interpersonal conflict in the South Africa workplace by using employees from a public (the SANDF) and private (Power Group) organisation in the Western Cape.

1.3 Aim of the study

The foremost aim of the present study was to investigate the nature and prevalence of exposure to workplace bullying in a representative sample of employees from both a public and private organisation in the Western Cape, South Africa, by using different measurement and estimation techniques. A further aim of the present study were to examine whether or not there are any differences between the two distinct work environments on several factors.

The present study also aimed to ascertain whether those who self-identified as victims of bullying have also reported higher frequencies for the listed negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours. Lastly, the present study aimed to contrast the findings of the present study with that of other scholars', especially South Africans. In order to achieve the aforementioned aims the present study aspired to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the prevalence of workplace bullying?
2. What are the most frequent experienced negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours?
3. What is the approximate frequency and duration of the reported workplace bullying episodes?
4. Who is being identified and reported as being the perpetrator of workplace bullying?
5. Can particular risk groups (victims and perpetrators) be identified?
6. Are incidents of workplace bullying being managed in these organisations?
7. Are incidents of workplace bullying being reported in these organisations?

1.4 Objectives

The objectives of this study were as follows:

- To discover answers to the aforementioned research questions through the application of sound scientific procedures.

- To gain familiarity with the phenomenon in the two distinct work environments.
- To gain new insight into the phenomenon in the South African environment.
- To respond to the deficiency in South African workplace bullying literature by exploring the phenomenon in a South African context.
- To augment the limited literature on the phenomenon in South Africa.
- To potentially circuitously inspire further scientific inquiry of the phenomenon in South Africa.

1.5 Significance of the study

The present study contributes to science by presenting an articulate image of the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in two distinct workplaces in the Western Cape, South Africa, through reliable estimates of the phenomenon.

Secondly, having read through an abundant of documents on workplace bullying, dated from the 1980s to early-2013s, surprisingly very few studies had dealt with workplace bullying in a military or engineering/construction milieu. In fact, only one study had systematically reported on workplace bullying within the military environment (see Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001). The probability that more literature dealing with workplace bullying in a military or engineering/construction environment exist, and that it might have been overlooked during the literature search for the present study, is not disputed by any means. However, should it not be the case, it thus implies that the present study is one of the few research documents on workplace bullying in a military and engineering/construction environment.

Furthermore, having drawn a sample from two extremely diverse work settings allowed the researcher to make valuable comparisons between the two organisations. Such comparisons could provide great insight into the similarities' and differences between a public and private organisation, relating to their workplace bullying status.

As mentioned before, South Africa is considered to be one of the countries where awareness of, and research into workplace bullying, are still in its infancy (Pietersen, 2007). This view and the noticeable lack of literature on workplace bullying in South Africa necessitate the need for more research into the phenomenon in order to deepen our understanding of workplace bullying in South Africa. The present study was thus undertaken with great conviction that it will fill a gap in current knowledge by providing added insight into the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying within the South African work environment.

Moreover, the results of the present study could make a valuable contribution in terms of the inferences made and the relevance thereof in research and practice. The present study could potentially guide further examination of the phenomenon, which could prospectively create an even superior awareness of workplace bullying and ways to address it in South Africa. Ideally, policy and legislative drafters' could be placed in a position where they acknowledge workplace bullying as an essential psychosocial workplace problem that demand distinct legislative and policy recognition.

Lastly, the present study provides a comprehensive synopsis of literature on workplace bullying in the global community, thereby highlighting the progress various authors have made in examining the phenomenon. The present study provides added information which might not necessarily fall within the scope of the research but which is essential in ensuring a thorough understanding of the phenomenon is achieved.

Through this synopsis the victim, perpetrator, bystander and organisation can be informed regarding what workplace bullying entail and the detrimental effect it has on everyone involved. Thus highlighting the importance of awarding the phenomenon the attention it deserves.

1.6 Outline of chapters

In order to achieve the aim and objectives of the present study, as well as ensuring that information is presented in an articulate flow, this study is divided into chapters that are structured as follow:

Chapter 1: This chapter was primarily structured to contextualise the study and to present the reasons for the study, the research aim and objectives, as well as to highlight the expected contributions the study will make to science.

Chapter 2: This chapter highlights and discuss the existing body of literature on workplace bullying as it relates to this quantitative study. It thus specifically addresses the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter commence with a succinct overview of the genesis and development of workplace bullying in research literature as a psychosocial workplace problem. The construct of workplace bullying is then subsequently defined by contrasting it with numerous analogous terms used by scholars around the world. Following the conceptualisation of workplace bullying, thought is given to the current state of workplace bullying in South Africa. Subsequent discussions focus on a number of theoretical models of the phenomenon, a review of preceding large scale studies findings on the prevalence rates of workplace bullying (highlighting specifically frequency and duration, rates relating to the witnesses of workplace bullying, gender and status of perpetrators, self labelled perpetrators, and risk groups), and the behaviour involved.

Additionally, the types of bullies documented in literature are highlighted, followed by potential role players during workplace bullying episodes, and factors that contribute towards the presence of workplace bullying in the workplace. The chapter concludes with an overview of the effects workplace bullying have on those affected by it.

Chapter 3: This chapter describes the methodology followed in the present study to achieve the aim and answer the research questions as stipulated in Chapter One. Firstly, the chapter describes the research and sampling design of the study. Attention is then given to the procedure that was followed for collecting the data. Subsequently, the ethical considerations of the study are being highlighted. Lastly, thought is given to the research instruments that were used in collecting the data and how the data were analysed for the purposes of this study.

Chapter 4: The purpose of this chapter is to present the research results of the present study in a clear and meaningful way. The quantitative findings are thus presented in this chapter. Results are being presented in the chronological order in which the research questions were presented in Chapter One and in the categories in which they emerged during the analysis.

Chapter 5: In this chapter the results as presented in Chapter Four are discussed in relation to the existing body of literature.

Chapter 6: This chapter provides the concluding remarks and shortcomings of the present study, as well as highlighting personal recommendation for future research on workplace bullying in South Africa.

1.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter aimed to discuss the background and context of the present study. The intent was to ensure clarity and conviction of the aims and research questions, as well as the importance of examining workplace bullying in South Africa. The extent of research into workplace bullying in the global community and the lack thereof in South African signify the importance for more systematic investigation of the phenomenon in South African workplaces. Moreover, this chapter provided a concise overview of the post-mortem process, hence the outline of Chapters.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background discussion and introduction

Whilst bullying as a form of interpersonal dysfunction could be argued to have existed ever since mankind interacted with one another in various environmental settings, the genesis of bullying as a concept of methodical inquisition can be found in the exploratory work of Dan Olweus (Olweus, 1978), a research professor of psychology at the University of Bergen in Norway. In the early 1970s, Dan Olweus initiated the first systematic examination of bullying when he studied several school pupils lengthy exposure to violence perpetrated by other school pupils. The findings of this inquiry he would then go on to publish in his book entitled *“Aggression in the Schools – Bullies and Whipping Boys”* in 1978 in the United States of America (USA).

However, bullying on the playground did not receive significant attention until 1982 when three adolescent boys from Norway committed suicide due to severe bullying by peers (Olweus, 1993). This event triggered international attention and subsequent recognition for scientific inquiry into bullying among school pupils.

In South African educational research literature, akin to the aforementioned incident in Norway, De Wet (2007) makes specific reference to two incidents of school bullying in South Africa. Firstly, she highlights a newspaper article in which a ten-year-old Pretoria boy had to fight for his life after being hanged in the school's bathroom by peers. In the second event a sixteen-year-old girl were repeatedly sexually and physically abused by peers and died after being forced to drink liquid bleach. Following these incidents and numerous less extreme cases of school bullying in South Africa, the phenomenon also became vastly recognised in theory and practise in the country.

Given these distressing effects of school bullying, it is thus not surprising that school bullying has become an established phenomenon of inquiry among school pupils globally (Bourke & Burgman, 2010; Kyriakides, Kaloyirou & Lindsay, 2006; Olweus, 2005; Raskauskas, Gregory, Harvey, Rifshana & Evans, 2010; Sherer & Nickerson, 2010; Swart & Bredekamp, 2009; Townsend, Flisher, Chikobvu, Lombard & King, 2008).

Today, much has been reported about the incident in schools. Many adults can account for incidents of bullying during their primary, secondary or even tertiary school years in which they were either the victim, bystander observing incidents of bullying, or the perpetrator of bullying. An enormous fallacy among many adults is that exposure to and experience of bullying at school is a normal phenomenon during an adolescents school years. A thorough review of the literature on school bullying would point out that an adolescent's experience of and exposure to bullying during primary, secondary or tertiary education is not normal at all. In fact, given its severe negative effects it should not be tolerated or neglected.

Moreover, another misconception among many is arguably that bullying is confined to the playground or school environment. However, contrary to the conviction of many, one does not escape bullying when graduating into the workplace. The concept of bullying among adults at work has intrigued scholars in the social sciences since the mid-1980s, resulting in an ever-increasing body of literature.

Interest in workplace bullying arose when the late Heinz Leymann, a family therapist at the University of Stockholm and the National Institute of Occupational Health in Sweden, went on to investigate conflict in the workplace during the mid-1980s. Heinz Leymann, albeit using the term "mobbing", collected data and reported the first empirical confirmation of workplace bullying in Scandinavia (Leymann, 1986; Leymann & Tallgren, 1989).

It is thus not unforeseen that Leymann is frequently being recognised and endorsed as the pioneer of workplace bullying. In fact, this is despite the preceding work of Carroll Brodsky in the USA. Carroll Brodsky, as early as the mid-1970s, had already published a book entitled “The Harassed Worker” (Brodsky, 1976). Although coined “The Harassed Worker”, Brodsky’s book deals with employees who are being bullied in the workplace. However, curiosity in workplace bullying began to flourish only years after Brodsky’s book were published, largely due to Leymann’s analysis of the phenomenon.

According to Monks et al. (2009) research into workplace bullying during the mid-1970s and early-1980s were still considered anecdotal, hence the lack of interest in the phenomenon. To some degree, one can query the influence schoolyard/playground bullying had in the subsequent recognition and development of workplace bullying. Nonetheless, interest, research, public and academic awareness in workplace bullying began to multiply particularly throughout the 1990s and continued to thrive in the early 2000s in different countries: e.g., Norway (e.g., Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen, Raknes & Matthiesen, 1994; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), Sweden (e.g., Leymann, 1996), Finland (e.g., Vartiainen, 1996), Ireland (e.g., McMahon, 2000), Germany (e.g., Zapf & Gross, 2001), Australia (e.g., Kelly, 2005; Mayhew, 2007), and the USA (e.g., Grubb, 2004; Namie, 2003).

As previously discussed (see para 1.2), South Africa is one of the countries where awareness of, and research into workplace bullying, is still considered to be in its infancy stage (Pietersen, 2007). Notable in South African literature is that bullying among adolescents within the school environment receives considerably more attention than bullying among adults in the workplace (De Wet, 2005, 2006, 2007; Pillay, 2004; Swart & Bredekamp, 2009). Given the colossal number of studies being published in Scandinavia alone, it is thus not surprising to notice that the majority of studies on workplace bullying have been published within the “*European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*”.

Moreover, since the origin of workplace bullying, Scandinavian researchers spearheaded mainstream literature on the phenomenon, followed largely by scholars in the USA and Australia. Today, workplace bullying is a globally recognised psychosocial workplace problem that necessitates much needed attention and action.

2.2 Conceptualisation and definition of workplace bullying

Bluntly phrased workplace bullying refers to a particular sub-form of deviant or anti-social behaviour in the workplace to which people are subjected to over an extended period. Such behaviour essentially negatively affects the targeted person, observer, and the organisation. Notable in scholars' research and theorising of workplace bullying is the lack of a clear and agreed upon definition of the phenomenon. There is undoubtedly some discrepancy in the manner workplace bullying is being defined by scholars' globally. Moreover, achieving a universally accepted definition of workplace bullying is further complicated by the numerous terms (see Table 1 and 2) that are interchangeably being used by various scholars' to describe what this paper refers to as "*workplace bullying*".

According to Lewis, Sheeman and Davies (2008) one of the challenges concerning the concept "*workplace bullying*" is the various labels and descriptions that are used interchangeably by researchers and commentators. An illustration of the various labels and descriptions being used by people around the globe when referring to "*workplace bullying*" are provided in Table 1 and 2. Moreover, Table 1 also highlights the particular term most often used by scholars' in a specific country.

Notwithstanding the different labels being employed, whilst being mindful of particularly Table 1, it is clear that mobbing and bullying are the most widely used terms, whereas bullying is evidently the most universally used term among scholars' and practitioners.

Table 1
Interchangeably used terms

Researchers	Term	Country
Leymann (1990)	Mobbing/Psychological Terror	Sweden
Einarsen et al. (1994)	Bullying/Harassment	Norway
Einarsen and Skogstad (1996)		
Einarsen (2000)		
Groeblinghoff and Becker (1996)	Mobbing	Berlin
Hubert and Van Veldhoven (2001)		Netherlands
Leymann and Gustafsson (1996)		Sweden
Nield (1996)		Austria
Zapf et al. (1996)		Germany
Zapf (1999)	Mobbing/Bullying	Germany
Cortina, Magley, Williams and Langhout (2001)	Incivility	USA
Kivimäki et al. (2003)	Bullying	Finland
Salin (2001)		
Vartia (1996)		
Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson and Wilkes (2010a)		Australia
Sheehan (1999)		
Archer (1999)		UK
Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith and Pereira (2002)		
Coyne, Chong, Seigne, and Randall (2003)		
Coyne, Seigne and Randall (2000)		
Finne, Knardhal and Lau (2011)		
Hoel, Cooper and Faragher (2001)		
Liefooghe and Davey (2001)		

Researchers	Term	Country
Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001)	Bullying	Denmark/Norway
Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2002a; 2002b)		
Hogh and Dofradottir (2001)		Denmark
Zapf and Einarsen (2001)		Germany/Norway
Namie (2003)		USA

(Source: Author)

Interestingly, while Heinz Leymann is frequently being recognised as the pioneer of workplace bullying, he intentionally refrained from using the term “bullying” due to its connotation of physical aggression and threat. He argues that whereas bullying has a physical aggression and threat connotation, mobbing does not. However, a review of the literature reveals that physical aggression and threat is rarely reported by victims of workplace bullying (e.g. Berry et al., 2012).

Leymann’s (1996) decision to refrain from using the term bullying is arguably embedded in the notion that bullying is associated with the schoolyard and among children, hence the physical aggression and threat. He therefore believed that mobbing is the most appropriate term for adult behaviour and that bullying should exclusively be reserved for children and teenagers. It appears as if Leymann considered adults to be more intelligent and more likely to refrain from using physical aggression and threat. Adults is thus expected or thought to engage in more delicate forms of negative behaviour when exerting pressure on their victims, without making it noticeable to both the victim and bystander.

As a result, throughout his research Leymann continued to use the term mobbing instead of bullying. This is despite the frequent usage of the term bullying by other intellectuals. Another significant factor to consider in Leymann’s usage of the term mobbing is that he almost exclusively referred to group behaviour, thus excluding instances where one person acts as perpetrator.

A person would therefore be considered a victim when he is subjected to the deviant or anti-social behaviour of a group, and not of a single person. It is thus not unexpected that Zapf (1999) indicates that mobbing and bullying differ from one another. He points out that mobbing commonly involve a group of “mobbers” rather than a single person, whereas bullying often connotes physical aggression by a single person. However, he further acknowledges that empirical evidence contradicts the notion that bullying has only a single aggressor. By deduction, he acknowledges that similar to mobbing, bullying at times also involves a group of bullies.

It is thus expected for bullying literature following the work of Heinz Leymann to take into account both instances where an individual or group of people are the perpetrator(s). With that said, although the assessment of workplace bullying take into consideration both individual and group bullying, and despite the number of concepts used by people to account for workplace bullying, there exist several noticeable similarities in the various terms descriptions. This is despite some minute differences that might exist.

Table 2 provides a succinct overview of the various terms with their descriptions. It is worth noting that all these terms describe the prolonged exposure of an individual to maltreatment at work, thus highlighting the concepts conceptual and operational definition. Generally, in the absence of universal acceptance and agreement among scholars, the inclusion and importance of several communalities in the conceptualisation and definition of workplace bullying are widely documented.

For the purpose of the present study, workplace bullying refer to situations where one or more persons are subjected to persistent and repetitive harmful negative or hostile acts (excluding once-off isolated incidents) by one or more other persons within the workplace (excluding incidents where two equally strong individuals come into conflict).

The person should feel helpless and defenceless in the situation. The victim should experience the harmful negative and hostile acts repetitively and persistently for at least six months as offensive. The intention of the perpetrator is considered insignificant.

Table 2***Terms and definitions used to describe workplace bullying by various researchers***

Researchers	Term	Definition
Brodsky (1976)	Harassment	Repeated and persistent attempts by an individual to torment, wear down, frustrate, or get a reaction from another person. It is treatment that persistently provokes, pressures, frightens, intimidates, or otherwise causes discomforts another people.
Thylefors (1987)	Scapegoating	One or more persons during a period of time are exposed to repeated, negative actions from one or more other individuals.
Mattheisen, Raknes and Rokkum (1989)	Mobbing	The repeated and enduring negative reactions and conduct of one person, which is targeted at one or more persons in his work group.
Leymann (1990)	Mobbing/ Psychological terror	Psychological terror or mobbing in the working life means hostile and unethical communication which is directed in a systematic manner by one or a number of people primarily towards an individual.
Kile (1990)	Health endangering leadership	Humiliating and harassing acts continuing for a long duration and conducted by a superior and expressed overtly or covertly over another.
Wilson (1991)	Workplace trauma	The actual disintegration of an employee's fundamental self, resulting from an employer's or a supervisor's perceived or real continual and deliberate malicious treatment.
Ashforth (1994)	Petty tyranny	A leader who lords his power over others through arbitrariness and self aggrandizement, the belittling of subordinates, showing lack of consideration, using a forcing style of conflict resolution, discouraging initiative and the use of non-contingent punishment
Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back (1994)	Harassment	Repeated activities, with the aim of bringing mental (but sometimes also physical) pain which is directed towards one or more individual who for some reason are not able to defend themselves

Researchers	Term	Definition
Keashly, Trott and MacLean (1994); Keashly (1998)	Abusive behaviour/ emotional abuse	Hostile (verbal and nonverbal) behaviors that are not fixed to sexual or racial content. They are directed by one or more persons towards another person and are aimed at undermining the other to ensure compliance from others.
Zapf (1999)	Mobbing	Mobbing at work means harassing, bullying, offending, socially excluding someone or assigning offending work tasks to someone in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position.
Hoel et al. (2001)	Bullying	A situation where one or several individuals persistently over a period of time perceive to be on the receiving end of negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where a target of bullying has difficulty in defending him/ herself against these actions. We will not refer to one-off incidents as bullying.
Salin (2001)	Bullying	Repeated and persistent negative acts that are directed towards one or several individuals, and which create a hostile work environment. In bullying the targeted person has difficulties defending himself; it is therefore not a conflict between parties of equal strength.

(Einarsen, 2000, p. 382)

2.2.1 Descriptive features of workplace bullying

The descriptive features commonly found in the various workplace bullying definitions, as well as in the different concepts used by people to refer to workplace bullying events are: the persistent and repetitive nature of the behaviour(s); its harmful effect(s) on the victim and others; the victim feeling helpless and defenceless against the persistent and repetitive undesirable behaviour of the perpetrator(s); and in some instances bullying is done with the necessary intent. These communalities will be discussed distinctively to facilitate a superior understanding.

2.2.1.1 Frequency and duration

Definitions of workplace bullying emphasise that the behaviour or acts involved in the phenomenon should occur regularly and persistently over a period of time (Ortega, Christensen, Høgh, Rugulies & Borg, 2011; Salmivalli, 2010; Vie, Glaso & Einarsen, 2011). By implication, the *frequency* and *duration* of the behaviour or acts involved is essential in establishing whether or not an individual is a victim of workplace bullying. Evident in the subsequent discussion is that there exists some discrepancy among researchers with regards to their respective *frequency* and *duration* criteria.

Whilst focussing on *frequency*, Leymann and Gustafsson (1996) in their study of mobbing at work and the subsequent development of post-traumatic stress disorder required that the bullying acts occur at least once a week. This implies that any person found in their study to be a victim of bullying would by deduction be exposed to bullying behaviour or acts in the workplace at least once a week. This criterion is considered too strict. The author speculates that those individuals who might be subjected to the same acts at least once every two or three weeks would thus be excluded. Should such speculation prove to be correct, it is further argued that such practice is considered unjust. Those individuals subjected to bullying behaviour once a week cannot exclusively be said to experience such behaviour as more harmful opposed to those individuals who is subjected to such behaviour once every two or three weeks.

In light of the aforementioned, a more liberal approach might be more preferred. With that said; Vartia (1996) in her study deviated from the conservative approach of Leymann and Gustafsson by not confining herself to a certain number of acts per week. She rather required the bullying behaviour or acts to occur often. However, she neglected to provide some guidelines in this regard.

Unfortunately, often can be interpreted differently by different people and end in anecdotal results and findings, hence it could be considered vague by some. Although the author favours a more liberal approach there should still be some guiding principles in this regard.

Nield (1996) arguably followed the most inclusive approach by providing participants with more defined options. In his study participants could choose between daily, almost daily, once a week, several times a month, seldom, and never. This approach is considered the more preferred measure of frequency purely since it allows for a more distinct and comprehensive classification of the frequency with which workplace bullying acts occur in a certain environment.

With regard to the *duration*, it is commonplace in the work of Leymann (e.g. Leymann, 1990; Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996) that a person should be subjected to the unwelcoming harming acts of bullying for at least a period of six months before he can be considered as a victim of bullying. By implication, a person would thus not be considered a victim of bullying if such person experiences the unwelcoming harming acts for less than six months. Parallel to the authors view regarding frequency, this requirement is also argued as unjust. A period of six months should rather be used as a guideline with notable provision for periods that might be less than six months where exposure to workplace bullying warrants it.

This is based largely on the premise that being subjected to bullying for a period less than six months can be equally destructive and harmful as compared to being subjected to it for a period of six months or more, if not more severe. To support this view, consider an instance where a person is being subjected to various bullying behaviours and acts on a daily basis for a period of three months. Surely in such an instance daily exposure to bullying for a period less than six months can be equally detrimental to a person.

Contrary to Leymann, who emphasised that a person needs to experience the unwelcome harming acts for at least a period of six months; Einarsen et al. (1994) in their succeeding study required the unwelcoming harming acts to occur over a period of time. Notably, they made no specific reference to any defined period as a precondition before an act can be regarded as workplace bullying. By implication, an act could thus be regarded as bullying if it occurred frequently for a duration of one, two, three, four or five months.

In a study by Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) participants were asked how often they were subjected to various bullying acts over a period of six months. They found that a significant 41.8% of their participants had been bullied for a period of six months or less. Additionally, 17.2% were found to have been bullied between six and twelve months, while a notable 23.9% had been bullied for more than two years. Whilst taking cognisance of the 41.8% of participants that were bullied for six months or less, their findings emphasises the importance of taking into account those individuals who are subjected to workplace bullying for less than six months. This consequently rendered the period of at least six months as followed by Leymann (1990) as to stern.

Nield (1996), akin to Einarsen and Skogstad (1996), also preferred not to stick to the six month rule as emphasised by Leymann (1990). Nield, in his study required participants to specify whether or not they been bullied for longer than five years, between two and five years, about one year, about six months, longer than two months, or less than two months. This approach also provides for an extensive classification of the durations a victim is being subjected to bullying.

In dealing with *frequency* and *duration* what becomes essential is the intent of the researcher. Depending on what the researcher aims to achieve with a particular study will essentially influence how *frequency* and *duration* will be defined and used in such study. As a result, the *frequency* and *duration* criteria are sensitive to the intent and aim of the researcher.

A clear description of the particular *frequency* and *duration* criteria that were employed in the present study will be discussed in Chapter 3.

2.2.1.2 Harmful effect

Either explicitly or implied in the various workplace bullying definitions exist the element of *harm* that accompany the phenomenon. It is considered essential that the repeated negative or hostile acts should harm the individual in some way before such individual can be regarded as a victim of bullying. It is thus not surprising to notice that victims of workplace bullying are well documented to have experienced various psychological, psychosomatic and psychiatric health problems (see. Bond, Tuckey & Dollard, 2010; Finne et al., 2011; Lovell & Lee, 2011; Vie, Glaso & Einarsen, 2011, 2012). The harmful effects of workplace bullying on the targeted individual(s) will be discussed in greater detail later in the chapter (see para 2.10.1).

2.2.1.3 The defenceless victim

The author is of the conviction that a person's experience of the aforementioned nuisances is largely influenced by their ability to confront and challenge the bully. It is expected that those individuals who is able to confront and challenge the bully will experience such nuisances to a lesser extent as opposed to those individuals with a deficient ability to confront and challenge the bully. It is arguably for this reason that various workplace bullying definitions further state that the victim often finds it *difficult to defend himself* against the bully. Given this vulnerability it is commonplace for the victim to feel helpless and defenceless against the actions of the perpetrator, hence being placed in an inferior position.

There thus exist either a perceived or real power imbalance between the victim and perpetrator. Importantly, this imbalance of power in the workplace bullying relationship does not refer exclusively to hierarchical power.

It might also include among others either social, peer, or physical power deriving from a variety of factors and situations. According to Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) it is not considered bullying when two equally brawny individuals come into conflict. This will characteristically involve a situation where a person is able to challenge and confront the bully in order to protect himself. Additionally, it also refers to instances where two parties are involved in a disagreement and neither one is able to exert undue harmful pressure on the other.

2.2.1.4 Intention of the perpetrator

Several authors' (e.g., Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Leymann, 1990; Mattheisen et al., 1989; Salin, 2001;) alludes that the behaviour involved is aimed at causing discomfort on the part of the victim. The perpetrator is thus *intentionally* placing the victim in a distressing position. However, although some perpetrators could be said to intentionally want to inflict harm on the victim it would be somewhat erroneous to conclude that it is the case with all perpetrators.

There might exist instances where an individual is unaware that his actions constitute workplace bullying behaviour and that it has a negative effect on another or several others. This could especially be the case where the person is also not being informed of the negative effect(s) his actions or behaviour have on others. As a result, the author regards the intention of the bully as inconsequential. What is considered essential is whether the recurring behaviour is considered unwelcome by the target and whether such behaviour is harmful.

2.3 Understanding of workplace bullying within South Africa

Presently, in South Africa workplace bullying is being recognised as an element and/or form of harassment. The phenomenon is not being addressed as a distinct form of social stressor at work.

The broad definition of harassment in terms of the South African Labour Law include among others: bullying, unfair discrimination and unwelcome sexual advances (Labour Protect, 2012c). Despite being accepted as an element/form of harassment there still remains a lack of a clear understanding of what constitute workplace bullying.

According to Rycroft (2009) the definition of harassment in the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000, while only persuasive, does indirectly provide a conceptual understanding and potential working definition of workplace bullying. By implication, inquiry into workplace bullying will thus be done using the framework of harassment. Furthermore, Rycroft posit that scholars' and practitioners' may not regard workplace bullying as a significant phenomenon since it can already be explained under harassment. This could possibly explain why there is no workplace bullying definition in South African Labour legislation. As a result, it is therefore extremely difficult to prove the illegality of workplace bullying.

Interestingly, a review of harassment literature reveal that elements of harassment are often under investigated, consequently enjoying little recognition, if it does not bear a sexual or racial connotation. Currently, discrimination (on the basis of race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, family responsibility, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age disability, religion, HIV status, conscience, belief, political opinion, culture, language and birth by an employer) and unwelcome sexual advances are addressed through separate legislative provisions in South Africa, whereas workplace bullying is not.

In fact, the South African Labour Protect web-site provides a clear theoretical explanation of what constitute discrimination (Labour Protect, 2012a) and unwelcome sexual advances (i.e. sexual harassment) (Labour Protect, 2012b), but no such theoretical explanation for workplace bullying on the same web-site, or any other South African legislative web-site for that matter.

Parallel to sexual and racial harassment that receives distinct attention in South Africa, workplace bullying should too enjoy such discrete privilege (McMahon, 2000; Porteous, 2002). Namie (2003; 2007) points out that workplace bullying might be three to four times more prevalent than its better-recognised illegal forms of harassment. Given recent trends in South African research literature it would appear as if scholars' is beginning to recognise workplace bullying as a distinct element of harassment that warrants discrete scientific enquiry (e.g., Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Visagie et al., 2012).

It is worth noting that presently in South Africa any single incident that is considered to be a form of harassment could constitute harassment (e.g. Labour Protect, 2012b). However, as previously discussed, with workplace bullying a single incident will not be considered as workplace bullying. In the case of workplace bullying the emphasis falls on the repetitive nature of the act(s). The act(s) has to occur regularly over a period of time before it could constitute workplace bullying. With that said, in the present study workplace bullying will be dealt with as a distinct concept from general harassment.

Succeeding discussions will notify that the effects of workplace bullying are equally destructive and distressing as sexual and racial harassment, if not more severe. This is especially factual considering that workplace bullying appears to be a multinational phenomenon that is prevalent across several environments and professions: e.g., academia (De Wet, 2006; McKay, Arnold, Fratzi & Thomas, 2008), the workplace (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009; Leymann, 1996) and prisons (Monks et al., 2009).

2.4. Theoretical models of workplace bullying

Several people have attempted to explain the evolution of workplace bullying, particularly the processes involved. In doing so, numerous models of the phenomenon have been proposed in literature.

These models frequently claim that workplace bullying is an evolving process, which starts either as a result of conditions and factors inside the workplace (Giorgi, 2010; Poilpot-Rocaboy, 2006; Salin, 2003) or conditions and factors in the organisations external environment (Johnson, 2011; Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell & Salem, 2006). The author has selected several of the proposed models, thought appropriate for further discussion for the purpose of the present study.

2.4.1 The Heinz Leymann model of workplace bullying

The model of workplace bullying by Leymann (Figure 1) is considered mainly because of the recognition he often receives as being the pioneer in the advent of workplace bullying. According to Leymann (1996; 1990) bullying can be described as an escalating process, which becomes more and more severe if left unaddressed. He conceptualised workplace bullying as proceeding through four distinct stages namely: critical incident; bullying and stigmatising; personnel administration/management; and expulsion.

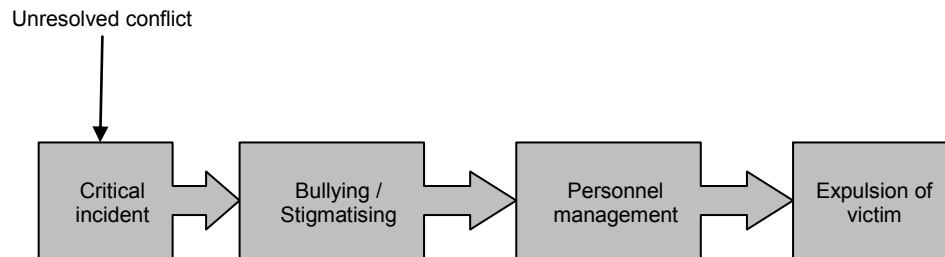


Figure 1. Leymann's model of workplace bullying

(Source: Author)

In Leymann's view the critical incident phase is characterised by a triggering event, specifically a conflict. He argues that the conflict only develops into bullying once the conflict cannot be resolved. In the event that the conflict is resolved then workplace bullying will normally not ensue.

However, should the conflict not be resolved one party is generally placed in an inferior position and subjected to systematic and repetitive behaviour, which on face value seems harmless and innocent. However, this behaviour is negative in that it harms the targeted person. The systematic and recurrent nature of the behaviour does in fact become harmful as the person in question are being stigmatised or bullied. According to Zapf and Einarsen (2001) a person may attain a shortcoming and gradually become the subject of highly negative behaviours by others during an escalating conflict. The succeeding phase is thus characterised by the actual bullying and stigmatising of the person in the workplace.

Einarsen (2000) argues that the victim becomes more vulnerable and a deserving target due to his powerlessness as a result of the bullying behaviours escalating frequency and intensity. The bullying or stigmatising phase will thus continue to prosper in the workplace until it is being challenged, ideally from management. Leymann (1996) refer to the intervention by management as the personnel management phase. According to him this phase is distinctive of management desire to take control and eradicate the problem from the workplace.

Additionally, parallel to management desire to eradicate the problem they also elude personal responsibility for the phenomenon by shifting the blame on personal characteristics, generally the victims. This is especially the case when management become aware that the presence of bullying in the workplace is due to conditions in the organisation.

Sadly, the process ends in expulsion whereby the victim is being compelled to leave the workplace. If expulsion is not dreadful enough, the victim also has to battle the various forms of illnesses that might have developed out of the victims bullying experience in the workplace.

The model proposed by Leyman (1996; 1990) appear to be a rather linear process. However, the evolving process of workplace bullying as proposed by Leymann cannot be said with certainty to progress through all the distinct phases.

To illustrate, in Leymann's explanation of his model he acknowledges that the behaviour involved is often subtle, thus making it difficult to detect and/or prove. Workplace bullying is difficult to identify and analyse mainly because it is considered indirect and psychological in nature with infrequent physical aggression (Bentley et al., 2012; Vie et al., 2011). Additionally, the subtle, indirect and psychological character of the behaviour(s) involved in workplace bullying could make it difficult for the victim, or even others, to detect. Therefore, it cannot be said with confidence that management always become aware of workplace bullying incidents.

Moreover, even if the victim becomes aware that he is being bullied it does not give one the assurance that he will report it. Deductively management will then remain unaware of the incident, thus rendering Leymann's personnel management phase null and void. In the case where a person is aware that he is being targeted and is unable to handle and survive the bullying and stigmatising in the workplace, he might circuitously be compelled to leave the organisation through resignation. In such an instance the person might not provide any indication that his resignation is due to relentless bullying in the workplace.

Currently in South Africa there are no reported or documented cases of expulsion due to workplace bullying. However, that does not imply that no such cases exist. Lastly, a person could become the victim of bullying without any critical incident or conflict as ancestor. The personality characteristics, experience, education, knowledge, etc could predispose a person to become a victim of workplace bullying without any conflict incident being present.

Therefore, unless the aforementioned factors are also considered as qualifying to represent a critical incident, there would be no such phase in Leymann's model. In exceptional cases, a person might be subjected to workplace bullying without the perpetrator knowing his actions and behaviour awards him the bully status.

2.4.2. Salin's model of workplace bullying

According to Salin (2003) workplace bullying can be understood as a result of the interaction between three idiosyncratic structures and processes. As publicized in Figure 2, these include enabling structures and processes, motivating structures and processes, and precipitating processes. Enabling structures and processes refer to the antecedents of workplace bullying whereas motivating structures and process refer to incentives for being a bully. Additionally, precipitating processes refer to those triggering circumstances that are responsible for the actual instigation of workplace bullying.

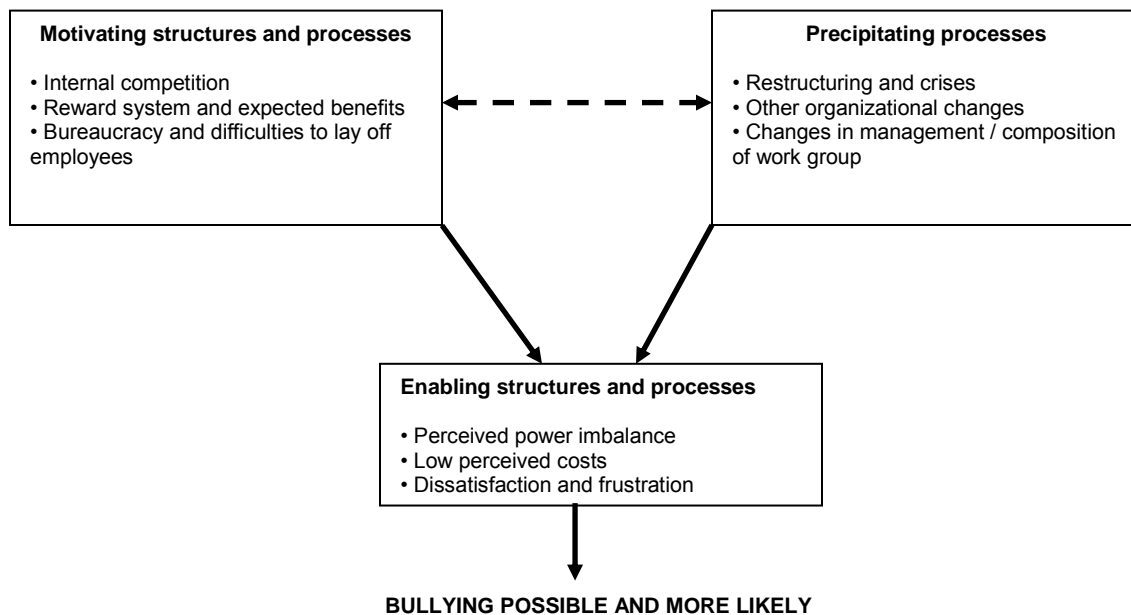


Figure 2. Enabling, motivating and precipitating structures and processes

(Salin, 2003, p. 1218)

Salin's (2003) view is that conditions in the workplace that is conducive to workplace bullying may not in itself lead to the occurrence thereof. However, it may act as an enabling factor if there is a certain motivator and trigger present. Parallel to this outlook, it is believed that motivating and participating factors do not result in workplace bullying by itself, unless the environment is conducive for it.

Importantly, in Salin's (2003) opinion the presence, absence or lack of enabling conditions in the workplace essentially determine whether or not workplace bullying will occur. This is despite motivating and/or participating structures and processes being present. It is evident that he emphasis the importance of at least two of the structures and processes to be present in the workplace concurrently for workplace bullying to occur.

2.4.3 The Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell and Salem model of workplace bullying

Moayed et al. (2006) in their review of the risk factors and outcomes of workplace bullying proposed a three segment model (see Figure 3) for workplace bullying. Their model highlights risk factors, bullying behaviours and outcomes. Whilst focussing on the risk factors, according to them conditions in the workplace, which is commonly influenced by developments in the external environment, construct the stage through which bullying could occur. However, regardless of the particular stage, the personality characteristics of employees inside the workplace often dictate whether or not bullying will flourish. Additionally, it is believed that the society and environment in which employees exist plays an essential role in how employees will respond to the conditions in the workplace.

Segment two of Figure 3 highlights the most likely workplace bullying behaviour/conduct of the bully and to which the victim will be exposed to as a result of the organisational dynamics. It is imperative to comprehend that bullying behaviours is not confined to those represented in segment two.

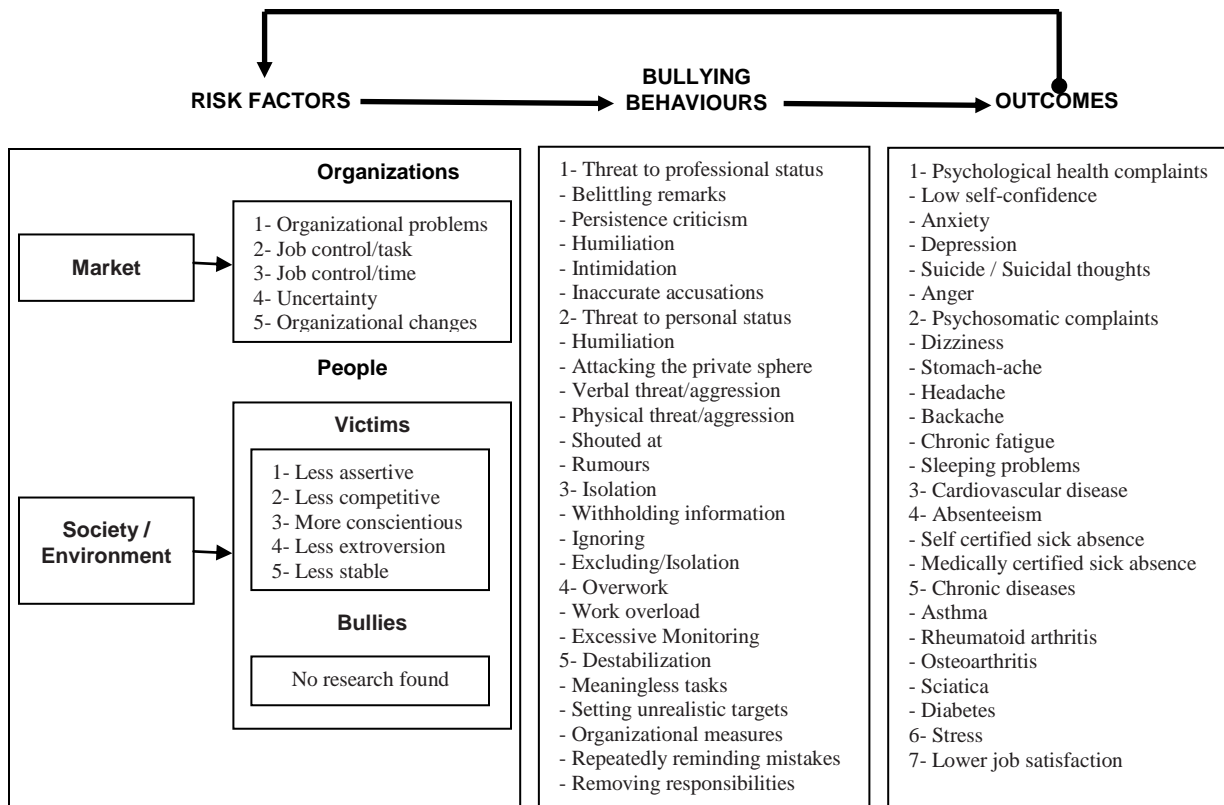


Figure 3. Moayed, Daraiseh, Shell & Salem model for workplace bullying

(Moayed et al., 2006, p. 313)

The consequential outcome of the bullying behaviour/conduct are the various health and personal problems experienced by the victim as depicted in segment three of the proposed model. Importantly, the outcomes of the proposed model have the potential of intensifying the risk factors. As a result, the potential of workplace bullying continuing to thrive in the workplace are being augmented.

2.4.4 Johnson’s ecological model of workplace bullying

Johnson (2011) suggests a three stage model of workplace bullying, consisting of four interrelated components that cover the series of events that constitute workplace bullying. As graphically displayed by Figure 4, the three stages include antecedents, the actual bullying incident(s), and the impact (outcomes) of workplace bullying.

The four interrelated components, which are found under the antecedents' stage of the model, contain firstly the society as the macro-component, the organisation as the exo-component, co-workers and the leadership group in the immediate environment as the meso-component, and lastly the perpetrator and victim as the micro-component.

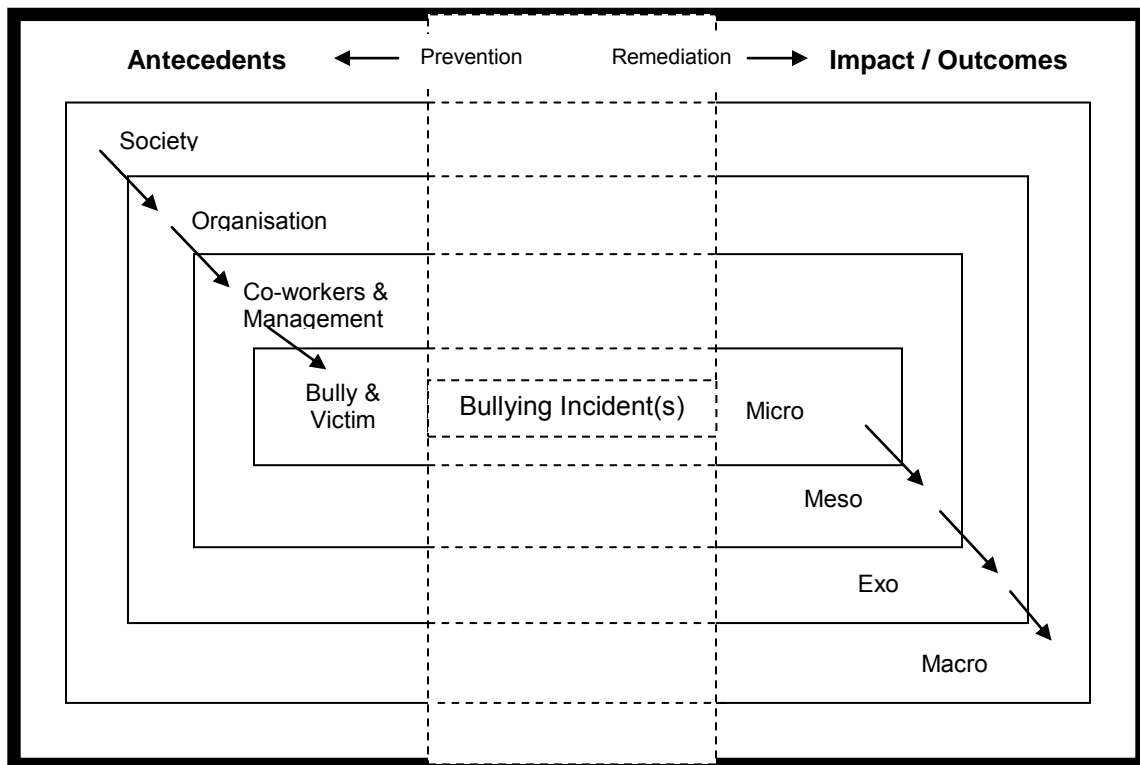


Figure 4. Ecological model of workplace bullying

(Johnson, 2011, p. 56)

According to Johnson (2011) the atmosphere that is approving the genesis of bullying in the workplace is created by antecedent factors that flow from the macro-component through the exo- and meso-components till the micro-system (as depicted by the arrows in Figure 4). This implies that all four components contribute to the development of bullying in the workplace through their own idiosyncratic mode.

Furthermore, the impact (outcomes) of the bullying incident(s) subsequently effect and/or impact all four components. The negative consequences of workplace bullying are thus not limited to the victim only. The organisation, other employees in the workplace, and society at large also becomes a victim. According to the ecological model interventions can be designed to focus on antecedents, outcomes, or ideally both.

Precautionary measures can thus be taken to prevent workplace bullying from occurring, whilst necessary actions can also be taken to manage workplace bullying in the event where the incident already transpired. The dotted lines in Figure 4 represent the fluid nature of the relationship that exists between the three stages. This implies that any particular outcome can further endorse any particular antecedent. It could be the case where a victim of bullying could become a bully himself (Felblinger, 2008) due to a lack of coping resources and/or the necessary support structures.

2.5 Prevalence of workplace bullying

Obtaining reliable numbers regarding the distribution of workplace bullying is not that straightforward (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel & Vartia, 2003). Prevalence studies continually report widespread variations in the prevalence rates of workplace bullying within and between countries (see Table 3). These variations have also been highlighted by Nielsen et al. (2009) in their Norwegian study. This could be attributed to a number of factors which would be subsequently discussed. Firstly, the dissimilar approaches followed and various methods used to measure the prevalence of bullying at work (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen et al., 1994; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel et al., 2001; Skogstad et al., 2007; Tuckey, Dollard, Hosking & Winefield, 2009; Zapf & Gross, 2001) could have a substantial influence on the prevalence rates reported in various studies.

Table 3***Reported prevalence rates of workplace bullying in different countries***

Author(s)	Country	Number	Sample	Prevalence
Leymann (1996)	Sweden	2400	Representing the entire Swedish work population	3.5%
Einarsen & Skogstad (1996)	Norway	7787	A total of 14 samples selected by means of different surveys	8.6% (4% once or twice, 3.4% now and then, 1.2% weekly)
Vartia (1996)	Finland	1037	Municipal Officials	10.1%
Hoel et al. (2001)	UK	5288	Drawn from 70 organisations within the public, private and voluntary sectors	10.6%
Mikkelsen & Einarsen (2001)	Denmark	765	Include educational environment (90), health sector (236), manufacturing (224) and department stores (215)	7.8%(education), 16%(health sector), 4.1% (manufacturing) and 25% (department store)
Hogh & Dofradottir (2001)	Denmark	1857	Randomised sample of adult citizens who were or had been employed	2%
Hubert & Van Veldhoven (2001)	Netherlands	66764	Representing 11 different sectors	2.2% (four undesirable behaviour)
Ostvik & Rudmin (2001)	Norway	696	Defence Force	12%
Steinman (2003)	South Africa	1014	Health Sector	20.4%
Mayhew et al. (2004)	Australia	800	Selected from education (100), health (400) and transport (300) sectors	13.6% (education), 11.42% (health) and 10.3% (transport)
MacIntosh (2005)	Canada	21	Purposive sample from small cities	100%
Tuckey et al. (2009)	Australia	716	Police Service	5.9% (often or very often/always)
Bentley et al. (2012)	New Zealand	1728	Retail and Travel Industry	3.9-17.8%
Glaso et al. (2011)	Norway	1023	Public Transport Organisation	11.6%
Berry et al. (2012)	USA	197	Nursing Industry	21.3%
Cunniff & Mostert (2012)	South Africa	13911	Cross-sectional field	35.1%
Keuskamp, Ziersch, Baum & LaMontagne (2012)	Australia	1016	Australian Department of Health	15.2%
Visagie et al. (2012)	South Africa	159	Mining Industry	27.7%

(Source: Author)

Generally, researchers' make use of one of two distinct methods, or a combination of the two, in assessing the prevalence of workplace bullying within a specific environment. The first method, referred to as the "subjective" method, require individuals to indicate, after being provided with a definition of workplace bullying, whether or not they consider themselves to be victims or targets of workplace bullying (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001).

Using this method, a South African study of 159 people from a mining industry found that 27.7% of respondents self-identified as victims of workplace bullying (Visagie et al., 2012). Similarly, a Danish study with 9949 people from an elderly-care environment found that 11.9% of respondents self-identified as victims of workplace bullying (Ortega et al., 2011). Moreover, a Spanish study with 538 registered nurses reported that 17% of respondents self-identified as victims of workplace bullying (Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012).

A possible reason for the varying frequencies reported in and between studies could be due to differences in definitions used. The reality that a lone agreed upon definition of workplace bullying among scholars' is non-existent cannot be ignored. Thus, having scholars' define workplace bullying differently certainly influences respondents appreciation and view of what constitute workplace bullying, and whether or not they consider themselves to be victims or targets. Respondents would thus view and perceive workplace bullying differently.

This discrepancy becomes significant given that participants are frequently asked whether they had been bullied or not directly after being provided with a definition of the construct (e.g., Baillien, Neyens, De Witte & De Cuyper, 2009; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel et al., 2001; Jimenez, Munoz, Gamarra & Herrer, 2007). This will subsequently results in anecdotal results being reported across studies. Importantly, self-labelling as victims of workplace bullying requires that all respondents in a particular study are provided with the same definition of what constitute workplace bullying.

However, this could however not be said for respondents across studies. For example, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) in their cross-sectional South African study measured the prevalence of workplace bullying using four dimensions (direct bullying by supervisors, indirect bullying by supervisors, direct bullying by colleagues, and indirect bullying by colleagues), without providing the respondents in their sample with a definition of workplace bullying. Regardless, they still found that 28.4% of their respondents reported direct bullying in the workplace, whereas 23.8% reported being bullied indirectly.

Admittedly there also exists the possibility that not all respondents in a particular study will automatically admit to being a victim of workplace bullying. In a Norwegian study with military personnel Ostvik and Rudmin (2001) reported that 56% of their respondents indicated that admitting to being bullied would be embarrassing. This finding probably highlights that a number of people will not admit or report to being a target of workplace bullying for various reasons. As a result, respondents' reluctance to self-identify as being a target of workplace bullying when they indeed are greatly influences the prevalence rates reported in various studies. It may thus be difficult to quantify workplace bullying using respondents' perceptions because they may deny or minimize it as a way of surviving bullying in the workplace (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

On the other hand, the "operational" method requires individuals to indicate how frequently they had been subjected to a number of negative behaviours or acts in the workplace during the previous six months (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). Using this method, researchers' commonly categorize a person as being a victim or target of workplace bullying, based on the criterion that the person should have been exposed to at least one or two negative acts per week for a period of six months. Using the criterion of being exposed to at least one negative act per week for a period of six months, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) found that between 8% and 25% of the respondents can be classified as victims of workplace bullying.

Additionally, Nielsen et al. (2009) in their Norwegian study of 2539 people classified 14.3% of respondents as targets of workplace bullying. Likewise, Visagie et al. (2012) in their South African study classified 39.6% of respondents in their sample as targets of workplace bullying. When employing the criterion of experiencing at least two negative acts per week for a duration of six months, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) found that the percentage of respondents classified as victims of workplace bullying in their study were drastically reduced for their hospital (from 16% to 2%) and department store (from 25% to 2.7%) samples. Using the same criterion of experiencing at least two negative acts per week for a duration of six months, O'Driscoll et al. (2011) identified 17.8% of respondents as victims of workplace bullying.

There appear to be a consensus among scholars that relatively high frequencies of workplace bullying is associated with masculine and large power distant cultures, whereas low frequencies is associated with more feminine and less power distant cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Nielsen et al., 2009).

Using the “operational” method, researchers commonly employ one of the following questionnaires: 1) the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) (e.g., Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Jimenez et al., 2007; Nielsen, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2008; Salin, 2001), 2) Leymann Inventory for Psychological Terrorization (LIPT) (e.g., Vartia, 1996, 2001; Zapf & Gross, 2001), and 3) the Work Harassment Scale (WHS) (e.g., Bjorkqvist et al., 1994), whilst the NAQ is the most commonly used questionnaire. A potential limitation of these questionnaires is that they assess reported frequencies of certain behaviours experienced by an individual in the workplace, but does provide any indication of the severity of these behaviours in terms of their impact on the individuals' well-being.

It might be that some infrequently reported behaviour in these questionnaires are potentially more damaging to a person, whereas more frequently reported behaviour may be less harmful to the persons well-being (O'Driscoll et al., 2011). Moreover, it is imperative to exercise caution when interpreting numbers relating to the prevalence of workplace bullying, because the measurement of the phenomenon is sensitive to the concept definition, its operationalisation, questionnaires used, measurement and research design applied.

2.5.1 Frequency and duration

The frequency and duration criteria employed in studies also largely influences the reported prevalence rates. For example, a study might report a sizable number of workplace bullying victims whilst using a lesser frequency with a definite duration criteria. To the contrary, the same study could also report a marginal number of workplace bullying victims while using a greater frequency with a definite duration criteria. To demonstrate, when using Leymann's operational definition of workplace bullying a Danish study with 90 people from an educational environment found that 14% of respondents were classified as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of being subjected to at least one negative act a week for six weeks (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). When a stricter criterion were employed of experience at least two negative acts a week for six weeks, whilst still using the definition, 7.8% of respondents were classified as victims.

Similarly, Nielsen et al. (2009) found that 14.3% of respondents were classified as targets of workplace bullying when being exposed to at least one negative act per week during a six months period. However, this percentage also dropped significantly when they applied a stricter criterion. Only 6.2% of respondents were identified as targets of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of being exposed to at least two negative acts per week for a period of six months.

It should be noted that an increase in the number of negative acts experienced by people during a predetermined timeframe also implies an increase in frequency. It is clear from the preceding discussion that the percentage of respondents who are being classified as victims of workplace bullying in terms of the “operational” method decreases significantly as the criterion becomes stricter (referring to an increase in the frequency of negative acts experienced).

Likewise, the reported frequency rates of workplace bullying in terms of the “subjective” method also show differences across studies. Moreover, the percentage of self-identified victims of workplace bullying often decreases as the frequency increases. Hoel et al. (2001) in their British study with 5288 people reported that 1.9% of respondents were bullied “rarely”, 6.2% “now and then”, 1.0% several times a month, 0.8% “several times a week”, and 0.6% “almost daily”. Likewise, Nielsen et al. (2009) in their study reported 2.5% of respondents being bullied “rarely”, 1.4% “now and then”, and 0.6% being bullied “once a week or more frequently”.

Moreover, Visagie et al. (2012) in their South African study reported 17% of respondents being bullied “rarely”, 7% “now and then”, 3.1% “several times a month”, and 0.6% almost “daily”, whereas none of the respondents were reported being bullied “several times a week”. Iglesias and de Bengoa Vallejo (2012) in their study reported 25% of respondents being bullied “rarely”, 52% “sometimes”, 15% “monthly”, 3% “weekly”, and 5% “daily”.

The findings of several studies that use the “subjective” method clearly indicated that there is a definite decrease in the percentage of people that can be regarded as victims of workplace bullying as the frequency increases, as indicated above. It would appear as if perpetrators of workplace bullying prefer to infrequently bully others, possibly to make it less visible and obvious to the victim and others.

With regards to duration, Salin (2001) in a Finish study with 377 people reported the mean bullying duration for those who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying were 2.7 years, ranging from one month to 18 years. Likewise, Hoel et al. (2001) in their British study reported that 66.8% of respondents reported being bullied for more than twelve months. A Danish study found that 40% of respondents reported being bullied from 6 months to 2 years, whereas 15% reported being victims of workplace bullying for more than 2 years (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001).

In an attempt to establish whether or not there is any relationship between the *frequency* and *duration* with which people experience workplace bullying, Visagie et al. (2012), when using the operational method, reported that 27.7% of their respondents labelled themselves as victims of workplace bullying over a six month period, whereas 29% of respondents were found to be victims of workplace bullying when the duration were increase to five years. This finding show a slight increase in the number of respondents reported as victims of workplace bullying as the duration increases. However, the increase reported by Visagie et al. (2012) is not considered significant in the present study, although a tendency is prevalent.

Similarly, Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) in their Norwegian study with 7986 people found that 43% of victims who reported daily exposure to workplace bullying also reported a duration of two years or more. Conversely, only 13% of victims who reported being bullied once or twice during the last six months had been bullied for two years or more. This would suggest a definite increase in the frequency of workplace bullying for the abovementioned period. The foregoing discussion clearly demonstrated that victims' of workplace bullying experience maltreatment in the workplace for prolonged periods, regardless of the reported frequencies.

2.5.2 Witnessing workplace bullying

Research has consistently found that bystanders of workplace bullying are also negatively affected (e.g. Sims & Sun, 2012, Vartia, 2001) by its occurrence. As a result, the prevalence of workplace bullying can thus also be estimated based on the percentage of people who self-report being witnesses of workplace bullying. However, retrospective reports by victims and witnesses of workplace bullying in a particular study may or may not refer to the same events (Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001).

Salin (2001) reported that 30.4% of respondents in a Finish study witnessed workplace bullying during a 12 month period, whereas 5% had witnessed workplace bullying at least weekly. Likewise, Ostvik and Rudmin (2001) in a Norwegian study with 296 soldiers reported 53% of respondents have witnessed workplace bullying. A Norwegian study with 2539 people found that 13.5% of respondents had witnessed workplace bullying in either their own department or in another department (Nielsen et al., 2009). In a more recent study, Visagie et al. (2012) reported that 46.5% of respondents in their South African mining sample had witnessed workplace bullying for a period of 5 years. Similarly, Berry et al. (2012) in their United States study with 197 nurses reported that 17.3% of respondents having witnessed workplace bullying.

It is evident from the above discussion that there are also great variations across studies in the prevalence rates for witnesses of workplace bullying. Nevertheless, the results reported above do provide alarming statistics of bullying incidents in the workplace based on witness accounts. It therefore emphasises the notion that workplace bullying is a psychosocial workplace problem of great concern.

2.5.3 The gender and status of the perpetrator(s)

Parallel to every single employee being vulnerable to workplace bullying in the form of a target, so are they also capable of being the perpetrator either exclusively or concurrently, whilst being a target. This is regardless of their gender, age, association, background, beliefs, or organisational status. In a Norwegian study with 7986 people 49% of respondents reported being bullied by one or more men exclusively, whereas 30% reported being bullied by women exclusively, and 21% reported being bullied by both men and women (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

In a later study, Hoel et al. (2001) found that men and women victims are being bullied by both men and women in approximately the same numbers (28.5% for men as compared to 32.3% of women), despite some minor differences. This confirms that both men and women are capable of bullying. Additionally, Hoel et al. (2001) suggested that male dominated work environments might be more hostile than those work environments that are predominantly female.

Concerning the status of the perpetrator, evident in most large scale studies is that bullying by a superior against a subordinate is commonly reported as the most prevalent (e.g. Hoel et al., 2001). This is often attributed to the apparent power differences that exist between superior and subordinate. However, Lester (2009) points out that power differences can also emanate from various situational and contextual differences. As a result, the perpetrator can thus be either a superior, peer, or subordinate. For those employees that interact with clients their perpetrator could even come in the form of such clients. A British cross sectional study by Hoel et al. (2001) found that 74.7% of respondents reported being bullied by a person in a managerial or supervisory position, followed by 36.7% of respondents identifying colleagues as perpetrators, 7.8% clients, and 6.7% of respondents identifying subordinates as perpetrators.

Likewise, Tuckey et al. (2009) in their study of 3000 Australian police officers found that 89.5% of respondents in their sample identified the bully to be an officer of a superior rank.

In addition, in the study of Johnson and Rea (2009) with 249 members of the Washing State Emergency Nurse Association 50% of respondents identified a manager/director as the perpetrator. In a more recent study, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) in a cross-sectional South African study with 13911 people reported that 30.5% of their respondents reported being bullied by a superior, whereas 15.7% reported being bullied by a colleague. The position of supervisors had been suggested by Cunniff and Mostert (2012) as a possible reason for the bullying behaviours. It is evident that within these studies, regardless of the specific label, those in a leadership position are most often identified and reported as the perpetrator. Conversely, a large scale study by Ortega et al. (2011) within the Danish elder-care environment reported that 72.4% of respondents in their sample indicated that they had been bullied by peers, whereas only 16.2% reported being bullied by a superior.

Similarly, in a Norwegian study with 1023 bus drivers Glaso et al. (2011) reported that 61.2% of respondents in their sample were bullied by peers, 35.3% by passengers, and 39.9% by superiors. O'Driscoll et al. (2011) in their New Zealand study found that 56.1% of the time colleagues were reported as the perpetrator, followed by supervisors (36.4%), clients or customers (26.9%), and subordinates (19.5%). In their study they also highlight that employers, senior managers, middle managers, and supervisors are being identified as the perpetrator in approximately the same percentage (31-36%). It is clear from the preceding discussion that there also exists great disparity in the reported rates for the status of the perpetrator. What should be appreciated is not the organisational status group that exhibit the greatest frequency of perpetrators, but rather that perpetrators of workplace bullying can operate on any organisational level.

2.5.3.1 Self-labelled perpetrators

In addition to establishing the gender and status of the perpetrator, studies have also attempted to ascertain the percentage of self-reported perpetrators within their sample. It has to be appreciated that not a large proportion of respondents within a particular study will willingly admit to being a perpetrator of workplace bullying. A United Kingdom study with 288 people from the public sector found that 19.3% of respondents admitted to being perpetrators of workplace bullying (Coyne et al., 2003). Interestingly, none of them also self-reported as being a victim of workplace bullying. A Norwegian study with 2539 people found that perpetrators yielded 2.9% of the sample, with 1.9% being solely perpetrators and a further 1% being both a perpetrator and self-labelled victim of workplace bullying (Hauge, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2009).

Additionally, Nielsen et al. (2009) in their Norwegian study found that 22.6% of respondents in their sample were self-labelled victims of workplace bullying that have also acted as perpetrators. Of these, only 1.8% was found to solely be the perpetrator. As shown, the prevalence rate for perpetrators of workplace bullying varies from a low of 2.9% to a high of 22.6%. It is obvious from the above discussion that variations in the prevalence of self-reported perpetrators of workplace bullying also exist across studies.

2.5.4 Risk groups

Comparable to the prevalence rates of workplace bullying across studies, anecdotal results regarding particular risk groups have also been presented across various studies. In some instances variations are reported, whilst in another no variations are found. The results from three South African studies have yielded three different findings, thus contradicting each other. Firstly, Steinmann (2003) reported that women are more likely than men to be bullied in the workplace.

A later study by Pietersen (2007) reported no significant differences between men and women related to their experiences of workplace bullying. Lastly, in a recent study Cunniff and Mostert (2012) reported that men experienced more workplace bullying than women, subsequently contradicting the findings of both Steinman and Pietersen.

Similar anecdotal results have also been reported across international studies. For example, a cross-sectional Finish study with 377 people found that the percentage of victims were significantly ($p < .05$) higher among women (11.6%) than men (5%) (Salin, 2001). Conversely, Johnson and Rea (2009) in their study with 249 people of the Washington State Emergency Nurse Association reported no significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = .05, p = .82$) between men and women. Although men will generally be bullied by other men, an approximate equal proportion of men and women are documented to be bullied by both men and women (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Glaso et al., 2011; Vartia, 1996).

According to Salin (2001) employees representing the minority gender group in the workplace are more vulnerable and exposed to workplace bullying. Deductively, women will be more vulnerable and exposed to workplace bullying if they are the underrepresented gender in the workplace. Likewise, men will be more vulnerable and exposed to workplace bullying should they be the underrepresented gender in the workplace.

With regard to age, most studies have reported no significant relationship between age and the experience of workplace bullying (e.g., Johnson & Rea, 2009; Keuskamp et al., 2012). A South African study did however found that the age group 20–29 experienced the highest levels of workplace bullying, whereas older employees were found experiencing the lowest levels of workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). Contradicting the finding of Cunniff and Mostert, an earlier Norwegian study by Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) found that older employees reported significantly more bullying than younger employees.

In the case of ethnic status, research would suggest that ethnic minority groups become an automatic target of workplace bullying due to their minority status (e.g., Archer, 1999; Fox & Stallworth, 2005). However, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) in their South African study reported that the majority ethnic group reported the greatest frequency of workplace bullying. Minority groupings like white and coloured people were found to experience workplace bullying in almost equal proportions, whereas Indians were found to experience the lowest levels of workplace bullying. Interestingly, a United States study with 249 nurses reported no significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = .513, p = .48$) among ethnic groups (Johnson & Rea, 2009).

Concerning organisational status, Johnson and Rea (2009) reported no significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=2) = 4.0, p = .13$) with regards to position in the organisation, which in this case refer to level of responsibility. However, an earlier Finish study reported that clerks (17.5%) experienced the highest levels of workplace bullying, followed by middle managers (9.6%), experts (7.2%) and managers (2%) (Salin, 2001). Correspondingly, Keuskamp et al. (2012) in their Australian study with 1141 nurses found that clerical/administrative hospital staff and professional medical employees experienced the highest levels of workplace bullying.

Moreover, whilst Johnson and Rea (2009) found no significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=2) = 4.0, p = .13$) between the various educational levels in their sample, Keuskamp et al. (2012) found that the experience of workplace bullying was highest for those with university education in their sample. Conversely, Cunniff and Mostert (2012) reported that respondents with a secondary qualification experienced more workplace bullying than those with a tertiary level of education. It is evident from the foregoing discussions that regardless of gender, age, ethnicity, authority, and education everyone in the workplace is vulnerable to become a victim of workplace bullying.

2.6 Workplace bullying behaviours

Workplace bullying is a common expression that includes various forms of ill treatment and hostile behaviours in the workplace (Fox & Stallworth, 2005). As a form of anti-social or deviant behaviour in the workplace, bullying can manifest itself as verbal, nonverbal, direct, indirect, physical or non-physical behaviours.

Leymann (1990) divided the behaviour associated with workplace bullying into the following four categories:

1. the victim's reputation (rumour mongering, slandering, holding up to ridicule),
2. the victim's ability to communicate in the workplace (the victim is not allowed to express him or herself in the workplace, no one is communicating effectively with the victim, continual loud-voiced criticisms and meaningful glances),
3. the victim's social circumstances (the victim is isolated, sent to Coventry), and
4. the victim's nature or the possibility of performing his or her work in the workplace (no work is given to the victim, the victim receive meaningless or humiliating work), and
5. violence and threats of violence.

Moreover, a combination of tactics may also be used to prevent the targeted person from performing adequately (Namie & Namie, 2009). Although bullying may involve physical activities, physical bullying is rarely reported.

Recent research on workplace bullying has focussed on less physical, overt and direct types of aggression and emphasized the prevalence and importance of more covert and non-physical types (Garandean & Cillessen, 2006). According to Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2002a) verbal and non-physical types of aggression are more prevalent. A Norwegian study with victims of bullying conducted by Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen and Hellesoy (1994) emphasised three main types of workplace bullying behaviours:

1. social isolation or organisational exclusion,
2. devaluation and getting blamed for one's work performance and efforts, and
3. exposure to teasing, jokes, insulting remarks and ridicule.

It is worth noting that a bully may also damage the victim's friendship networks, referred to as "relational bullying" (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). In this instance, workplace bullying will take an indirect approach to harm the target. Additionally, in a summary review of literature relating to workplace bullying, Rayner and Hoel (1997, p. 183) categorized bullying behaviours into the following:

threat to professional status (e.g., belittling opinion, accusation regarding lack of effort); threat to personal standing (e.g., name-calling, insults, intimidation); isolation (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, withholding of information); overwork (e.g., undue pressure, impossible deadlines, unnecessary disruptions); and destabilization (e.g., failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks, removal of responsibilities, setting up to fail).

A more recent study by Simons, Stark and DeMarco (2011) within the nursing environment revealed that the most common workplace bullying behaviour experienced by their participants included being given unmanageable workload (72% of respondents) and being ignored or excluded (58% of respondents). Their study reaffirms that threats of violence or acts of physical abuse is rarely reported, with only 5% of participants reporting such behaviour.

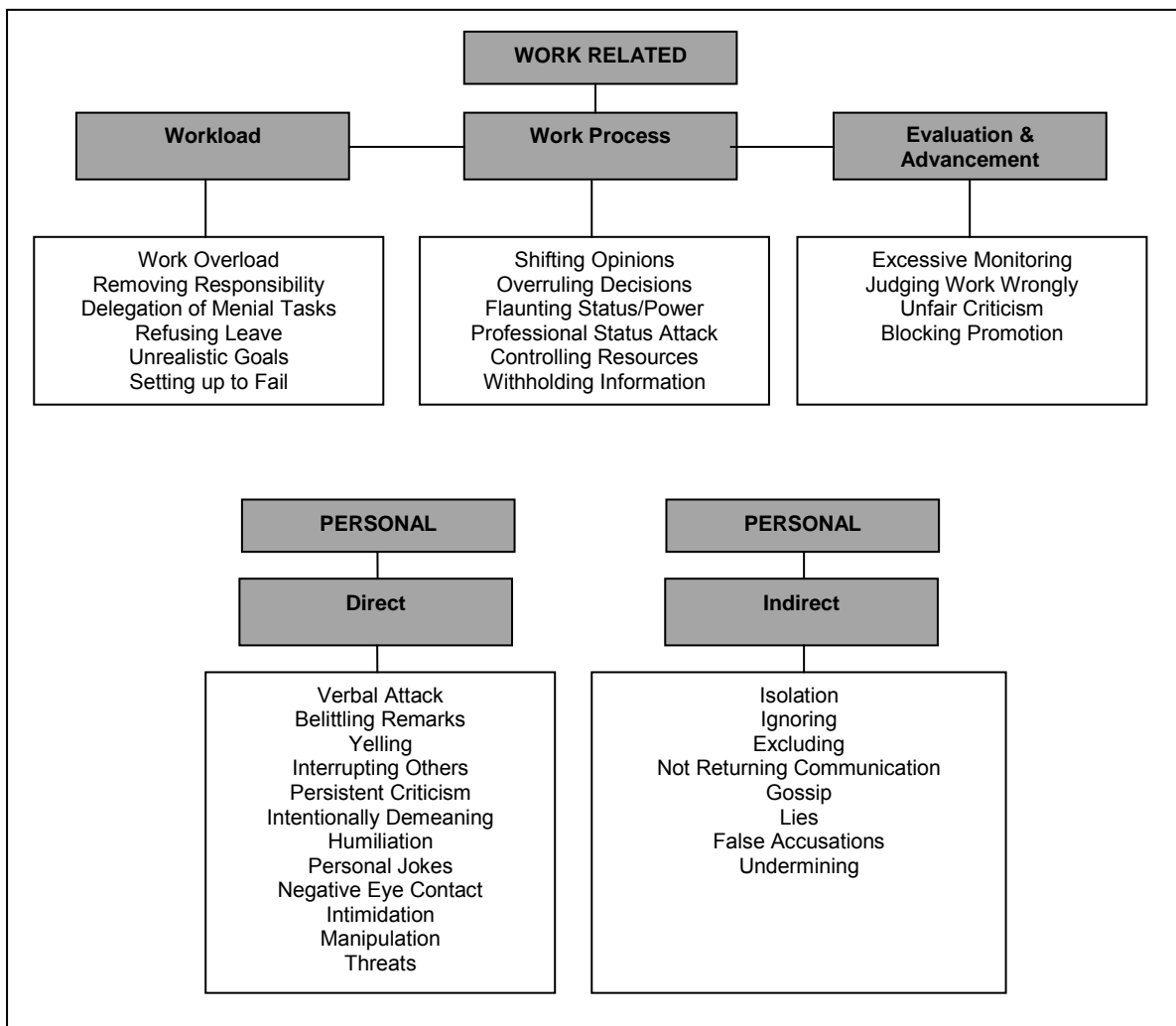


Figure 5. Three distinct groupings of workplace bullying

(Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011, p. 73-75)

Moreover, according to Bartlett and Bartlett (2011) workplace bullying behaviour can be clustered into work-related bullying, indirect personal bullying behaviours, and direct personal bullying behaviours. A representation of these three distinct groupings is provided in Figure 5. It should be noted that activities that comprises workplace bullying may be regarded as common in the workplace and perceived to be insignificant. It may even be regarded as harmless, especially when occurring in isolation and during a single occasion (Leymann, 1990).

However, such acts may constitute workplace bullying if the individual is systematically and continuously subjected to such perceived common, innocent and harmless acts in the workplace. Similarly, the extent to which the individual feels more and more defenceless in the situation also becomes an essential constituent. As emphasised by Einarsen and Skogstad (1996), Leymann (1996), and Vartia (1996), negative harmful acts should occur repeatedly and persistently.

By implication, the repetitive and persistent nature of the behaviour will then threaten the individual's physical, emotional and psychological health and well-being. Evident in large scale studies is that researchers, after classifying respondents as victims of workplace bullying or not in terms of the "operational" method, frequently highlight the most frequent negative acts reported by their sample.

Nielsen et al. (2009) reported the most prevalent negative acts to which victims were subjected too in their study included: "being ordered to do work below your level of competence", "someone withholding necessary information affecting your performance", and "neglect of your opinions or views. A New Zealand study with 1733 people reported that the most frequent reported negative acts were: "having important information withheld", "being exposed to unmanageable workload", and "being ignored or excluded" (O'Driscoll et al., 2011).

Similarly, Iglesias and de Bengoa Vallejo (2012) in their study reported the most common negative acts reported by their respondents were: “being ordered to do work below your level of competence”, “being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible deadlines”, “having your opinions ignored”, and “someone withholding information that affects your performance”.

It is clear from the preceding discussion that there are definite similarities regarding the most common negative acts reported by respondents across studies, regardless of nationality or geographical location. Research has increasingly shown that work-related bullying is much more common than person related bullying (Berry et al., 2012; Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2009; Salin, 2001). Unfortunately, no research document, that uses the WHS as an instrument, could be found that provided a similar account of the most frequent degrading and oppressing activities reported by respondents.

2.7 Types of workplace bullying

Einarsen (1999) distinguished between two types of bullying. Firstly, Einarsen speculates that perpetrators bully victims because they are considered easy targets. This type of bullying is referred to as “*Predatory Bullying*”. With predatory bullying the victim has done nothing that could have provoked the perpetrator to excuse his behaviour. The second type of bullying is known as “*Dispute-related Bullying*”. This type of bullying is triggered by a disagreement (conflict) between the perpetrator and victim. In this instance bullying thus develops from an unresolved grievance between the two parties. Wiedmer (2011) posits that bullies often demonstrate common elements. She points out that bullies commonly engage in predictable and recurring practices that make it rather easy to identify them. According to her bullies are often:

- cruel in private but charming in public;

- mask insecurity by displaying self-assuredness and certitude;
- portray self as wonderful, kind, caring, and compassionate, but actual behaviours contradict this self-crafted persona;
- unable to distinguish between leadership and bullying behaviours;
- very defensive in nature when confronted;
- manipulate others through guilt;
- are infatuated with controlling others;
- use charm and behave in an appropriate manner when superiors or others are present; and
- are convincing and compulsive liars in order to account for matters at hand; and excel at deception, lack a conscience, and are dysfunctional.

2.7.1 Keryl Egan's classification of bullies

According to Egan (2005), perpetrators of workplace bullying can be described in terms of three basic types of bullies: “*accidental*” bully, “*destructive self-absorbed*” (narcissistic bully) bully, and the “*serial psychopathic*” bully.

- The “*accidental*” bully refers to individuals who are genuinely unaware about the negative effect their behaviour has on others and usually lacks intention. These individuals are emotionally blunt, aggressive and demanding. They commonly respond in a boring manner out of panic, stress and rush. It is expected that these individuals will be surprised and even shocked if told about the negative effect their behaviour has on others.

- The “*destructive self-absorbed*” (narcissistic) bully has a fragile self-esteem, an inflated and unrealistic view of self, and feels entitled to privilege. Additionally, they are vulnerable to shame and humiliation, devaluing and critical of others, and demonstrate volatile rage if self-esteem is threatened. It is apparent that the “*narcissistic*” bully craves power, will act destructively at the expense of others and is extremely needy, yet feels entitled to special treatment. The “*destructive self-absorbed*” (narcissistic) bully does not necessarily intend to hurt others. They believe they deserve better, are competitive, and undermine their colleagues often as a result of their own shortcomings.
- The “*serial psychopathic*” bully, have various deceitful characteristics. This bully is considered as charming, grandiose, and seductive and often frightens others into compliance. The “*serial psychopathic*” bully intentionally disables targets, develops influence networks and gains power at the expense of others. Furthermore, “*serial psychopathic bullies*” have no remorse and achieve sadistic pleasure from winning and harming others. This type of bully often acts in a relentless and fearless fashion to systematically deceive and destroy others. The “*serial psychopathic bully*” is considered the most appalling and dangerous of the three types identified.

2.7.2 Gary and Ruth Namie classification of bullies

Preceding Egan (2005), Gary Namie in his research highlights four types of bullies that one is most likely to find in the workplace (Namie, 2003), which as classified by him and his wife are: 1) the “*Screaming Mimi*”, 2) the “*Constant Critic*”, 3) the “*Two-Headed Snake*”, and 4) the “*Gatekeeper*”.

- The “*Screaming Mini*” is considered as emotionally unstable. This is largely due to unpredictable changes in the person’s emotional state and moods. Interestingly, this person has no desire to camouflage his bullying behaviours and will publically bully his victims. He also sees this as a means of influencing others.
- The “*Constant Critic*” will almost instantaneously highlight the inadequacy in others performance in order to disguise his own shortcomings. This person will even engineer inadequacies in others if it requires preserving his bogus nature.
- The “*Two-Headed Snake*” slithers around in the organisation and up the organisational ladder through fierce deeds upon others. This person will defraud others and defame their character to boost their own self-image. Moreover, this individual will spread rumours about others and be loyal to only himself.
- Lastly, the *Gatekeeper* is obsessed with control over organisational resources and will allocate it in such a way that will see the failure of his victim. Whilst ensuring the failure of his victim he subsequently finds contentment in identifying, highlighting and complaining about his victim’s failure.

2.8 Role players in workplace bullying

In an adaptation of Dan Olweus bullying cycle among school children Real (2009) and Rose (2012) identify eight characters in attendance during workplace bullying episodes, namely: 1) the “*bully/bullies*”, 2) the “*henchmen*”, 3) the “*active supporters*”, 4) the “*passive supporters*”, 5) the “*disengaged onlookers*”, 6) the “*potential witnesses*”, 7) the “*resister, defender, witness*”, and 8) the “*targets*”.

Though the origin of these characters is in schoolyard bullying literature it is assumed within the precincts of the present study that these characters are also to be found during bullying episodes in the workplace. The “*bully/bullies*” are those individuals considered responsible for the occurrence of bullying. They are accountable due to their planning of and subsequent decision to proceed with the bullying by actually bullying the victim. Also taking an active part in bullying is the “*henchmen*”. Unlike the “*bully/bullies*”, this person did not plan or start the bullying but also apply negative pressure on the victim through various bullying behaviours (Real, 2009; Rose, 2012).

The “*henchmen*” is considered to merely exploit a situation where a person is already being subjected to bullying by another. This person can be regarded as an opportunist and a coward since they lack the self-esteem and confidence to bully out of their own. The third character comes in the form of an “*active supporter*”. This person shows open support for the bully by cheering the bully on. However, it does not necessarily imply that this person enjoy the bullying because cheering is mainly done with the desire to gain something socially or materially from the bully (Real, 2009; Rose, 2012).

Interestingly, the “*active supporter*” will never reveal the true motives for supporting the bully. Conversely, those who indeed enjoy the bullying of others, but who does not show open support for the bully are referred to as the “*passive supporter*” (Real, 2009; Rose, 2012). This might be the person that lack the required willpower to bully or who is in a position where active involvement in bullying threatens his position or status.

The fifth character is those individuals who observe the bullying but consciously decide to ignore it. They regard it as none of their business and not their responsibility to do something about it. They turn away from the bullying as if it does not occur or as if they never witnessed it.

With these individuals there are no indications whether they support or oppose the bullying. They are referred to as the “*disengaged onlookers*” (Real, 2009; Rose, 2012). The sixth character the “*potential witness*”. This individual physically observes the bullying taking place and opposes it. Despite opposing the bullying this individual understands that he should help or intervene but fail to do so.

Thankfully, there are also the few individuals who actually intervene and act on behalf of the victim, which is known as the “*resister, defender, and witness*”. This person is not afraid of providing support and speaking out on behalf of the victim. The bully is often physically confronted by this person and challenged. This individual has the required self confidence and determination to do something about the bullying. The last character is of course the victim (Real, 2009; Rose, 2012). This is the person that is subjected to the bullying behaviour, which may or may not act out against the perpetrator.

2.9 Contributing factors of workplace bullying

Scholars’ explanations of the contributing factors of workplace bullying cover the personality characteristics of the victim and perpetrator (e.g. Coyne et al., 2000; Leymann, 1996; Parkins, Fishbein & Ritchey, 2006; Seigne, Coyne, Randall & Parker, 2007), as well as factors of the work environment (e.g., Einarsen, 2000; Hutchinson, Vickers, Jackson & Wilkes, 2010b; Leymann, 1996; Zapf, 1999).

According to Einarsen (2000) in different work environments bullying correlates with the personality traits of the victim and offender, characteristics of human interaction at work, organisational climate, and work environment. It should be noted that information about factors that contribute to workplace bullying is largely based on victims’ accounts of what makes them more vulnerable to bullying.

A subsequent discussion will focus on the personal characteristics of the victim and perpetrator, as well as factors in the work environment thought to be significant contributors of workplace bullying.

2.9.1 Characteristics of the victim and perpetrator

The role played by an individual's persona in workplace bullying has been well documented. Traditionally, investigation into the antecedents of workplace bullying has focussed predominantly on the persona of an individual. The principal aim was to establish whether an individual's persona predisposes them to become a target or perpetrator of workplace bullying. In light of the aforesaid, Vartia (1996) pointed out that certain personality traits make an individual more susceptible to experiencing bullying, which also becomes important in predicting workplace bullying. Furthermore, Zapf and Einarsen (2003; 2005) held that certain individual characteristics may in certain instances act as contributing factors of workplace bullying.

It is argued that either an individual's vulnerabilities in dispositions or the provocative nature of their dispositions may predispose them to be a target of bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Randall, 1997). As early as the mid-70s Brodsky (1976) documented that predisposing factors in victims included: a lack of social competence and self-assertiveness, conscientiousness and tendencies towards overachievement. Individual characteristics like social incompetence and self-esteem (e.g., being unable to manage conflict or defend him or herself), or overachieving and causing conflict with group norms (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003) may promote bullying by means of placing the victim in a vulnerable position.

The view that some people are more vulnerable to bullying than others as a result of their low self-assertiveness, low self-esteem and their inability to defend themselves under certain circumstances is very common and has been well supported by a number of studies.

A study conducted by McGuckin, Lewis and Shevlin (2001) found that victims of bullying score lower on self-esteem and self-assertiveness than non-victims. These findings were supported in later research by Matthiesen and Einarsen (2007) who added that victims of bullying are more likely to also exhibit negative affectivity.

Zapf (1999) argues that a victim's depressive, anxious and obsessive behaviour may be an effect of bullying while also being a cause of it. Moreover, victims of workplace bullying are reported to be weaker, paranoid, and have less social skills (Einarsen, 2000; Ramsey, 2002; Zapf, 1999). Sadly, it is also documented that some victims may be bullied on the basis of gender and race (Lewis & Gunn, 2007). On the other hand, they are also reported to be enthusiastic, intelligent, highly skilled, loyal, creative and high achievers (Bultena & Whatcott, 2008). Bultena and Whatcott further argue that the employees most vulnerable to workplace bullying are the personality invested high-achievers who threaten colleagues in one way or another. It is therefore assumed that those who feel threatened, whether justifiably or not, regard bullying as their way of controlling, minimizing and even eliminating the threat.

Given the foregoing discussion, it should be noted that the victim's personality as a causal factor in workplace bullying has been a profoundly debated issue. It is thus essential to take cognisance that no generalisation about the personality profile of the victim can be made due to several apparent contradictions and discrepancies in literature. In addition to examining the victim's personality, researchers have also aimed to examine the personality profile of the perpetrator.

With the focus on the perpetrator, those who bully will rarely admit to being a perpetrator of bullying. This is often the situation given that in most instances the perpetrator knows that what he is doing is wrong and destructive.

It is therefore difficult to collect valid information from the perpetrators perspective (Baillien et al., 2009). Given this challenge, the characteristics of the perpetrator are commonly based on the victim's opinion and view. In terms of perpetrator characteristics, those who bully has been reported to be aggressive (Seigne et al., 2007), dictatorial (Ashforth, 1994), and egocentric (Namie, 2003). Zapf and Einarsen (2003) hypothesised that the perpetrators characteristics relate to three main types of bullying such as: the protection of self-esteem, a lack of social competence, and bullying as a result of micro-political behaviour.

Protection of self-esteem draws on research which advocates that aggression is directed towards sources of negative evaluations and constitutes a way of symbolic dominance and superiority over another person (Grawshaw, 2009). The protection of self-esteem can be expected to be a basic human motive that influences and controls an individual's behaviour in various situations. In terms of a lack of social competence, the perpetrators are often unaware of the effects that their behaviour may have on others. Grawshaw posits that this type of bullying is often unintentional and that perpetrators commonly lack self-reflection, perspective taking and emotional control.

Micro-political behaviour refers to behaviours used by people within the workplace to enhance their own interest and position. These people may make use of organisational structures, processes, coalitions, and power to further their goals and protect their status (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). With micro-political behaviour, the intent is not to harm any particular individual but rather to present the self in a positive light and protect one's own interest (Grawshaw, 2009). However, this type of behaviour has the potential to manifest itself as bullying.

Additionally, both victim and perpetrator could be fashioned from an incident at work that was left unresolved, which created a cycle of disruptive behaviour between the two. This implies that the victim and perpetrator become subject to circumstances in the event that other variables fail to resolve the issue.

Unaddressed workplace conflict may thus lead to workplace bullying when behaviours are allowed to escalate until violence and abuse occur in the workplace (Ayoko, Callan & Hartel, 2003; Cortina et al., 2001).

2.9.2 Contributing factors of the workplace

Parallel to the characteristics of the victim and perpetrator, several workplace/organisational factors have also been reported to be associated with workplace bullying. Evident in workplace bullying literature is that those scholars' with an environmental view regard workplace bullying as a symptom of organisational dysfunction (Einarsen, 2000; MacIntosh, 2005; Vartia, 1996).

Empirical evidence has shown that workplace bullying correlates with numerous work-related factors, including: role conflict, poor flow of information, work control, increased rush at work, high stress, and organisational problems (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Baillien et al., 2009; Baron & Neuman, 1996; Hauge, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2007; Vartia, 2001; Zapf, 1999).

A recent study by Bentley et al. (2012) with 2250 staff employees in the New Zealand travel industry found that both victims and witnesses of workplace bullying reported their workplace to be low on constructive leadership and high on laissez-fair leadership, low on supervisory and colleague support, as well as low on organisational support.

Notwithstanding the multitude of factors in the workplace/organisation that can be a potential contributing factor to workplace bullying, the paper will subsequently discuss organisational culture and climate, leadership, and organisational change as arguably the major influencing factors of the work environment in workplace bullying.

2.9.2.1 Organisational culture and climate

Organisational culture is a multifaceted concept based on the assumptions, values, beliefs and expectations that members often take for granted but have come to share (Schein, 1985). In essence, organisational culture refers to the customary ways of doing things in an organisation. Moreover, the organisational culture may encompass a significant precursor of workplace bullying. According to Brodsky (1976, p. 83), “for harassment to occur, harassment elements must exist within the culture that permits and rewards harassment”. The same can be said about workplace bullying. With that said, workplace bullying may thus be regarded as part of an organisational culture and be accepted by some as a means of achieving objectives.

Regardless of how unmerited it might be, in Brodsky’s (1976) view this will be regarded as a sense of permission to bully. This could be the case at institutions such as the police service, defence force, and correctional service where the culture is commonly one of “cowboys don’t cry”. Employees in these working environments are often expected to manage and overcome any work related challenges. A number of scholars argue that bullying will flourish in cultures that treat bullying as acceptable and normal, as well as environments in which there is a lack of policies or punishment to address bullying behaviour (Einarsen, 1999; Robinson & O’Leary-Kelly, 1998).

With regards to organisational climate, Leymann (1996) argues that the social climate of the workplace and organisational practices should account for workplace bullying instead of the characteristics of individuals. However, this appears too conclusive and it does not make scientific sense to explain workplace bullying exclusively in terms of a single factor. Scientific enquiry into workplace bullying has proved that the phenomenon can be explained in terms of various other factors.

The organisational climate does however receive acknowledgment as one of the factors that contribute to workplace bullying. A competitive and strained climate is reported to make an organisation particularly prone to bullying (O'Moore, Seyne, McGuire & Smith, 1998; Vartia, 1996). Studies by Einarsen et al. (1994), Keashly and Jagatic (2003) and Vartia (1996) suggest that low satisfaction with the social climate of the organisation correlates significantly with workplace bullying.

Similarly, Hoel and Cooper (2000) in their large survey of UK workplaces reported a positive correlation between negative work climate and experience of bullying. The dimension of a stressful work environment and the positive correlation that thrives between bullying and a stressful work environment cannot be ignored (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hauge et al., 2007). Especially when considering that stressful work often leads to belligerent behaviour, while stressors indirectly affect aggression as stressed workers come to act in ways that elicit aggressive behaviour in some (Einarsen, 2000).

Additionally, some prominent factors documented to be associated with workplace bullying include among others: poor or deliberate miscommunication, lack of control over work, meaningless and unchallenging tasks, and a lack of clarity over role and expectations (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Einarsen 2000; Vartia, 1996). Importantly, the extent to which an organisational culture and climate supports or discourages bullying significantly influences its existence within the workplace.

2.9.2.2 Leadership

Traditionally, leadership research has mostly focused on the positive aspects of leadership. According to Hauge et al. (2007) it has been assumed that negative leadership is merely the absence of effectiveness.

The perceived leadership style within an organisation and its relationship to bullying has received a fair amount of attention. It has also been reported as one of the most frequently found factors associated with workplace bullying. Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) reported that in a major 1994 workplace study, the majority of participants reported to be bullied by one or more superiors. It is commonplace that a superior occupy a leadership position in the organisational hierarchy. However, in light of earlier discussions it cannot be concluded with certainty that those in leadership positions will be the bully.

Whilst being mindful of the position a leader often inhabit, it can be presumed that based on their position and likely degree of power/authority they are better situated to become the perpetrator, hence the subsequent discussion. It has been reported that destructive and passive forms of leadership negatively affect individuals and organisations (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007). According to Ashforth (1994) and Bowling and Beehr (2006) destructive and passive leadership may contribute to a stressful work environment in which bullying can flourish.

Autocratic and laissez-faire leadership has been reported to correlate significantly with reports of bullying (Einarsen et al., 1994; O'Moore et al., 1998; Vartia, 1996). According to Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004), O'Moore et al. (1998) and Vartia (1996) subordinates can feel directly bullied by autocratic leaders that is authoritarian, rule based, conservative, and inflexible. It is thus not surprising that autocratic, laissez-faire and tyrannical leadership styles emerge as the most frequent leadership deficiencies allied with workplace bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Nielsen, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2005).

It is worth noting that one finds various leadership styles in literature and practice. The value of these leadership styles depends largely on how an individual apply himself in relation to these styles. A particular leadership style in itself is not bad.

However, the manner in which an individual apply himself in relation to a particular leadership style will determine whether or not such style is complimentary of or detrimental to the workplace.

2.9.2.3 Organisational change

Organisational changes have been reported to correlate with various negative emotions at work (Marks & De Meuse, 2005; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005), which could lead to aggressive outbursts and severe interpersonal conflicts that may be related to experienced victimisation and feelings of isolation (Skogstad et al., 2007).

In a study conducted by O'Moore et al. (1998), targets of bullying described their work environment as stressful, competitive and overwhelmed with interpersonal conflict and pinpointed ongoing organisational changes as a possible root cause of their bullying. The increased pressure placed on all employees within the organisation to perform optimally during change may result in interpersonal conflict. When left unresolved such interpersonal conflict may result in workplace bullying.

Moreover, those responsible for implementing change may resort to an authoritarian leadership style which may result in interpersonal conflict with significant others (Skogstad et al., 2007). In these instances the person in a more powerful position is most likely to become the bully. Superiors may resort to bullying behaviour as a means of achieving objectives and ensuring compliance during organisation change. Importantly, Baillien and De Witte (2009) in their study with 1263 Dutch-speaking Germans found that organisational change does not by design result in workplace bullying. In their study participants reported that when employees are personally confronted with the negative outcomes of organisational change they are prone to experience workplace bullying.

According to them, organisational change will most probably not elicit victimisation in the instance where such change is not accompanied by a notable negative outcome(s) for the individual.

In light of the preceding discussion on the contributing factors of workplace bullying it should be noted that certain risk factors which may elicit workplace bullying might be a combination of personal and workplace factors. Similarly, it might also be that the persona of the victim or perpetrator, and characteristics in the work environment distinctively act as a contributing element of workplace bullying.

2.10 Consequences of workplace bullying

Since the genesis of research on workplace bullying, global awareness of the negative and destructive consequences of the phenomenon has increased immensely. It is argued in the present paper that despite individual tolerance levels and the persons ability to guard against workplace bullying, the more intense, persistent and frequent the bullying behaviour is, the more vulnerable and likely an individual is to experience the negative effects of workplace bullying.

Scholars, today still, highlight the negative and destructive effects that workplace bullying has on the victim, observer and the organisation. Moreover, Roscigno, Lopez and Hodson (2009) indicate that the terror experienced as a result of workplace bullying often last long after the bullying episodes have ended. Likewise, bullying may result in long-term physical and mental health implications for the victim and his family (Thomas, 2005). The ensuing discussion will focus on the negative effect workplace bullying have on the victim, organisation, and to a lesser extend the observer of workplace bullying.

2.10.1 Effects on the victim

The effects of workplace bullying on the victim has been considered and hypothesised in numerous studies. Many studies have reported that victims experience psychological problems (Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Quine, 2003), psychosomatic problems (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2003; Leymann, 1990; Zapf et al., 1996), musculoskeletal problems (Brodsky, 1976; Hoel, Faragher & Cooper, 2004; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001), and physiological problems (Vartia, 1996). Table 4 provides a synopsis of the impact workplace bullying has on the individual.

Psychological problems include among others: hypersensitivity, nervousness, anxiety, despair, and post-traumatic stress disorders (Leymann, 1990; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002a; Vartia, 2001). In a study with 433 employees in the Danish manufacturing industry, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2002b) reported exposure to bullying alone accounted for 27% of the variance in psychological health complaints. Additionally, psychosomatic problems include: chronic depression, victimisation and sleeplessness (Tepper, 2000). A study with 127 Australian university students confirmed that exposure to bullying behaviour causes victims to experience psychosomatic problems (Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir, 2006).

Musculoskeletal problems include among others, fatigue, muscular complaints, stomach problems, pains, rapid heart rate, and various aches (Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004; Hoel, Borg & Mikkelsen, 2003; Vartia, 2001). Workplace bullying is regarded as an aetiological factor for many mental health problems and can render victims susceptible to hypertension and serious physical conditions such as cardiovascular disease (Djurkovic et al., 2006; Kivimäki et al., 2003). Moreover, physiological problems include diminished self-esteem, feelings of shame, and emotional exhaustion (Glendinning, 2001; Lewis, 2004).

Table 4
Individual impacts of workplace bullying

Individual Impacts of Workplace Bullying			
Work	Health		Affective domain
	Physical	Emotional	
Absenteeism Burnout	Cardiovascular Disease Chronic Disease	Depression Psychological Health/ Psychological Affects	Anger Anxiety
Career Impact Commitment Lower	Headaches Health Decrease	PTSD Suicide	Concentration loss Easily Upset Tenseness
Concentration Loss Errors in Workplace	Higher Body Mass Increased Smoking, Alcohol, and Drug Use/ Abuse		Exhaustion Fear
Income Loss Intolerance of Criticisms	Medical Costs Physical Health		Humiliation Impatience
Job Satisfaction Lower Loss of time due to worrying	Sick Time Sleep Disruption		Isolation Feeling Motivation
Morale Performance/Productivity	Sleep-induced Drugs		Powerlessness Sadness
Quit / Thinking of quitting			Self Confidence
Social Interactions inside Work			Social Interactions outside Work
Work Hours (Hours Cut)			Stress

(Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011, p. 69)

The victims' level of performance and satisfaction in the workplace often decreases as they become withdrawn and uncommunicative, lose interest in family life, and turn to drinking. They become obsessed with the need to vindicate themselves, and may even indulge in murderous fantasies (Adams, 1997; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002b).

It is evident from the discussion above that workplace bullying has significant negative consequences for victims of workplace bullying. Experiencing these problems has long-term health and well-being consequences for the victim. Akin to the victim, bystanders observing workplace bullying has also been reported as being indirect victims.

2.10.2 Witnesses experience of workplace bullying

The negative effects of workplace bullying are not limited to the victim. Research has established that the negative health effects associated with workplace bullying have also been found among the witnesses of workplace bullying. Recently, two parallel studies found that witnesses of workplace bullying reported an increase in symptoms of strain and stress, poor emotional and physical well-being, lower levels of job satisfaction and performance, lower affective commitment to the organisation, and a higher intention to leave (Bentley et al., 2012; Sims & Sun, 2012). Interestingly, in the study of Bentley et al. (2012) those who witnessed workplace bullying also reported higher levels of citizenship behaviour towards victims. This could debatably indicate their intention to help the victim cope with the victimization.

2.10.3 Consequences for the organisation

The organisation in which bullying flourishes is equally vulnerable and exposed to the negative consequences of workplace bullying, it is thus not immune from the detrimental effects of workplace bullying. This is regardless of whether there is a lack of knowledge about workplace bullying in the organisation or whether legislative provisions are present or not. Organisations might perceive workplace bullying to be insignificant and harmless to the organisation.

Regretfully, ignorance about the severe effects of bullying does not protect the organisation from the phenomenon. It therefore goes without saying that workplace bullying does not only have a direct impact on victims or observers, but also has a referent cost to organisations. Table 5 provides a concise representation of the impact workplace bullying has on the organisation.

Table 5***Organisational impacts of workplace bullying***

Organisational Impact of Workplace Bullying					
Productivity	Cost	Culture	Legal		Reputation
Absenteeism	Health plan increase	Climate	Wrongful lawsuits	discharge	Customer relations
Decreased performance	Recruiting	Ineffective interpersonal relationships (Peers/Supervisors)			
Employees use of time	Turnover / Retention	Ineffective teamwork			
Loss of creative potential	Worker attrition	Lowered morale			
Missed deadlines	Worker compensation claims	Organisational commitment			
Workplace errors		Work environment			

(Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011, p. 76)

The cost incurred by organisations as a result of workplace bullying includes among others, lower levels of productivity and job satisfaction, absenteeism, higher turnover, legal actions, compensation claims, increase in sick leave, and liability (McMahon, 2000; Rayner, 1997; Tehrani, 1996). Not surprisingly, being persistently victimised in the workplace decreases an employee's loyalty and overall commitment. Workplace bullying threatens the retention of good employees in the organisation by either directly or indirectly driving them away.

It goes without saying that a drop in productivity, an increase in absenteeism and turnover result in unfavourable financial implications for the organisation. In essence, for example an increase in absenteeism means low levels of productivity which could lead to a loss of income. Similarly, high turnover rates require recruiting and training new employees which are directly linked to organisational expenses. The financial burden on the organisation caused by workplace bullying therefore cannot be ignored.

2.11 Chapter conclusion

Noticeable throughout the foregoing discussion is that workplace bullying is well documented to be a pervasive problem with no frontiers. Whilst being challenged with miniature discrepancies in how the concept is being defined, globally there still remains an essential degree of unity among scholars with regards to several fundamental descriptive features when defining the concept. Moreover, existing literature frequently have four main focus areas namely: the conceptual and operation definition of workplace bullying, its antecedents, the behaviour involved, prevalence rates, and the direct or indirect negative effects of the phenomenon. Despite large-scale developments in research and practice South Africa is still one of the countries where workplace bullying receives inadequate attention. As a result, foreign literature on workplace bullying was valuable throughout.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study is guided by the research aims of investigating the nature and prevalence to workplace bullying in a representative sample of employees in the Western Cape, South Africa, by using different measurement and estimation techniques. Additionally, to examine whether or not there are differences between the two distinct work environments on several factors; whether or not those who self-identified as victims of bullying have also reported higher frequencies for the listed negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours; and to compare the findings of the present study with those reported by other scholars.

In order to provide an answer to the research aims seven research questions (see para 1.3) were formulated to guide the present study. To systematically provide answers to the seven research questions, an appropriate research design is essential. In this chapter, the research process will be detailed. A discussion on the research design, sampling design, procedure for data collection, ethical deliberation, measuring instruments, and statistical analysis will be provided.

3.2 Research design

According to Babbie, Mouton, Vorster and Prozesky (2007, p. 49), “the selection of methods, and their application, are always dependent on the aims and objectives of the study, the nature of the phenomenon being investigated and the underlying theory and or expectations of the investigator”.

The present study uses a fundamental quantitative non-experimental ex-post facto design to answer the research questions. It takes into account the purpose and aim of the present study, as well as the view of Babbie et al. (2007). The rationale for following a quantitative approach in the present study is as follow:

- Research questions can be formulated which can be verified empirically on a set of data;
- Data can be collected from a large representative sample in a short space of time using an inorganic instrument (e.g., questionnaire) and the anonymity of participants can be assured;
- Analysis is deductive (by statistical analysis) and not inductive (by the researcher) in nature. This ensures that the researchers' own biases, values, and subjective judgment is minimized;
- Following the statistical analysis of the data, a comprehensive answer will be reached which can be regarded as unbiased and authentic;
- The results of the study can be legitimately discussed and published in an accurate and narrow form because it can be proved by statistical means; and
- The construction of the study allows for replication and the establishment of similar results.

This design is limited in terms of the extent to which it does not provide adequate information on causation. Given the lack of literature on workplace bullying within the South African context, this approach will shed light on the nature and prevalence of exposure to workplace bullying in a representative sample of employees in the Western Cape, South Africa. Moreover, this design does not require too much of the authors and participants time and effort.

3.3 Sampling design

A sampling design refers to the researchers definite plan of obtaining a representative sample from a given population before any data are collected. It is thus essential to provide clarity about the population and sample that will be used for the purpose of the present study. A population is described as the total group of individuals that conform to a set of stipulations, comprising the entire set of individuals that is of interest to the researcher and to whom the research results can be generalised (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Polit & Hungler, 1999).

For the purpose of the present study, two target populations (employees in public sector and employees in the private sector) were identified by the author in the Western Cape. Given the practical considerations of the study two specific organisations had been identified to participate namely: 1) the SANDF (public organisation), consisting of all permanently employed personnel in various Units in the Western Cape and 2) Power Group (private organisation), consisting of personnel deployed at their various work sites in Cape Town, from which the total sample was drawn.

A sample is described as the part or subset of the research population that the researcher selects to participate in the study, which represents the research population (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber, 1998). According to Babbie and Mouton (2004) a sample would be considered representative of the target population from which it were selected to the extent to which it provides an accurate portrayal of the characteristics of the target population.

The succeeding discussion on the total sample for the present study will be done by focussing on the SANDF and Power Group independently. This is done mainly because the two organisations are especially dissimilar, and it will also set the stage for subsequent discussions that will attempt to illustrate similarities and differences between the two organisations.

3.3.1 The SANDF

The SANDF Units used in the present study were mainly Units in the Cape Town and West Coast regions of the Western Cape. The reasons for using the Units in these regions are because their personnel provide a representative sample of the SANDF in terms of Arms of Service (i.e., Army, Navy, Air Force, and Health Services). Moreover, these Units were easily accessible. In order to participate in the study the participants had to be working in their respective Units for at least six months. Those who worked in these Units for a period less than six months were excluded from the statistical analysis of the present study. This was exclusively because of requirements within the research questionnaire.

Before commencing with data collection, authority and ethical clearance were obtained from the SANDF and Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee (SUEC) respectively. Firstly, a formal letter was drafted and forwarded to Defence Intelligence (DI) requesting authority to conduct research in the SANDF and to approach employees in various Units in the Western Cape. The letter of authority by DI subsequently accompanied a formal letter to SUEC requesting ethical clearance to proceed with the research. Lastly, the authority letter by DI and the ethical clearance document from SUEC further accompanied various formal letters to the respective Unit Officer Commandings' requesting access to their Units for the purpose of data collection for the present study.

Noticeable in the present study is that none of the SANDF Units in the Western Cape that participated in the study are being mentioned or referred too at any stage during any discussion or the presentation of results. This is mainly because the authority letter from DI specifically stipulates that only the name of the SANDF may be used in this study and none of the participating Units or personnel, hence the absence of Unit names from the present study.

3.3.2 Power Group

With regard to Power Group, work sites in the Cape Town region were used due to the ease of access to employees through the organisation's Human Resource Department (HRD) at their Cape Town Head Office. Power Groups HRD were used as a vehicle for reaching employees in the organisation due to the difficulty of personally reaching employees at their various work sites around Cape Town. In order to participate in the study the same requirements that applied to the SANDF also applied to Power Group. The participants had to be working at their respective work sites for at least six months. Those who worked at their work sites for a period less than six months were excluded from the statistical analysis of the present study. This was also exclusively because of requirements within the research questionnaire.

Prior to data collection permission was obtained from the HRD at the organisation's Cape Town Head Office. The permission letter from Power Groups HRD accompanied the formal letter and authority letter from DI to SUEC. After the ethical clearance document from SUEC was made available to Power Group their HRD drafted a covering letter that accompanied the research questionnaire during the distribution thereof.

A non-probability or convenience sample was used because not every member in the two organisations had an equal chance of being included in the sample (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, 2004). There was no list of all the members in the two organisations. Participants were selected for inclusion in the sample because of the ease of access. Thus, there was no sampling frame as described by Mouton (1996) from which a sample could be drawn randomly to ensure that every member in these organisations had an equal chance of being included in the sample, hence the use of non-probability or convenience sampling for the purpose of the present study.

3.4 Procedure for data collection

In collecting the data the approached followed in SANDF Units differed from the approach followed at Power Group. This was necessitated by the inability of personally reaching employees at Power Group due to their busy work schedule.

3.4.1 The SANDF

With reference to SANDF Units in the Cape Town and West Coast regions in the Western Cape, after permission was obtained from the relevant authorities the participants were approached in their respective Units. Every individual who was willing to participate in the study were personally explained the following:

- Purpose of the study;
- The voluntary nature of their participation;
- The strong emotional feelings the study might engender in some respondents;
- The details of qualified professionals in the SANDF who would be available to assist those who might decide they need professional assistance;
- The consent form; and
- The structure and layout of the questionnaire.

Two approaches were used in collecting the data in the SANDF Units. Firstly, due to the operational requirements in the various Units the majority of participants were approached individually in their respective offices and explained the abovementioned.

Participants were then left with the questionnaire to be completed at their own time after they indicated their understanding of the information as explained, and their willingness to participate in the present study. The questionnaires were collected again at a later stage from the participants in their respective offices. The second approach saw the researcher invite the participants to a determined location in the Units where the questionnaires were personally administered by the researcher. After the participants completed the questionnaires the researcher collected them. All participants were thanked for their willingness to participate in the present study either as a collective group or individually.

A total of 150 questionnaires were administered and/or distributed in the SANDF from which only 105 questionnaires were returned fully completed. This represents a response rate of 70%, which is indicative of a good response rate and satisfactory for analysis and reporting (Babbie & Mouton, 2004).

3.4.2 Power Group

With reference to Power Group, the busy working schedule of employees made it impossible for the researcher to personally approach employees individually or as a group. As a result, the researcher had to rely on the HRD of Power Group to distribute the questionnaires to employees, and collect them again after a predetermined period. The information as was explained to participants from the SANDF had to be presented in a clear and understandable written format to employees of Power Group. It was indicated by the HRD of Power Group that any possibility of obtaining a large response rate at Power Group was highly unlikely due to employee's busy working schedule. Given this challenge the researcher still decided to have 150 questionnaires distributed from which only 73 were returned fully completed, after four months of difficulty to get all the questionnaires completed. This represents a response rate of 49%, which is 1% short of the expected good response rate of 50% (Babbie & Mouton, 2004).

In total 300 questionnaires were administered and/or distributed from which 178 questionnaires were returned fully completed. This represents a response rate of 59.3%, which is indicative of a good response rate. Babbie and Mouton (2004) maintains that a response rate of 50% is satisfactory for analysis and reporting purposes. However, in the author's view what should also be considered when qualifying a response rate as satisfactory or not is the nature of the concept being investigated. Certain concepts will yield large response rates while others might not. When dealing with very sensitive concepts in the social sciences one is not guaranteed a 50% response rate, but nonetheless have to continue with statistical analysis and reporting of results in the interest of science. The response rate per scientific investigation should thus be evaluated on its own merit.

3.5 Ethical deliberation

Authority for data collection and to continue with the present the study was obtained from the relevant authorities in the SANDF, Power Group and SUEC. All participants were provided with the necessary information to make an informed decision in order to voluntarily participate in the present study. Those who participated in the present study were required to give their written consent by completing an anonymous consent form.

In order to ensure that none of the respondents could be linked to any questionnaire or response, the researcher collected data by means of anonymous self-reported questionnaires with no identifiable particulars required. Apart from the participant's during the completion of the research questionnaire, and the HRD at Power Group (necessitated by the practicality of reaching employees) only the researcher handled the completed questionnaires. This was also to ensure confidentiality. Additionally, all participants were ensured about the confidentiality and safety of the research data.

In essence, the researcher gave meticulous attention to the ethical standards and principles of the Health Professions Council of South Africa and SUEC during data collection and interaction with the research participants.

3.6 The research instrument

Generally, two distinct methods of assessing the prevalence of workplace bullying have been used in workplace bullying research. The first method, which is considered the “subjective” method, request participants to indicate whether or not they feel or perceive themselves to be exposed to bullying in the workplace after being provided with a definition of workplace bullying. The second method, regarded as the “operational” method, measures the frequency with which respondents have been subjected to several types of negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours in the workplace. Both methods commonly uses a period of six months as a general rule for determining whether or not a person can be regarded as being a victim of workplace bullying. The present study employed both methods in measuring workplace bullying.

For the purpose of the present study data were collected using anonymous self-reported questionnaires. The research questionnaire consisted of the following 4 parts: 1) Biographical information; 2) Workplace bullying definition linked questions; 3) Negative Acts Questionnaire; and 4) Work Harassment Scale.

3.6.1 Biographical information

The purpose of the biographical information part of the research questionnaire is to document differences of the respondents. The biographical information required participants to provide clarity on issues such as gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, level of education, employment status, and type of work environment, perceived workplace size, perceived ratio of men to women, tenure, level of responsibility, and the perceived degree of diversity in the workplace.

3.6.2 Workplace bullying definition linked questions

Various studies on workplace bullying rely on participant's own perception of being a victim of workplace bullying or not after introducing them to a specific definition (e.g., Coyne, et al., 2003; Einarsen, et al., 1994; Hoel, et al., 2001; Salin, 2001; Vartia, 2001). In the present study all participants were introduced to the same definition of workplace bullying after which they were asked to answer certain questions. The definition used in the present study takes into account the preceding argument on the conceptualisation and definition of workplace bullying as discussed in Chapter 2.

For the purpose of the present study workplace bullying was defined as follows: "workplace bullying refers to situations where one or more persons are subjected to persistent and repetitive harmful negative or hostile acts (excluding once-off isolated incidents) by one or more other persons within the workplace (excluding incidents where two equally strong individuals come into conflict). The person should feel helpless and defenceless in the situation. The victim should experience the harmful negative and hostile acts repetitively and persistently for at least six months as offensive. The intention of the perpetrator is considered insignificant".

After being introduced to the above definition, participants were immediately asked whether or not they consider themselves to be victims of workplace bullying. The participants were given two options: "No" and "Yes". Additionally, they were asked to indicate the frequency and duration of their exposure to workplace bullying through the following response categories: "Yes, now and then"; "Yes, daily"; "Yes, weekly"; "Yes, monthly"; and "Other". Regardless of whether or not participants labelled themselves as victims of workplace bullying, everyone were asked whether or not they have observed someone else being bullied in the workplace. This was also used as a secondary method for estimating the prevalence of workplace bullying in the present study.

Moreover, all participants were asked to indicate the gender and status of the bully/perpetrator (e.g., superior, colleague/peer, or subordinate). This was asked regardless of whether or not the participant perceived himself to be a victim of workplace bullying. Participants were further required to indicate whether or not bullying is being addressed in the organisations, to whom they report or share their experiences with if anyone, and what happened after incidents of bullying were reported in the organisations.

Participants were also asked whether or not they considered themselves to be the perpetrator of workplace bullying, with the following response categories: “No”, “Yes”, “Both” (referring to definitely being both victim and perpetrator), “Maybe the perpetrator”, “Maybe both” (referring to the person not being totally sure whether or not they are both victim and perpetrator). Lastly, all participants were asked whether or not there is a workplace bullying policy in the workplace, with the following response categories: “No”, “Yes”, “Not Aware”.

3.6.3 Negative Acts Questionnaire

The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) is one of two instruments used as part of the research questionnaire in the present study to operationally measure workplace bullying. The NAQ is a 29-item instrument, described in behavioural terms with no reference to the term workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). It contains items of both direct (e.g., being shouted at, finger pointing, and threats of violence) and indirect behaviours (e.g., withholding information and social isolation).

The instrument consist of a Likert type scale as response categories with 1=never, 2=now and then, 3=daily, 4=weekly, and 5=monthly. All participants were asked how often they had been exposed to each of the negative acts in the NAQ during the last six months. They had to indicate their exposure to the negative acts according to the response categories as previously highlighted.

The NAQ were designed to establish how often participants had been subjected to specific negative acts, associated with workplace bullying during a period of six months. This instrument was used for exactly the above reason, to establish how often participants had been subjected to specific negative acts associated with workplace bullying during a period of six months in the workplace. Within the present study participants were classified as victims of workplace bullying if they reported exposure to 1 negative act weekly.

This scale has a reported internal consistency reliability ranging between .81 and .93 (Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Jimenez et al., 2007; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy & Alberts, 2007; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001). The internal consistency reliability in the present study for the NAQ was .91.

3.6.4 Work Harassment Scale

The Work Harassment Scale (WHS) (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994) is the second instrument used in the research questionnaire of the present study to operationally measure workplace bullying. The WHS is a 24-item scale that assesses participant's exposure to specific degrading and oppressing behaviours in the workplace. The instrument consists of a Likert type scale as response categories with 0=never, 1=seldom, 2=occasionally, 3=often, and 4=very often. This scale was used to assess participant's exposure and experience of the 24 types of degrading and oppressing behaviours by other employees in the workplace during a six month period. Participants were classified as victims of workplace bullying in the present study if they reported exposure to 1 degrading and oppressing behaviour often, which within the present study will be regarded as weekly exposure.

The WHS also have a reported internal consistency reliability ranging between .71 and .92 (see Astrauskaitė, Perminas & Kern, 2010). The internal consistency reliability in the present study for the WHS was .94.

3.7 Data analysis

The data analysis of the present study was conducted using Statistica 10. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations (*SD*), and percentages) were used to describe the total sample and the response data on different factors. Additionally, the testing of several differences between numerous variables for the total sample, SANDF, and Power Group were done by computing the Chi-Square and *F* test respectively. The Pearson correlation was computed for the only relationship test in the present study that is whether or not any relationship exists between the frequency and duration of workplace bullying for the total sample, SANDF, and Power Group.

3.8 Chapter conclusion

In this chapter the research and sampling design of the present study was explained, followed by a discussion on the procedure that was followed when data were collected for the purpose of the present study. Thought were also given to the ethical deliberation of the present study. The research instrument of the present study was thoroughly explained. Lastly, the Chapter provided a concise overview of the statistical analyses of the present study. This chapter thus provided a clear description of the research process that was followed for the purpose of the present study.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter the results from the various statistical analyses that were conducted will be presented. The results of the present study will be presented threefold – for the total sample, as well as respectively for the SANDF and Power Group as far as the author deem necessary. For example, the descriptive statistics will be done for the total sample, as well as separately for the SANDF and Power Group. This is to ensure that difference, as well as similarities between the SANDF and Power Group are clearly indicated.

In presenting the results, firstly, the descriptive statistics of the sample(s) will be outlined in percentages and numbers (totals). Secondly, the prevalence statistics of workplace bullying will be presented, followed by the reported frequencies and durations of workplace bullying, and the reported gender and status of perceived perpetrators. Finally, findings regarding particular risk groups will be presented, as well as the reported responses to incidents of workplace bullying.

4.2 Descriptive statistics for the total sample

The total number of respondents to the present study that fully completed the research questionnaire was 178. The respondents were primarily men (62% / $n=111$), while only 38% ($n=67$) were women. The distribution of males and females were similar between the SANDF and Power Group ($p = .43$). The mean age of the total sample was 34.94 years ($SD = 8.03$). Respondents were aged between 22 years and 58 years. The reported ethnic demographics were 36% ($n=64$) African, followed by 35% ($n=62$) Whites, 28% ($n=49$) Coloured, and 2% ($n=3$) other. Most (47%, $n=84$) of the respondents were married. Forty four percent ($n=79$) were single, whereas 6% ($n=10$) were divorced.

Table 6***Descriptive statistics for the total sample***

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Organisation		
Public (SANDF)	105	59%
Private (Power Group)	73	41%
Organisational tenure		
6–12 months	4	2%
12 months–5 years	31	17%
6–10 years	76	43%
11-15 years	43	24%
16-20 years	10	6%
Longer than 20 years	14	8%
Level of responsibility		
No formal responsibility	104	58%
Team leader	5	3%
Supervisor	44	25%
Manager	21	12%
Executive	4	2%
Ratio of men to women		
50/50	2	1%
100% Male		
100% Female		
60% male / 40% female	133	75%
60% Female / 40% Male		
Other	43	24%
Organisational diversity		
Slightly	27	15%
Moderately	106	60%
Fully	45	25%

A small percentage of respondents (1%, n=2) were widowed, living together (1%, n=2), and separated (1%, n=1). The majority of respondents (47%, n=83) had Grade 12 (matric), followed by respondents with a diploma (19%, n=33), those with a certificate (13%, n=23), and a degree (12%, n=21). Only six people (3%) had an honours degree, five (3%) a doctorate degree, and three (2%) a masters degree. A further 2% (n=4) had a qualification lower than Grade 12 (matric). Almost the entire sample was employed full time (99%, n=177). Only one person (1%) was employed part time for longer than six months. The respondents' organisational type, tenure, level of responsibility, perception of male to female ratio in the organisation, and organisational diversity is summarised in Table 6.

Most (59%, n=105) of the respondents are from a public organisation (SANDF), whereas 73 people (41%) are from a private organisation (Power Group). The majority were working in their respective work environments for more than 6 years (80%, n=143). Fifty eight percent (n=104) of respondents had no formal responsibilities, while 42% (n=74) had some form of responsibility in the form of a team leader, supervisor, manager, or member of the executive. The majority (75%, n=133) of respondents reported being from a male dominated environment. The two organisations could be considered reasonably diverse.

4.2.1 Descriptive statistics for the SANDF

Of the total sample, 105 (59%) people were from the SANDF. The SANDF sample were predominately male (65%, n=68), while only 35% (37) were female. The mean age was 33.89 years ($SD = 7.44$), with the youngest respondent being 24 years and the eldest 54 years. The majority were African (49%, n=51), followed by Whites (27%, n=28), 22% (n=23) Coloured, and three (3%) other. Most (53%, n=56) of the respondents were single, followed by 43% (n=45) being married, 3% (n=3) divorced, and 1% (n=1) widowed. None of the SANDF respondents were living with a partner.

All the respondents were permanently employed in the SANDF. Their level of education, tenure, level of responsibility, reading of male to female ratio in the organisation, and organisational diversity is summarised in Table 7. The majority of respondents (61%, n=64) have Grade 12 (matric), while 39% (n=41) have a post-Grade 12 (matric) qualification in the form of a certificate, diploma, degree, honours, masters, or doctoral degree. Most respondents (85%, n=89) perceive their work environment as male dominated. None of the respondents had an organisational tenure shorter than twelve months. The majority of respondents (71%, n=75) had no formal responsibility in the workplace, whilst 29% (n=30) enjoy some form of formal responsibility in the form of team leader, supervisor, manager, and/or member of the executive.

The participating Units could be considered somewhat diverse based on respondents' reports.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics for the SANDF sample

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Level of education		
Grade 12	64	61%
Certificate	13	12%
Diploma	5	5%
Degree	11	10%
Honours	5	5%
Masters	2	2%
Doctorate	5	5%
Organisational tenure		
6-12 months		
12 months–5 years	14	13%
6–10 years	48	46%
11-15 years	25	24%
16-20 years	6	6%
Longer than 20 years	12	11%
Level of responsibility		
No formal responsibility	75	71%
Team leader	3	3%
Supervisor	17	16%
Manager	6	6%
Executive	4	4%
Ratio of men to women		
50/50	1	1%
100% Male		
100% Female		
60% male / 40% female	89	85%
60% Female / 40% Male		
Other	15	14%
Organisational diversity		
Slightly	21	20%
Moderately	69	66%
Fully	15	14%

4.2.2 Descriptive statistics for Power Group

Seventy three people (41%) of the total sample were from Power Group, of which 59% (n=43) were male and 41% (n=30) female. Respondents were aged between 22 years and 58 years, with a mean age of 36.46 years ($SD = 8.61$). The reported ethnic demographics were 47% (n=34) White, followed by 36% (n=26) Coloured, and 18% (n=13) African.

Most (53%, n=39) of the respondents were married, followed by those who were single (32%, n=23), divorced (10%, n=7), living together (3%, n=2), separated (1%, n=1), and widowed (1%, n=1). The educational qualification of most respondents (38%, n=28) were a diploma, followed by Grade 12 (matric) (26%, n=19), a certificate (14%, n=10) and degree (14%, n=10) respectively. A total of four people (5%) had a qualification lower than Grade 12 (matric), followed by one person (1%) having honours, and another (1%) with a masters degree. Only one person (1%) was employed part time at Power Group for a period exceeding twelve months. Most respondents (99%, n=72) were employed full time. The respondents' organisational tenure, level of responsibility, perception of male to female ratio in the organisation, and organisational diversity is summarised in Table 8.

Table 8***Descriptive statistics for the Power Group sample***

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Organisational tenure		
6-12 months	4	5%
12 months–5 years	17	23%
6–10 years	28	38%
11-15 years	18	25%
16-20 years	4	5%
Longer than 20 years	2	3%
Level of responsibility		
No formal responsibility	29	40%
Team leader	2	3%
Supervisor	27	37%
Manager	15	21%
Executive		
Ratio of men to women		
50/50f	1	1%
100% Male		
100% Female		
60% male / 40% female	44	60%
60% Female / 40% Male		
Other	28	38%
Organisational diversity		
Slightly	6	8%
Moderately	37	51%
Fully	30	41%

The majority of respondents (71%, n=52) were employed for a period of six years or more. Most respondents (60%, n=44) had some form of responsibility in the form of supervisor, manager, and team leader. Power Group is considered as a male dominated environment by most respondents (60%, n=44). Moreover, it is also considered reasonably diverse by the majority of respondents.

4.3 Reported prevalence of workplace bullying for the total sample

Measuring workplace bullying according to the “subjective” method (see para 3.6.3) constituted the first way of estimating the prevalence of workplace bullying. When provided with a definition of workplace bullying, 56% (n=99) of respondents in the total sample reported that they do not consider themselves as victims of workplace bullying. A total of 79 people (44%) of the total sample self-identified as victims of workplace bullying.

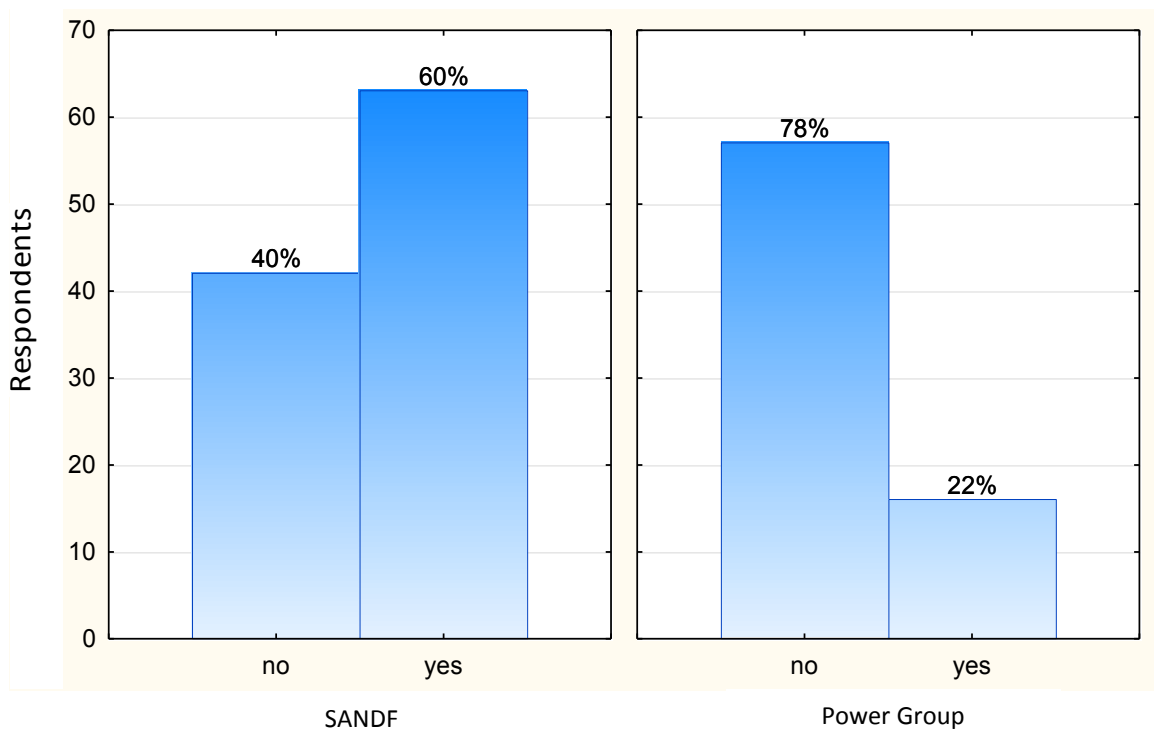


Figure 6. Histogram of the respondents' self-identification as victims of workplace bullying per industry

Analysis were undertaken to explore if there were any significant difference between the SANDF and Power Group with reference to respondents self-labelling as victims of workplace bullying. A Chi-Square test (see Figure 6) revealed that the percentage of respondents who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying were significantly higher among SANDF respondents than among Power Group respondents ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 26.40, p < .01$). The results clearly show that when measuring workplace bullying using the operational definition, the SANDF experience a greater frequency of workplace bullying than Power Group.

4.3.1 Prevalence of workplace bullying based on witness accounts

Regardless of whether or not respondents self-identified as victims of workplace bullying, all respondents were asked whether or not they have witnessed workplace bullying in their present work environments. This was considered the second approach of estimating the prevalence of workplace bullying in the present study. Although most respondents (56%, n=99) reported that they do not consider themselves as victims of workplace bullying, many had been affected by workplace bullying at least indirectly. Out of the total sample (n=178), 50% (n=89) of respondents reported that they have witnessed others in the workplace being subjected to workplace bullying “now and then” during the last six months, whereas 12% (n=21) reported “daily” witnessing of workplace bullying, 9% (n=17) “weekly”, and 3% (n=5) “monthly”. Another 26%, representing 46 people of all respondents, reported that they have never witnessed workplace bullying in their present workplace. These results clearly indicate that workplace bullying is a visible and prevalent problem in the contemporary workplace.

Analysis were undertaken to determine whether or not there is any difference between the SANDF and Power Group related to their respondents reported frequency with which they have observed incidents of workplace bullying.

An F test revealed a small difference ($F(1,17) = 4.03, p = .04$) in the reported witness frequencies between respondents from the SANDF and Power Group. Furthermore, in the present study those who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying reported witnessing incidents of workplace bullying more frequently than respondents who did not label themselves as victims ($F(1,18) = 41.11, p < .01$).

Analysis were undertaken to determine whether or not the SANDF and Power Group differed in their self-identified victims and non-victims frequency with which they witness incidents of workplace bullying. The results obtained from the analysis show no significant difference ($F(1,17) = .0005, p = .98$) between the two organisations. In fact, the SANDF and Power Group are close to identical. The results of the present study show that victims recognise incidents of workplace bullying more often than non-victims.

4.3.2 Prevalence of workplace bullying based on the NAQ

In concluding the means of determining the prevalence of workplace bullying both the NAQ and WHS were used. The results from the NAQ will be discussed first. Of the total sample ($n=178$), a minimum of one and maximum of four negative acts had been reported by respondents (see Figure 7). Most respondents (82%, $n=146$) were scored to have experienced at least one negative act, independent of the frequency. The results clearly show that 25% to 75% of respondents were scored reporting between 1 and 2 negative acts.

Using a relatively strict criterion of experiencing at least one negative act daily, 24% ($n=43$) of respondents were scored as being victims of workplace bullying. Another twenty six people, representing 15% of respondents, were scored as being victims of workplace bullying, based on an even stricter criterion of experiencing at least 2 negative acts daily.

One person were scored reporting experiencing 16 different negative acts daily, while another were scored reporting experiencing 15 different negative acts daily. Furthermore, one person was also scored reporting experiencing 13 different negative acts daily during the last six months.

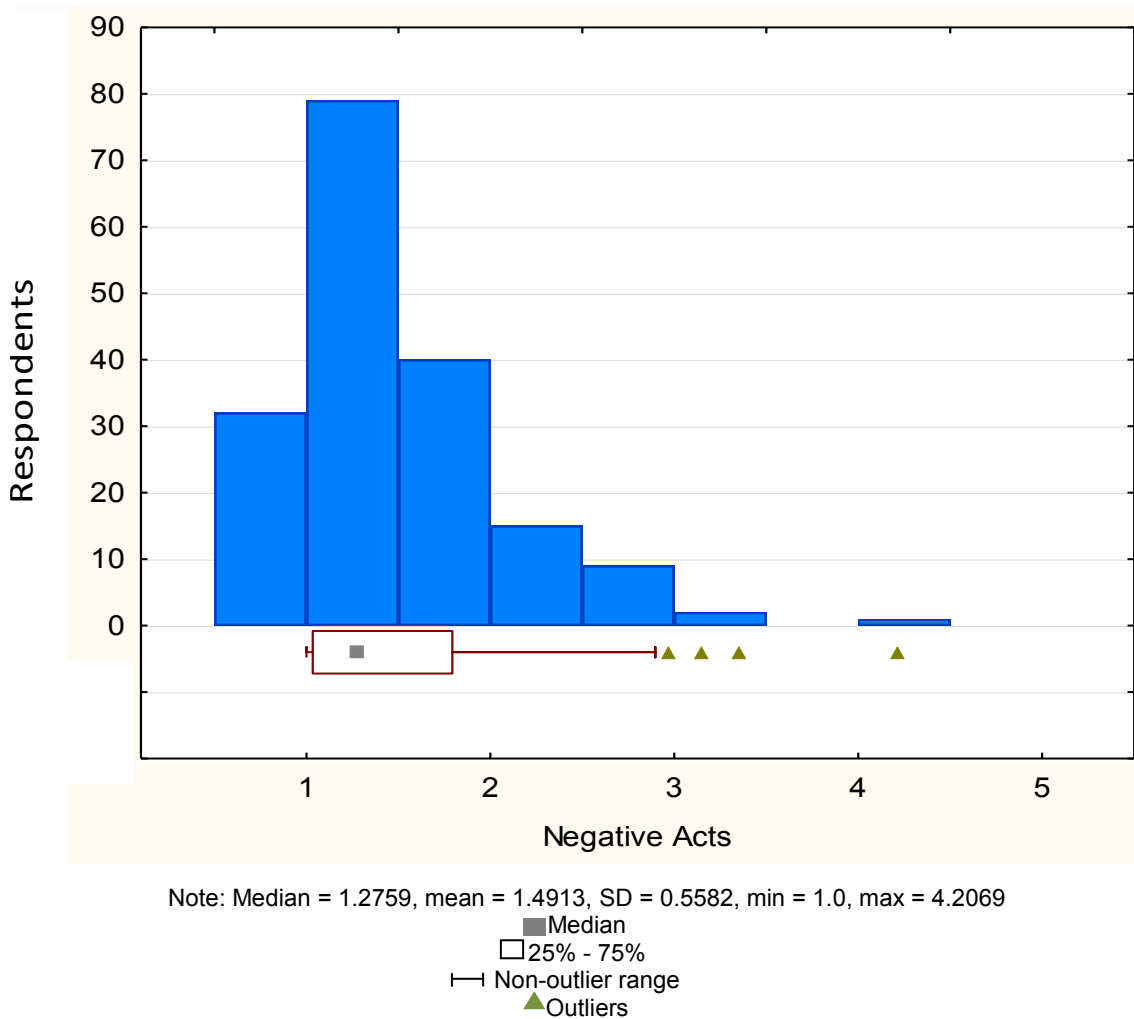


Figure 7. Histogram of the NAQ for the total sample

When adjusting the criterion, to have experienced at least 1 negative act weekly, 39% (n=70) of respondents were scored as being victims of workplace bullying. A further 54 people (30%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, when applying the criterion of experiencing at least 2 negative acts weekly.

Three people were scored reporting experiencing 10 different negative acts weekly, whereas one person were scored reporting experiencing 12 different negative acts weekly during the last six months. The results clearly show that the percentage of respondents that are being scored as victims of workplace bullying decreases when a relatively strict criterions are being applied. In addition, the results also show that some people experience a disturbing frequency and number of negative acts.

Generally, no significant difference were found between the SANDF and Power Group in the reported negative acts ($F(1,18) = 3.35, p = .07$). The results show that respondents from both the SANDF and Power Group reported more or less the same number of negative acts. Although respondents from the SANDF were found to report slightly more negative acts, this was not statistically significant.

Analysis was conducted to determine whether or not self-labelled victims of workplace bullying reported significantly more negative acts than non-victims. The results show that respondents who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying (according to the operational definition) reported significantly more negative acts in the NAQ ($F(1,18) = 121.10, p \leq .01$) than respondents who did not label themselves as victims of workplace bullying in their present work environment.

Specific negative acts in the NAQ reported more frequently by respondents in the total sample included: being humiliated in connection with work, information which affects performance being withheld, being gossip about, constantly reminded about mistakes, being ignored, and excessive monitoring of work. Among the least frequently reported negative acts in the NAQ were: insulting telephone calls or e-mails, excessive teasing or sarcasm, being transferred against will, physical threats, and unwanted sexual attention.

4.3.3 Prevalence of workplace bullying based on the WHS

Using the WHS as part of the final means of determining the prevalence of workplace bullying, a minimum of zero and maximum of three degrading and oppressing activities had been reported by all respondents (see Figure 8). The results show that a number of respondents were scored to not have experienced any of the degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS. A total of 21% (n=37) of respondents were scored to have experienced at least one degrading and oppressing activity, independent of frequency.

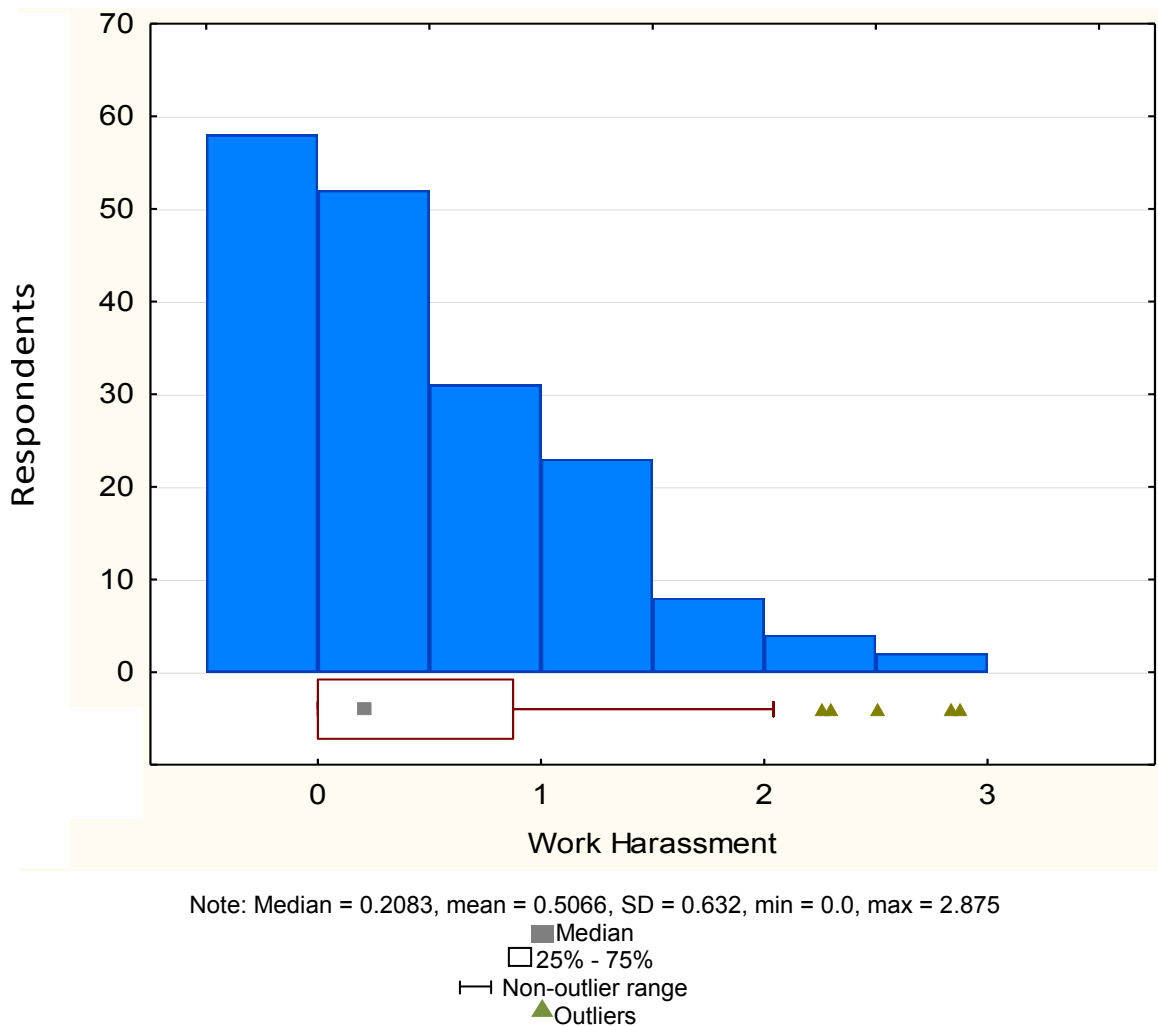


Figure 8. Histogram of the WHS for the total sample

Furthermore, 25% to 75% of respondents were scored to report between 0 and 1 degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS. A total of 51 people (29%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity very often. Using a stricter criterion of experiencing at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities very often, 11% (n=20) of respondents were scored as victims. One person was scored reporting experiencing 15 different degrading and oppressing activities very often during the last six months.

When adjusting the criterion, to experience at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity often, 39% (n=70) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying. Another fifty eight people (33%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities often. One person was scored reporting experiencing 13 different degrading and oppressing activities often during the last six months. Similar to the NAQ, the percentage of respondents that are being scored as victims of workplace bullying decreases as the criterion becomes stricter.

Furthermore, only minor differences ($F(1,18) = 4.97, p = .03$) existed between the SANDF and Power Group in their respondents reported degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS. Comparable with the findings of the NAQ, respondents from the SANDF were scored to report slightly more degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS. However, in this instance it is considered somewhat significant. Parallel to the findings of the NAQ, self-identified victims of workplace bullying were scored to report significantly more degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS than non-victims ($F(1,18) = 151.95, p < .01$).

Specific degrading and oppressing activities more frequently reported by respondents in the total for the WHS included: reduced opportunity to express oneself, refusal to be heard, belittling of opinion, undue criticism, being lied about, and insinuating glances and/or negative gestures.

Among the least frequently reported degrading and oppressing activities by respondents are: accused of being mentally disturbed, having sensitive private details revealed, private life being insulted, direct threats, receiving hurtful words, and being given insulting tasks.

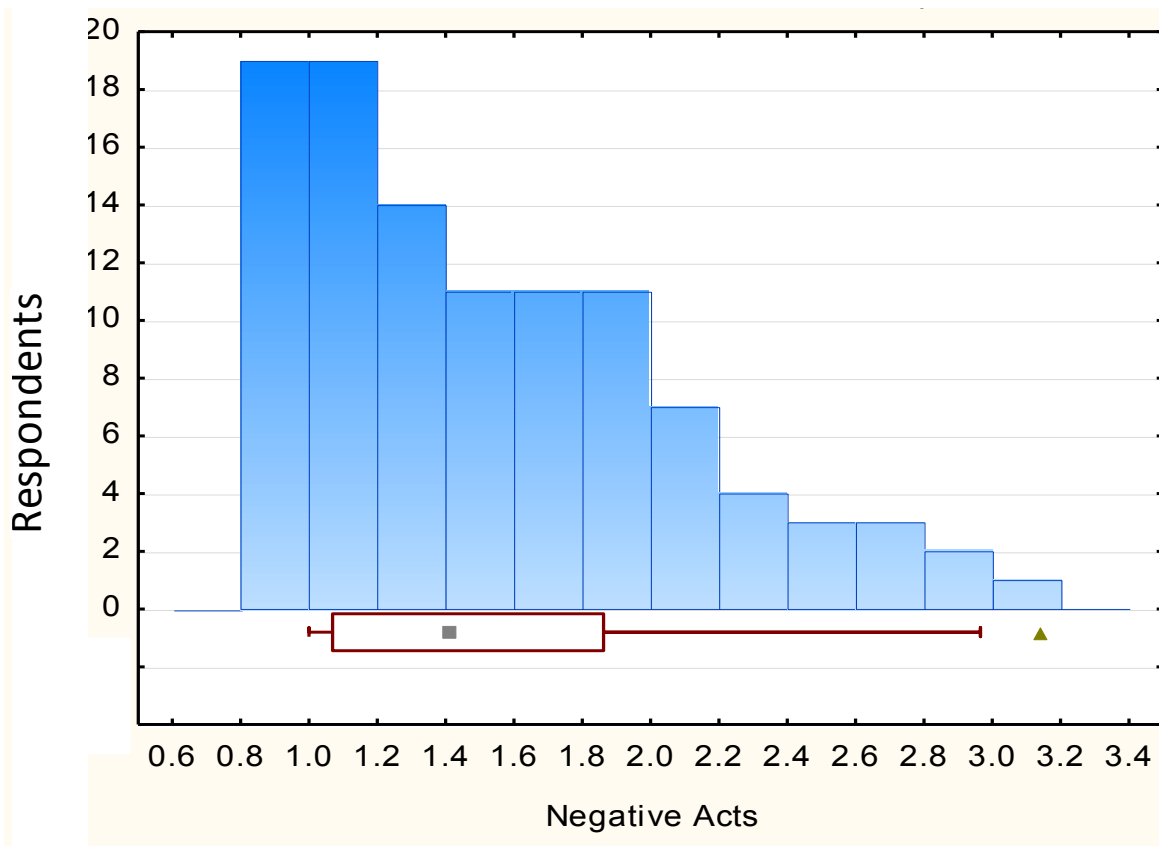
4.3.4 Prevalence of workplace bullying in the SANDF

Of the 105 respondents from the SANDF who answered the question about whether or not they had been exposed to bullying in the workplace during the last 6 months, a total of 63 people (60%) reported that they had been bullied. Forty two, representing 40% of respondents, reported that they had not been bullied during the last six months in their present work environment. The results clearly indicate that more than 50% of the SANDF sample can be classified as victims of workplace bullying based on the “subjective method” (see para 3.6.3).

Additionally, all respondents were also asked directly whether or not they have witnessed others being bullied in the workplace, regardless of whether they labelled their own experiences as bullying or not. Of all the respondents who answered the question, 14 people, representing 13% of the SANDF sample, were scored reporting that they have never witnessed others being bullied.

Most respondents (87%, n=91) reported that they have witnessed others being bullied in the workplace. Of those who reported having witnessed others being bullied, a total of 56 people (53%) reported witnessing it “now and then”, followed by “daily” (17%, n=18), “weekly” (14%, n=15), and “monthly” (2%, n=2). In comparison with the percentage (60%) of respondents who self identified as victims of workplace bullying, the results of the present study clearly show a substantial increase in the percentage of people who have witnessed incidents of workplace bullying.

When respondents were asked to indicate how regularly they had been exposed to each of the 29 negative acts in the NAQ during the last six months, they were scored reporting a minimum of 1 and maximum of 3 negative acts (see Figure 9). After applying the criterion of experiencing at least one negative act, independent of the frequency, a total of 82% (n=86) of respondents were scored to have experienced at least one negative act during the last six months. The results show that 25% to 75% of respondents were scored reporting between 1 and 2 negative acts. Furthermore, most respondents were scored reporting experiencing less than two negative acts during the last six months.

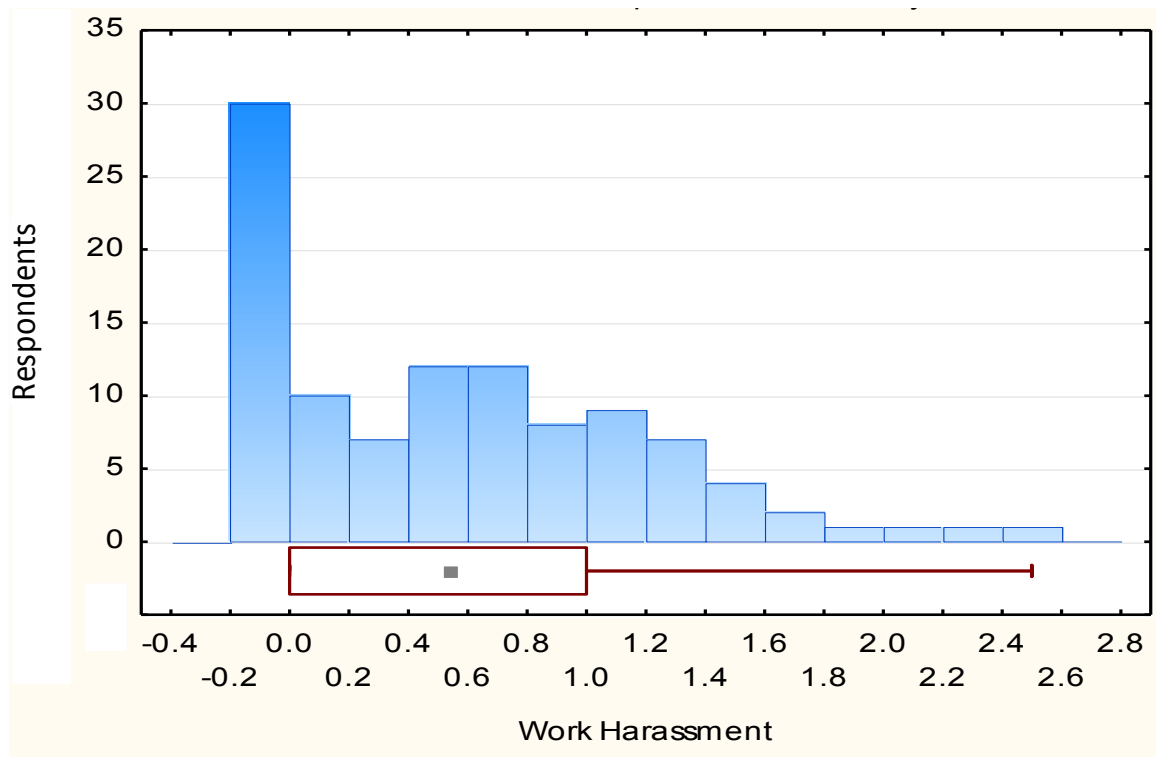


Note: Median = 1.4138, mean = 1.5547, SD = 0.5386, min = 1.0, max = 3.1379

- Median
- 25% - 75%
- ┌─┐ Non-outlier range
- ▲ Outliers

Figure 9. Histogram of the NAQ for the SANDF

A total of twenty six people (25%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of reporting at least 1 negative act daily, whereas 15% (n=16) were scored as victims of workplace bullying when the criterion were adjusting to experiencing at least 2 negative acts daily. One person was scored reporting experiencing 8 different negative acts daily, whilst two people were scored reporting experiencing 7 different negative acts daily during the past six months. Furthermore, 53% (n=56) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, when using the criterion of experiencing at least 1 negative act weekly. Another 44% (n=46) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 2 negative acts weekly. Three people were scored reporting experiencing 10 different negative acts in the NAQ weekly during the past six months.



Note: Median = 0.5417, mean = 0.5937, SD = 0.5888, min = 0.0, max = 2.5

- Median
- 25% - 75%
- ┌─┐ Non-outlier range
- ▲ Outliers

Figure 10. Histogram of the WHS for the SANDF

The most frequent reported negative acts by respondents in the SANDF sample include: being humiliated in connection with work, being constantly reminded of mistakes, excessive monitoring of work, being given impossible deadlines, and being withhold information that affects performance. The least frequent reported negative acts include: insulting communication, excessive teasing, threats, and unwanted sexual attention.

For the WHS, respondents from the SANDF were scored reporting a minimum of 0 and maximum of 2.5 degrading and oppressing activities (see Figure 10). A total of 26 people, representing 25% of respondents, were scored to have reported at least one degrading and oppressing activity, independent of the frequency.

The results show that 25% to 75% of respondents were scored reporting between 0 and 1 degrading and oppressing activities. Moreover, most respondents were scored reporting having been subjected to less than one degrading and oppressing activity in the WHS during the last six months. A total of 43 people (41%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity very often. Another 15% (n=16) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying after adjusting the criterion to experiencing at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities very often.

Using the criterion of experiencing at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity often, 54% (n=57) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying. Forty seven people (45%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities often. One person was scored reporting experiencing 13 different degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS often during the past six months.

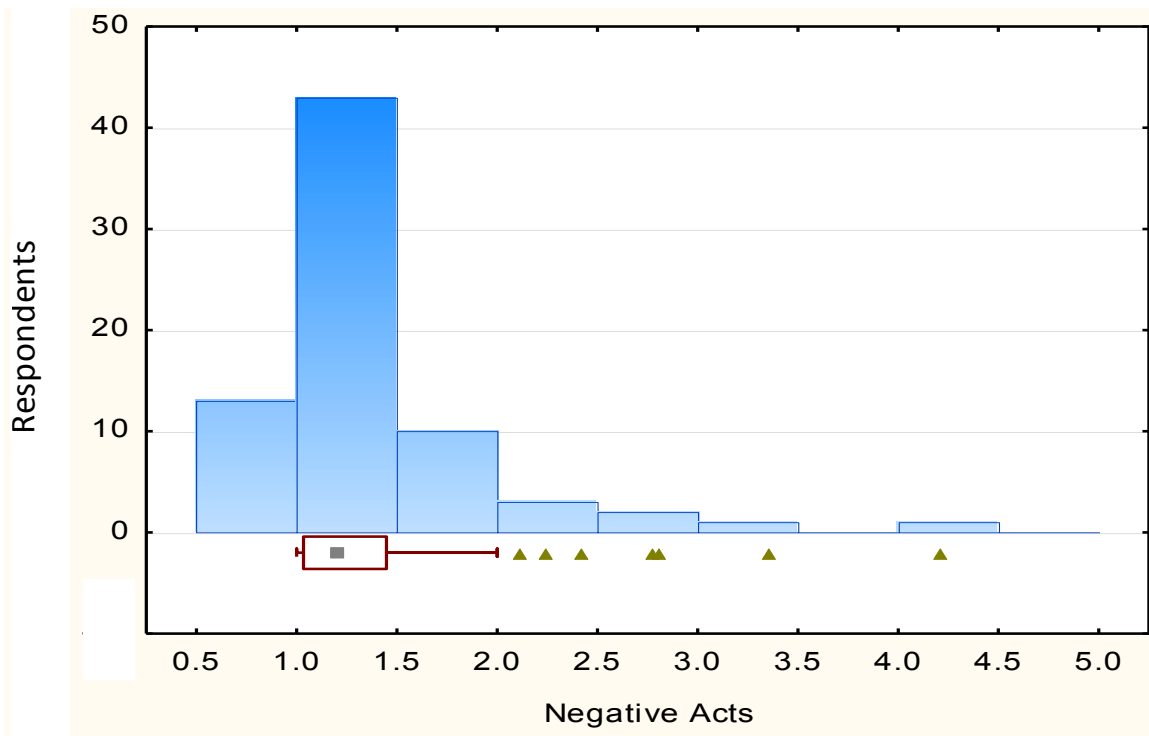
The most frequent reported degrading and oppressing activities by respondents in the SANDF sample include: reduced opportunity to express you, refusal to be heard, insinuating glances and negative gestures, belittling of opinions, and being treated as non-existent. Among the least frequent reported degrading and oppressing activities are: being accused of being mentally disturbed, having sensitive private details revealed, insulting personal comments, words aimed at hurting you, and having malicious rumours spread about you.

4.3.5 Prevalence of workplace bullying at Power Group

When provided with the operational definition of workplace bullying (see para 3.6.3), most respondents (78%, n=57) in the Power Group sample self-identified as non-victims of workplace bullying. A total of 16 people, representing 22% of respondents, reported being victims of workplace bullying during the last six months. This is significantly less (see Figure 6) than what was reported for the SANDF.

When all 73 people in the Power Group sample were asked whether or not they have witnessed incidents' of workplace bullying, 44% (n=32) of respondents were scored reporting never having witnessed incidents of workplace bullying. Of those who were scored reporting having witnessed incidents of workplace bullying during the last six months, 45% (n=33) were scored reporting having witness it "now and then", followed by 4% (n=3) witnessing it "daily", 4% (n=3) "monthly", and 3% (n=2) witnessing it "weekly". Although this is less than what was reported for the SANDF, the difference is not considered statistical significant (see Para 4.3.1). These results show that a total of 56% (41) of respondents were scored reporting having witnessed incidents' of workplace bullying at Power Group at one point. Self-labelled victims of workplace bullying were also found to observe incidents of workplace bullying at Power Group more often than non-victims in the present study.

With reference to the NAQ, a minimum of 1 and maximum of 4 negative acts had been reported by Power Group respondents (see Figure 11). The results of the present study clearly show that the majority of respondents were scored reporting between 1 and 2 negative acts, whereas 25% to 75% of respondents were scored reporting between 1 and 1.5 negative acts. Using the criterion of reporting at least 1 negative act daily, a total of 17 people, representing 23% of respondents in the Power Group sample, was scored as being victims of workplace bullying. A total of ten people (14%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of reporting at least 2 negative acts daily. Three people respectively were scored reporting experiencing 16, 15, and 13 different negative acts in the NAQ daily during the past six months.



Note: Median = 1.2069, mean = 1.4001, SD = 0.5768, min = 1.0, max = 4.2069

- Median
- 25% - 75%
- ┆ Non-outlier range
- ▲ Outliers

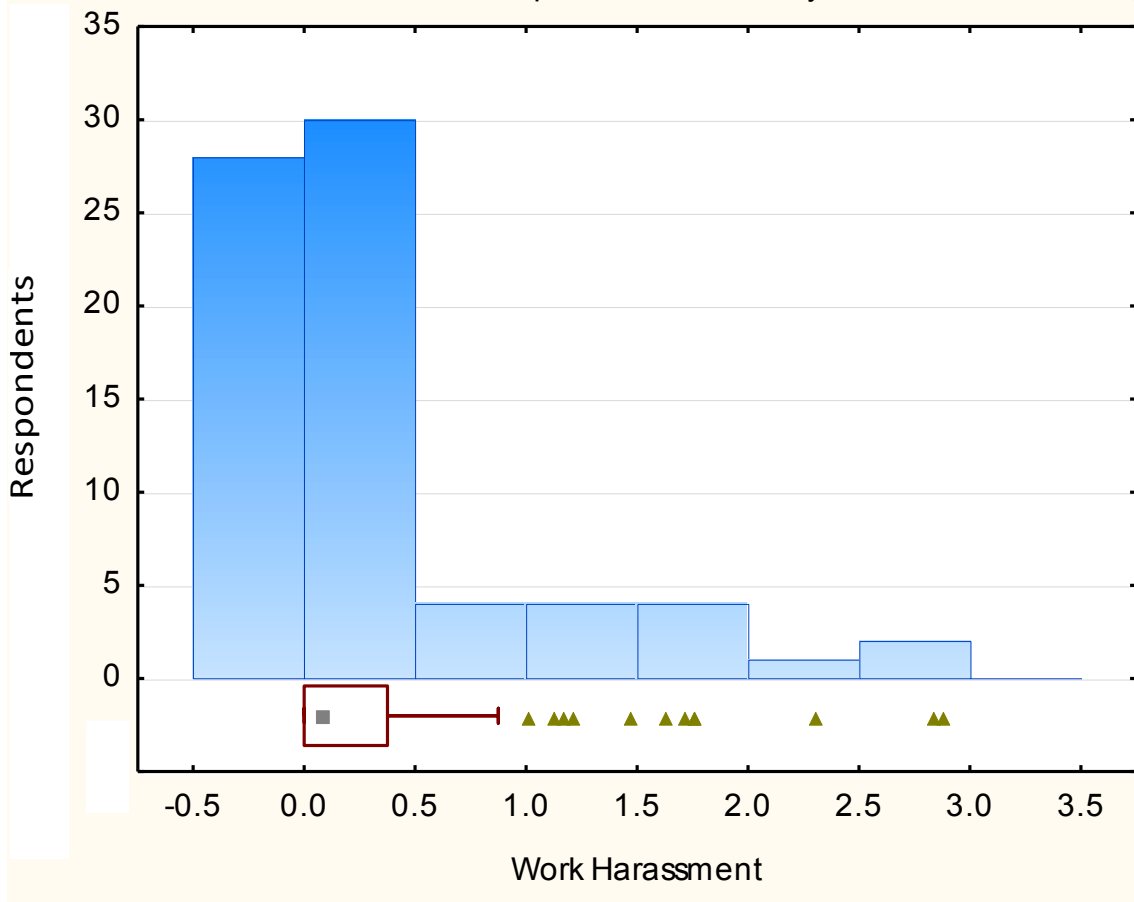
Figure 11. Histogram of the NAQ for Power Group

Furthermore, another 19% (n=14) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, when the criterion of experiencing at least 1 negative act weekly were applied, whereas 11% (n=8) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 2 negative acts weekly. One person was scored reporting experiencing 12 different negative acts in the NAQ weekly during the past six months.

The most frequent reported negative acts reported by respondents in the Power Group sample include: being withhold information that affects performance, rumours and gossip about you being spread, being given work below level of competence, being humiliated in connection with work, and persistent criticism of work and effort. Among the least frequent reported negative acts are: threats, unwanted sexual attention, being transferred or moved against will, being joked about, and excessive teasing.

With regards to the WHS, respondents from Power Group were scored reporting being subjected to a minimum of 0 and maximum of 2.9 degrading and oppressing activities in the workplace during the last six months (see Figure 12). The results show that 25% to 75% of respondents reported 0 degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS, whereas the majority of respondents were scored reporting less than 1 degrading and oppressing activity.

Using the criterion of experiencing at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity very often, 5% (n=4) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying. Another eight people (11%) were scored as victims of workplace bullying, when adjusting the criterion to experience at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities very often during the last six months. One person was scored reporting experiencing 15 different degrading and oppressing activities in the WHS very often during the past six months.



Note: Median = 0.0833, mean = 0.3813, SD = 0.674, min = 0.0, max = 2.875

Median
 25% - 75%
 Non-outlier range
 Outliers

Figure 12. Histogram of the WHS for Power Group

A total of 18% (n=13) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least 1 degrading and oppressing activity often. In addition, 15% (n=11) of respondents were scored as victims of workplace bullying, when applying the criterion of experiencing at least 2 degrading and oppressing activities often during the last six months. The most frequent reported degrading and oppressing activities by respondents, in the Power Group sample include: work being judge in an incorrect and insulting manner, being shouted at loudly, having malicious rumours spread about you, reduced opportunity to express you, and refusal to be heard.

Among the least frequent reported degrading and oppressing activities are: being accused of being mentally disturbed, threats, being given insulting tasks, having sensitive private details revealed, and insulting personal comments.

4.4 Frequency and duration of workplace bullying

A description of the reported frequency and duration of the bullying episodes is provided in Table 9. Of the 79 people (44%) in the total sample (n=178) that self-identified as being victims of workplace bullying, 16% (n=13) reported being bullied “daily”, while 42% (n=33) reported being bullied “weekly”. Another 25%, representing 20 people, reported being bullied “monthly”, whereas 16% (n=13) reported “other”.

Table 9

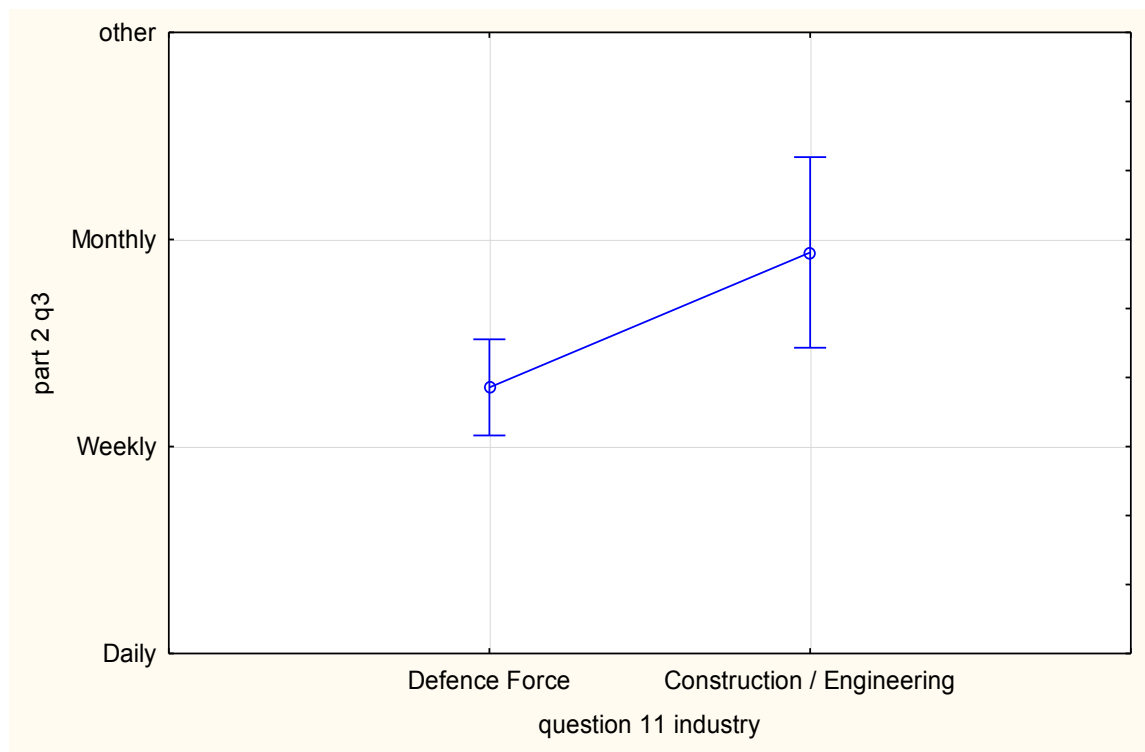
Frequency and duration of workplace bullying episodes

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Frequency		
Daily	13	16%
Weekly	33	42%
Monthly	20	25%
Other	13	16%
Duration		
Less than 6 months	4	5%
6-10 months	10	13%
For about 12 months	10	13%
13-15 months	15	19%
16-20 months	19	24%
More than 2 years	21	27%

The *F* test analysis was performed to determine whether any difference existed between the SANDF and Power Group in their respondents reported frequency. The results of the present study show a significant difference in the reported frequency between the SANDF and Power Group ($F(1,77) = 6.34, p = .01$) (see Figure 13). On average, respondents from the SANDF experienced mainly “weekly” bullying, whilst Power Group respondents experience mostly “monthly” bullying.

For the SANDF self-identified victims of workplace bullying (n=63), most respondents (46%, n=29) reported being bullied “weekly”, followed by those reporting being bullied “monthly” (27%, n=17), “daily” (17%, n=11), and “other” (10%, n=6). In the case of Power Group’s self-labelled victims of workplace bullying (n=16), 13% (n=2) of respondents reported being bullied “daily”, 25% (n=4) “weekly”, and 19% (n=3) on a monthly “basis”. Another 44% of respondents, representing 7 people, reported “other”.

Of those who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying in the total sample (n=79), 27%, representing 21 people, reported that they had been bullied for a period longer than two years, followed by 24% (n=19) who had been bullied between sixteen and twenty months, 19% (n=15) between thirteen and fifteen months, and 13% (n=10) being bullied for about twelve months.

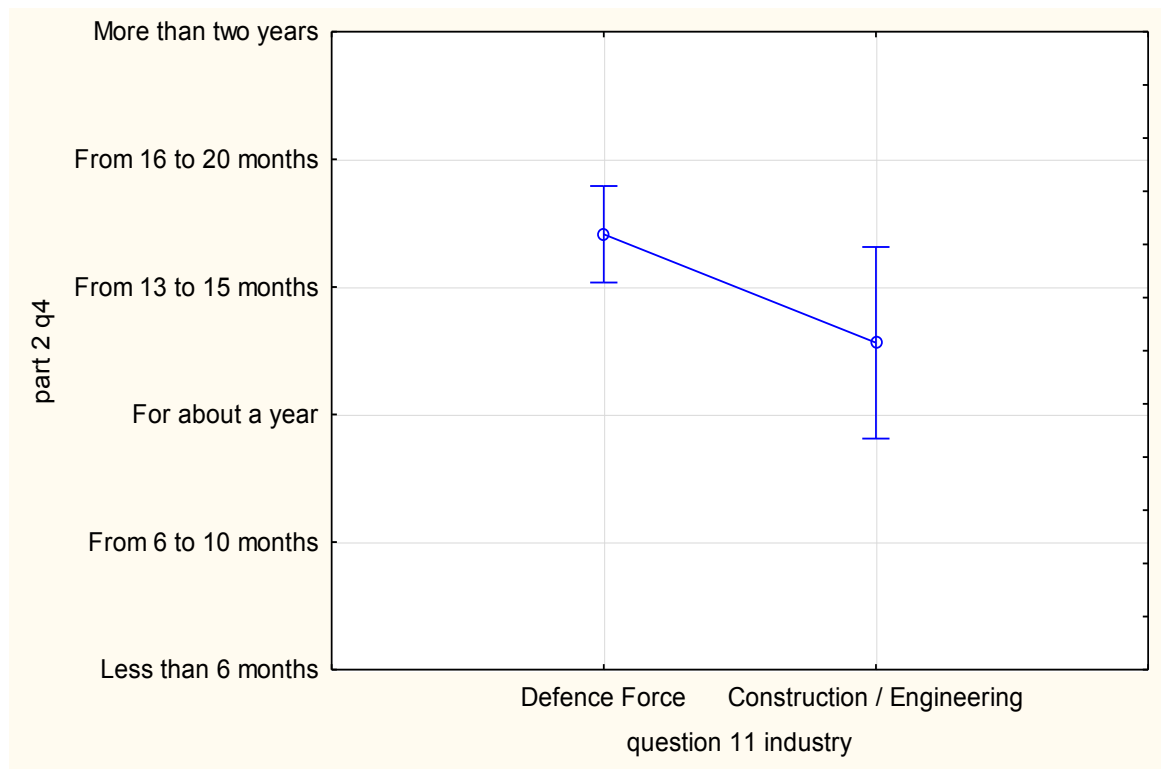


Note: $F(1.77) = 6.3437, p = 0.01$, Mann-Whitney U $p = 0.03$

Figure 13. F test for the SANDF and Power Group with regards to frequency

Another 10 people, representing 13% of the bullied group, reported being bullied between six and ten months, while 5% (n=4) of respondents reported being bullied for a period less than six months.

A trend was found between the SANDF and Power Group in the reported duration of workplace bullying by their respective respondents. However, this trend is not being supported by the non-parametric Mann-Whitney test ($p = .18$) (see Figure 14). As a result, the difference that does exist between the SANDF and Power Group related to the reported durations by their respondents is too small to be considered statistically significant in the present study. Thus, respondents from both the SANDF and Power Group are likely to experience workplace bullying for a period of 13 to 15 months.



Note: $F(1.77) = 4.0533, p = 0.05$, Mann-Whitney U $p = 0.18$

Figure 14. F test for the SANDF and Power Group with regards to duration

Of the respondents in the SANDF sample that self-identified as victims of workplace bullying, most (27%, $n=17$) reported being bullied between sixteen and twenty months, followed by 25% ($n=16$) of respondents reporting being bullied for a period longer than two years. Another 24% ($n=15$) of respondents reported being bullied between thirteen and fifteen months, 13% ($n=8$) between six and ten months, whereas 11% ($n=7$) reported being bullied for about twelve months. None of the respondents in the bullied group of the SANDF reported being bullied for a period less than six months.

Of the respondents in the Power Group sample who labelled themselves as victims of workplace bullying, the majority (31%, $n=5$) reported being bullied for a period longer than two years, followed by 25% ($n=4$) of respondents reporting being bullied for a period not exceeding six months, and 19% ($n=3$) being bullied for about twelve months. Another 13% ($n=2$) reported being bullied between six and ten months, and 13% ($n=2$) between sixteen and twenty months. None of the self-identified victims of workplace bullying in the Power Group sample reported being bullied for a period between thirteen to fifteen months.

Analysis were conducted to determine whether or not there is any relationship between the reported frequency and duration of workplace bullying for the total sample, the SANDF, and Power Group, respectively. Correlations results (see Table 10) revealed that frequency yielded a negative insignificant correlation with duration for the total sample ($r = -.14$; $p = .14$). There is a tendency for the duration of workplace bullying to decrease as the frequency of workplace bullying increase.

Similar results were found for the SANDF ($r = -.06$; $p = .67$) and Power Group ($r = -.32$; $p = .22$) respectively, in that frequency also yielded negative insignificant correlations with duration for the two work environments. The results clearly show that for the SANDF no correlation was found.

On the other hand, for Power Group there were a tendency for the duration of workplace bullying to decrease as the frequency of workplace bullying increase, however because the number of cases for Power Group (n=16) were so small, the negative correlation was not statistically significant.

Table 10***Spearman correlations between frequency and duration***

1	2	3	4	5	6
Variable 1	Variable 2	Spearman	Spearman p-value	N	Subgroups
Frequency	Duration	-0.14	0.14	79	Total Sample
Frequency	Duration	-0.06	0.67	63	SANDF
Frequency	Duration	-0.32	0.22	16	Power Group

4.5 The reported gender and status of the perpetrators

Both victims and witnesses of workplace bullying were asked to indicate the gender and status of the bully or perpetrator. With regards to gender, of the total sample (n=178), 138 people (77.5%) identified the gender of the perpetrator. Of the 138 people, 80% (n=111) of respondents reported the perpetrator to be men exclusively, whereas 6 people (4%) reported women exclusively as the perpetrator. Another twenty one people (15%) reported both men and women as perpetrators. The results clearly show that both men and women are capable of workplace bullying, and that neither is immune from becoming a perpetrator.

A Chi-Square test yielded a significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 4.73, p = .03$) between the SANDF and Power Group, related to the reported gender of the perpetrator. Respondents in the SANDF sample were scored reporting instances where women are exclusively being identified as the perpetrator, whereas none of the Power Group respondents were scored reporting women exclusively as the perpetrator.

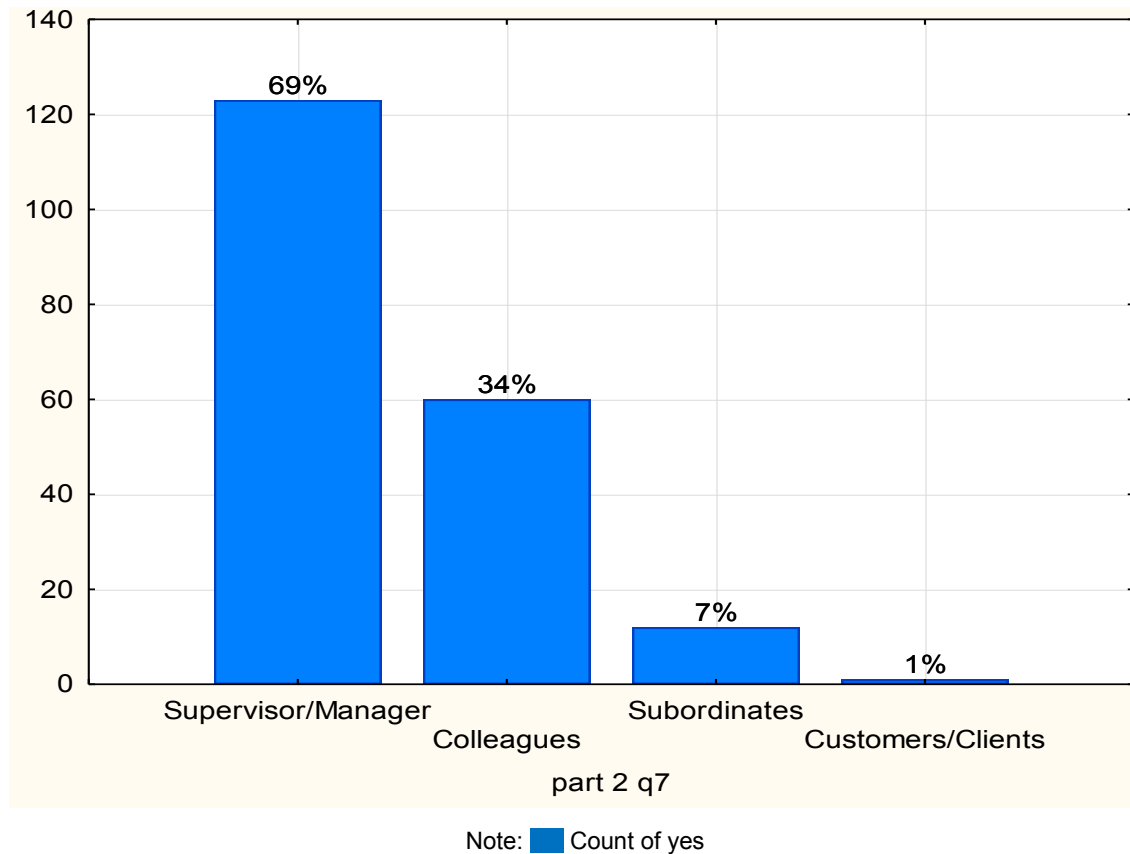


Figure 15. Histogram of the status of the perpetrator for the total sample

Questions relating to the status of the perpetrator revealed that supervisors/managers (e.g. those in a leadership position) were reported more frequently (69%) as the perpetrator (see Figure 15), followed by colleagues/peers (34%), subordinates (7%), and clients (1%). It is clear that the percentages are well above 100%; this is because respondents were allowed to identify more than one source of workplace bullying in the workplace as the perpetrator. Although supervisors/managers are reported as the most frequent source of bullying, the results show that perpetrators exist within all status groups. Using the Chi-Square test, significant differences were found between the SANDF and Power Group, related to their self-labelled victims and non-victims identification of supervisors ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 16.78, p < .01$), colleagues/peers ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 14.71, p < .01$), and subordinates ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 6.89, p \leq .01$) as perpetrators in their respective work environments.

The results show that self-identified victims in the SANDF sample reported greater frequencies with regard to all three groupings than self-identified victims in the Power Group sample. In addition to identifying someone else as the perpetrator, all respondents were also asked whether or not they consider themselves to be the perpetrator, regardless of whether or not they self-identified as victims or witnesses of workplace bullying. Of the total sample (n=178), 167 people, representing 94% of respondents, answered the question, whereas eleven people (6%) did not answer the question.

Of those respondents who answered the question, 136 people (81%) reported they do not consider themselves as the perpetrator, followed by 10% (n=17) of respondents reporting they might be both the perpetrator and victim, and 6% (n=10) reporting they might only be the perpetrator. Another 2% of respondents, representing 4 people, reported with certainty as being both the victim and perpetrator. None of the respondents reported with certainty to being the perpetrator exclusively.

A Chi-Square test yielded a significant difference (χ^2 (df=1) = 12.03, $p < .01$) between men and women, related to their self-labelling as a potential perpetrator in the workplace. The results show that men were scored reported a higher frequency of being a potential perpetrator in the workplace than women.

4.5.1 The reported gender and status of the perpetrator in the SANDF

A total of 94 people, representing 90% of respondents in the SANDF sample, identified the gender of the perpetrator. This includes both those who self-identified as victims of workplace bullying and those who witnessed bullying in the workplace. Of the 94 people, the majority (78%, n=73) of respondents, identified the perpetrator to be men exclusively, whilst 6% (n=6) identified women exclusively as the perpetrator. Another 16% (n=15) of respondents identified both men and women as being the perpetrators.

Those in leadership positions (supervisors/managers) were reported as the most recurrent perpetrator (81%), followed by colleagues/peers (45%), and subordinates (10%). For the SANDF sample, no customer/client was reported by respondents as the perpetrator as SANDF personnel hardly interact with clients/customers in the execution of their duties. Moreover, it is evident that the percentages are well beyond a hundred percent. This is due to respondents identifying more than one source as the perpetrator.

When asked about whether or not they consider themselves to be the perpetrator, a total of 102 people, representing 97% of respondents in the SANDF sample, answered the question. Another 3% (n=3) of respondents did not answer the question. Of the 102 people who did answer the question, 82% (n=84) of respondents reported they do not consider themselves to be the perpetrator, followed by 10% (n=10) of respondents reporting they might be both the victim and perpetrator. Another 7% (n=7) of respondents indicated that they might only be the perpetrator, while 1% (n=1) of respondents reported being both victim and perpetrator. None of the 102 people who answered the question reported with certainty to being the perpetrator exclusively.

4.5.2 The reported gender and status of the perpetrator at Power Group

When respondents in the Power Group sample were asked to indicate the gender of the perpetrator, of the 73 respondents in the Power Group sample, 44 people (60%) answered the question, whereas 29 people (40%) did not. A total of 38 people, representing 86% of respondents, identified the perpetrators as men exclusively. Another six people, representing 14% of respondents, identified both men and women as the perpetrators. None of the respondents in the Power Group sample identified women exclusively as the perpetrators in the workplace.

When also asked what the gender of the perpetrator was, supervisors/managers were reported as the perpetrator in most cases (52%), followed by colleagues/peers (18%). Another 1% of respondents reported subordinates as the perpetrator, whereas a further 1% of respondents reported customers/clients as the perpetrator.

When all respondents in the Power Group sample (n=73) were asked whether or not they consider themselves to be the perpetrator, a total of 65 people, representing 89% of respondents, answered the question. Another 8 people (11%) did not answer the question. Of those respondents who did answer the question, the majority (80%, n=52) of respondents reported that they do not consider themselves as the perpetrator, followed by 10% (n=7) of respondents reporting they might be both victim and perpetrator. Another 5% (n=3) of respondents reported they might only be the perpetrator, while 5% (n=3) reported with conviction being both the victim and perpetrator. None of the respondents reported with certainty to being the perpetrator exclusively.

4.6 Risk groups in the total sample

The Chi-Square and *F* test analysis were undertaken to investigate if there were any particular risk groups with reference to gender, age, ethnicity, levels of responsibility, and education. In the majority of cases the analysis yielded no significant differences for the respective categories.

The Chi-Square test yielded no significant difference in the reported victimisation between men and women (χ^2 ($df=1$) = 3.22, p = .07). Furthermore, the *F* test yielded no significant difference (F ($df=1.18$) = 1.27, p = .26) in the reported victimisation between the various age groups. Moreover, Chi-Square test yielded no significant difference in the reported victimisation for the different ethnic groups (χ^2 ($df=2$) = 4.03, p = .13) (see Figure 16), and levels of responsibility (χ^2 ($df=2$) = 4.44, p = .11).

However, an *F* test yielded a small difference in the reported victimisation for levels of education ($F (df=1,176) = 4.71, p = .03$). Those with a certificate or lower level of qualification were scored to experience somewhat more workplace bullying than those with a diploma or higher level of qualification.

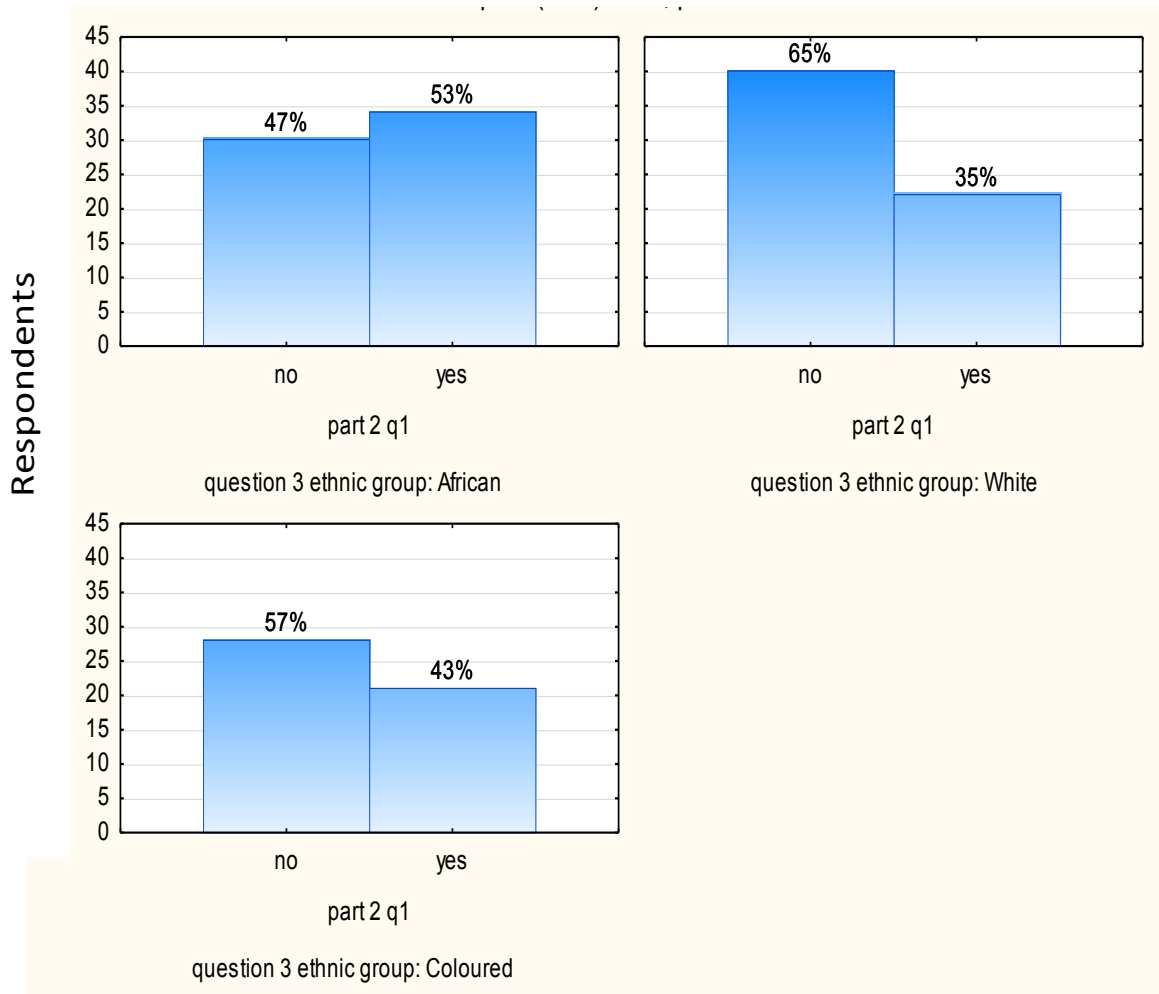


Figure 16. Histogram of reported victimisation between ethnic groups for the total sample

4.6.1 Risk groups in the SANDF

For the SANDF sample, when using the Chi-Square analysis, no significant difference was found between workplace bullying rates by gender ($\chi^2 (df=1) = .84, p = .36$).

Additionally, there were no significant differences in reported victimisation between age groups ($F(df=1,103) = .15, p = .70$). A Chi-Square test yielded no significant difference in the reported victimization between the various ethnic groups ($\chi^2(df=2) = .75, p = .75$). In addition, an F test yielded no significant difference in the reported victimization between the levels of education ($F(df=1,10) = .28, p = .60$), while a Chi-Square test yielded no significant difference between workplace bullying rates for levels of responsibility ($\chi^2(df=1) = .54, p = .54$). The results clearly show that respondents in the SANDF sample are all affected in more or less equal portions with reference to gender, age, ethnicity, levels of responsibility, and education.

4.6.2 Risk groups at Power Group

With reference to the Power Group sample, a chi-square test yielded no significant difference ($\chi^2(df=1) = 2.30, p = .13$) in the reported victimization between men and women, while the F test yielded no significant difference in the reported victimization related to age ($F(df=1, 71) = .01, p = .91$). Using the Chi-Square analysis, no significant difference were found in the reported victimization between ethnic groups ($\chi^2(df=2) = .07, p = .98$).

However, an F test yielded a significant difference in the reported victimization for levels of education ($F(df=1, 71) = 9.51, p \leq .01$). The results show that those respondents with a qualification lower than a certificate are found to be bullied more frequently than those with a qualification higher than a certificate. Similarly, a Chi-Square test yielded a significant difference in the reported victimization for levels of responsibility ($\chi^2(df=2) = 10.08, p \leq .01$). The prevalence rate for respondents with a managerial responsibility was 7%, whereas the prevalence rate for respondents with no formal responsibility was 10%. Those respondents with a supervisory responsibility were found to have the highest prevalence rate (41%). The results clearly show that workplace bullying is most prevalent among respondents with a middle management status in the Power Group sample.

4.7 Responses to episodes of workplace bullying

When asked whether or not workplace bullying is being addressed in the work place, a total of 117 people, representing 66% of respondents of the total sample, reported that incidents of workplace bullying is never being addressed in their work environment. Another 30% (n=53) of respondents reporting it being addressed now and then, whereas 4% (n=8) of respondents reported it being addressed always. A Chi-Square test yielded a significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=2) = 43.03, p \leq .01$) between the SANDF and Power Group related to their respondents observation and judgement of whether or not incidents of workplace bullying is being addressed in the organisation.

Most respondents (85%) in the SANDF sample were scored reporting that workplace bullying is not being addressed in the organisation, whereas the majority of respondents (62%) in the Power Group sample were scored reporting that incidents of workplace bullying are being addressed in the organisation.

When asked whether or not those who self-identified as victims and witnesses of workplace bullying reported the incidents, a total of 87 people, representing 49% of respondents of the total sample, answered the question. Of those 87 people who answered the question, most respondents (64%, n=56) reported that they do report incidents of workplace bullying, whereas 36% (n=31) of respondents reported that they do not report the incident.

The Chi-Square analysis was undertaken to determine whether or not a difference exist between reported victims and non-victims of workplace bullying and their respective choices to report incidents of bullying in the workplace. No significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 4.01, p \leq .05$) were found between victims and non-victims of workplace bullying and their respective choices to report incidents of workplace bullying (see Figure 17).

Additionally, a Chi-Square test yielded no significant difference between the SANDF and Power Group related to their respondents tendency to report incidents of workplace bullying (χ^2 ($df=1$) = 1.47, $p = .22$). Although 56 (31%) people in the total sample reported that they do report incidents of workplace bullying, when all respondents were asked to whom they reported incidents of workplace bullying in the organisation, a total of 64 people (36%) in the total sample answered the question.

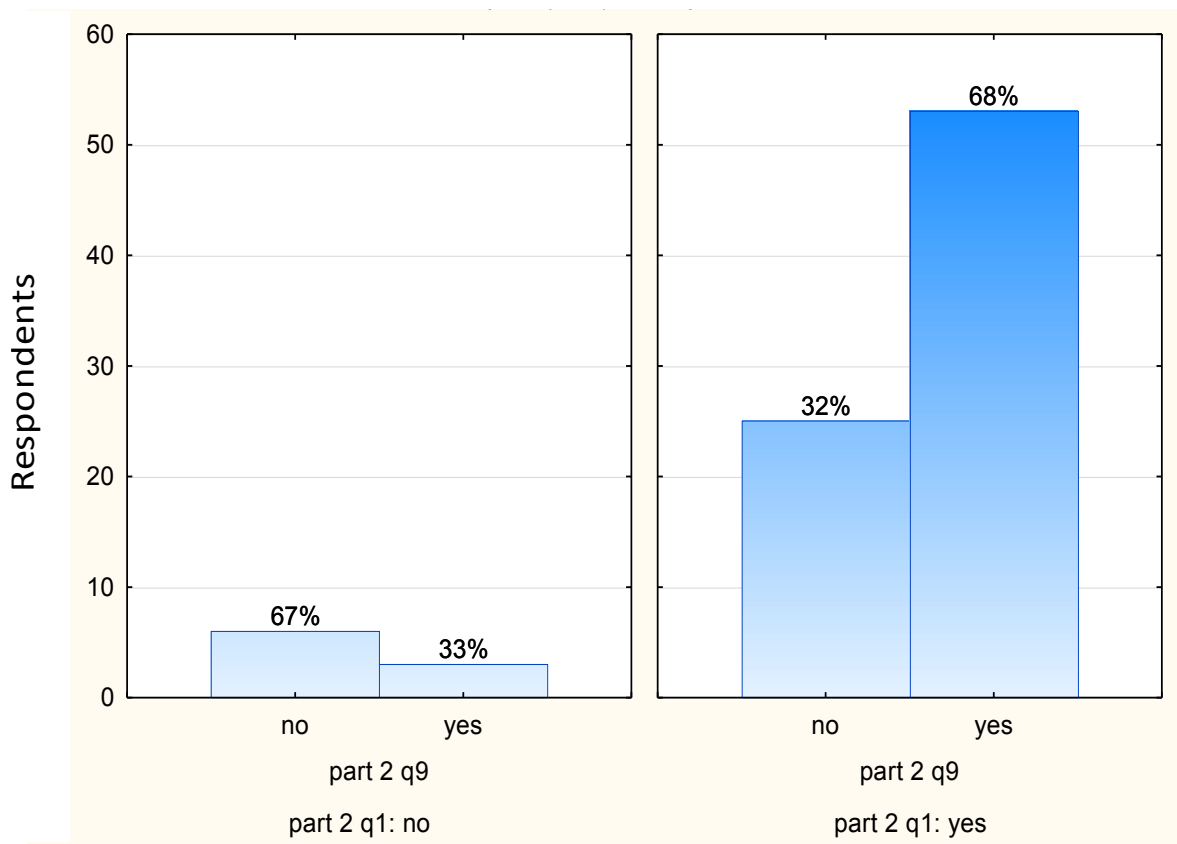


Figure 17. Histogram of victims and non-victims tendency to report incidents of workplace bullying

The results show that 8 people (5%) of the total sample do report incidents of workplace bullying to someone, but did not answer the question of whether or not they do report it.

In the majority of instances (27%) episodes of workplace bullying is reported to a superior, followed by incidents of workplace bullying being reported to a colleague/peer (16%) and another authority figure (6%). None of the respondents were scored reporting incidents of workplace bullying to a subordinate. When asked whether or not respondents shared incidents of workplace bullying with anyone outside the workplace, 43% of respondents of the total sample were scored reporting sharing it with a family member, while 38% of respondents were scored reporting sharing it with a close friend. This might mean a respondent sharing an experience of workplace bullying with both family and friends.

When asked what the common response was following a reported episode of workplace bullying, a total of 67 people, representing 38% of respondents of the total sample, answered the question. The majority of respondents (48%, $n=28$) reported it being ignored, followed by respondents being told to deal with it on their own (22%, $n=15$), and respondents being considered weak (16%, $n=11$). Another 7 people (10%) reported it being addressed immediately, whereas 9% ($n=6$) of respondents reported other. An F test yielded no significant difference between the SANDF and Power Group, related to their respective responses to reported cases of workplace bullying ($F(df=1, 65) = .15, p = .70$). In both distinct work environments, reported cases of workplace bullying were frequently either being ignored or respondents were told to deal with it on their own.

4.7.1 Responses to episodes of workplace bullying in the SANDF

When asked whether or not incidents of workplace bullying is being addressed in the SANDF, a total of 89 people (85%) were scored reporting it never being addressed, followed by 14% ($n=15$) of respondents reporting it being addressed now and then, whereas 1 person (1%) were scored reporting it being always addressed.

The results clearly show that most respondents in the SANDF sample deem incidents of workplace bullying are being left unaddressed in the SANDF. A total of 63 people (60%) answered the question of whether or not they reported incidents of workplace bullying in the SANDF, while 42 people (40%) did not answer the question. Of those who answered the question (n=63), a total of 43 people, representing 68% of respondents, reported that they did report incidents of workplace. Another 32% of respondents, representing 20 people, reported they did not report workplace bullying incidents in the SANDF.

When respondents were asked to whom in the SANDF they reported incidents of workplace bullying, the majority (36%) were scored reporting it to an immediate superior, followed by respondents reporting it to a colleague/peer (26%), and to another authority figure (4%). None of the respondents were scored reporting incidents of workplace bullying to a subordinate.

Furthermore, a total of 60% of respondents reported that they also share their experience of workplace bullying with a family member, whereas 53% reported sharing it with a close friend. It is clear that the percentage is well beyond a 100%. Respondents were allowed to report instances where they share their experiences of workplace bullying with both family and friends, hence the high percentage.

A total of 48 people (46%) in the SANDF sample answered the question related to the organisational response to reported cases of workplace bullying, while 57 people (54%) did not answer the question. The majority (54%, n=26) of those who answered the question reported that reported incidents of workplace bullying are being ignored, followed by respondents being told to deal with it on their own (23%, 11), respondents being considered weak (17%, 8), and 3 people (6%) reporting other. None of the respondents reported that incidents of workplace bullying are immediately addressed in their work environments.

4.7.2 Responses to episodes of workplace bullying at Power Group

A total of 73 people, representing the entire Power Group sample, answered the question of whether or not workplace bullying is being addressed in the organisation. Of the total sample, most respondents (52%, n=38) reported that incidents of workplace bullying is being addressed now and then, while seven people (10%) reported it being addressed always. Another 38% (n=28) of respondents reported that incidents of workplace bullying is never being addressed. Contrary to the SANDF, the results clearly show that most respondents (62%, n=45) in the Power Group sample are of the conviction that incidents of workplace bullying is being addressed in the organisation.

When respondents were asked whether or not they report incidents of workplace bullying, a total of 24 people (33%) answered the question. Of those who answered the question (n=24) the majority (54%, 13) reported that they did report incidents of workplace bullying, whereas 46% (n=11) of respondents reported that they do not report incidents of workplace bullying in the workplace.

A total of 10 people, representing 14% of the Power Group sample, identified supervisors as the person to whom they report incidents of workplace bullying, followed by another authority figure (10%, n=7), and colleagues/peers (1%, n=1). Akin to the SANDF, none of the respondents in the Power Group sample were scored reporting incidents of workplace bullying to subordinates.

When asked whether or not respondents shared their experience of workplace bullying with anyone outside the organisation, 19% of respondents reported sharing it with a family member, whereas 16% were scored reporting it to a close friend. A total of 19 people (26%) answered the question related to Power Group's response to reported incidents of workplace bullying. The majority of respondents (74%, n=54) did not answer the question.

Of those who answered the question (n=19), a total of seven people (37%) reported that incidents of workplace bullying is immediately being addressed, followed by 21% (n=4) of respondents reporting being told to deal with it on their own, and 16% (n=3) being considered weak. Another 10% (n=2) of respondents were scored reporting that incidents of workplace bullying is being ignored, whereas a further 16% (n=3) of respondents reported other.

4.8 Organisational workplace bullying policies

All respondents, regardless of whether or not they considered themselves to be a victim, bystander, or perpetrator of workplace bullying, were asked whether or not there is a workplace bullying policy in their respective workplaces. For the total sample, 51% (n=91) of respondents reported that they are not aware of such a policy in the workplace, followed by 41% (n=73) of respondents reporting that there is no workplace bullying policy in their workplace, and 8% (n=14) of respondents reporting that there is a workplace bullying policy in their workplace. If those respondents who reported “Not aware” are added to those who reported “No”, then there is a possibility that 98% (n=164) of respondents arguably indicated that there is no workplace bullying policy in their workplaces.

For the SANDF, the majority (51%, n=54) of respondents indicated that they are not aware of a workplace bullying policy within the SANDF or their respective units, followed by 46% (n=48) of respondents reporting there is no such policy in their workplace, and 3% (n=3) of respondents reporting that there is indeed a workplace bullying policy. If the “Not aware” and “No” frequencies are added together then potentially 97% (n=102) of respondents from the SANDF reported that there is no workplace bullying policy in the SANDF and their respective units. In the case of Power Group, 51% (n=37) of respondents reported they are not aware of a workplace bullying policy at Power Group, followed by those respondents who reported there is no such policy in the workplace (34%, n=25), and those who reported there is such a policy in their workplace (15%, n=11).

There thus exist the possibility that 85% (n=62) of respondents in the Power Group sample reported that there is no workplace bullying policy at Power Group.

4.9 Chapter conclusion

The principal aim of this Chapter was to present the results of the present study in a meaningful way as it was obtained from the various statistical analyses that were computed. Descriptive statistics for the total sample, the SANDF, and Power Group were presented. Subsequently, several Chi-Square and *F* test analyses were conducted to highlight similarities and difference between several variables of interest. Out of these analyses it was found that in some instances no differences emerged, whereas in other instances highly significant or minor differences existed. Additionally, the Chi-Square and *F* test were also used to determine whether any risk groups could be identified.

In concluding the statistical analysis of the present study the Pearson correlation was computed to ascertain whether there is any relationship between frequency and duration for the total sample, SANDF, and Power Group respectively. Out of this test it was established that for the total sample and Power Group there is a tendency for the duration of workplace bullying to decrease as the frequency increases. However, in the case of Power Group, because the number of cases for Power Group were so small it was not considered statistical significant. Conversely, for the SANDF no relationship was found between frequency and duration.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters of the present study outlined four of the six essential fractions of the present study. Chapter 1 highlighted the background and context of the present study. More importantly, the aims, research questions, objectives and significance of the study were discussed. The theoretical foundation for the present study was laid in Chapter 2 by providing insight into the existing body of literature on workplace bullying in the global community, as well as in South Africa. Chapter 3 discussed the procedure that was followed when the research were conducted, the measuring instruments that were used, and the statistical analysis that was performed for the purpose of the present study. The results of the statistical analyses that were performed for the purpose of the present study were presented in Chapter 4.

5.1.1 Overview of research aim and questions

As previously discussed (Chapter 1), the foremost aim of the present study was to investigate the nature and prevalence of exposure to workplace bullying in a representative sample of employees from both a public and private organisation in the Western Cape, South Africa, by using different measurement and estimation techniques.

A further aim of the present study was to examine whether or not there are any differences between the SANDF and Power Group on several factors. Additionally, the present study also aimed to ascertain whether those who self-identified as victims of bullying have also reported higher frequencies for the listed negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours.

Lastly, the present study aimed to contrast the findings of the present study with that of other scholars', especially South Africans. In order to achieve the aforementioned aims the present study aspired to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the prevalence of workplace bullying?
2. What are the most frequent experienced negative acts (NAQ) and degrading and oppressing behaviours (WHS)?
3. What is the approximate frequency and duration of the reported workplace bullying episodes?
4. Who is being identified and reported as being the perpetrator of workplace bullying?
5. Can particular risk groups (victims and perpetrators) be identified?
6. Are incidents of workplace bullying being managed in these organisations?
7. Are incidents of workplace bullying being reported in these organisations?

5.1.2 Chapter overview

The purpose of the present chapter is to provide a consolidated discussion of the main findings (Chapter 4) of the present study in combination with the theoretical foundation that was laid in Chapter 2. This is done to establish whether or not the aforementioned research aims had been achieved, as well as whether or not the research questions were answered. The present Chapter is arranged in the follow order:

1. Prevalence of workplace bullying.
2. The most frequent experienced negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours.
3. Frequency and duration of workplace bullying.
4. Gender and status of the perpetrators.
5. Risk groups.
6. Organisational and individual responses to workplace bullying.
7. Organisational workplace bullying policies

5.2 Prevalence of workplace bullying

A major aim of the present study was to establish the prevalence of workplace bullying in a representative sample of employees in the Western Cape, South Africa. In doing so, several measurement techniques were employed. Firstly, the prevalence of workplace bullying was measured “subjectively” (see para 3.6), by providing respondents with a definition of workplace bullying and asking them directly whether or not they consider themselves as victims of workplace bullying. As for the reported prevalence of workplace bullying in the present study, 44% of respondents in the total sample self-identified as victims of workplace bullying, based on the “subjective” method. In comparison, this is slightly higher than has been found in an earlier cross-sectional South African study (35.1%) (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012), but considerably higher than the prevalence rates reported in other international studies, with rates of 3.9% to 17.8% (Bentley et al., 2012) and 10.6% (Hoel et al., 2001) being reported.

The literature suggest that high frequencies of workplace bullying is associated with relatively high power distant and masculine cultures, whereas low frequencies of workplace bullying is associated with less power distant and feminine cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Nielsen et al., 2009). The high frequency reported in the present study (44%), as well as in the study of Cunniff and Mostert (2012) (35.1%), would suggest that the South African workplace are more masculine and power distant in comparison with the New Zealand (Bentley et al., 2012) and United Kingdom (Hoel et al., 2001) workplaces. The South African workplace would by definition then be more ego orientated, more competitive and ambitious, and less concerned about forming relationships (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). This might imply that people bully others in order to satisfy their own interest.

Additionally, the concept of workplace bullying is “subjective”. Although respondents are commonly being provided with a similar definition of workplace bullying across studies, it cannot be concluded that all respondents within and between studies share the same common understanding of exactly what workplace bullying is. Therefore, two people within the same study could thus have two totally different understandings and views of what exactly is workplace bullying, although being provided with the same definition of the concept. This will essentially influence their perception of whether or not they consider themselves to be victims of workplace bullying. Subsequently affecting the prevalence rates reported across studies.

It is thus essential to be cautious when comparing prevalence rates across studies because of differences in approaches followed and methods used (Einarsen et al., 2009; Skogstad et al., 2007; Tuckey et al., 2009). For example, all respondents in the present study and that of Bentley et al. (2012) and Hoel et al. (2001) were provided with a similar definition of workplace bullying, whereas respondents in the study of Cunniff and Mostert (2013) were not (see para 2.5).

Yet, the prevalence rate of the present study (44%) is within close range to that (35.1%) reported by Cunniff and Mostert (2013), but much higher than that reported by Bentley et al. (2012) (3.9-17.8%) and Hoel et al. (2001) (10.6%). Presumably, if respondents within and between studies do not totally share a common understanding of what exactly workplace bullying is it might lead to an underreporting of the phenomenon, because activities that comprises workplace bullying may not be reported because it is regarded as normal (Leymann, 1990). Equally, it could also lead to an over-reporting of the phenomenon as respondents may regard any act or behaviour as workplace bullying, which would normally not be considered as workplace bullying behaviours falling under a specific definition of the phenomenon.

The present study also found a significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 26.40, p < .01$) in the self-identified victims of workplace bullying between the two participating organisations, in that workplace bullying is much more prevalent in the SANDF (60%) than in Power Group (22%). This difference can possible be explained by the two very differing organisational cultures. In some work settings, like the military for example, regardless of how unmerited some behaviour is it might be regarded as necessary or normal in order to achieve objectives. According to Brodsky (1976) this might be regarded as a sense of permission to bully. Moreover, Einarsen (1999) and Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) argue that workplace bullying will flourish in cultures that treat the phenomenon as acceptable and normal. It is thus expected that in highly tolerated organisations workplace bullying will flourish.

On the other hand, some work settings, like your private organisations, might be less tolerable to incidents of workplace bullying due to its severe negative effects on overall organisational effectiveness (see para 2.10.3). To some extend the author would like to argue that an organisation like the SANDF can still survive or afford high frequencies of workplace bullying, whereas an organisation like Power Group cannot.

For example, workplace bullying is associated with increased turnover and recruitment costs (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011). In the case of Power Group the organisation might struggle to deal with turnover and recruitment requirements due to its associated high costs, whereas the SANDF may not. This could be especially true considering that the SANDF is guaranteed financial assistance (from government), while Power is not (have to generate own funding). This view does by no means signify that the present study excuse the presence of workplace bullying in the SANDF.

Additionally, the SANDF culture is considered much more power distant (given the different levels of position power in the organisation) and more masculine, partly due to its operational requirements. The SANDF work environment may thus be expected to be more aggressive, dominating, assertive, individual achievement orientated, and less concerned about interpersonal relationships, which could serve as a breeding ground for workplace bullying. Conversely, Power Group is considered more feminine and less power distant. Deductively, unlike the SANDF, Power Group is argued to be more concerned with interpersonal relationships, and less tolerant to aggressive behaviours, and less assertive.

In context specific comparisons, the workplace bullying frequency reported in the present study for the SANDF (60%) are considerably higher than what was reported in other South African studies by Steinman (2003) (20.4%) and Visagie et al. (2012) (27.7%), as well as in several international studies by Ostvik and Rudmin (2012) (12%) and Iglesias and de Bengoa Vallejo (2012) (17%). This might be due to the fact that the SANDF is out of necessity a hierarchical bureaucracy with an expectation for disciplined compliance to authority and leadership. This potentially makes the SANDF culture much more power distant and masculine than other private and less hierarchical bureaucratic work environments.

Moreover, it might also be that the SANDF have not yet managed to effectively deal with the integration of pre-1994 belligerent forces into a cohesive notational defence force (see para 1.2). Differences in backgrounds, values and beliefs might hinder people in the SANDF from working in harmony, and bullying might be regarded as means of getting people to do what you would like them to do in order to safeguard a superior self image.

On the other hand, the workplace bullying frequencies in the present study reported for Power Group (22%) are rather consistent with previous research findings in other professions, where prevalence rates of between 11.6% to 27.7% are the norm (Berry et al., 2012; Glaso et al., 2011; Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Ortega et al., 2011; Ostvik & Rudmin, 2012; Steinman, 2003; Visagie et al., 2012). Literature suggests that these workplaces share a common denominator, the fact that they all are less power distant and more feminine (Hofstede, 1980, 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Nielsen et al., 2009). There is thus a consciousness of forming good interpersonal relationships at work.

Secondly, the prevalence of workplace bullying was also measured by means of an estimated prevalence rate, based on the percentage of respondents who self-reported as witnesses of workplace bullying. In agreement with most previous studies (e.g., Berry et al., 2012; Ostvik & Rudmin; Nielsen et al., 2009; Salin, 2001; Visagie et al., 2012), were rates ranging from 13.5% to 53% were reported, the present study found that 50% of respondents in the total sample self-reported as being a witness of workplace bullying. Noticeably this figure (50%) is slightly higher than has been found for self-identified victims of workplace bullying (44%) in the present study. This was expected since retrospective reports by victims and witnesses of workplace bullying may or may not refer to the same incident. Additionally, there might also be an underreporting by actual victims of workplace bullying due to their potential sense of embarrassment if they self-report as victims (see para 2.5) (Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001).

This high percentage (50%) of witnesses of workplace bullying in the present study may suggest that the actual prevalence of workplace bullying in SANDF and Power Group is much higher than what was reported by the self-identified victims. Additionally, the high frequencies of witnessing workplace bullying might also be due to the noticeable increase in public awareness of the phenomenon in recent years in South Africa, which may predispose people to identify incidents of workplace bullying more regularly than before.

The results of the present study show only a small difference ($F(1,17) = 4.03, p = .04$) between the SANDF (87%) and Power Group (56%) in their respective reported witness frequencies. Evidently in both samples the frequency of witnesses (SANDF, 87%; Power Group, 56%) is greater than the frequency of self-identified victims (SANDF, 60%; Power Group, 22%). More surprisingly is the large difference between self-reported witnesses (56%) and self-identified victims (22%) of workplace bullying for the Power Group sample. This might be due to two reasons.

Firstly, there are several instances where both self-identified victims and non-victims of workplace bullying reported observing the same incident of workplace bullying at Power Group. Alternatively, both self-identified victims and non-victims of workplace bullying reported observing different incidents of workplace bullying at Power Group, and that some respondents did not admit to being a victim of workplace bullying or that several victims of workplace bullying did not participate in the study. This therefore makes workplace bullying significantly more prevalent at Power Group than what is reported in the present study. It also supports the notion that it is difficult to quantify workplace bullying using people's perceptions because they might deny or minimize the maltreatment as a way of surviving bullying in the workplace (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Additionally, results from the present study show that self-identified victims of workplace bullying report a greater frequency of witnessing episodes of workplace bullying than non-victims ($F(1,18) = 41.11, p < .01$).

This finding was the same for the SANDF and Power Group (see para 4.3.1). This was expected because victims of workplace bullying are more likely to identify episodes of workplace bullying than non-victims due to their apparent familiarity with workplace bullying behaviours. Furthermore, victims of workplace bullying are also considered more likely to label various kinds of behaviours as workplace bullying than non-victims.

In the present study the self-labelling as victims and self-reporting as witnesses of workplace bullying were also compared with the “operational” method (see para 2.5) for measuring the prevalence of workplace bullying. In this instance both the NAQ and WHS were used, which will also be discussed in conjunction with each other. These instruments were used because it was considered as providing a more objective estimate of exposure to workplace bullying than the two self-labelling approaches.

Remarkably, the results of the present study show that in both instances (using the NAQ and WHS respectively) 39% of respondents in the total sample can be classified as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least one negative act weekly (in the case of the NAQ) or one degrading and oppressing behaviour often (in the case of the WHS) for a period of six weeks. This is considered a substantial percentage, which is considerably higher than that reported in other international studies, where prevalence rates of between 8% and 25% are reported (see Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Nielsen et al., 2009; O’Driscoll et al., 2011). Although the result of the present study considerably higher than has been reported in other international studies, it is surprisingly close to identical than has been reported in an earlier South African study (39.6%) by Visagie et al. (2012). A possible explanation is that the findings of the present study, in conjunction with that of Visagie et al. (2012), show that both the NAQ and WHS take into account the respondents’ perception of the negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours in the present study, which might not be the case for the international studies.

Additionally, this finding might also support the reliability of the workplace bullying frequencies reported in the present study for the self-identified victims and witnesses of workplace bullying. Additionally, the present study found that when a more stringent criterion were employed of experiencing at least two negative acts weekly (in the case of the NAQ) or two degrading and oppressing behaviours often (in the case of the WHS) for a period of six weeks, the prevalence rate for both the NAQ and WHS nearly remained the same (see para 4.3.2 & 4.3.3), with only a slight drop in the percentages. A possible reason for this could be that victims of workplace bullying in the present study are exposed to a number of bullying behaviours on a frequent basis.

For the NAQ the percentage dropped from 39% to 30%, whereas for the WHS it dropped from 39% to 33%. This finding is not consistent with previous international research. Mikkelsen and Einarsen reported that when they also employed a more stringent criterion of experiencing at least two negative acts weekly, the prevalence in their hospital and department store samples dropped drastically from 16% to 2% and from 25% to 2.7%, respectively. Similarly, O'Driscoll et al. (2011) classified 17.8% of respondents in their New Zealand sample as victims of workplace bullying, based on the criterion of experiencing at least two negative acts weekly.

Moreover, the results of the present study also showed that several people were scored reporting between 10 and 12 different negative acts weekly (NAQ), whereas one person were found reporting 13 different degrading and oppressing behaviours often (WHS) (see para 4.3.2 & 4.3.3, respectively). It should be noted that the high percentages reported in the present study is a real concern because it might signify that employees in South Africa are exposed to noticeably much more workplace bullying behaviours than has been reported for employees internationally.

Furthermore, the percentages presented for those who could be classified as victims of workplace bullying in the present study may indicate that the South African workplace bully is much more comfortable subjecting others to devious behaviours in the workplace, and not particularly concerned with being caught, which is of an even greater concern. This might also be due to the lack of legislative recognition workplace bullying receive in South Africa (see para 2.3), which potentially increases exposure to various workplace bullying behaviours.

The results of the present study revealed no significant difference ($F(1,18) = 3.35, p = .07$) between the SANDF and Power Group for the NAQ, whereas a minor difference ($F(1,18) = 4.97, p = .03$) had been found for the WHS, in that respondents from the SANDF reported more degrading and oppressing behaviours in the WHS than respondents from Power Group. This finding might demonstrate that the WHS scale take into account the SANDF respondents' perception of the degrading and oppressing behaviours more than the Power Group respondents.

Expectedly, the results of the present study showed that self-identified victims of workplace bullying reported significantly more negative acts ($F(1,18) = 121.10, p \leq .01$) and degrading and oppressing behaviours ($F(1,18) = 151.95, p < .01$) than non-victims. Akin to witnessing incidents of workplace bullying, this finding is considered normal since it is likely for victims of workplace bullying to report more negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours than non-victims.

This is mainly due to the conviction that victims of workplace bullying are somewhat more familiar with workplace bullying behaviours than non-victims, because they are subjected to it. Additionally, due to the victims exposure they might also be inclined to more regularly reported various types of behaviour as bullying, whether it is or not.

As illustrated throughout the preceding discussion, the present study support the findings of various other studies in that different ways of measuring the prevalence of workplace bullying yield different results (Einarsen et al., 2009, Visagie et al., 2012; Skogstad et al., 2007; Zapf & Gross, 2001). However, the prevalence estimates reported in the present study for the different methods does not differ significantly from each other. In fact, they all yielded alarming statistics. Judging from the results of the present study, and that of other South African studies (e.g., Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Steinman, 2003; Visagie et al., 2012), workplace bullying appear to be widespread in the South African workplace.

Moreover, there was also consistency between the methods used in the present study, in that self-identified victims of workplace bullying also reported higher rates of witnessing workplace bullying, as well as greater exposure to more negative acts (NAQ) and degrading and oppressing behaviour (WHS) in the workplace than non-victims.

In answering the first research question, “what is the prevalence of workplace bullying”, the present study found a prevalence range of 39% to 50%, when taking into account all three methods used to estimate the prevalence of workplace bullying. Given this disturbing prevalence range (39-50%), the present study confirmed that workplace bullying is a major psychosocial workplace problem not only in the Western Cape, but also South Africa. A possible reason for these disturbing frequencies of workplace bullying could be the lack of legislative recognition the phenomenon receives in South Africa, especially in the workplace through various workplace policies aimed to address the phenomenon. The consequences of workplace bullying have been well documented in Chapter 2 (see para 2.10). This therefore emphasises the need for organisational leaders to initiate measures aimed specifically to combat workplace bullying.

5.3 The most frequent experienced negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours

Workplace bullying includes various forms of overt and covert behaviours aimed at hurting the targeted person. It is clear from earlier discussions on workplace bullying behaviours that the most common negative acts (NAQ) experienced by people are well documented, whereas the most common degrading and oppressing behaviour (WHS) experienced by people are not (see para 2.6). Foreign literature was thus valuable in making comparisons with regard to the NAQ. Several international studies have divided the most prevalent negative acts (NAQ) reported by respondents within and between studies into two distinct categories namely: work-related bullying and person-related bullying (e.g., Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Salin 2001). Consistent with previous international research (see Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2009; O'Driscoll et al., 2011) the present study found that work-related bullying was the most frequently reported negative acts (Table 11).

Table 11

The most frequently reported negative acts

Negative Acts	Work- or Person- related bullying	Total Sample	SANDF	Power Group
Being humiliated in connection with your work	W	X	X	X
Information being withheld that affects your performance	W	X	X	X
Being gossip about	P	X		X
Constant reminder of mistakes you made	W	X	X	
Being ignored	P	X		
Excessive monitoring of your work	W	X	X	
Being given impossible deadlines	W		X	
Being given work below your level of competence	W			X
Persistent criticism of your work and effort	W			X

In terms of the WHS the present study found that a fair combination of work- and person-related degrading and oppressing behaviours were reported, with work-related behaviours being reported somewhat more frequently. This finding supports the foregoing discussion in that work-related bullying is most frequently reported. It should be noted that there is clear similarities between the most frequent reported behaviours for the NAQ and WHS.

Table 12***The most frequently reported degrading and oppressing behaviours***

Degrading and oppressing behaviours	Work- or person-related bullying	Total Sample	SANDF	Power Group
Reduced opportunity to express oneself	W	X	X	X
Refusal to be heard	W	X	X	X
Belittling of opinions	W	X	X	
Undue criticism	W	X		
Being lied about	P	X		
Insinuating glances or negative gestures	P	X	X	
Being treated as non-existent	P		X	
Work being judged incorrectly and in an insulting manner	W			X
Being shouted at loudly	P			X
Malicious rumours being spread about you	P			X

The fact that classified victims of workplace bullying in terms of the NAQ (see para 3.6.3) and WHS (see para 3.6.4) report more work-related behaviours in the present and several international studies might be due to perpetrators of workplace bullying efforts to conceal their bullying behaviours. It would be much easier for a perpetrator of workplace bullying to defend his bullying of others if it has a work connotation. For example, a perpetrator can simply state that he commonly withheld information from another not with the intent to hurt the person, but rather to allow the person to learn and grow through making mistakes and failure like he did.

Additionally, the perpetrator might also know that due to the behaviours work connotation it might be very difficult for the victim and even others to identify and label it as workplace bullying. This finding support the notion that bullies in the workplace are more intelligent than bullies on the playground, in that adult bullies rarely engage in physical bullying (Leymann, 1996).

In agreement with previous research (Garandeau & Cillessen, 2006; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002a) the present study found that physical bullying is rarely reported. Simons et al. (2011) in their nursing study found that only 5% of participants' reported threats of violence. This might be because physical bullying is easily recognisable by the victim and others in the workplace due to their perceived familiarity with physical bullying on the schoolyard. Physical bullying could therefore threaten the perpetrators identity, hence the fondness of more discrete and subtle behaviours.

In answering the question, "what are the most frequent experienced negative acts and degrading and oppressing behaviours?" the present study found that work-related bullying is the most frequently experienced reported workplace bullying behaviours for both the SANDF and Power Group. The fact that work-related bullying is the most frequently reported bullying experienced by respondents in the present and several other studies present an enormous challenge for organisational leaders and human resource practitioners.

This is because it becomes increasingly difficult to identify and analyse it, since it is indirect and psychological in nature (Bentley et al., 2012; Vie et al., 2011). As a result, it complicates the possibility of initiating measures aimed specifically at preventing workplace bullying from occurring. It will thus require an in depth evaluation of the behaviour before it can simply be regarded as workplace bullying.

5.4 Frequency and duration of workplace bullying

The findings of the present study is consistent with previous research in that the percentage of workplace bullying victims decline somewhat as the criterion becomes stricter (see para 2.5.1 & 4.4). However, the bullying frequencies reported in the present study are considerably higher than has been reported in international and national studies. The present study found that 16% of respondents reported being bullied “daily”, followed by 42% “weekly”, and 25% “monthly”, whereas other studies have reported frequencies ranging from 0.6-5% for “daily”, 0.6-3% for “weekly”, and 1-14% for “monthly” (Hoel et al., 2001; Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2009; Visagie et al., 2012).

This might be due to the fact that perpetrators of workplace bullying in the present study had been reported to engage more frequently in work-related bullying (see para 4.3), which makes it more difficult to detect. As a result, victims are being exposed to workplace bullying more frequently. Additionally, it might also be explained by the high percentage (44%) of respondents that self-identified as victims of workplace bullying (see para 4.3 & 5.2) in the present study. It is argued within the present study that as the percentage of workplace bullying victims increase, so does the frequency of exposure.

The present study found a significant difference ($F(1,77) = 6.34, p = .01$) between the reported frequencies for the SANDF and Power Group. On average, victims in the SANDF are more likely to experience weekly bullying, whereas victims at Power Group are more likely to experience monthly bullying (see Figure 13). Several authors have allied autocratic, laissez-faire and tyrannical leadership styles with workplace bullying (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007; Nielsen et al., 2005; O’Moore et al., 1998; Vartia, 1996). The fact that victims in the SANDF experience more weekly bullying might be due to the noticeable authoritarian, rule based, conservative and inflexible leadership styles (Vartia, 1996) that one is most likely to find in an organisation like the SANDF.

It is commonplace for SANDF units to have daily communication periods, during which these leadership styles can be highly operational, and make employees to feel that they are being bullied either directly or indirectly (e.g., being humiliated in connection with work in front of others and/or opinions being ignored during the communication periods). On the other hand, it is expected that leaders at Power Group are compelled to be less rule based, less conservative, and less inflexible due to the nature of their work. This is mainly because they operate in a changing environment, which in itself can create a bullying environment (see para 2.9.2.3), that demands flexible and good interpersonal relationships to ensure overall success.

The literature suggest that victims experience workplace bullying for lengthy durations (see para 2.5.1), with an average duration of two years being the norm (Hoel et al., 2001; Salin, 2001). Thus, in agreement with most previous studies, the present study found that 27% of respondents were bullied for a period longer than two years. However, the present study found that most respondents (56%) reported being bullied between twelve months and two years. Furthermore, despite a small difference, the present study found that victims from both the SANDF and Power Group are likely to experience workplace bullying for between 13 and 15 months (see Figure 14).

A possible reason might be that by two years the perpetrator have either reached his goal and have decided to stop bullying the victim or the continued bullying have forced the victim to confront the bully, which subsequently stopped the bullying from continuing. Additionally, it might also be that the bullying became known in the organisation, which resulted in the perpetrator being confronted by significant others in the workplace. On the other hand, it might also indicate that for such a long duration workplace bullying have gone unnoticed or it has been ignored in the workplace.

In comparison with an earlier South African study (see Visagie et al., 2012), the present study found a much lower percentage (18%) of respondents reported being bullied for a period less than twelve months. This might be because most of the respondents (see Table 6) in the present study are employed for more than five years in their respective organisations. It is believed that if the present study had a greater number of respondents employed for a period of less than two years as part of the sample, it might have influenced the reported duration of workplace bullying in that it would also have reflected a greater frequency for a period of less than twelve months. Alternatively, it might signify and emphasise that victims of workplace bullying experience the maltreatment in the workplace for lengthy periods.

Moreover, correlations results from the present study demonstrated that frequency yielded a negative insignificant correlation with duration (see Table 10), in that the frequency of workplace bullying decreases as the duration thereof increases. While a tendency was found for Power Group, because the number of cases were so small ($n=16$), the negative correlation was not considered statistically significant in the present study. This finding is not supported by earlier studies, where it was reported that the frequency of workplace bullying increases as the duration of exposure to workplace bullying increases (e.g., Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Visagie et al., 2012).

A possible reason for the finding in the present study might be due to the fact that in the beginning of workplace bullying the perpetrator may subject the victim to a number of bullying behaviours in order to evaluate the impact thereof on the victim, as well as the behaviours invincibility in the workplace. The perpetrator will then do away with those bullying behaviours with the least amount of impact on the victim, and which is more likely to be detected by others in the workplace. Eventually, the perpetrator would then systematically subject the victim to selected bullying behaviours that are considered most useful and invincible over an extended period of time.

In answering the question “what is the estimated frequency and duration of the reported workplace bullying episodes?” the present study found a frequency ranging between weekly and monthly bullying, and a duration ranging between twelve months and two years.

5.5 Gender and status of the perpetrator

Research have shown that both men and women are equally capable of bullying although some differences may exist (see para 2.5.3). However, the findings of the present study contradict earlier research by Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) and Hoel et al. (2001). Firstly, Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) in their Norwegian study found that 49% of respondents in their study reported men as the perpetrator, followed by 30% reporting women as perpetrator, and 21% reporting both men and women as perpetrator. Although the present study is in agreement with the finding of Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) in that more men than women are exclusively being reported as the perpetrator (see para 4.5), a much lower percentage of women (4%) were reported exclusively as the perpetrator in the present study, as well as fewer respondents (15%) reported both men and women as perpetrator in the present study.

Secondly, Hoel et al. (2001) reported that both men and women are being reported as the perpetrator in approximately the same numbers (28.5% and 32.3% respectively), whereas the results of the present study clearly showed that a much higher frequency of men (80%) compared to women (4%) were reported exclusively as the perpetrator.

This finding of the present study might be due to the imbalance in the ratio of men to women in the two participating organisations (see Tables 6, 7, and 8), in both the SANDF and Power Group are reported to be male dominated work environments.

It therefore partly support earlier research that suggest male dominated work environments are more hostile than those work environments predominately comprising of women (Hoel et al., 2001). It may also propose gender differences associated with aggression, in that men are more aggressive than women. Additionally, it may propose that stressful conditions in the workplace potentially make men more aggressive than women. Importantly, the present study largely confirms findings from previous research that both men and women are capable of bullying in the workplace, regardless of the frequencies reported.

The results of the present study also showed a small difference ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 4.73$, $p = .03$) between the SANDF and Power Group, related to the reported gender of the perpetrator. Women had been exclusively reported as perpetrators of workplace bullying only by respondents from the SANDF. This might be due to the organisational culture of the SANDF, in which women are continuously being compared to men, especially with regard to their physical and aggressive state. This might predispose women to become perpetrators of workplace bullying as they set out to become just as physical, tough, and aggressive as men.

Furthermore, consistent with previous research (e.g., Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Hoel et al., 2001; Johnson & Rea, 2009; Tuckey et al., 2009) the present study found that those in a leadership position were commonly reported as the perpetrator (see para 4.5). As a result, this finding supports the view that power imbalance between the victim and perpetrator forms part of workplace bullying. A possible explanation why those in leadership positions are commonly being reported as perpetrators could be their abuse of legitimate authority and power. Those in a position of authority normally have control over things such as the allocation of resources and decision making in the workplace, which could be used as an instrument through which they bully others. As a result, those dependent on the resources and decision making power of the superior might tolerate or allow the bullying to occur, as a means of ensuring a favourable allocation of resources and decision making is acquired from the superior.

Importantly, despite those in leadership positions being frequently reported as the perpetrator, the results of the present study are in agreement with previous research (e.g., Glaso, et al., 2011; Hoel et al., 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2011; Ortega et al., 2011) in that perpetrators can also be in the form a colleague/peer, subordinate or client (see para 4.5). This finding suggests that perpetrators of workplace bullying can be found on any organisational level.

In answering the question “who is being identified and reported as being the perpetrator of workplace bullying” the present study found that men and those in leadership positions are frequently reported as the perpetrator.

Akin to everyone being vulnerable to being a victim of workplace bullying, so are they also capable of being a perpetrator. With regard to self-labelled perpetrators, results from the present study are consistent with previous research (e.g., Coyne et al., 2003; Hauge et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 2009) in that it demonstrated that respondents will in some instances acknowledge being a perpetrator of workplace bullying themselves (see para 4.5). Interesting, 10% of respondents reported they might be both perpetrator and victim, whereas 6% reported maybe being the perpetrator, and 2% reporting with certainty being the perpetrator. This might suggest that those being subjected to bullying in the workplace may also start bullying others as a means of eradicating their frustration and resentment.

Additionally, men were also found to report a higher frequency of being a potential perpetrator of workplace bullying than women in the present study. This finding might suggest that men are more likely to admit to being a perpetrator of workplace bullying than women, which might also be explained by their manly attitude.

5.6 Risk groups

The present study also aimed to determine whether or not any particular risk groups could be identified with regards to gender, age, ethnicity, levels of responsibility, and education. It should be noted that only instances where significant differences for either the SANDF or Power Group exist will be discussed in conjunction with the total sample. Where no specific factor is discussed for either the SANDF or Power Group will imply the absence of any significant difference for the particular work environment.

5.6.1 Gender and workplace bullying

The findings of the present study contradicts the findings of two previous South African studies (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Steinman, 2003), but are consistent with the findings of Pietersen (2007) and Johnson and Rea (2009) in that no particular risk group were identified (see para 2.5.4). The present study found no significant difference between men and women ($\chi^2 (df=1) = 3.22, p = .07$) in their reported victimization, and supports the notion that an equal proportion of men and women are being bullied in the workplace (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Glaso et al., 2011; Vartia, 1996).

However, it does not support the notion that employees representing the minority gender group in the workplace are often more vulnerable and exposed to workplace bullying (Salin, 2001). A possible explanation for this finding is that women are becoming more represented in managerial positions, since those in leadership positions are frequently being reported as the perpetrator (see para 4.5), and that men and women are becoming equally exposed to workplace bullying. Perpetrators of workplace bullying are thus not particular concerned with the gender of their target. Additionally, it might also indicate that gender differences in the workplace are becoming lesser in that both men and women are represented in approximately equal proportions through the organisation.

5.6.2 Age and workplace bullying

In a recent South African study Cunniff and Mostert (2012) reported that younger employees are more vulnerable to workplace bullying, whereas in an earlier Norwegian study Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) reported that older employees are more vulnerable to workplace bullying. Consistent with most international studies (e.g., Johnson & Rea, 2009; Keuskamp et al., 2012), the present study found no significant difference ($F(df=1,18) = 1.27, p = .26$) between age and the experience of workplace bullying, in the process contradicting the findings of Cunniff and Mostert (2012) and Einarsen and Skogstad (1996). This finding confirms that both young and old employees are equally vulnerable to workplace bullying.

A possible explanation would be because young and old employees have different organisational goals, which could make them susceptible to workplace bullying. For example, young employees most often still need to establish themselves in the organisation and are normally very ambitious. This could make them to become a target of workplace bullying as their presence and noticeable ambition in the workplace can be perceived as threatening by several others. Equally, older employees might be considered somewhat conservative as they cling on to organisational traditions and practices, which might delay organisational change and adaptation requirements in contemporary life. As a result, they might be bullied as a means of forcing them to leave the organisation through early retirement or resignation.

5.6.3 Ethnicity and workplace bullying

The results of the present study show no significant difference ($\chi^2(df=2) = 4.03, p = .13$) between ethnic groups and their vulnerability to workplace bullying. A United States study with 249 nurses also reported no difference among ethnic groups and their exposure to workplace bullying (Johnson & Rea, 2009).

The present study contradicts another South African study, which found that an ethnic majority group reported the greatest frequency of workplace bullying (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). Additionally, the present study also does not support the notion that ethnic minorities are more vulnerable to workplace bullying (Archer, 1999; Fox & Stallworth, 2005).

A possible explanation could be that ethnic differences in the Western Cape is less of a factor in the workplace bullying relationship, as compared to other South African provinces (e.g. Cunniff & Mostert, 2012). This implies that not much emphasis is placed on ethnic differences in the Western Cape workplace and that employees are treated equally when it comes to bullying others.

5.6.4 Level of responsibility and workplace bullying

Research suggests that lower level employees experience the highest levels of workplace bullying (e.g., Keuskamp et al., 2012; Salin, 2001). In comparison, the present study, as well as other international studies (e.g., Johnson & Rea, 2009), found no significant difference ($\chi^2 (df=2) = 4.44, p = .11$) with regard to level of responsibility. However, in the case of Power Group the present study found that employees with a supervisory responsibility reported the highest frequency (41%) of workplace bullying. One explanation could be that their middle management status makes them more vulnerable to experience workplace bullying as they could be bullied by both top management and those with managerial or no responsibility.

5.6.5 Education and workplace bullying

Consistent with previous South African research (Cunniff & Mostert, 2012), the present study found that for the total sample, and in the case of Power Group, those with a low level of qualification experience more workplace bullying than those with higher educational qualifications (see para 4.6 & 4.6.2).

A possible explanation could be that in the case of Power Group there is a higher emphasis on formal qualifications, which is necessitated by their operational requirements. Presumably a certain level of qualification is accompanied by a certain level of responsibility and authority in the organisation, which could imply that the higher the level of qualification of an individual the greater his responsibility and authority. This finding supports the notion that power differences emanate from various situational and contextual differences (Lester, 2009).

It should be noted that the SANDF units that participated in the present study are not particularly technical or specialised working environments, as compared to Power Group. This could possibly explain why there is no significant difference (see para 4.6.1) between the levels of education for the SANDF. International research have also found no significant between various levels of education (Johnson & Rea, 2009), as well as that employees with a university education experience more workplace bullying (Keuskamp et al., 2012).

In answering the question “can particular risk groups be identified?” the present study clearly demonstrated that workplace bullying is largely not restraint or sensitive to gender, age, ethnicity, level of responsibility, and education in the Western Cape workplace. Additionally, this might be suggestive that perpetrators of workplace bullying are not concerned with any of the aforementioned aspects when bullying others. It therefore emphasises the notion that everyone is susceptible to workplace bullying regardless of the aforementioned aspects.

5.7 Organisational and individual responses to workplace bullying

The results of the present study (see para 4.7) show that in the case of the SANDF incidents of workplace bullying is left unaddressed, whereas in Power Group workplace bullying is being addressed.

A possible reason why incidents of workplace bullying are not being addressed in the SANDF might be because it is rarely being reported in the organisation (see para 4.7.1). This might be due to a sense of embarrassment by employees if they do report incidents of workplace bullying (Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001), especially in an organisation like the SANDF where everyone is thought to be tough. It might be that employees in the SANDF are expected to be able to deal with or tolerate incidents of workplace bullying. Alternatively, workplace bullying might also be left unaddressed in the SANDF due to nepotism, based on some kind of relationship between the perpetrator and those expected to reprimand or confront the perpetrator. In fact, this might be the case for a variety of workplaces where incidents of workplace bullying is not addressed. On the other hand, an organisation like Power Group cannot afford to allow incidents of workplace bullying flourish in its work environment due to negative effect the phenomenon have on the organisation (see para 2.10).

In answering the question “are incidents of workplace bullying being managed in these organisations” the results of the present study clearly show that in the SANDF incidents of workplace bullying is left unaddressed the majority of time, whilst in Power Group it is being addressed more regularly. The results of the present study clearly showed that incidents of workplace bullying are being reported to either a supervisor, another authority figure in the workplace, or a colleague/peer (see para 4.7).

Moreover, the present study found that most of the time when incidents of workplace bullying are being reported it is being ignored (48%) in the workplace, respondents being told to deal with it on their own (22%), or respondents being considered weak (16%) for not being able to deal with the bullying. A possible reason for the deficient response to incidents of workplace bullying on the part of the organisation or its leaders might be that those expected to deal with workplace bullying lack the required self-confidence and/or integrity to confront and challenge the perpetrator.

It is thus not surprising that the present study found that in most instances incidents of workplace bullying are also being reported to someone outside the workplace, in the form of a close family member or friend. This might be the case because family and friends provide the victim or observer of workplace bullying with some comfort, which is absent in the workplace. Family and friends might be the only people that really listen to the victim or observer of workplace bullying, and provide them with some encouragement and advice.

In answering the question “are incidents of workplace bullying being reported in these organisations” the present study showed that incidents of workplace bullying are being reported to various figures in the organisations, even outside the organisations. However, what remains a great concern is the response following a reported case of workplace bullying.

5.8 Organisational workplace bullying policies

The results of the present study (see para 4.8) show that there is no workplace bullying policy in the SANDF and Power, respectively. This is considered factual if one takes into account the total number of respondents that indicated they are “Not aware” (51% for the SANDF, 51% for Power Group) whether or not there is a workplace bullying policy in their workplaces, and those who reported “No” (46% for the SANDF, 34% for Power Group) there is not a workplace bullying policy in their workplaces.

There might be several reasons for the reported frequencies in the present study. Firstly, it is possible that there is a workplace bullying policy in SANDF and Power Group, but that the policy is poorly communicated to the entire workforce within the respective workplaces. Alternatively, the lack of legislative provision for workplace bullying in South Africa could arguably be the reason why there is no such policies in the workplace.

The fact that workplace bullying policies are debatably poorly communicated in the South African workplace, or that no such policy exist in the workplace, is an area of great concern. Often these policies provide the guiding principles and strategies for managing bullying in the workplace. Without such policies it is often difficult to detect incidents of workplace bullying and initiating ways of addressing it in the workplace.

5.9 Chapter conclusion

In this chapter the results of the present study was discussed in conjunction with the body of literature as presented in Chapter 2. Throughout the present chapter the results of the present study either supported the findings of preceding national and international workplace bullying research or provided information to the contrary. It was clearly demonstrated that regardless of the particular work environment and some apparent differences that might exist, workplace bullying is a serious psychosocial workplace problem in both the public and private workplace. Notably, regardless of the differences or similarities between the results of the present study and the findings of other studies, it is clear that workplace bullying is a serious psychosocial workplace problem in the Western Cape, which necessitates attention by both researchers and practitioners.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Conclusion

The primary aim of the present study was to establish the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in the Western Cape, South Africa. To ensure that this aim was achieved several secondary aims and research questions were formulated (see para 1.3) to guide the present study. It can be concluded that the present study was successful in achieving the aims and answering the research questions. Moreover, the present study provided information that nourishes our understanding of the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in the Western Cape, and essentially South Africa.

In light of the alarming statistics reported in the present study (Chapter 4) it is clear that workplace bullying is a serious psychosocial workplace problem in both the SANDF and Power Group, regardless of some differences. The relatively high prevalence rates of workplace bullying reported in the present study suggest that the Western Cape is one of the regions in which the risk of being a victim of workplace bullying is rather high. When considering the workplace bullying frequencies reported in earlier South African studies (see Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Steinman; 2003; Visagie et al., 2012), the present study supports the notion that workplace bullying is widespread in South Africa.

In line with previous research (see Iglesias & de Bengoa Vallejo, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2009; O'Driscoll et al., 2011), the present found that perpetrators of workplace bullying are reported to frequently engage in work-related bullying (see para 5.3), which is worrisome, because this makes it very difficult to detect incidents of bullying in the workplace. Organisational leaders thus require a good understanding of when work-related activities constitute workplace bullying.

The results from the present study suggest that workplace bullying is frequently experienced by victims for extended periods of time (see para 5.4). This potentially increases the victim's risk of experiencing several health problems (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Einarsen et al., 2003; Hoel et al., 2004; Leymann, 1990; Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Quine, 2003; Vartia, 1996; Zapf et al., 1996), which could subsequently negatively effect the organisation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; McMahon, 2000; Rayner, 1997; Tehrani, 1996). It is therefore essential for organisational leaders to initiate measures aimed directly at workplace bullying in order to ensure a healthy workforce and organisation.

Despite some apparent differences within and between the SANDF and Power Group, the results of the present study would suggest that everyone in these organisations is equally vulnerable to becoming a target or perpetrator of workplace bullying; despite some personal characteristic. This is considered an even greater concern since it vastly threatens employee and organisational well being. As a result, neither the SANDF nor Power Group can thus afford to neglect workplace bullying. The fact that men and superiors are mainly reported as the perpetrators of workplace bullying in the present study arguably supports the hypothesis of the expected masculine culture in South Africa.

Notably in the present study is the high frequency of respondents (see para 5.8) that were scored reporting that there is no workplace bullying policy in the SANDF and Power Group, respectively. Although the present study is tempted to generalise this finding to the wider South African workplace, such premise will not serve the epistemic ideal of science. It is thought that the deficient recognition workplace bullying receive in national legislation in South Africa is mainly the reason why there is no such policy in either the SANDF or Power Group. It is, however, an area of immense concern. A lack of recognition in national legislation does not necessarily have to imply a lack of workplace recognition for Workplace bullying, especially considering the negative affects the phenomenon have on the total organisation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011).

Organisations can thus still develop workplace bullying policies aimed at addressing the phenomenon even though it is not satisfactorily being addressed in national legislation.

Lastly, the present study contributes to discussions on workplace bullying by studying the phenomenon in a South African context and contrast the findings of the present study with previous national and international research.

6.2 Limitations of the present study

Parallel to all studies, the present study had some limitations that should be noted. Firstly, the present study did not obtain the desired sample size from both the SANDF and Power Group, mainly due to the busy schedule of employees and the sensitive nature of the topic. As a result, the study had a moderate sample from which data were collected. However, the results of the present study still yielded valuable information regarding the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in the SANDF and Power Group, and essentially the Western Cape workplace.

Secondly, the study was undertaken in two distinct workplaces in the Western Cape. The likelihood of generalising the findings of the present study to other workplaces in the Western Cape, and South Africa for that matter, are limited. For example, one can debatably expect to find that work-related bullying behaviours are being used by perpetrators in several workplaces; however, one cannot conclude that similar frequencies as reported in the present study would be found across workplaces in the Western Cape. However, as previously pointed, in conjunction with other South African studies, the present study supports the notion that workplace bullying is widespread in the country.

Thirdly, the present study relied mainly on the subjective perceptions of individuals. Although respondents are trusted to be honest and open in their responses there still remains the possibility of some bias in their responses. It is expected that some respondents will exacerbate their exposure to workplace bullying, whereas others may alleviate theirs. Consequently, influencing the frequencies reported in the present study. It is thus difficult to get objective data regarding the nature and prevalence of workplace bullying in any setting.

Moreover, there is also the possibility of a disproportionate participation of victims and non-victims of workplace bullying from the SANDF and Power Group in the present study. For example, it might be that mainly victims of workplace bullying in the two participating organisations have volunteered to participate in the present study as a way of expressing their discomfort and frustration, whereas most non-victims might have opted not to participate in the present study due to their conviction that they are not affected by workplace bullying. Lastly, the nature of the present study is a limitation in itself. As a descriptive study it does not shed light on causation.

6.3 Recommendations

The present study provided some disturbing statistics on the nature and prevalence of bullying in the SANDF and Power Group workplaces in the Western Cape. Based on these statistics several recommendations are made to organisational leaders in both the SANDF and Power Group in order to effectively manage workplace bullying in their respective workplaces.

Firstly, it is essential to educate the entire workforce about workplace bullying. This will enable employees on all organisational levels to identify behaviour associated with workplace bullying. More importantly, employees will be in a position to determine whether or not work-related activities are being used as a means of bullying others in the workplace.

In agreement with previous research, the present study found that those in leadership positions is frequently being reported as the perpetrator (see para 4.5 & 5.5). It is therefore imperative for employees with leadership responsibilities in both the SANDF and Power Group to lead by example. They should more frequently display leadership characteristics that others in the workplace will label as admiral leadership.

Thirdly, it is imperative for the SANDF and Power Group to construct a workplace policy specifically designed to deal with workplace bullying in the organisation. Such policy will provide the much needed guiding principles for managing workplace bullying in the respective organisation. Moreover, it will also serve as an educational tool in the organisation as it should also provide information on workplace bullying behaviour that is normally not easily recognised.

The results of the present study (see para 4.7) clearly showed incidents of workplace bullying are commonly being ignored. It is thus important that the organisation ensure that the workplace bullying policy or guidelines that are being put in place is being enforced, regardless of a personal relationship with the perpetrators and his formal position or authority. This will create awareness in the organisation that workplace bullying behaviours on any organisational level will not be tolerated. It will also encourage victims and bystanders of workplace bullying to speak out.

Workplace bullying is a sensitive matter for many employees, which is not easily shared with others. Victims of workplace bullying might refrain from sharing their experiences with others due to their sense of embarrassment (Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001). Moreover, those individuals with whom the victim of workplace bullying does share their experiences with might not be in a position to effectively deal with the issue. The organisation thus needs to provide victims of workplace bullying with suitable personnel (e.g. counsellors) with whom they can share their experiences with in a confidential and safe environment.

Parallel to the recommendations made to the SANDF and Power Group, the present study also proposes several recommendations for future research, particularly in a South African context. In collaboration with other South African workplace bullying research (e.g., Cunniff & Mostert, 2012; Steinman; 2003; Visagie et al., 2012), the results of the present study support the notion that workplace bullying is widespread in South Africa. Having established the prevalence of the phenomenon in the South African workplace, future research on workplace bullying in the country should start focussing on the effects thereof on the total organisation in South Africa. This will provide insight on just how damaging workplace bullying is in the South African environment.

Secondly, future research should also focus on preventative measures aimed directly at combating workplace bullying in a South African context. For example, research should address the legality of workplace bullying in South Africa, as well as the importance of addressing workplace bullying under a distinct legislative provision. Moreover, it should also suggest suitable tools and techniques for managing workplace bullying in South African organisations.

The results of the present study clearly showed that workplace bullying is more prevalent in the SANDF than Power Group (see para 4.3). There is thus a need for further enquiry into the organisational culture and climate in which workplace bullying occur. This is to determine whether or not a particular organisational culture and climate in South Africa contribute to the prevalence of workplace bullying.

REFERENCES

- Adams, A. (1997). Bullying at work. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7(3), 177-180.
- Agervold, M., & Mikkelsen, E.G. (2004). Relationship between bullying, psychological work environment and individual stress reactions. *Work and Stress*, 18(4), 336-351.
- Archer, D. (1999). Exploring “bullying” culture in the para-military organisation. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 94-105.
- Ashforth, B. (1994). Petty tyranny in organizations. *Human Relations*, 47(7), 755–778.
- Astrauskaitė, M., Perminas, A., & Kern, R.M. (2010). Sickness, colleagues' harassment in teachers' work and emotional exhaustion. *Medicina (Kaunas)*, 46(9), 628-634.
- Ayoko, O.B., Callan, V.J., & Hartel, C.E.J. (2003). Workplace conflict, bullying and counterproductive behaviours. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(4), 283-301.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The Practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2004). *The Practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Babbie, E., Mouton, J., Vorster, P., & Prozesky, B. (2007). *The Practice of Social Research: South African Edition*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Baillien, E., & De Witte, H. (2009). Why is organizational change related to workplace bullying? Role conflict and job insecurity as mediators. *Economic and Industrial Democracy*, 30(3), 348-371.
- Baillien, E., Neyens, I., De Witte, H., & De Cuyper, N. (2009). A qualitative study on the development of workplace bullying: Towards a three way model. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 19(1), 1-16.

- Baron, R.A., & Neuman, J.H. (1996). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence on their relative frequency and potential causes. *Aggressive Behavior*, 22(3), 161-173.
- Bartlett, J.E., & Bartlett, M.E. (2011). Workplace bullying: An integrative literature review. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13(1), 69-84.
- Bentley, T.A., Catley, B., Cooper-Thomas, H., Gardner, D., O'Driscoll, M.P., Dale, A., & Trenberth, L. (2012). Perceptions of workplace bullying in the New Zealand travel industry: Prevalence and management strategies. *Tourism Management*, 33, 351-360.
- Berry, P.A., Gillespie, G.L., Gates, D., & Schafer, J. (2012). Novice nurse productivity following workplace bullying. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 44(1), 80-87.
- Besag, V. (1989). *Bullies and their Victims in Schools*. Milton: Open University Press.
- Bjorkqvist, K., Osterman, K., & Hjelt-Back, M. (1994). Aggression among university employees. *Aggressive Behavior*, 20(3), 173-184.
- Bond, S.A., Tuckey, M.R., & Dollard, M.F. (2010). Psychosocial safety climate, workplace bullying, and symptoms of posttraumatic stress. *Organizational Development Journal*, 18(1), 37-56.
- Botha, W. (2008). *Developing an understanding of bullying targets' experience of and coping with abusive workplace situations*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Johannesburg, Johannesburg.
- Bourke, S., & Burgman, I. (2010). Coping with bullying in Australian schools: How children with disabilities experience support from friends, parents and teachers. *Disability & Society*, 25(3), 359-371.
- Bowling, N.A., & Beehr, T.A. (2006). Workplace harassment from the victim's perspective: A theoretical model and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(5), 998-1012.
- Brodsky, C.M. (1976). *The Harassed Worker*. Toronto: Lexington Books.

- Bultena, C.D., & Whatcott, R.B. (2008). Bushwhacked at work: A comparative analysis of mobbing and bullying at work. *Proceedings of ASBBS*, 15(1), 652-666.
- Cortina, L.M., Magley, V.J., Williams, J.H., & Langhout, R.D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64-80.
- Cowie, H., Naylor, P., Rivers, I., Smith, P.K., & Pereira, B. (2002). Measuring workplace bullying. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 7, 33-51.
- Coyne, I., Chong, P.S.L., Seigne, E., & Randall, P. (2003). Self and peer nominations of bullying: An analysis of incident rates, individual differences, and perceptions of the working environment. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 12(3), 209-228.
- Coyne, I., Seigne, E., & Randall, P. (2000). Predicting workplace victim status from personality. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 9(3), 335-349.
- Crick, N.R., & Grotpeter, J.K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, 66(3), 723-738.
- Cunniff, L., & Mostert, K. (2012). Prevalence of workplace bullying of South African employees. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(1), 450-465.
- De Wet, C. (2005). The nature and extent of bullying in Free State secondary schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 25(2), 82-88.
- De Wet, C. (2006). Free State educator's experiences and recognition of bullying at schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(1), 61-73.
- De Wet, C. (2007). Educators' perceptions on bullying prevention strategies. *South African Journal of Education*, 27(2), 191-208.
- Djurkovic, N., McCormack, D., & Casimir, G. (2006). Neuroticism and the psychosomatic model of workplace bullying. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(1), 73-88.

- Egan, K. (2005). Training and Risk Management for Psychological Injury. Retrieved September 18, 2009, from http://unionsafe.labor.net.au/safety_reps/files/Keryl_Egan_Clinical_Psychologist.ppt
- Einarsen, S. (1999). The nature and causes of bullying at work. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 16-27.
- Einarsen, S. (2000). Harassment and bullying at work: A review of the Scandinavian approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 5(4), 379-401.
- Einarsen, S., Aasland, M.S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18(3), 207-216.
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. *Work and Stress*, 23(1), 24-44.
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, C.L. (2003). The concept of bullying at work: The European tradition. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf, & C. L. Cooper. (Eds.), *Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace: International Perspectives in Research and Practice* (pp. 3-39). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Einarsen, S., & Nielsen, M.B. (Eds.). (2004). *The Fourth International Conference on Bullying and Harassment in the Workplace*. Bergen: Department of Psychosocial Science.
- Einarsen, S., & Raknes, B.I. (1997). Harassment in the workplace and the victimization of men. *Violence and Victims*, 12, 247-263.
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B.I., & Matthiesen, S.B. (1994). Bullying and harassment at work and their relationship to work environment quality: An exploratory study. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, 4(4), 381-401.
- Einarsen, S., Raknes, B.I., Matthiesen, S.B., & Hellesoy, O.H. (1994). *Mobbing og Harde Personkonflikter. Helsefarlig Samspill på Arbeidsplassen* [Bullying and Tough Interpersonal Conflicts: Health Injurious Interaction at the Workplace]. Bergen: Sigma Forlag.

- Einarsen, S., & Skogstad, A. (1996). Bullying at work: Epidemiological findings in public and private organisations. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5*(2), 185-201.
- Eriksen, W., & Einarsen, S. (2004). Gender minority as a risk factor of exposure to bullying at work: The case of male assistance nurses. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology, 13*(4), 473-492.
- Felblinger, D.M. (2008). Incivility and bullying in the workplace and nurses shame responses. *Journal of Obstetric, Gynecologic, and Neonatal Nursing, 37*(2), 234– 242.
- Finne, L.B., Knardhal, S., & Lau, B. (2011). Workplace bullying and mental distress – A prospective study of Norwegian employees. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 37*(4), 276-287.
- Fox, S., & Stallworth, L.E. (2005). Racial/ethnic bullying: Exploring links between bullying and racism in the U.S. workplace. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 66*(3), 438-456.
- Fox, S., & Stallworth, L.E. (2009). Building a framework for two internal organizational approaches to resolve and preventing workplace bullying: Alternative dispute resolution and training. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Research and Practice, 61*(3), 220-241.
- Garandau, C.F., & Cillessen, A.H.N. (2006). From indirect aggression to invisible aggression: A conceptual view on bullying and peer group manipulation. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 11*(6), 612-625.
- Giorgi, G. (2010). Workplace bullying partially mediate the climate-health relationship. *Journal of Management Psychology, 25*(7), 727-740.
- Glaso, L., Bele, E., Nielsen, M.B., & Einarsen, S. (2011). Bus drivers' exposure to bullying at work: An occupational-specific approach. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 52*, 484-493.
- Glendinning, P.M. (2001). Workplace bullying: Curing the cancer of the American workplace. *Public Personnel Management, 30*(3), 269-286.
- Grawshaw, L. (2009). Workplace bullying? Mobbing? Harassment? Distractions by a thousand definitions. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 61*(3), 263-267.

- Groeblichhoff, D., & Becker, M. (1996). A case study of mobbing and the clinical treatment of mobbing victims. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 277-294.
- Grubb, P. (2004, June). *Workplace Psychological Aggression: Types of Aggression and Organizational Policies in a Representative Sample of U.S. Companies*. Paper presented at The Fourth International Conference on Bullying and Harassment in the Workplace, Bergen, Norway.
- Hansen, A.M., Høgh, A., & Persson, R. (2011). Frequency of bullying at work, physiological response, and mental health. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 70, 19-27.
- Hauge, L.J., Skogstad, A., & Einarsen, S. (2007). Relationship between stressful work environments and bullying: Results of a large representative study. *Work and Stress*, 21(3), 220-242.
- Hauge, L.J., Skogstad, A., & Einarsen, S. (2009). Individual and situational predictors of workplace bullying: Why do perpetrators engage in the bullying of others? *Work & Stress*, 23(4), 349-358.
- Hoel, H., Borg, V., & Mikkelsen, K.L. (2003). Work-related violence as a predictor of fatigue: A 5-year follow-up of the Danish work environment cohort study. *Work and Stress*, 17(2), 182-194.
- Hoel, H., & Cooper, C.L. (2000). *Destructive Conflict and Bullying at Work*. Retrieved October 10, 2009, from www.le.ac.uk/unions/aut/umist1.pdf
- Hoel, H., Cooper, C.L., & Faragher, B. (2001). The experience of bullying in Great Britain: The impact of organizational status. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 443–465.
- Hoel, H., Faragher, B., & Cooper, C.L. (2004). Bullying is detrimental to health, but all bullying behaviors are not necessarily equally damaging. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 32(3), 367-387.
- Hofstede, G.H. (1980). *Culture's Consequences*. New York: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G.H. (2001). *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviours, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications

- Hogh, A., & Dofradottir, A. (2001). Coping with bullying in the workplace. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 10*(4), 485–495.
- Hubert, A.B., & Van Veldhoven, M. (2001). Risk sectors for undesirable behaviour and mobbing. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology, 10*(4), 415-424.
- Hutchinson, M., Vickers, M.H., Jackson, D., & Wilkes, L. (2010a) Bullying as circuits of power. *Administrative Theories & Praxis, 32*(1), 25-47.
- Hutchinson M., Vickers, M.H., Jackson, D., & Wilkes, L. (2010b) Integrating individual, work group, and organizational level factors: Testing a multidimensional model of bullying in the nursing workplace. *Journal of Nursing Management, 18*, 173–181.
- Iglesias, M.E.L., & de Bengoa Vallejo, R.N. (2012). Prevalence of bullying at work and its association with self-esteem scores in a Spanish nurse sample. *Contemporary Nurse, 42*(1), 2-10.
- Jimenez, B.M., Munoz, A.R., Gamarra, M.M., & Herrer, M.G. (2007). Assessing workplace bullying: Spanish validation of a reduced version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology, 10*(2), 449-457.
- Johnson, S.L. (2011). An ecological model of workplace bullying: A guide for intervention and research. *Nursing Forum, 46*(2), 55-63.
- Johnson, S.L., & Rea, R.E. (2009). Workplace bullying: Concerns for nurse leaders. *The Journal of Nursing Administration, 39*(2), 84-90.
- Keashly, L. (1998). Emotional abuse in the workplace: Conceptual and empirical issues. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 1*(1), 85–117.
- Keashly, L., & Jagatic, K. (2003). By any other name: American perspective on workplace bullying. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf, & C. L. Cooper. (Eds.). *Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace: International Perspectives in Research and Practice* (pp. 31-61). London: Taylor & Francis.

- Keashly, L., Trott, V., & MacLean, L.M. (1994). Abusive behavior in the workplace: A preliminary Investigation. *Violence and Victims*, 9(4), 341–357.
- Kelly, D. (2005). Review of workplace bullying: Strengthening approaching to a complex phenomenon. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety, Australia and Zealand*, 26(1), 551-564.
- Keuskamp, D., Ziersch, A.M., Baum, F.E., & LaMontagne, A.D. (2012). Workplace bullying a risk for permanent employees. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 36(2), 116-119.
- Kile, S. M. (1990). *Helsefarlige ledere og medarbeidere* (Health-endangering leaders and coworkers). Oslo, Norway: Hjemmets Bokforlag.
- Kitt, J. (2004, May 12). Workplace bullying: An overview. *The Mandate Trade Union News*, pp. 6-13.
- Kivimaki, M., Virtanen, M., Vartia, M., Elovainio, M., Vahtera, J., & Kelikangas-Jarvinen, L. (2003). Workplace bullying and the risk of cardiovascular disease and depression. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 60(10), 779-783.
- Kyriakides, L., Kaloyirou, C., & Lindsay, G. (2006). An analysis of the revised Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire using the Rasch measurement model. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76, 781-801.
- Labour Protect. (2012a). *Discrimination*. Retrieved February 05, 2012, from www.labourprotect.co.za/nature_discrimination.htm
- Labour Protect. (2012b). *Code of Good Practice – Sexual Harassment*. Retrieved February 05, 2012, from http://www.labourprotect.co.za/sexual_harassment.htm
- Labour Protect. (2012c). *Harassment*. Retrieved February 05, 2012, from <http://www.labourprotect.co.za/harassment.htm>
- Lester, J. (2009). Not your child's playground: Workplace bullying among community college faculty. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 33, 444-462.

- Lewis, D. (2004). Bullying at work: The impact of shame among university and college lecturers. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 23(3), 281-300.
- Lewis, D., & Gunn, R. (2007). Workplace bullying in the public sector: Understanding the racial dimensions. *Public Administration*, 85(3), 641-665.
- Lewis, D., Sheeman, M., & Davies, C. (2008). Uncovering workplace bullying. *Journal of Workplace Rights*, 13(3), 281-301.
- Leymann, H. (1986). *Vuxenmobbing—om psykiskt vAld I arbetslivet* (Mobbing-psychological violence at work places). Lund: Studentlitteratur.
- Leymann, H. (1990). Mobbing and psychological terror at work. *Violence and Victims*, 5(2), 119-126.
- Leymann, H. (1996). The content development of mobbing at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 165-184.
- Leymann, H., & Gustafsson, A. (1996). Mobbing at work and the development of post-traumatic stress disorder. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 251-275.
- Leymann, H., & Tallgren, U. (1989). Undersokning av frekven-sen vuxenmobbing inom SSAB (A study of mobbing frequencies at SABB). *Arbete, miinniska, miljö*, 1, 11a-12.
- Liefooghe, A.P.D., & Davey, K.M. (2001). Accounts of workplace bullying: The role of the organization. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 375-392.
- Lobiondo-Wood, G., & Haber, J. (1998). *Nursing Research: Methods, Critical Appraisal, and Utilization* (4th ed.). St. Louis, MO: Mosby.
- Lovell, B.L., & Lee, R.T. (2011). Impact of workplace bullying on emotional and physical well-being: A longitudinal collective case study. *Journal of Aggression, Maltreatment & Trauma*, 20, 344-357.

- Lutgen-Sandvik, P., Tracy, S.J., & Alberts, J.K. (2007). Burned by bullying in the American workplace: Prevalence, perception, degree and impact. *Journal of Management Studies*, 44(6), 837-862.
- MacIntosh, J. (2005). Experiences of workplace bullying in a rural area. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 26(9), 893-910.
- Marks, M.L., & De Meuse, K.P. (2005). Resizing the organization: Maximizing the gain while minimizing the pain of layoffs, divestitures and closings. *Organizational Dynamics*, 34(1), 19-35.
- Matthiesen, S.B., & Einarsen, S. (2001). MMPI-2 configurations among victims of bullying at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 467-484.
- Matthiesen, S.B., & Einarsen, S. (2007) Perpetrators and targets of bullying at work: Role stress and individual differences. *Violence and Victims*, 22(6), 735–753.
- Matthiesen, S. B., Raknes, B. I., & Rokkum, O. (1989). Mobbing pa arbeidsplassen [Bullying at work]. *Tidsskrift for Norsk Psykologforening*, 26, 761–774.
- Mayhew, C., (2007). Young workers at risk: Overlaps between initiation rights, pranks, bullying, sexual harassment and occupational violence. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety, Australia and Zealand*, 23(4), 333-341.
- Mayhew, C., McCarthy, P., Chappell, D., Quinlan, M., Barker, M., & Sheehan, M. (2004). Measuring the extent of impact from occupational violence and bullying in traumatised workers. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 16(3), 117-134.
- McGuckin, C., Lewis, C.A., & Shevlin, M. (2001, May). *The Impact of Workplace Bullying on the Self-esteem of Nurses*. Paper presented at the 10th European Congress on Work and Organizational Psychology, Phara, Norway
- McKay, R., Arnold, D.H., Fratzi, J., & Thomas, R. (2008). Workplace bullying in academia: A Canadian study. *Employ Response Rights Journal*, 20, 77-100.

- McMahon, L. (2000). Bullying and harassment in the workplace. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(6), 384-387.
- Mikkelsen, E. G., & Einarsen, S. (2001). Bullying in Danish work-life: Prevalence and health correlates. *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 10(4), 393-413.
- Mikkelsen, E.G., & Einarsen, S. (2002a). Basic assumptions and symptoms of post-traumatic stress among victims of bullying at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 11(1), 87-111.
- Mikkelsen, E.G., & Einarsen, S. (2002b). Relationships between exposure to bullying at work and psychological and psychosomatic health complaints: The role of state negative affectivity and generalized self-efficacy. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 43(5), 397-405.
- Moayed, F.A., Daraiseh, N., Shell, R., & Salem, S. (2006). Workplace bullying: A systematic review of risk factors and outcomes. *Theoretical Issues in Ergonomics Science*, 7(3), 311-327.
- Momberg, M.A. (2011). *The prevalence and consequences of workplace bullying in South Africa*. Unpublished masters' thesis, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University, Port Elizabeth.
- Monks, C.P., Smith, P.K., Naylor, P., Barter, C., Ireland, J.L., & Coyne, I. (2009, January). Bullying in different contexts: Commonalities, differences and the role of theory. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 24, 156-156.
- Mouton, J. (1996). *Understanding Social Research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Namie, G. (2003, November/December). Workplace bullying: Escalating incivility. *Ivey Business Journal: Improving the Practice of Management*, 1-6.
- Namie, G. (2007). *Results of the 2007 WBI U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey*. Retrieved March 10, 2012, from www.workplacebullying.org/wbiresearch/wbi-2007/
- Namie, G., & Namie, R. (2009). U.S. workplace bullying: Some basic considerations and consultation interventions. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 61(3), 202-219.

- Nield, K. (1996). Mobbing and well-being: Economic and personnel development implications. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 239-249.
- Nielsen, M. B., Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2005). Leadership and interpersonal conflicts: Symptoms of posttraumatic stress among targets of bullying from supervisors. *Nordisk Psykologi*, 57(4), 391-415.
- Nielsen, M.B., Matthiesen, S.B., & Einarsen, S. (2008). Sense of coherence as a protective mechanism among targets of workplace bullying. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 13(2), 128-136.
- Nielsen, M.B., Skogstad, A., Matthiesen, S.B., Glaso, L., Aasland, M.S., Notelaers, G., & Einarsen, S. (2009). Prevalence of workplace bullying in Norway: Comparisons across time and estimation methods. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 18(1), 81-101.
- O'Driscoll, M.P., Cooper-Thomas, H.D., Bentley, T., Catley, B.E., Gardner, D.H., & Trenberth, L. (2011). Workplace bullying in New Zealand: A survey of employee perceptions and attitudes. *Asian Pacific Journal of Human Resource*, 49(4), 390-408.
- Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the Schools – Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Washington: Hemisphere Publishing Corporation.
- Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at School: What we know and what we can do*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Olweus, D. (2005). A useful evaluation design, and effects of the Olweus bullying prevention program. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 11(4), 389-402.
- O'Moore, M., Seyne, E., McGuire, C., & Smith, M. (1998). Victims of bullying at work in Ireland. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety, Australia and New Zealand*, 14(6), 569-574.
- Ortega, A., Christensen, K.B., Hogh, A., Rugulies, R., & Borg, V. (2011). One-year prospective study on the effect of workplace bullying on long-term sickness absence. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 19, 752-759.

- Ostvik, K., & Rudmin, F. (2001). Bullying and hazing among Norwegian army soldiers: Two studies of prevalence, context, and cognition. *Military Psychology, 13*(1), 1739.
- Parkins I., Fishbein H., & Ritchey N.P. (2006) The influence of personality on workplace bullying and discrimination. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(10), 25–54.
- Pietersen, C. (2007). Interpersonal bullying behaviours in the workplace. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 33*(1), 59-66.
- Pillay, J. (2004). Experience of learners from informal settlements. *South African Journal of Education, 24*(1), 5-9.
- Poilpot-Rocaboy, G. (2006). Bullying in the workplace: A proposed model for understanding the psychological harassment process. *Research and Practice in Human Resource Management, 14*(2), 1-17.
- Polit, D. F., & Hungler, B. P. (1999). *Nursing Research: Principles and Methods* (6th ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott.
- Porteous, J. (2002). Bullying at work – The legal position. *Managerial Law, 44*(4), 77-90.
- Quine, L. (2003). Workplace bullying, psychological distress, and job satisfaction in junior doctors. *Cambridge Quarterly of Healthcare Ethics, 12*(1), 91-101.
- Ramsey, R.D. (2002). Bullies in the workplace. *Supervision, 63*(3), 3-5.
- Randall, P. (1997). *Adult Bullying: Perpetrators and Victims*. New York: Routledge.
- Raskauskas, J.L., Gregory, J., Harvey, S.T., Rifshana, F., & Evans, I.M. (2010). Bullying among primary school children in New Zealand: Relationships with prosocial behaviour and classroom climate. *Education Research, 25*(1), 1-13.
- Rayner, C. (1997). The incidence of workplace bullying. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 7*(3), 249-255.

- Rayner, C., & Hoel, H. (1997). A summary review of literature relating to workplace bullying. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7(3), 181-191.
- Real, J. (2009). *The Bullying Cycle: Which Abuses Among Children are Some School Systems and Communities Trying to End?* Retrieved June 14, 2012, from <http://radicalprofeminist.blogspot.com/2009/12/bullying-cycle-which-abuses-among.html>
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1993). Occupation Health and Safety (Act no. 85 of 1993). *Government Gazette*, (14918).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1995). Labour Relations (Act no. 66 of 1995). *Government Gazette*, (1877).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1996). Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act no. 108 of 1996). *Government Gazette*, 378 (17678).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1997). Basic Conditions of Employment (Act no. 75 of 1997). *Government Gazette*, 390 (18491).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (1998). Skills Development (Act no. 97 of 1998). *Government Gazette*, 401 (19420).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA) (2000). Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination (Act no. 4 of 2000). *Government Gazette*, 416 (20876).
- Robinson, S., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behaviour of employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(6), 658-672.
- Roscigno, V.J., Lopez, S.H., & Hodson, R. (2009). Supervisory bullying, status inequalities and organizational context. *Social Forces*, 87(3), 1561-1589.
- Rose, M. (2012). *Bullying*. Retrieved June 14, 2012, from <http://lifeasahuman.com/2012/parenting/bullying/>
- Rycroft, A. (2009, July). Workplace Bullying: Unfair Discrimination. Dignity Violence or Unfair Labour Practice? *Industrial Law Journal*, 30, 1431-1450.

- Salin, D. (2001). Prevalence and forms of bullying among business professionals: A comparison of two different strategies for measuring bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 425–441.
- Salin, D. (2003). Ways of explaining workplace bullying. A review of enabling, motivating and precipitating structures and processes in the work environment. *Human Relations*, 56(10), 1213-1232.
- Salmivalli, C. (2010). Bullying and the peer group: a review. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 15, 112-120.
- Schein, E. (1985). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Seigne, E., Coyne, I., Randall, P., & Parker, J. (2007). Personality traits of bullies as a contributing factor in workplace bullying: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Organization Theory and Behavior*, 10(1), 118-132.
- Sheehan, M. (1999). Workplace bullying: Responding with some emotional Intelligence. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 57-69.
- Sherer, Y.C., & Nickerson, A.B. (2010). Anti-bullying practices in American schools: Perspectives of school psychologists. *Psychology in the Schools*, 47(3), 217-229.
- Simons, S.R., Stark, R.B., & DeMarco, R.F. (2011). A new, four-item instrument to measure workplace bullying. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 34, 132-140.
- Sims, R.L., & Sun, P. (2012). Witnessing workplace bullying and the Chinese manufacturing employee. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 27(1), 9-26.
- Skogstad, A., Matthiesen, S.B., & Einarsen, S. (2007). Organizational changes: A precursor of bullying at work? *International Journal of Organizational Theory and Behavior*, 10(1), 58-94.
- Smith, P.K. (1997). Bullying in life-span perspective: What can studies of school bullying and workplace bullying learn from each other? *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology*, 7, 249-255

- Steinman, S. (2003). *Workplace Violence in the Health Sector: Country Case Study South Africa*. Geneva: ILO/ICN/WHO/PSI.
- Swart, E., & Bredekamp, J. (2009). Non-physical bullying: Exploring the perspectives of Grade 5 girls. *South African Journal of Education*, 29(3), 405-425.
- Tehrani, N. (1996). The psychology of harassment. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 9(2), 101-118.
- Tepper, B.J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(2), 178-190.
- Thomas, M. (2005). Bullying among support staff in a higher education institution. *Health Education*, 105(4), 273-288.
- Thylefors, I. (1987). *Syndabockar. Om utstötning och mobbning i arbetslivet. (Scapegoats: Exclusion and bullying in worklife)*. Stockholm: Natur och Kultur.
- Townsend, L., Flisher, A.J., Chikobvu, P., Lombard, C., & King, G. (2008). The relationship between bullying behaviours and high school dropout in Cape Town, South Africa. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 38(1), 21-32.
- Tuckey, M.R., Dollard, M.F., Hosking, P.J., & Winefield, A.H. (2009). Workplace bullying: The role of psychosocial work environment factors. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 16(3), 215-232.
- Upton, L. (2010). *The impact of workplace bullying on individual and organisational well-being in a South African context and the role of coping as a moderator in the bullying – well-being relationship*. Unpublished masters' thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.
- Vakola, M., & Nikolaou, I. (2005). Attitudes towards organizational change. What is the role of employees' stress and commitment? *Employee Relations*, 27(2), 160-174.
- Van Schalkwyk, L.M., Els, C., & Rothmann, I. (2011). The moderating role of perceived organisational support in the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention across sectors in South Africa. *Journal of Resource Management*, 91(1), 384-387.

- Vartia, M. (1996). The sources of bullying – Psychological work environment and organizational climate. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 203-214.
- Vartia, M. (2001). Consequences of workplace bullying with respect to the well-being of its targets and the observers of bullying. *Scandinavian Journal of Environmental Health*, 27(1), 63-69.
- Vickers, M.H. (2010). The shifting sands of “acceptable” violence. *Administrative Theory & Praxis*, 32(1), 7-24.
- Vie, T.L., Glaso, L., & Einarsen, S. (2011). Health outcomes and self-labelling as a victim of workplace bullying. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 17, 37-43.
- Vie, T.L., Glaso, L., & Einarsen, S. (2012). How does it feel? Workplace bullying, emotions and musculoskeletal complaints. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 53, 165-173.
- Visagie, J.C., Havenga, W., Linde, H., & Botha, A. (2012). The prevalence of workplace bullying in a South African mining company. *South African Journal of Labour Relations*, 36(2), 62-75.
- Wiedmer, T.L., (2011, Winter). Workplace bullying: Costly and preventable. *Morality in Education*, 35-41.
- Wilson, C. B. (1991). U.S. businesses suffer from workplace trauma. *Personnel Journal*, 70(7), 47–50.
- Zapf, D. (1999). Organizational, work group related and personal causes of mobbing/bullying at work. *International Journal of Manpower*, 20(1/2), 70–85.
- Zapf, D., & Einarsen, S. (2001). Bullying in the workplace: Recent trends in research and practice – an introduction. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 369-373.
- Zapf, D., & Einarsen, S. (2003). Individual antecedents of bullying: Victims and perpetrators. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf, & C.L. Cooper (Eds.), *Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace: International Perspectives in Research and Practice* (pp. 165-184). London: Taylor & Francis.

- Zapf, D., & Einarsen, S. (2005). Mobbing at work: Escalating conflicts. In S. Fox, & P.E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive Workplace Behavior: Investigations of Actors and Targets* (pp. 237-270). Washington: American Psychological Association.
- Zapf, D., Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Vartia, M. (2003). Empirical findings on bullying in the workplace. In S. Einarsen, H. Hoel, D. Zapf, & C. L. Cooper. (Eds.), *Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace: International Perspectives in Research and Practice* (pp. 103-126). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Zapf, D., & Gross, C. (2001). Conflict escalation and coping with workplace bullying: A replication and extension. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 497-522.
- Zapf, D., Knorz, C., & Kulla, M. (1996). On the relationship between mobbing factors, and job content, social work environment, and health outcomes. *European Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 5(2), 215-237.

APPENDIX



WORKPLACE BULLYING IN THE WESTERN CAPE: A SOUTH AFRICAN STUDY

Investigators: Mr Donovan J. Kalamdien

I am conducting an investigation into the prevalence of workplace bullying within the South African work environment, specifically the Western Cape, in order to explore employees perception of the phenomenon within their work environment. Internationally the phenomenon has been widely researched. However, in South Africa workplace bullying has received very little attention despite its detrimental effect on employees and organisations. To conduct this study I require the voluntary participation of employees at various levels in the organisation. I hereby respectfully invite you to participate in my study. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. Your initial consent to participate in the study does not prohibit you from voluntarily discontinuing. You may withdraw from the study at any stage or time. The completion of the questionnaires will take approximately 45 minutes to complete. Your responses to the questionnaires will be completely anonymous, non-identifiable, and confidential. At no stage will any personal reference be made to any particular individual or organisation. The result of the study will be used in my Thesis and may be published in an academic or management journal, but only as group data and not as individual responses. Additionally, the results of my study could potentially emphasise the importance of recognising workplace bullying as a serious psychosocial workplace problem in South Africa that requires instantaneous attention. Furthermore, the results of my study could provide an indication to your specific workplace whether workplace bullying is present in the workplace or not, thus affording them the opportunity to respond accordingly to the results. I acknowledge that individuals who are subjected to bullying are by definition disenfranchised, vulnerable and often disempowered individuals. The study has the potential of engendering strong emotional feelings in some respondents. As a result, respondents who feel they require professional assistance due to the strong emotional feelings that were brought about as a result of the study could contact their local Social Workers at the Sick Bay. By ticking the tick box below you confirm that you have read and understand the information provided above and that you agree to voluntarily participate in the study under the stipulated conditions above.

Your participation and cooperation in this study is highly appreciated and valued. Thank you!!!!

PART 1
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Only tick one option under each question

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age:
 Specify: _____
3. What's your ethnic group?
 African
 White
 Coloured
 Other, specify: _____
4. What is your marital status?
 Single
 Married
 Divorced
 Widow (er)
 Living Together
 Separated
5. What's your highest level of education?
 Lower than grade 12
 Grade 12
 Certificate
 Diploma
 Degree
 Honours
 Masters
 Doctorate
6. What's your current employment status?
 Part-time, Specify tenure: _____
 Full-time
7. What's the type of your organisation
 Public
 Private
8. What is the size of your organisation?
 50-100 people 300-400 people
 100-150 people 400-500 people
 150-200 people 500-1000 people
 200-300 people
 More than 1000 people
9. What's the ratio of men to women in the organisation?
 100% M 60%M – 40%F
 100% F 40%F – 60%F
 50/50 Other; specify_____
10. How long have you been working in this company?
 6 months to one year
 1-5 years
 6-10 years
 11-15 years
 16-20 years
 longer than 20 years
11. What industry you working in?
 Defence Force
 Police Service
 Steel Processing
 Retail
 Telecommunication
 Construction / Engineering
 Education
 Manufacturing
 Other
12. What is the level of your responsibility in the company?
 No formal responsibility
 Team Leader
 Supervisor
 Manager
 Executive
 Owner/Partner
13. How diverse (ethnic) is your company?
 Not diverse at all
 Slightly diverse
 Moderately diverse
 Fully diverse

PART 2

During this part of the questionnaire workplace bullying will be defined. You will then be asked to keep the definition, as being provided below, in mind when responding to the questions under this section. Workplace bullying is defined as:

“situations where one or more persons are subjected to persistent and repetitive harmful negative or hostile acts (excluding once-off isolated incidents) by one or more other persons within his or her working environment (excluding incidents where two equally strong individuals come into conflict), and the person feels helpless and defenceless in the situation. The victim experiences the harmful negative and hostile acts repetitively and persistently for at least six months and as offensive. The intentionality of the perpetrator is irrelevant.”

Given the above definition please indicate the following:

1. Do you consider yourself to be a victim of bullying?
 Yes
No, Specify why not if any reason exist: _____

2. Why do you think you became a victim (are being bullied) of bullying in the organisation? Where possible do specify.
 My ethnic status, specify: _____

 My religion, specify: _____

 My age, specify: _____

 My level of experience, specify: _____

 My level of knowledge and education, specify: _____

 My tendency to go against the majority, specify: _____

 Other, specify: _____

3. If you consider yourself to be a victim of bullying how often have you been bullied during the last six months?
- Daily
 - Weekly
 - Monthly
 - If other, specify: _____
4. If you consider yourself to be a victim of bullying can you describe the duration you have been bullied.
- Less than 6 months
 - From 6 to 10 months
 - For about a year (12 months)
 - From 13 to 15 months
 - From 16 to 20 months
 - For more than two years (more than 24 months)
5. Have you witnessed or observed others being bullied within your work environment over the last six months?
- No, never
 - Yes, no and then
 - Yes, daily
 - Yes, weekly
 - Yes, monthly
6. What is the gender of the person who bullies you or others in the workplace? (*You may tick both if it is both*).
- Men
 - Women
7. By whom were you or others bullied in the workplace? (*You may tick both if it is both*).
- Supervisor/Manager
 - Colleagues
 - Subordinates
 - Customers/Clients
8. Is bullying being addressed in your organisation?
- No, never
 - Yes, now and then
 - Yes always
9. If you are being bullied, did you report the incident to someone? If not, why?
- No, never
 - Yes
 - If not, specify why: _____
-

10. If you are being bullied and reported the incident, to whom did you report it?
- Immediate superior/supervisor/manager
 - Colleague(s)
 - Subordinate
 - Another authority figure in the organisation who has influence in the workplace
 - Other, specify who _____
11. If you are being bullied, do you share the incident with anyone outside your workplace?
- No
 - Yes, with close family only
 - Yes, with close friends only
 - Yes, with close family and friends
 - Yes, someone other than close family or friends. Specify who _____
12. If you have reported incidents of bullying at work before what were the response after you have reported such incident?
- It was immediately addressed
 - It was ignored
 - I was told to deal and sort it out on my own
 - I was considered weak for not being able to sort it out on my own
 - Other, specify _____
13. Is there a bullying policy available inside your organisation?
- No
 - Yes
 - Not that I am aware of
14. According to the definition above, in your own opinion do you consider yourself to be the perpetrator and not the victim, or both?
- No
 - Yes
 - Both
 - Maybe the perpetrator
 - Maybe both
15. Is the bullying taking place in your immediate working environment or not?
- No; specify where: _____
 - Yes
16. Given the definition above, prior to reading the definition did you know that such behaviour and incidents constitute bullying?
- No
 - Yes

17. Prior to reading the definition above, were you aware that there was such a thing as workplace bullying?
- No, never
 - Yes
18. How would you define the organisational culture?
- Specify: _____
19. Do you associate yourself with the organisational culture? Where possible specify.
- No, specify why not: _____
 - Yes, specify why: _____

PART 3**Negative Acts Questionnaire**

(Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellesoy, 1994).

The following direct and indirect behaviours are often seen and regarded as negative behaviour in the workplace that's associated with workplace bullying. During the last six months how often have you been subjected and/or experienced the following negative acts at work?

Please cross out the number that best describe and correspond with your experience over the last six months

	1 <i>Never</i>	2 <i>Now and then</i>	3 <i>Daily</i>	4 <i>Weekly</i>	5 <i>Monthly</i>
1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance					1 2 3 4 5
2. Unwanted sexual attention					1 2 3 4 5
3. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work					1 2 3 4 5
4. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence					1 2 3 4 5
5. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks					1 2 3 4 5
6. Spreading of gossip and rumours about you					1 2 3 4 5
7. Being ignored, excluded or being 'sent to Coventry'					1 2 3 4 5
8. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life					1 2 3 4 5
9. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)					1 2 3 4 5
10. Intimidating behaviour such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way					1 2 3 4 5
11. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job					1 2 3 4 5
12. Threats of violence or physical abuse					1 2 3 4 5

<i>13. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>14. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>15. Persistent criticism of your work and effort</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>16. Having your opinions and views ignored</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>17. Insulting messages, telephone calls or e-mails</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>18. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>19. Systematically being required to carry out tasks which clearly fall outside your job descriptions, e.g. private errands</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>20. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>21. Having allegations made against you</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>22. Excessive monitoring of your work</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>23. Offensive remarks or behaviour with reference to your race or ethnicity</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>24. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>25. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>26. Threats of making your life difficult, e.g. over-time, night work, unpopular tasks</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>27. Attempts to find fault with your work</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>28. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>29. Being moved or transferred against your will</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>

PART 4**Work Harassment Scale**
(Bjorkqvist, Osterman & Hjelt-Back, 1994)

How often have you been exposed to degrading or oppressing activities by superiors, colleagues, subordinates or customers at work during the last six months? The activities clearly must have been experienced as a means of bullying/harassment, not as normal communication, or as exceptional occasions.

Please cross out the number that best describe and correspond with your experience over the last six months

	0 <i>Never</i>	1 <i>Seldom</i>	2 <i>occasionally</i>	3 <i>often</i>	4 <i>very often</i>
1. Unduly reduced opportunities to express yourself?					0 1 2 3 4
2. Lies about you told to others?					0 1 2 3 4
3. Being Unduly disrupted?					0 1 2 3 4
4. Being shouted at loudly?					0 1 2 3 4
5. Being unduly criticised?					0 1 2 3 4
6. Insulting comments about your private life?					0 1 2 3 4
7. Being isolated?					0 1 2 3 4
8. Having sensitive details about your private life revealed?					0 1 2 3 4
9. Direct threats?					0 1 2 3 4
10. Insinuating glances and/or negative gestures?					0 1 2 3 4
11. Accusations?					0 1 2 3 4
12. Being sneered at?					0 1 2 3 4
13. Refusal to speak with you?					0 1 2 3 4

<i>14. Belittling of your opinions?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>15. Refusal to hear you?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>16. Being treated as non-existent?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>17. Words aimed at hurting you?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>18. Being given meaningless tasks?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>19. Being given insulting tasks?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>20. Having malicious rumors spread behind your back?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>21. Being ridiculed in front of others?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>22. Having your work judged in an incorrect and insulting manner?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>23. Having your sense of judgement questioned?</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
24. Accusations of being mentally disturbed	0	1	2	3	4