

# **THE FOURTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON BULLYING AND HARASSMENT IN THE WORKPLACE**

**Bergen, Norway, June 28-29, 2004**

## **PROCEEDINGS**

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## PREFACE

On behalf of the organizing and program committee it is an honour and pleasure to welcome you all to the 4<sup>th</sup>. *International conference on bullying and harassment in the workplace*. During the late 1990's research into bullying, emotional abuse and harassment at work emerged as a new field of study in Europe, Australia, South Africa and the USA. However, research as well as practical knowledge in this field is still developing. Therefore the "4<sup>th</sup> *International conference on bullying and harassment in the workplace*" is a wonderful opportunity for us as researchers and professionals to present and discuss the latest developments when it comes to theory, empirical findings, methodological developments, and best practice in the field of bullying, harassment, discrimination, aggression and interpersonal conflict in organisations.

The conference is hosted by Department of Psychosocial Science at the University of Bergen, in collaboration with Birkbeck College University of London, and follows conferences in Stafford (1998), Brisbane (2000) and London (2002). In this proceeding you will find the abstracts from all the presentations at the conference as they were submitted to the conference. Altogether 4 keynotes, 39 oral presentations and 11 posters are included. Presentations of both research and practical experiences will be found among the contributions that expand a wide range of issues and problems in this area.

"*Bringing it forward*" is the slogan for the conference. We do hope the conference and this publication will further contribute to putting this important social problem firmly on the public agenda as well as establishing it as an important issue within the professional, scientific and political communities. However, "bringing it forward" first of all refers to our joint obligation and our collaborative effort in expanding the scientific and professional knowledge base in the areas of bullying, harassment, aggression and interpersonal conflict at work. It is only by sharing information and by discussing new findings and developments that we may truly contribute to the prevention and constructive management of these problems and to the healing of those individual and organizational wounds that may result from these potential problems.

We hope you enjoy the conference and that it will stimulate, encourage and motivate you all to keep on working in this important area.

Professor Ståle Einarsen  
Chair of the organising and programme committee

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# KEYNOTES

## **Violence and harassment in European workplaces: trends and political responses**

Helge Hoel

### *Introduction*

Workplace violence and harassment are receiving considerable and growing interest across Europe. Media coverage in most countries, although sporadic in its interest, has raised wider public awareness of the damage violence and harassment may do to those at the receiving end of such behaviours and of the price that may be paid by organisations which fail to take appropriate preventive action. This has also led to a plethora of initiatives and actions in the workplace and at a political level across Europe.

This presentation will provide an overview of the broader field of workplace violence with a particular focus on recent developments with respect to psychological violence and harassment, and how the issue is being handled politically within the context of the European Union and its member states. Empirical evidence is examined, emerging trends highlighted and some gaps in understanding the problem identified.

### *Problem overview*

In response to a report written for the European Parliament (European Parliament, 2001), the European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions was requested to gather information about the current situation with respect to violence and harassment in member-states, in order to provide a potential basis for statutory provisions for legal intervention, if necessary. Some of the key findings from this study (Di Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003), together with other recently published (and unpublished) material, are examined in the presentation.

The definition of violence at work agreed by the European Commission in 1995 (Wynne et al., 1997) can be considered somewhat of a landmark. Its broad scope with respect to types of hazard to consider, and their potential effects, made it possible to incorporate all forms of harassment which employees may encounter in the wider context of their work, whether physical or psychological in nature. However, from being predominantly preoccupied with physical violence, a move towards a greater emphasis on psychological violence and harassment is taking place throughout Europe (Di Martino, et al., 2003). A similar development can be traced in the activities and actions of several international bodies reflecting increased awareness at national level (European Working Conditions Observatory, 2004), and exemplified by the newly launched codes of practice for recognition and prevention of violence and harassment in the health care sector (ILO, ICN, WHO, PSI, 2002). Two factors appear to be central to current thinking: firstly, there is a focus on repeated behaviour or what may be considered a sequence of relatively minor acts. Secondly, the dignity of the recipients of harassment is at the centre of attention, thus extending the scope of health, safety and wellbeing at work (Di Martino et al., 2003).

A variety of terms is being used to address the problem of psychological violence at work in European countries, e.g. 'mobbing', 'bullying' and 'moral harassment'. In the same way as the term sexual harassment is imbued with meaning, suggesting that the understanding of the concept will vary between countries, any term applied in a particular national setting will tend



to be loaded with cultural significance. However, despite such differences, a gradual convergence of understanding of psychological violence appears to be taking place. New legislation, pioneering actions by the courts, the proliferation of collective agreements and the actions of EU bodies, together with a growing public debate and sharing of common terminology, are all factors which may account for a move towards a shared understanding of the problem (Di Martino, et al., 2003).

The greater awareness of the issues of violence and harassment, and the willingness to address these problems, appear to be strongly connected with a perception of their significance and seriousness. The recent establishment of a European Working Condition Observatory with a remit systematically to provide statistical information on violence and harassment within the member countries, is a reflection of the growing attention being given to the problem. Still, empirical evidence in the form of public statistics and national survey data is sparse, even in the case of the more tangible problem of physical violence. However, even in this case the unreliability of reporting systems tends to undermine any attempt to get a clear picture of the true extent of the problem. Whilst levels of assaults and threats of physical violence appear to be increasing in most countries, the picture is not uniform, with some countries, e.g. the UK, reporting a declining number of incidents (British Crime Survey, 2004). However, figures may mask underlying trends with in some cases the risk of violence falling whilst the total number of incidents at the same time rises due to the problem of multiple victimisation in certain sectors and occupational groups. The health-care and education sectors are typical examples where the overall level of violence is on the increase. Both sectors are also dominated by women, emphasising the gender dimension in experience of violence (Di Martino et al., 2003; European Commission, 2002). Moreover, fear of victimisation is acknowledged as a problem in its own right.

An exceedingly varied picture emerges with respect to the scale of psychological violence and harassment, although according to the Observatory's data, levels of reported exposure are increasing in most countries. For sexual harassment, the problem of judging the extent of the problem is exacerbated by the seemingly reduced scientific interest in the issue in recent years and the resistance to accept the problem as an occupational hazard, particularly in some southern European countries. Remarkably few studies have explored the problem of racial harassment at work despite a growing acknowledgement of racism in many countries. However, in those cases where the problem has been systematically explored, the evidence suggests the presence of a substantial and multifaceted problem in many countries, where the boundary between different forms of harassment, bullying and discrimination is difficult to draw. As for harassment based on sexual orientation, religious belief or disability, the true scale of the problem remains largely unknown, although sporadic reports, for example in the case of harassment on the grounds of sexual orientation, suggest a strong need for more thorough investigation. Whilst concept demarcation may be essential for researchers and legislators alike, it could have prevented us from fully understanding the gender or race dimensions in the experience of bullying. In other words, to explore to what extent someone's gender, race, religion or disability may be part and parcel of their experience of different forms of psychological violence appears to be an important issue for researchers to explore.

By contrast, psychological violence in the form of bullying is receiving attention among researchers and practitioners alike in most member states. An examination of a number of sources suggests that psychological harassment in the form of bullying and intimidation was also the most common form of violence and harassment across the EU despite large discrepancies between member states as well as between different studies, partly reflecting

differences in study methodology and problem definition (Di Martino et al., 2003). Thus, whilst 2% of the population reported exposure to physical violence, and the same number to sexual harassment, in the European working condition survey of 2002, the comparable figure for intimidation was 9%, although it may be questioned whether this term adequately captures the essence of the bullying concept (European Working Condition Observatory, 2004). Although these findings may contrast with some of the studies which will be presented during the course of this conference, they do reflect a clear trend. A more detailed assessment of survey data from different European countries indicates that public sector employees may be more vulnerable to bullying than employees in the private sector. However, whilst there may be important common factors between public sector organisations possibly accounting for this picture, there are also large discrepancies between individual organisations, as is the case in the private sector, indicating that organisational context should become an important aspect of research.

The popular perception that bullying is on the increase is to some extent confirmed by the European Foundation's longitudinal study (Paoli and Merillié, 2001). A number of factors possibly contributing to a rise in levels of bullying will be considered in the presentation.

#### *Political responses*

In line with current European legislation, all member states will have provisions in place to deal with physical violence and harassment on the grounds of sex and race. However, in communications from the European Commission (European Commission, 2002) the possible need for legislative action to counteract particular problems posed by psychological violence and harassment is emphasised. It is suggested that such action should build on the Amsterdam Treaty (article 13) and should make necessary provisions for redress. This new article to the EU Treaty extends the prohibition of discrimination beyond sex and race to include also religious belief, disability, sexual orientation and discrimination on the ground of age (. Recently, new national legislation to combat psychological violence has emerged in a number of European Union countries, with France and Belgium among the most recent examples, and with legislation in other countries in the pipeline. An examination of approaches found that they broadly fell into two groups: those countries which have introduced new special legislation to deal with the problem, e.g. Belgium and France, and those which deal with the problem by means of existing legislation, e.g. Ireland and the UK (Di Martino et al., 2003). Within the former group a distinction can be made between those countries where the issue of bullying and victimisation is being addressed by means of specific legislation, and those where bullying is mentioned particularly, albeit dealt with as part of a more general framework aimed at psychosocial hazards at work. The presentation will explore these different approaches in more detail. Particular attention is paid to Sweden, which recently has decided to repeal its 'Victimisation at work' ordinance.

The need for countermeasures and new ways of dealing with the problems of harassment and bullying is emphasised in the report to the European Parliament. European Parliament, 2001). Highlighting the problem of social exclusion, approaches which aim to improve social relations at work are considered essential to progress in this area. To further engage employers with the issue, it is suggested that harassment and bullying as an aspect of the work environment quality dimension should be considered a facet of corporate social responsibility. Although there is little evidence suggesting that this recommendation so far has been picked up by employers, it indicates a possible way forward, particularly when the cost-dimension of the problem is highlighted. Similarly, the social partners (employers and employee organisations) have been challenged to develop their own approaches to counteract the

problem and to exchange information on best practice. In this respect the employers' responsibility for taking action on issues connected with health and safety is emphasised. Whilst the social partners in Europe (UNICE and ETUC) so far have failed to move on this issue, a fresh agreement on workplace stress may bring hope of a similar development with respect to violence, harassment and bullying. Notwithstanding this seeming paralysis with respect to EU-wide initiatives by the social partners, evidence exists of considerable development at a national level, with collective agreement and company policies to address bullying and harassment at work becoming a normal feature of organisational life in several countries. These approaches invariably focus on unwanted conduct and development of organisational cultures of dignity and respect. In some instances, the enforcement agencies have initiated broader campaigns to raise awareness and to develop measures to counteract bullying with, in the case of Ireland, the initiative resulting in the development of a code of practice and a national strategy to counteract bullying (HSA, 2001).

In conclusion, recent developments have seen an increasing interest in workplace violence, with particular attention paid to psychological aspects and, in particular, to bullying. Whilst disagreement on definition and scale of problems remains, and with many aspects of the problems yet to be explored, a gradual move towards greater shared understanding appears to be taking place despite the continuing impact of cultural differences. Recent political initiatives from various European Union bodies and a wave of new legal initiatives across Europe are a symbol of greater interest and awareness. Together these developments point in the direction of a greater consensus, although cultural differences will ensure that some differences are likely to remain for a long time to come.

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# The Cost of Caring

Noreen Tehrani

## Abstract

*The aim of this paper was to look at the impact of working with distressed and traumatised clients. The paper describes a survey involving 149 care workers who regularly work with distressed or traumatised clients. The survey involved the participants completing a 21-item beliefs inventory, describing their supervision or support and recording whether they had any spiritual or religious beliefs. A factor analysis of the results of the inventory found four factors, three of which involved the negative impact of the work on beliefs while the fourth gave an indication of the positive beliefs or post trauma growth that comes out of this kind of work. A review of the information provided on supervision and support showed that there was a wide variations in the sources of support for the different professions. Almost 60% of the carers had spiritual beliefs and almost 40% were members of a religious group. The discussion looked at the implication of the results of the survey including the possible benefit of using the carer belief inventory to identify carers who may be vulnerable to secondary trauma or compassion fatigue. There was also a discussion of the need to provide support to all professions undertaking caring work with distressed or traumatised clients.*

## Introduction

There is a cost to caring. Workers exposed to the stories of the distressed and traumatised people often describe personal experiences similar to those of their clients. This experience can be disconcerting particularly when the experiences include intrusive thoughts, images and “flashbacks” to events that have only been learnt about from the testimony or personal contact with a victim rather than from first hand experience. This phenomenon described by Figley (1993), as the natural consequence of helping or wanting to help a traumatised or other distressed person. However, the impact of caring may have a subtler effect on the carer through the introjection of client’s post trauma beliefs, values and assumptions into the mind of the carer at a pre- or unconscious level.

The notion that we construct beliefs, values and assumptions into cognitive schema is central to the social cognition tradition as described by Piaget (1971) in his cognitive developmental theory. These schemas are created from “organised elements of past reactions and experience that form relatively cohesive and persistent body of knowledge capable of guiding subsequent perception and appraisals” (Segal 1988). These personal patterns of beliefs and thought are vulnerable to disruption at times of intense stress or trauma (Janoff Bulman, 1989). Much of the research into the impact of trauma has focussed on negative responses and cognitions, however, there is an emerging body of evidence to show that where the individual has been able to understand and make sense of the traumatic exposure, post trauma growth is possible (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995).

The salutogenic (health enhancing) effects coming from caring for the distressed and traumatised people can facilitate a range of personal and professional activities. Figley (1995) describes some of the ways that the growth and well-being of the carer can be enhanced by:

- Maintaining physical health and fitness
- Enjoying a well-balanced work/life balance
- Using meditation or spiritual practice

- The availability and use of social support
- Clearly defined professional boundaries and limits
- The use of professional supervision or consultative support.

This study is the first part of a larger study concerned with exploring the impact of trauma on the personal beliefs and values of carers who work with distressed or traumatised clients. The subjects who came from a range of caring professions, were asked about the provision of professional supervision, social support and spiritual comfort. Finally, the spiritual beliefs and practices were identified by the subjects.

### **Trauma and the disruption of cognitive schemas**

Cognitive schemas or beliefs, expectations and assumptions are mental structures that represent our general knowledge of objects, situations and events (Paivio, 1986). Through the operation of these schemas people establish characteristic ways of interpreting events (Rotter, 1989). In mature, psychologically healthy individuals, schema comprises a realistic set of expectations, which are fluid and responsive to the environment. Schemas are created from the interaction of an individual's experience modified by their beliefs, assumptions and expectancies for the future (Creamer et al, 1992). The Constructivist Self Development Theory (McCann & Pearlman, 1990) claims that people actively construct their personal reality through the processes of accommodation and assimilation. These twin processes were first described by Piaget in 1971. Having constructed this schema of reality, all new experiences are evaluated and assigned meaning in within the bounds of the constructed reality schema. It is this process that actively creates and constrains all new experiences and determines what is accepted or acceptable and what is rejected or changed. People with capacity for personal and self-development possess schema capable of modification and re-evaluation when the new information or experience cannot be adequately explained by existing schema. Existing schema can be impacted or disrupted by a traumatic or highly distressing experience and the schema will determine how the traumatic event is encoded in the memory. McCann & Pearlman (1990) identified seven psychological needs that are particularly vulnerable to disruption by a traumatic exposure.

These needs are for:

- *Frame of reference* - the need to develop a stable and coherent framework for understanding one's experience
- *Safety* – the need to feel safe and reasonably invulnerable
- *Trust/Dependency* – the need to believe the word or promise of others, to depend upon others to meet one's needs, to a greater or lesser extent
- *Esteem* – the need to be valued by others, to have one's worth validated and to value others
- *Independence* – the need to control one's own behaviour and rewards
- *Power* – the need to direct or exert control over others
- *Intimacy* – the need to feel connected to others, through individual relationships, the need to belong to a larger community

If these needs are unmet, this can have a serious impact on the beliefs, expectations and assumptions of the individual. The level of disruption of cognitive schema can be measured and a number of questionnaires have been developed to identify the nature and magnitude of disrupted attitudes, expectations and beliefs (Turner, 1998; Scott & Stradling, 1992; Hammarberg, 1992; Antonovsky, 1992).

### **Counter Transference**

The term counter-transference was originally used by Freud (1975) to describe the emotional reaction a therapist may have towards a client. In the beginning, the term was used to describe how the feelings of a carer could be transferred from his or her own past and inappropriately imposed on the client (Salzberger-Wittenberg, 1970). In 1946, Jung extended the concept to cover the process by which the sufferings of the client were taken up and shared by the therapist. This introjection of beliefs, attitudes and assumptions was further developed (Johansen, 1993) to include any emotional reactions the carer may have towards their client, regardless of source. Johansen described counter-transference as the experience caused by an interaction of the carer's personal history and life stressors and the client's trauma narrative and responses. However, the term counter-transference is not universally recognised or valued. Danieli (1996) claimed that the use of the term counter-transference has not been helpful in that it has perpetuated the traditional psychodynamic attitudes and inhibited professionals from studying, correctly diagnosing and treating the effects of secondary trauma. Whatever the process is called, the phenomenon, which is known variously as secondary traumatisation, compassion fatigue and secondary victimisation has been shown to be an occupational hazard in a large number of studies (e.g. Figley, 1995; Stamm, 1997; Salston & Figley, 2003; Hyman, 2004).

### ***The Wounded Healer***

It has been recognised that workers who have the greatest capacity for feeling and expressing empathy are at the greatest risk from experiencing secondary traumatisation (Figley, 1995). Many of the carer's symptoms parallel those of their client (Pearlman & Saakvitne, 1995) or involve more general changes such as having no time or energy for themselves or others, feelings of cynicism, sadness and seriousness. When dealing with difficult or distressing cases some carers may experience heightened emotions such as anger, grief or despair and become hypersensitive to violence and distress (Pearlman, 1993). According to Danieli (1996), carers defend themselves from hearing the traumatic stories of their clients by dissociating, questioning the reliability of the stories being told, experiencing somatic symptoms or by becoming overwhelmed with grief or helplessness. If the trauma narrative touches upon any personal history the carer may become numb and not be able to "hear" the client. There have been a number of studies that have looked at the impact of working with distressed and traumatised clients (Figley, 1995; McCann & Pearlman, 1990; Stamm, 1995). These studies have shown that up to fifty per cent of carers are vulnerable to the risk of experiencing from secondary trauma or compassion fatigue (Steed & Bicknell, 2001).

### **Growing in the Aftermath**

There is overwhelming evidence to show that the changes brought about by traumatic events challenge the existing cognitive schema and can bring about negative physical and psychological consequences. For many people being confronted with and having to deal with negative and distressing events can be transformational. Victims of major traumas are often found to have experienced some good emerging from the tragedy (Linley & Joseph, 2002). There is an increasing awareness that where people are able to adjust to the aftermath of psychological trauma they can emerge from the experience with a positive self-worth, improved interpersonal relationships and an enriched philosophy of life. Post traumatic growth is a term commonly used to describe these positive changes that occur after a traumatic exposure, and a post traumatic growth inventory (Tedeschi & Colhoun, 1996) has been developed to increase understanding of the natural processes people use to derive meaning from traumatic events and to face the uncertainties of their future life with

confidence. It has been suggested (Janoff-Bulman, 1992) that the more extreme the traumatic exposure the more positive the potential growth.

### **Professional, Social and Spiritual Support**

The incidence of secondary trauma can be reduced when the carer has access to professional support (Salston & Figley, 2003). The importance of regular professional supervision has been identified as essential (Cerney, 1995; Pearlman & McCann, 1990). For counsellors and counselling psychologists in the UK, personal supervision is a professional requirement (BPS, 1998; BACP, 2002) with the minimum requirement of 90 minutes supervision per month. The aim of supervision is to process the painful client material, as well as explore and reduce the impact of the material on the carers' thinking and emotions. Supervision comes in a range of forms and may be provided by a manager, clinical supervisor or peer, it can be face to face or by telephone, it can involve an individual carer or a group.

There are a number of approaches to supervision (Scaife, 2001). However, most models accept that to be successful supervision needs to meet three needs (Inskipp & Proctor, 1995), these are:

- normative needs to deal with managerial and ethical issues
- formative needs for education, learning and development
- restorative needs which acknowledge the emotional impact of the work and help the carer regain their sense of psychological, physical, social and spiritual well-being.

However, the needs of the carer can change over time and the development approach to supervision recognises the different needs of carers as they move from inexperienced to experienced practitioner status (Stoltenbert et al 1998).

To protect themselves from secondary trauma carers should aim to have a balanced life in which their own needs are taken into account alongside the needs of work, home, family and friends (Stamm, 1995). Carers have found that discussing cases with colleagues, attending training workshops, spending time with family or friends, having holidays, socialising, exercising, limiting workload, developing spiritual life and supervision were most helpful (Pearlman, 1999). Spiritual beliefs and values are highly sensitive to the effects of trauma and trauma support work. In a study (Pearlman, 1999) it was found forty four per cent of carers used their spiritual life and its development helpful in coping with the demands of trauma work.

### **The Survey**

This paper presents the findings of a survey of 149 carers working within a number of caring professions. The survey was designed to identify the beliefs and attitudes of these workers and to look at the availability of supervision and other supportive relationships. The participants were asked about their religious and spiritual beliefs and given an opportunity to provide additional information on other sources of support. The aim of the survey was to learn more about the impact of working with distressed and traumatised people and to identify the common sources of support and coping methods. The participants were made aware that the survey was part of a larger study with the objective of developing appropriate supervision and support for carers.

### *Subjects*

The subjects were all contacted by e-mail. The subjects were members of professions and were contacted through professional directories or professional organisations and groups. Around two hundred people were contacted and there were a hundred and forty nine responses, a response rate of 75%. The professions involved in the survey were

psychologists/psychiatrists, counsellors/therapists, nurses, doctors, social workers, human resources, coaches, lawyers, religious leaders and others. The largest group of professionals being counsellors and therapists. The percentage of each profession in the group is shown in Table 1

Table 1 The percentage of each profession in the group

Counsellor/Therapist	27.5%	Religious Leader	7.4%
Psychologist	12.8%	Human Resources	6.7%
Doctor	10.7%	Lawyer	4.7%
Nurse	10.1%	Coach	2.7%
Investigator/Crime Analyst	9.4%	Social worker	1.3%
Not given	6.0%		

All subjects were aware that the information they provided would be used for research purposes and that no personally identifiable information would be revealed.

### *Measures*

The survey included an inventory based on the items in the Trauma Belief Inventory (Scott & Stradling, 1992). The items were adapted to make them relevant to a carer rather than the primary victim of a traumatic exposure. For example, the original item “no one can be trusted” was changed to “a feeling that people cannot be trusted.” In addition to the seventeen negative beliefs taken from the Trauma Belief Inventory, four positive beliefs were added. These items were “a belief in your own competence,” “a feeling that you have learnt a lot from the experience,” “a sense of doing a good job” and “a sense of completion or fulfilment.” The positive items were consistent with the post traumatic growth inventory’s factors (Tedeschi & Colhoun, 1996) relating to enhanced personal strength and appreciation of life. All the items were scored on a five-point scale. The source of support section of the survey included three kinds of supervision: these were managerial, personal or professional, and peer supervision. There were five less formal sources support, which included talking to friends and colleagues, talking to family, talking to a spiritual guide, priest or vicar and praying (talking to God). The support items were scored as either yes or no with a space for comments. Finally, there were two questions about spirituality, firstly “Do you regard yourself as a spiritual person?” secondly, “Do you belong to a religious faith group?” These were also scored as a yes or no and again there was a space for comments.

## **Results**

### Beliefs and Values

The mean and standard deviation of each of the items was calculated (Table 2). The results show that the most commonly held beliefs were positive, followed by the beliefs that the world was a dangerous place and that there was no justice in the world. The least common beliefs included a loss of any sense of meaning and feeling of worthlessness and that there was something wrong with you.

Table 2 The frequency of attitudes and beliefs (Never = 1; All the time = 5)



Attitude or Belief	Mean	SD	Total Carers % Scores of 3-5
A loss of any sense of meaning in your life	1.58	0.77	13%
A feeling of being worthless	1.75	0.91	22%
A feeling that there is something wrong with you	1.75	0.89	18%
A sense that you will never quite recover from your experiences	1.81	0.98	21%
A loss of faith in the future	1.84	0.10	21%
A loss of your sense of reality	1.87	0.92	24%
A sense that no one will ever understand how you feel	1.93	0.93	26%
A low sense of achievement or self-worth	1.99	0.88	27%
A feeling that there is nothing that you can do to take the memory away	2.05	1.05	26%
A sense of isolation or being alone	2.21	1.01	39%
A loss of innocence	2.21	1.13	37%
A feeling that people cannot be trusted	2.23	0.91	37%
A feeling that you should have been able to cope better	2.50	1.01	46%
A feeling of being overwhelmed	2.50	0.96	51%
A feeling that you have taken care of others without being cared for in return	2.56	1.14	49%
A feeling that there is no justice in the world	2.60	1.01	51%
A belief that the world is a dangerous place	2.82	1.1	63%
A belief in your own competence*	3.18	0.87	79%
A sense of completion or fulfilment*	3.37	0.98	78%
A sense of doing a good job*	3.69	0.77	92%
A feeling that you have learnt a lot from the experience*	3.89	1.04	90%

\* positive attitudes and beliefs

The results show that all the negative beliefs were experienced by at least a fifth of the carers on some occasions and that some of the negative beliefs were experienced by up to 60% of carers, at least sometimes. Most of the carers achieved personal growth through their work, with up to 90% believing that they had learnt a lot from their experience.

To investigate the relationship between the positive and negative beliefs the scores were correlated (Table 3). The beliefs that correlated with “A belief in your own competence” were all positive, whereas the three beliefs that correlated with “A sense of doing a good job” and the five beliefs that correlated with “A sense of completion or fulfilment” were all negative. There were no significant correlations with “A feeling that you have learnt a lot from the experience.” Not surprisingly, significant correlations were found between the four positive beliefs.

Table 3 Correlations between positive and negative beliefs

Positive Belief	p< 0.01	p< 0.05
A belief in your own competence  <i>Correlations with this belief were all positive</i>	A sense that you will never quite recover from your experiences A sense that no one will ever understand how you feel	A feeling that you should have been able to cope better A sense of isolation or being alone A feeling that you have taken care of others without being cared for in return A feeling of being overwhelmed A low sense of achievement or self-worth
A sense of doing a good job  <i>Correlations with this belief were all negative</i>	A low sense of achievement or self-worth	A feeling of being worthless A loss of faith in the future
A sense of completion or fulfilment  <i>Correlations with this belief were all negative</i>	A low sense of achievement or self-worth A feeling that you should have been able to cope better	A loss of any sense of meaning in your life A loss of your sense of reality A loss of faith in the future

The results show that carers who feel most competent had also experience of high level of negative feelings and beliefs. This was very different to the carers who believed that they had done a good job or who had a sense of completion or fulfilment. These carers had less frequent experiences of a low sense of achievement or self-worth and feelings that you should have been able to cope better. These results suggest that to feel competent people need to be challenged, while to feel you have done a good job or to be fulfilled there needs to be some tangible achievements.

### Support

The analysis of the source of support showed that the most available source of support was talking to friends and colleagues (73%) this was followed by professional supervision (55%) and talking to family (55%). The least frequently used sources of support were managerial support (21%) and talking to a spiritual guide, priest or vicar (13%), however, praying was used by 31% of carers. The survey showed that over half of the participants regarded themselves as spiritual and over a third as religious. In Table 4 the professions were compared for their use of support and their religious and spiritual beliefs. Whilst not surprisingly, religious leaders got most of their support from their spiritual guide and praying, psychologists and counsellors gained most of their support from professional and managerial supervision. Nurses, human resources, doctors, lawyers and crime analysts got most of their support from friends and colleagues, with families providing a major source of support for human resources, lawyers and doctors.

Table 4 The access to support for the eight caring professions

	Psycho.	Counsel.	Nurse	Rel. Lead	HR	Doctor	Lawyer	Analyst	Total
Professional Sup.	68%	89%	60%	36%	20%	25%	29%	14%	55%
Managerial Sup.	5%	46%	13%	9%	0%	6%	42%	0%	21%
Peer Supervision	58%	58%	53%	27%	10%	31%	28%	28%	44%
Friends & Coll	68%	71%	80%	55%	70%	75%	100%	71%	74%
Family	58%	49%	40%	27%	90%	63%	85%	43%	55%
Spiritual Guide	0%	5%	7%	73%	0%	19%	14%	7%	13%
Praying	21%	22%	33%	100%	10%	25%	43%	21%	31%
Spiritual Beliefs	73%	54%	67%	100%	10%	75%	43%	43%	59%
Religion Member	31%	24%	53%	100%	20%	31%	29%	29%	38%

Apart from religious leaders for whom the spiritual life and religious beliefs are “a calling” people from other groups also regarded themselves as spiritual and religious. Doctors, psychologists and nurses had the highest percentage of members who saw themselves as spiritual with human resources having the lowest levels. Nurses had the highest percentage of members who are religious.

#### *Other Responses*

The comments sections in the survey gave the carers an opportunity to give their responses to the survey and to describe the support that they found particularly helpful. The difficulties identified by the carers were of two main types, firstly, the difficulties related to the work, and secondly the difficulties caused by the work. Difficulties related to the work included problems of not being able to talk about their work to others due to the need to maintain confidentiality, frustrations relating to the conflict between clinical needs and the operation of the law. A number of the carers believed that they should be able to help their clients more. The impact of the work on the lives of the carers was generally reported negatively with feelings of being taken for granted by clients, becoming physically ill as a result of the work, abusing alcohol and feeling sad and exhausted. Some carers described the contrast between their feelings of exhaustion with the work and their exhilaration at being able to help. The other sources of support identified by the carers were to do with the work itself or the use of other activities as distractions or antidotes to the impact of working with distressed people. Some carers used prayer or meditation as a way of developing inner resources. Many carers described their ability to balance trauma work with other kinds of work and in spending time on increasing professional knowledge and skills. A number of carers described spending time reflecting and working out what things meant to them. Being aware of own needs and taking personal time was recognised as important. A number of activities and hobbies were identified as being helpful, including reading poetry, listening to music, writing, taking physical exercise and gardening.

#### *Factor Analysis of Beliefs*

The carers responses of the belief inventory were checked for their internal consistency (alpha of 0.87). A principle component analysis was then performed on the data followed by a varimax rotation. The factor analysis of the responses on the inventory identified four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. These factors accounted for more than 59% of the variance. With the exception of one item it was found that the item loaded a minimum of 0.55 on one factor without loading any more than 0.45 on another factor. The item “a loss of faith in the future” loaded almost equally on all four factors and as it failed to discriminate between the factors it was removed and the remaining 20 items reanalysed (Table 5)

Table 5 Factor loadings on 20 items from the carer’s beliefs inventory

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
A sense that I will never quite recover from my experience	.731			
A loss of innocence	.670			
A sense that no one will ever understand how I feel	.688			
A feeling that there is nothing I can do to take the memory away	.648			
A loss of your sense of reality	.685			
A feeling of being overwhelmed	.645			
A feeling of being worthless		.803		
A loss of any sense of meaning in my life		.557		
A low sense of achievement or self-worth		.851		
A feeling that there is something wrong with me		.620		
A sense of isolation or being alone		.569		
A feeling that I should have been able to cope better		.573		
A feeling that I have taken care of others without being cared for in return		.660		
A belief in my own competence			.552	
A feeling that I have learnt a lot from the experience			.703	
A sense of doing a good job			.728	
A sense of completion or fulfilment			.795	
A feeling that people cannot be trusted				.688
A belief that the world is a dangerous place				.757
A feeling that there is no justice in the world				.768

The items that made up the factors were examined and the four factors were given names that most closely represented the meanings of the items within the factor.

Factor 1 was named Loss of Innocence, (34% of variance); Factor 2, Disconnection, (11% of variance); Factor 3, Personal Growth (8% of variance); Factor 4, Injustice (6% of variance)

The mean and standard deviations for the four factors of the Carer’s Beliefs Inventory (CBI) were calculated (Table 6)

Table 6 Carer’s Belief Inventory (CBI) - Factors

Factor	Mean	SD
Loss of Innocence	12.41	4.5
Disconnected	14.35	4.9
Personal Growth	14.16	2.6
Injustice	7.65	2.4

Although there were differences between professions on the scores on the CBI none of them reached statistical significance.

## Discussion

It is necessary to recognise that there are limitations to this study. Some of the numbers in the professional groups are small and therefore they may not give a reliable view of the beliefs of other members of these professions. The carers were not exposed to the same level of secondary trauma, the level and nature of exposure to traumatic and distressing stories will vary between professions and within professions. The survey also did not look at the full range of support that may be used by carers, such as taking exercise, hobbies and having a good work/life balance. However, despite these shortcomings some interesting results will help to inform the next stage of the study into the support of carers.

The results of the survey supported some of the existing literature on secondary trauma and compassion fatigue. In particular, the high proportion of carers dealing with distressed and traumatised people who experience an impact on their own assumptions, values and beliefs.

Over 60% of carers experience negative changes particularly to feelings and beliefs about the world being dangerous and there being no justice in the world. Changes to more personal beliefs such as a loss of meaning to life, feelings of being worthless and that there was something wrong with you that you may not recover from were experienced by around a fifth of carers at some time. These results are concerning as it is this kind of challenge to the self and self-esteem that are cited as being associated with secondary trauma (McCann & Pearlman, 1990). The finding that there was an even higher level of positive beliefs coming out of the caring work does, to some extent, explain why carers do not suffer from secondary trauma more often. Between 80-90% of carers experience feelings of competence, self-fulfilment, and a belief that they had done a good job, and learnt a lot, at least some of the time.

The survey also found that the carers perception of their level of competence was positively associated with beliefs such as they may never recover from their experiences, that no one understands what they have been through, that they should have coped better and that they felt overwhelmed. This finding supports the view that negative attitudes can be transformed into positive outcomes over time (Tedeschi & Colhoun, 1995). However, it is clear that not all the negative beliefs were associated with positive outcome as was shown with the beliefs on doing a good job and feeling fulfilled. These beliefs were negatively associated with a low sense of achievement, feelings that they should have coped better, of being worthless and a loss of faith in the future.

The variability of supervision and support is concerning. Working with distressed and traumatised people in whatever capacity is challenging and it seems unreasonable that some professions have so little support available to their members. Of particular concern are the doctors, human resources, lawyers, crime analysts and religious leaders who appear to have little formal support and as a result have to rely on less formal support such as talking to colleagues, family and friends. Given the current research it would seem reasonable for employers to provide adequate support as part of a duty of care.

The factor analysis of the inventory provided the basis for the development of a new inventory that may be useful in providing an early warning of secondary trauma for professionals undertaking caring work. Other secondary trauma, compassion fatigue and burnout questionnaires have concentrated on looking for symptoms of these conditions. The belief inventory used in this survey takes the assessment to an earlier point in the development of secondary trauma. Instead of waiting for the carer to become symptomatic, the inventory looks for the presence of challenges to the carer's fundamental assumptions, values and beliefs. If this assessment is undertaken early enough it might be possible to provide the carer with the opportunity to transform their discomfort into personal growth and development. It is this aim that should be central to the professional supervision and support model that needs to be developed for carers working in this field.

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## **Research, practice, and increased awareness: The Finnish experience**

Maarit Vartia

After Heinz Leymann wrote his articles on bullying, mobbing and psychological terrorization in Sweden, the first seminar on bullying at work was arranged in Finland in 1988, and the first newspaper article was published in 1989. A phenomenon, familiar to many, was given a name. During the next few months my telephone rang continuously, as people who perceived themselves as victims of bullying wanted to tell their story. The questions most often asked were: 'Who is responsible for taking action? From where can I get some help?'

In the early 1990s knowledge about bullying was still very limited at workplaces, and many victims felt shame. If they talked about the problem to their supervisor the answer might be 'You are just imagining!' Supervisors and managers were uncertain about their role in bullying situations, and were not very eager to interfere. The faces of the victims appearing on television were processed so that nobody could recognize them.

The first study was carried out at FIOH 1989-1991 in co-operation with occupational health services (OHS). In a study among government officials, the aim was to explore the prevalence of bullying and the forms of negative acts, as well as the means of OHS to support and help the victims of bullying. During the past years, research e.g. on the antecedents of bullying and on the connections between bullying and psychological ill-health, stress and serious health problems have been carried out among municipal employees, in prisons and in hospitals. Research on bullying has been conducted also at the Swedish School of Economics and at Åbo Akademi.

Various activities have been going on during the past ten years. General information and facts about bullying have been disseminated via journal and newspaper articles, as well as dozens of radio and TV programs. Campaigns to increase awareness of bullying have been organized. Training has been arranged in organizations to help the employees to understand the phenomenon of bullying, and to help the supervisors to handle bullying situations. OH personnel and safety delegates have been trained to help both the victims and the workplaces where bullying has taken place. Trade unions and industrial safety districts have taken an active role.

The general attitude towards bullying has clearly changed. Nowadays, bullying is acknowledged as a serious health and safety hazard that has to be addressed. Numerous organizations have prepared their own anti-bullying programs and instructions for handling bullying situations. The new Occupational Safety and Health Act came into force in Finland in 2003. The Act includes special paragraphs on harassment and inappropriate treatment at work.

Nowadays, employees who perceive themselves bullied are willing to talk about their bullying on the media. They know that they are not the only ones being bullied, and that bullying is not only their personal problem, but a problem that concerns the whole workplace. Supervisors call and ask for consultation. No special counselors or clinics to treat the victims of bullying have been established. Occupational health services, and particularly occupational health psychologists have a considerable role both in helping employees subjected to bullying, as well as in supporting supervisors to solve the situation.



## **Negative social behaviour at work and workplace bullying**

Dieter Zapf

For more than 10 years bullying and mobbing have been debated both in the public press as in the scientific literature. Having their roots in Scandinavian research they seem to be European research themes. Although researchers on bullying and mobbing have spent efforts in coming up with a widely acceptable definition, most recently in the book of Ståle Einarsen and colleagues, the concept is still unknown or at least unclear for the wider audience of scientists and practitioners.

In the presentation I will put bullying/mobbing into a wider context and refer it to other concepts on negative social or counterproductive behaviour such as social conflicts, interactional injustice, workplace aggression and workplace incivility and social undermining, and will discuss similarities and differences.

Using the bullying definition of Einarsen et al. (2003), I will discuss the elements of the definition: frequency and duration of bullying behaviours, the focus on a target, the intentionality of the behaviours and the inferiority and inability of the target to defend him- or herself. Empirical results related to these elements of the definition will be presented. Finally, I will suggest a classification scheme for various definitions of bullying with regard to how wide or how restrictive they are and whether they focus more on the bully or more on the victim.

## ORAL PRESENTATIONS

### **Building relationships: An empirical analysis of shame, pride and workplace bullying**

Dr Eliza Ahmed & Professor John Braithwaite  
Australian National University

Shame management and bullying is a topic that has attracted research attention in recent years, with a number of studies replicating the result that shame acknowledgement is associated with lower levels of bullying, and shame displacement into anger, blaming and other externalizing reactions is associated with lower levels of bullying (Ahmed, forthcoming; Bessant & Watts, 1995; Morrison, forthcoming). Pride management in contrast has been ignored in terms of its effect on bullying. This is surprising since many endorse Scheff and Retzinger's (1991) frame that emotion and social relationships come in conjugate pairs, specifically: "pride is the emotional conjugate of social solidarity, and shame is the emotional conjugate of alienation". Bullying is the antithesis of social solidarity, so good pride management might be implicated in bullying prevention.

Webb (2003) shows that shame and pride share the feature that people tend to want to distinguish good and bad shame and pride. Positive pride is seen as about self-esteem and self-respect. Negative pride is about hubris and arrogance. Webb (2003) shares this intuition of his subjects, seeing "authentic pride" as tinged with humility, thereby avoiding the trap of hubris.

This article distinguishes narcissistic pride from humble pride. Narcissistic pride, we hypothesize, means putting oneself above others by status assertion. Humble pride is about self-respect for what we have done and who we are. With humble pride, superiority above others is not projected to others because this is not the way the person with humble pride feels. They feel intrinsic pride in what they have accomplished and who they are, not extrinsic pride in being better than others around them. At its most pathological, narcissistic pride, in contrast, means being self-obsessed about one's superiority over others and indeed domination of weaker others. This evokes our hypothesis that narcissistic pride will explain bullying in the workplace.

Survey data were obtained from 823 full-time employees of various organizations (24% from the government sector, 20% the semi-governmental, and 56% the private sector) in the large metropolis of Dhaka, Bangladesh. 35% were coded as lower status (e.g., garment employees, clerical employees), 33% middle status (e.g., school teachers, public servants who do not hold supervisory roles, support staff), and 32% higher status (e.g., employees who hold supervisory and professorial position). 63% were male, reflecting the disproportionate representation of men in the formal organizational economy of Bangladesh. The average age was 34.4 years. 68% of respondents had obtained a university education. Even allowing for the fact that non-university educated people in Bangladesh are more likely to be found in the rural and informal urban economies than in the formal organizational sector in the metropole, there is a substantial bias for the survey to be more likely to be completed by more educated people. The average organizational tenure of respondents was 5.5 years. Their average monthly salary was US\$342, ranging from US\$7 to US\$4,791.

The findings show that employees who reported bullying were less likely to acknowledge their shame ( $r = -.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ) by admitting shame and making amends, and were more likely

to displace shame ( $r = .59, p < .001$ ) by blaming others and expressing anger at others. Also as expected, narcissistic pride was positively related to bullying ( $r = .58, p < .001$ ) whereas humble pride was negatively related to bullying ( $r = -.39, p < .001$ ). Regression analyses emphasize the contributions of both shame and pride management in predicting bullying in organizations. Findings demonstrate that the integrated shame management/pride management model has formidable explanatory power. The question that then arises is whether shame management or pride management offers the better emotional intelligence account of bullying prevention. Given the high intercorrelations among the shame and pride management variables, an appealing choice is not to choose between shame management and pride management as a preferred theoretical framework. Some similar skills seem to be involved in both constructive shame management and healthy pride management. They are skills of humility and respect of self and others. Such skills sustain a healthy, socially interdependent self. This returns us to Scheff and Retzinger's (1991) theoretical framework that shame is the central emotion when social bonds are threatened, pride the central emotion when bonds of solidarity are strengthened. Pride both signals and generates solidarity; shame both signals and generates alienation.

When we learn how to manage shame well, we learn something about how to manage pride well, and vice versa. Nevertheless, healthy pride management has positive effects on our relationships with others over and above the positive effects of healthy shame management, and constructive shame management has good effects on our relationships with others over and above the effects of pride management. The bullying results reported here are consistent with this interpretation that shame and pride management are an emotional intelligence package that together is somewhat more than the sum of its parts. Teaching emotional intelligence is therefore suggested as a promising approach to workplace bullying (Sheehan, 1999).

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#### *Brief resume of presenter:*

Dr Eliza Ahmed is a research fellow in the Research School of Social Sciences at the Australian National University. Eliza's major contribution is in the area of rule violation (e.g., school bullying, workplace bullying, tax evasion) as it relates to shame management, interpersonal relationships, and the process of regulation. She has co-authored a book *Shame Management through Reintegration* (Cambridge University Press) demonstrating the implications of shame in relation to different kinds of wrongdoing, such as drink-driving and school bullying.

## Experimental approach to cognitive abnormality among victims of bullying at work

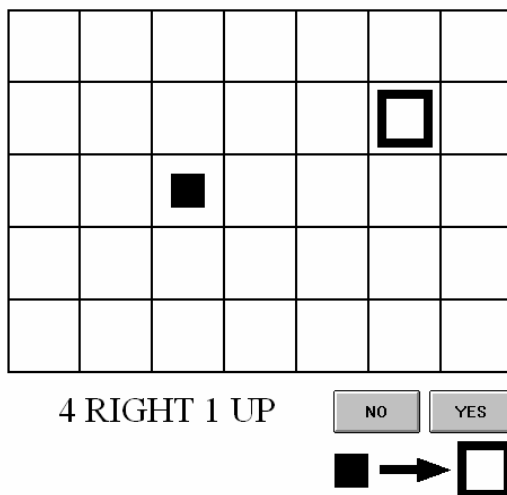
Roald Bjørklund, Institute of Psychology,  
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### Introduction

An increasing number of studies indicate that exposure to long term bullying at work is associated with stress symptoms typically seen in victims exposed to traumatic events and known as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Leymann, 1992, 1996; Björkquist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). Persistent involuntary reliving of aspects related to the bullying at work implies dysfunctions in the mechanisms of memory and in the cognitive systems (attention, information processing, decision and response execution) among the victims. So far, researchers have not drawn upon the methods of cognitive psychology to characterize mental abnormality in people exposed to bullying at work. The purpose of the present study is to investigate information processing among subjects exposed to bullying at work by a standardized experimental reaction time paradigm. In this paradigm reaction time and errors are used as indicators of human capacity to process cognitive information.

### Methods

A group of 18 victims of bullying at work (mean age = 38,3 yrs) and a group of 18 controls (mean age = 35,3) served as subjects in a choice reaction time task where they had to respond as fast and accurately as possible. The exposure of bullying at work was between 0.7 – 2.3 years. The reaction time task as shown in figure 1, was presented on the screen of a personal computer, and the subjects had to decide if the alphanumeric proposal how to move the solid square ('brick') into the open frame ('frame') in the square pattern was correct or false according to an instructed counting procedure (Westgaard & Bjørklund, 1987).



**Figure 1.** Stimulus configuration for the choice reaction time test with Brick (solid, 0.7 cm square) Frame (open, 1.5 cm square), a 7 x 5 square pattern (14 x 10 cm) and alphanumeric suggestion. The alphanumeric signs are 0.7 cm high and 0.5 cm wide. The colour of the background was green (54 cd/m<sup>2</sup>) and the figure was black (9 cd/m<sup>2</sup>), giving a contrast ratio of 1:6.

The response was activation of a 'yes' or 'no' button by means of the computer mouse, and the computer measured reaction time and the activated response suitable for subsequent

computation of the percentage of false responses. Each condition consisted of 160 reaction time tasks with different combinations of the positions of the brick and frame and with different alphanumeric proposals. Half of the trials were correct and the others were false. A 10-point symptoms check list (Holen, Sund, & Weisæth, 1983) was used in order to record the subjects self-reports of symptoms. The list included: sleeping problems, dreams and nightmares, feeling depressed, startle/jumpiness, isolating from others, irritated, mood swings, guilt/lowered self esteem, fear of specific places and tense. The score was recorded as the sum of all 10 questions allowing a minimum score of 10 and maximum score of 70 on the check list. The subjects in the experimental group were examined from 1997 – 2003 as part of larger detailed statement reports. All subjects gave their informed consent to the investigations.

### Results

The results are depicted in figure 2 (reaction time) and figure 3 (error).

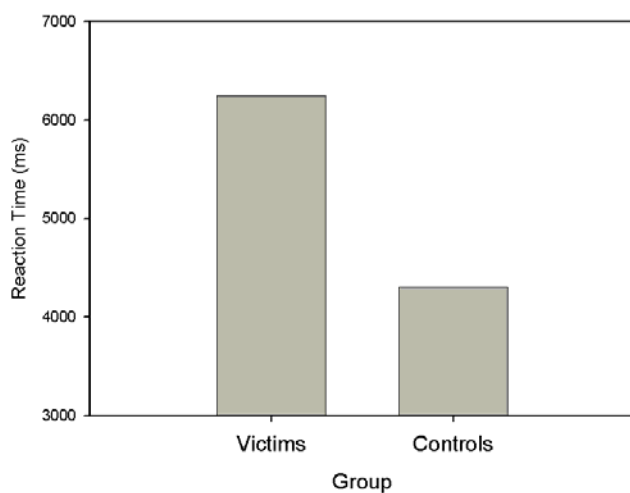


Figure 2. Mean reaction time (ms) computed for 18 victims of bullying at work and 18 controls in a two choice reaction time task.

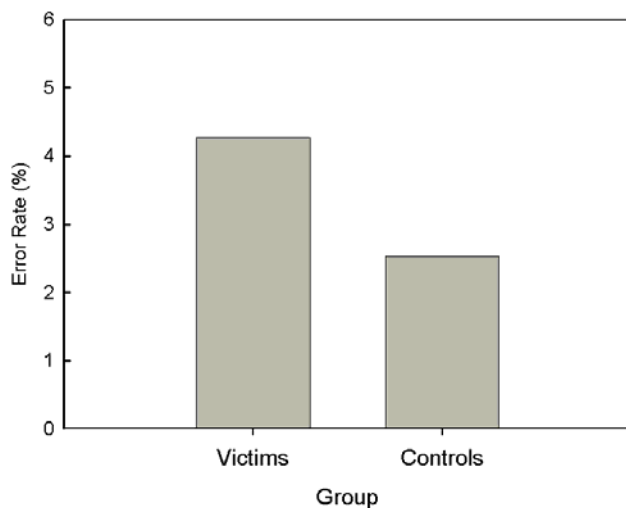


Figure 3. Mean Error Rate (%) computed for 18 victims of bullying at work and 18 controls in a two choice reaction time task.

Analysis of variance revealed significant differences on reaction time (victims = 6332 ms, controls = 4321 ms,  $F(1,34)=24.23$ ,  $p < .001$ , effect size = 0.63 [large]), and on error (victims = 4.3 %, controls = 2.5 %,  $F(1,34)= 21.46$ ,  $p < .001$ , effect size = 0.62 [large]) between the two groups. Hence, the victims spent 47 % longer reaction time and made 72 % more mistakes compared to the controls. The mean sum score of the symptoms was 45.4 and 20.3 in the experimental and control group, respectively ( $F(1, 34)=118.19$ ,  $p < .001$ , effect size = 0.88 [large])

### *Discussion*

The results shows that the victims of bullying at work used nearly 50 % longer response time and made more than 50 % mistakes compared to a control group. Analysis of bibliographical data (age, sex, education, socioeconomic class, yeas of employment) did not indicate that any such information may explain the differences between the two groups. Thus, the most prevalent candidate to explain the significant prolonged response times and the larger number of errors among victims of bullying at work compared to controls might be strongly related to the effect of exposure to negative factors in the working conditions. The more articulated self-reported symptoms in the experimental group clearly indicate that these subjects are more disturbed in their daily living. Examination of past living circumstances does not support a hypothesis that the victims of bullying at work are more susceptible or vulnerable to distress in the workplace.

Several traditional studies that have used self-report methods for studies cognitive disturbances among workers exposed to bullying have concluded that the effect of bullying might be severe and result in increased negative views on self, others, and the world (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2002). To my knowledge, the present study is the first experimental investigation that demonstrates reduced ability to process cognitive information among people who have been exposed of bullying at work. Previously, McNally (1998) have applied cognitive psychology methods to investigate information-processing abnormalities constitutive of PTSD among Vietnam combat veterans with and without PTSD and reports cognitive impairments associated with PTSD. McNally (op.cit) reports other studies of people who develop PTSD after automobile accidents and rape indicating that cognitive processing may be affected among these groups.

The prolonged response time and higher error rate among the victims exposed of bullying at work in the present study indicate that the cognitive processes are occupied by involuntary relieving aspects of bullying episodes. However, several candidates as reduced attention mechanisms, impairment of the memory systems, or general reduction in mental resources may also serve to explain the reduced mental capacity among the victims. More studies are needed to examine any correlation between the severity of bullying and reduction in cognitive processing.

In conclusion, the present study indicates that cognitive experimental methods might be valuable to assess effects of exposure to bullying at work.

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## **Perceptions of upwards bullying: An interview study**

Sara Branch, Dr. Michael Sheehan, Professor Michelle Barker & Dr. Sheryl Ramsay  
Griffith University, Australia

Much of the literature has focused on bullying by managers or employers (downwards bullying) or by one colleague to another (horizontal bullying). (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003). The risk however, of bullying in the workplace appears to be similar at all organisational levels (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia 2003). Managers may also experience workplace bullying through the abuse or imbalance of power. Research focusing on the nature, prevalence and severity of bullying of managers in organisations has been minimal, with almost no empirical research on the impact of workplace bullying where a subordinate staff member bullies a manager. In response to this gap in the literature, upwards bullying is the focus of the current doctoral research conducted by the first author. This paper presents preliminary analysis from interviews with eight managers; six female and two males; ranging from supervisors to senior middle managers with varying degrees of experience as a manager; who have either experienced or witnessed upwards bullying in their workplace. Two one-hour interviews were conducted with each interviewee. Each interview was audio-taped and later transcribed.

To date, upwards bullying has been reported anecdotally, with only a few studies indicating that upwards bullying does occur (see, for example, Hoel, Cooper, and Faragher, 2001), and none that investigate upwards bullying as a phenomenon per se. In a study of the impact of organisational status on bullying in 70 UK organisations (N= 5288), Hoel, Cooper, and Faragher (2001) found that “supervisors were most likely to be bullied by [subordinates] (14.9%), followed by senior management (9.4%) and middle management (7.8%)” (p. 450). The researchers suggested that workplace bullying may occur in these cases due to resentment about a decision made by the manager. In the present study, preliminary analysis of interviews with managers supports this finding about perceived resentment. Most of the managers interviewed were either new to the workplace and/or they were enforcing organisational change, or alternatively attempting to implement changes in workplace practices. In most situations it appears that staff were reacting negatively to the changes implemented by the managers. It may be that the managers were breaking unwritten social rules within that workplace (Salin, 2003).

Hoel and his colleagues, (2001) suggest that individual staff members are at greater risk when they are involved in bullying a manager as opposed to a peer or subordinate is. As a result, the type of bullying used to target managers may be subtler than the type of bullying commonly reported in cases of downwards bullying. For example, a staff member may choose not to attend a meeting in order to withhold expert knowledge or information from the manager. Therefore, in order to avoid disciplinary action and overcome the authoritative power of the manager, the perpetrator may employ subtler negative behaviours in order to undermine or bully his or her manager. Initial observations suggest that sometimes the behaviours can be quite subtle, while at other times the negative behaviours are very overt. Analysis of the interview data reveals that the negative spiral often begins with the perpetrator displaying a pattern of subtle behaviours such as failure to attend meetings, meet deadlines, and spreading gossip about the manager. When the manager initiates disciplinary action or a mediation process with the staff member to address the counterproductive behavior, the staff member retaliates with a grievance or accusation of bullying (or similar) against his or her manager. Thus, it appears that in order to overcome the authoritative power of the manager, staff use



subtle rule-breaking behaviours as well as the grievance system to circumvent the manager's problem-solving strategies or disciplinary action.

Frequently, it appears that managers are gradually worn down by the staff member's passive aggressive or rule-breaking behaviors. Half of the managers who were interviewed in the present study reported that, staff who were perpetrating the bullying used a lengthy grievance investigation involving most members of the workplace to circumvent or stop any disciplinary action or mediation initiated by the manager. Einarsen (2000) suggests that a key element to workplace bullying is the perpetrator's ability to reduce the recipients' capacity to defend themselves. Ironically, as the phenomenon now termed bullying gains increasing recognition in society, it is a new weapon that can be used against one's colleagues and one's managers. The ability to defend oneself is complicated by the growing awareness of workplace abuse and the misuse of the label 'victim' by either party (subordinate or manager) in an interpersonal conflict (Einarsen, 1999;. Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). When this process occurs, the perpetrator may gradually weaken the target through constant accusations of bullying to the point that, if a power imbalance did not previously exist, it is created (Einarsen et al., 2003). In summary, the misuse of the label 'victim' appears to be an essential part of the upwards bullying experience of half of the interviewees in the present study.

It has been proposed that the level of isolation the manager has within the organisation is a major factor that influences how a manager can be bullied. Zapf et al. (2003) proposed that when a staff member does bully a manager, the staff member would need the support of other managers in the organisation. Such support is seen as necessary in order to overcome the formal organisational position of the manager. Initial analysis of the interview transcripts suggests that frequently, the perpetrator has support from a colleague to use the organisationally sanctioned formal grievance or dispute system. Interestingly, the interviewees reported that they perceived their own supervisor may actually be seen by the perpetrator as supporting the grievance against the manager through their inaction to resolve the problem. The absence of supervisor support for the manager undermines the manager's actual legitimate power, but even more importantly, the perception of legitimate power.

Another intriguing finding from the interview study is the managers' reluctance to seek support and assistance because they feel it may hurt their standing in the organisation (Lee, 1997). The lack of support mechanisms available to managers in upwards bullying situations may also serve to further isolate them from sources of support. A number of managers interviewed expressed frustration that there was little assistance available for them when they sought support, especially from their supervisor. Disciplinary action against the staff member appears to be the only action or resource available to managers when they seek assistance. Only one participant interviewed has been offered support to help them deal with bullying from a subordinate. Specific intervention strategies and skilled assistance is needed for managers who are faced with upwards bullying by their staff so as to reduce the deleterious impact of such behaviour on the manager, the workgroup and the organisation. Initial analysis of the interview study indicates that it is a rich source of data that will contribute to a clearer understanding of the phenomenon of upwards bullying.

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Sara Branch is currently undertaking a doctoral study into Upwards Bullying. She is an Organisational Psychologist with an interest in workplace conflict, change and transitions to the workplace. Dr Michael Sheehan and Professor Michelle Barker have an established international reputation in the area of research into workplace bullying. They, together with other colleagues, have pioneered the Australian work in this area. Dr Sheryl Ramsay is an Organisational Psychologist researching into social psychological approaches to workplace bullying. All are members of the Centre for Work, Leisure and Community and the Griffith Business School, Griffith University, Australia.

## **An investigation into workplace bullying and organisational culture in healthcare within an Irish hospital setting**

Ann Breen & Patricia Mannix McNamara

The purpose of the research was to investigate within a hospital setting workplace bullying of healthcare staff in the context of organisational culture and its impact on the health and well being of staff.

The research involved three consecutive phases using both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Phase one consisted of a survey distribution to a random selection of staff within a large Regional hospital, which was a convenience sample.

Phase two involved individual interview with participants who self selected to participate further to survey completion while the final phase involved a focus group of similar participants. The emphasis was on gaining a comprehensive insight into workplace bullying as perceived by all grades of staff within the hospital.

The research findings indicate that workplace bullying is a significant issue for healthcare workers in the hospital in this study and, clearly, an understanding of the phenomenon cannot be separated from the culture in which the healthcare workers function on a daily basis. Department managers and seniors/supervisors have significantly emerged in the research process through survey, focus group and interview as instigators of bullying behaviour. The misuse of power both formally by managers and senior staff and informally by colleagues was a finding in the study. The culture of the hospital as a workplace is an underlying factor in workplace bullying. The study has found that the effects of bullying can be severely debilitating. Healthcare workers who experienced bullying had a strong desire to leave their workplace as they were disillusioned by current attempts within the organisation to both formally and informally address bullying.

Bullying impacts negatively on the workplace and has implications for staff retention and sick leave. For those that struggle to stay in the workplace there is reduced job satisfaction and commitment on the part of these staff members.

A Health Promoting Hospital philosophy embodies the principles of equity, participation, collaboration and empowerment in relation to staff and service users. The Department of Health and Children in the Health Strategy (Quality and Fairness 2001) endorses this philosophy in stating the need to become an employer of choice. Bullying directly contravenes this vision for healthcare staff. It is in direct conflict with the principles of a caring community that a hospital should aspire to be.

Future research in the chosen hospital should look at positive and negative work culture and its impact on bullying in the context of a single organisation, which embodies the same vision, and mission. Longitudinal research should look at the long-term effects of bullying on victims personal and work life and the recovery process with a view to informing preventative activities and rehabilitation of victims.

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## **Bullying and harassment at work: A contribution to the concept of “social capital”**

Elisabeth Bukspan  
National Centre for National Research, France

Even before the 19<sup>th</sup> century revolution that established modern economics, anything contributing to productivity or efficiency could be understood as capital. But capital, which classical economic analysts limited to financial or physical assets, tended to underestimate the social nature of private as well as public organisations. Those analysts notably overlooked the value of social connections or networks, and the common values shared by employees that lead to involvement in policies, cooperation, and teamwork. Furthermore, they underestimated both the contribution and know-how of each employee, and the learning abilities of the organisations themselves.

The notion of Social Capital, though largely linked to sociology by the works of Pierre Bourdieu in France, equally finds its roots in the science of economics. Social Capital was initially reserved to macroeconomic analysis of the public politics of regions and countries by researchers such as Robert Putnam, or the Nobel Prize winners Gary Becker and more recently by Joseph Stiglitz. Based on market imperfections, and incorporating non-economic variables, Social Capital has become important to the World Bank and the IMF. It is reputed to help promote good economic performance, and it is used to better control and allocate public expenditure in order to serve the public interest in a theoretically optimum way.

The concept of Social Capital, however, is mobilised more and more to explain and measure the creation of value in the field of economic research on public administrations as well as the economics of firms. This marks a new approach of microeconomics, which should experience important developments in the coming years, focussing in particular on the enrichment of historic theories like that of “transaction costs”, and also on more recent research endeavours such as “irrational economic behaviour” studies. Among the latter, one can cite those on external diseconomies linked to non-ethical behaviours such as bullying or harassment in “toxic” organisations.

What are the reasons for the tremendous success that Social Capital enjoys among micro-economists and practitioners of firms and government administrations, especially in Anglo Saxon countries? How does the economic approach use the concept of social capital to acknowledge, integrate and analyse social issues such as bullying and harassment at work in firms as well as in public administrations?

At which point in the life of a firm (audit before purchase, or capital increase, for instance), does Social Capital become an operational tool, allowing the market to fix a price?

Does the accountancy system reflect these theoretical and practical developments?

Do the new forms of social quotation used by investment funds that take into account ethical norms and values such as trust in the firms, also refer to anti-bullying and anti—harassment policies?

Can Social Capital and the struggle against bullying and harassment help wage war for talent, and for retaining talents in the firm?

As for public administrations, public management reform has been a major political issue in many industrialised countries for some time now, due to the search for increased civic participation and ethical behaviour in organisations. Central to the question of government administration is the question of democratic control of bureaucracy, and of accountability.

The first steps in exploring the possible tensions between the increase in effectiveness and the sharpening of management accountability show the difficulty of the task in organisations where ethical standards are founded on a self-proclaimed neutrality or benevolence of a rational administration. The current wisdom in management theory is, according to some authors, the dogma of shared values. Agreement between the organisation's values and those of employees is regarded as a prerequisite for effective performance. But what about coalition phenomena encouraged by the self-reproduction of specific closed groups? In other words, who guards us against our guardians?

In matters such as bullying and harassment, and more generally, evil in public administrations, this issue is one of the most difficult to unveil and address. It used to be, more often than not, overlooked or dismissed as involving "difficult" individuals. However, recent records of government administrations show that it is possible to adhere to the tenets of civil service and participate in a great evil, without sometimes being realised.

Public management reform is also a major concern because of the necessity of public spending control, and a more appropriate way of delivering public goods and welfare services to better-educated and better-informed customers and citizens.

Public organizations depend on a minimum level of ethical behaviour to function efficiently and effectively, and to maintain public confidence in the authorities.

So how does Public management reform relate to Social Capital? What does the latter teach us about the three economic E's in public bodies, namely Efficiency, Effectiveness and Equity? Can Social Capital contribute to remedy the worst cases of bullying that are to be met in Public administrations?

These are some of the questions this contribution addresses. In order to answer them, this study examines the latest developments of economic research as well as concrete examples of the application of the concept of Social Capital in business and in public administrations, in France and throughout the world.

It examines how the use of this new economic concept could help "bring forward" the issue of bullying, harassment and participate in the advancement of public policies and private initiatives against toxic human behaviour at work

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Elisabeth Bukspan is a graduate of France's prestigious "ENA" senior civil servants' college. She works with the Finance Ministry's auditing agency as a General Inspector of Finance. Elisabeth has taken a personal interest in "Ethics, Economics and Management" for several years. She advises several Private and Public major organizations such as Business firms, Ministries, Parliaments and Trade Unions on Bullying, Violence at Work, and Social Capital.

## Humour as a predictor of workplace bullying

Christopher D. B. Burt  
University of Canterbury, New Zealand

Bullying can be a costly and on going problem for many organisations, with bullied employees showing increased stress, health issues, absenteeism, turn-over and reduced productivity. Bullying encompasses behaviours such as harassment, tormenting, social exclusion, offensive remarks, gossiping, verbal abuse and sometimes physical abuse. From the bullies' perspective, it is possible that they perceive some of their bullying behaviour as humorous. Humour can be defined by responses (laughing) to specific types of communication (jokes) and by a propensity to offer specific types of communication (jokes). Thorson and Powells (1993) defined humour as having 4 dimensions: *Humour generation* – use of humour in social situations; *Coping/adaptive humour* – trying to see the funny side of things; *Humour appreciation* – laughing at others jokes, and *Appreciation of humorous people*. Humour can also be defined by examining responses to specific types of joke (whether the individual finds them funny), such as puns, ethnic, stereotypic, trade, sick and sexual jokes, as is done in Anthony's (1994) Humour and Humour Assessment Survey.

Humour has been shown to have many beneficial effects: reducing anxiety, reducing tension, reducing stress, improved self-esteem, increasing immune system functioning, improved productivity, and increased job satisfaction. Thus employees may be afforded a number of benefits from using humour in the workplace. However, not all forms of humour are appropriate for the workplace and humour which degrades, diffuses attention or expresses hostility and aggression could be perceived as bullying.

In this study relationships between humour and bullying were investigated. We investigated whether bullying could be predicted by an individual having a preference for a particular type of humour. We also investigated whether individuals that report being bullied (victims of bullying) might have a low appreciation of humour and humorous people.

One hundred and thirty workers from an industrial manufacturing plant participated in the study. Each participant completed the Multidimensional Sense of Humour Scale (Thorson & Powell, 1993a), the Humour and Humour Assessment Survey (Anthony, 1994), and an adapted version of the Bullying Questionnaire (Matthieson, 2000). For the latter measure, which contained 29 statements (e.g., Spreading gossip and rumours, Threats of violence or physical abuse) we asked respondents to rate each item on two 5 point scales (1= Never to 5 = Daily): one rating for how often they had *experienced the behaviour*, and the other rating for how often the respondent had *subjected others to* these behaviours, over the last 6 months. In this way we hoped to be able to define both bullies and victims of bullying within the sample.

Results indicated a mean rating for *experienced* bullying behaviours of 46.8 (range 30-104), and a mean rating for *subjected others to* bullying behaviours of 38.15 (range 29-90). The Pearson correlation between *experienced* and *subjected others to* bullying behaviours was reasonably high ( $r = .60, P > .01$ ), suggesting that some individuals both engage in bullying and subject others to bullying. Regression analysis was used to examine predictors of bullying and of being a victim of bullying. Engaging in bullying behaviours was significantly predicted by the tendency to tell sick jokes (as measured by the Humour and Humour Assessment Survey) and attitudes toward humour. No humour dimensions were significant predictors of being a victim of bullying, but there was a trend in the data for victims of



bullying to have lower scores on *humour appreciation* as measured by the Multidimensional Measure of Sense of Humour.

In conclusion, this study suggests that individuals who find sick jokes funny are more likely to engage in bullying. Furthermore, individuals who rated themselves as bullied seemed to have a less favourable attitude toward humour.

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## Workplace behaviour and staff interactions: A case study of teachers in Victorian secondary schools

Nikola Djurkovic  
La Trobe University, Australia

This case study will look in some detail at the case of 'William', a teacher at a private secondary college in Melbourne, Australia. At the time of the interview, William had been employed at the school for just over two years. He had also worked previously in the government school system for five years.

William considers himself to be approaching the 'senior' level of staff, given his extra responsibility of being a year-level coordinator, his length of teaching experience (seven years), and also the fact that he teaches senior year level students. He claims that teaching staff, generally speaking, get on well at the school. He says the teachers "*share common goals*" and that "*most of the teachers at the school act professionally*".

William believes, however, that there have been problems that the school's administration chooses to ignore. He describes the atmosphere amongst the teachers and the school's management as "*heated*". "*The Principal is just a bully, he will just stomp all over you if he disagrees with you, he never takes onboard anything his staff have said*".

William is strongly of the opinion that the school's management do not provide the staff with the support they require to do their jobs properly... "*There is a lot of pressure on teaching staff at the moment, but I cannot think of a single time the Principal has provided us with support. The Principal lacks empathy for staff who are having problems in the classroom*".

*Some bullying literature (e.g. Smith & Sharp, 1994) refers to people who are known as 'provocative victims', victims whose behaviour is one of the contributing factors to the bullying. A similar concept discussed in the workplace victimisation literature (e.g. Aquino et al., 1999; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). 'Victim precipitation' proposes that some people, knowingly or unknowingly, behave in ways that contribute to their victimisation. William's account of his victimisation seems to fit into this category. "In my first year at this school I just stood out. I must have seemed like a troublemaker to the school's management. I was actively involved in the union and I was vocal about my thoughts on certain issues during staff meetings with the school's management. That is just the way I am. Some of the other staff loved me for it. I had the courage to say what a lot of them wanted to say but were too scared, but in the end it was damaging my career"*.

*William describes a situation in which he was pressured into giving students pass grades that they did not deserve. This has happened on more than one occasion. "The students here need to know that there are rules that must be followed, that there is a line they cannot cross. To fail a kid here is almost impossible. I was told by the Principal to rewrite a report and pass a student who should have failed. It was really intimidating. That particular student really should have failed the subject, but I was coerced into letting him pass". He also feels that the Principal's attitude is having an adverse impact on his ability to perform his job. "I don't want the Principal tapping me on the shoulder again telling me I have to pass a kid. That places a great deal of unnecessary strain on me as a teacher"*.

*William's experiences provide evidence of the effects of a 'power imbalance' in situations of bullying. He describes an incident in which he was involved with one of the school's Deputy Principals, who teaches the same subject. "The Deputy Principal was straying into my classroom and telling me how to operate. The way I run my classroom is my business so I should have control of it".*

*William feels that the Deputy Principal was abusing his authority and the ongoing mistreatment led to heated exchanges where William reacted very angrily. It got to the stage that William could no longer cope with the way he was being treated. The situation got so bad that on one occasion William shouted at the Deputy Principal "I don't know who the f\*\*k you think you are. Out there you might be the f\*\*king Deputy Principal, but here in the classroom you're just another teacher like me".*

*A few weeks had passed and the Deputy Principal had totally ignored William. By this stage William thought it was time to do something about it. "It wasn't a workable situation. I went to the HR Manager and asked him to mediate the situation. The major problem was that the HR Manager and the Deputy Principal have been working together for over 10 years. They just backed each other up, so it really was no use". Eventually the Principal got involved, and William felt that the Deputy Principal, the HR Manager and the Principal were all treating him differently to the way they had previously. "I wasn't physically intimidated, but I felt totally powerless... You feel the hair on your neck go up when you walk past them in the corridor" was the way he described the degree of intimidation he felt at the time.*

The matter was not totally resolved. Even though they are on speaking terms, William believes he is treated differently to other teachers at the school. *"I am the only staff member in my department who has not been allocated a budget for new equipment, and the Deputy Principal happens to be the one responsible for allocating the budget".* Furthermore, he believes the incident mentioned above has led to unfavourable treatment by the Principal and the HR Manager, illustrated by William's comment that *"I would never apply for a more senior position here if they were on the selection panel. I'd realistically have no chance of a promotion here whilst they are in charge of things, regardless of my level of ability or suitability. They don't like me anymore so I wouldn't even be considered for a promotion".*

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## **Assessing workplace bullying for the juridical claim for damages: An empirical method of acknowledgement**

Dr. Harald Ege, Ph.D  
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### *Introduction*

This contribution is founded upon two general assumptions: 1) science needs objective, definite criteria and Justice asks for scientific certainty; 2) bullying causes damages and the only form of recoument which Justice acknowledges is through money.

The claim for damages in front of a Court is one of the most gratifying ways for a victim of bullying in the workplace to come out of his/her dramatic situation.

As far as health is concerned, medical science, and psychiatry in particular, can dispose of specific instruments in order to estimate the damage caused by bullying on the psycho-physical health of the mobbee. A biological damage, that is a damage on the health of a person, in the Italian law system can be quantified on the basis of specific tables and mathematic calculations.

However, bullying affects beyond the mere biological level: mobbees can be deeply injured professionally, economically, socially, personally, familiarly, etc. The whole existential sphere of a person can be damaged by a bullying event at work.

Work psychologists are then called by lawyers and judges (in this case as expert witnesses) to evaluate the particular bullying damage, which is to be added to the biological damage appraised by medical consultants.

In the role of bullying experts, work psychologists have basically two tasks: 1) to ascertain if the case is bullying or not, that is to assess the feasibility of the suit for bullying; 2) if so, to quantify the damage suffered by the person in consequence of bullying, that is to fix the measure of the monetary indemnity due to the mobbee.

### *Explanation*

This paper presents a new empirical method for the recognition and estimation of bullying for the juridical claim for damages, which has been worked out in order to answer to the increasing demand for competence and objectivity put to work psychologists by Justice.

This method has been published in Italy in 2002 with the name of "Metodo Ege 2002" and has already been officially acknowledged and applied in several lawsuits. It consists of three steps:

1) Identification of bullying in a work event on the basis of seven parameters.

The mere perception of the victim is not enough in order to assess bullying: actually many people just think they are bullied, even if it is not the case (Liefoghe, Mackenzie Davey, 2001).

On the basis of the results coming on one hand from the classical research and on the other from direct practical experience (more than 3000 individual cases personally investigated by the author), the method establishes seven parameters of identification of workplace bullying:

1. work context (conflict happening in the workplace);
2. frequency (actions occurring at least some times a months);
3. duration (conflict has been going on for at least six months);
4. kind of actions (actions belonging to at least two of Leymann's five categories);
5. difference of the level of the two antagonists (victim in constant position of inferiority);
6. progress through phases (conflict evolving in a predefinite pattern);
7. persecution purpose (mobber performing a precise negative strategy).

A specific version of LIPT is used in order to obtain the data about frequency, duration and kind of actions; the other four parameters are checked during a personal interview. If every parameter is respected, then the work event can be assessed with objective certainty as workplace bullying.

The method also includes two exceptions (borderline situations that can be defined bullying even if some parameters are not respected).

2) Evaluation of the percentage of the bullying damage on the working capacity of the mobbee.

If the case is assessed as bullying, the expert can go on with his/her task and proceed to the evaluation of the degrees of the bullying damage, defined as the reduction of the working capacity of the mobbee. This reduction is calculated on the basis of several factors, such as the duration, frequency and actual phase of bullying, the gender, age and income of the victim.

The damage is basically economic, because the social difficulties of the mobbee cause firstly a professional impoverishment (cut in wages, loss of the workplace, damages to the professional or personal image, loss of professional chances, missed promotions, disciplinary measures, etc), but it normally has an added existential factor, concerning the consequences of bullying on the private, personal and social life of the individual (decrease of the interest in the private life and free time, reduction or loss of the libido, drop of self confidence, self esteem and future expectations, marital crisis, etc).

All these factors are put in reciprocal ratio with a mathematic calculation, through which the bullying expert comes to define the percentage of bullying damage suffered by the victim.

3) Monetary quantification of the claim for damages due to the victim.

The percentage of bullying damage is then to be transformed into a monetary amount, representing the compensation due to the mobbee for his/her professional chances reduction (his/her residual possibilities of finding a new job) and for the suffered existential damage.

This last step of the method is achieved by specific Tables of Monetary Quantification, which take into account the age and gender of the victim, the inflation rate, the trend of the work market, etc.

### *Conclusion*

This method is obviously tightly connected to the Italian law system and consequently could be applied in other countries only with objective difficulties and perhaps substantial adjustments.

This is the reason why it is now presented on international level not only as a practical tool, but mainly as a hint. The author is persuaded that a crucial path for the future bullying research should actually be to find out objective criteria for the scientific identification of workplace bullying.

This is actually the starting point not only to the juridical evaluation of the bullying damage, but also to the traditional tasks of Work Psychology, such as the support to the mobbees and the training in the field of bullying and conflict for individuals, professionals and organizations.

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Work psychologist, BDP and EAWOP member. In 1996 introduced the knowledge of workplace bullying in Italy. In 1998 carried out the first study on bullying in Italy. Expert Witness in bullying lawsuits. Founder and Director of PRIMA, the first Italian organisation devoted to support to mobbees, investigation and training. Founder and president of A.P.E.M, private Italian professional association of bullying experts. Author of many books on bullying (i.e. Mobbing: New perspective and results from an Italian Investigation, Pitagora, Bologna, 2002). Main contributions: the notion of "Cultural Mobbing", the Italian six-phase model, the "Double Mobbing" and the "Metodo Ege 2002".

## **Titijob: A Danish rehabilitation project**

Inger Lise Eriksen-Jensen  
HK/Handel Århus, Denmark

### *Background for the “Titijob” project*

Bullying has been reported to HK/Århus (the Århus branch of the Union of Commercial and Clerical Employees in Denmark) with increasing frequency since 1991. In 1991 there was about one report a week – but in 2002 there was one a day, and this tendency continues. In 1991 HK/Århus had 26,133 members, and in 2002 there were 28,391.

Owing to the increased focus on this issue (primarily in HK/Handel), and increasing concern about the number of people reporting bullying, the union asked itself a number of questions:

- Why has the number of union members who are unhappy at work increased so much?
- What can we do to increase our awareness and ability to detect any trace of bullying?
- Why do the victims of bullying exhibit such strong reactions (both in the situation itself and in the long term)?
- What can a responsible union do to stop the increase in reported cases of bullying?

The focus on bullying increased when it became apparent that bullying often leads to victims being marginalised on the labour market. This awareness arose by chance. The first seed was sown when the union carried out a survey of people who had suffered from bullying within the past two years. This survey followed a course of supplementary training attended by Inger Lise Eriksen-Jensen. The next seed was sown when Eva Gemzøe Mikkelsen contacted the union and asked for assistance in distributing material to a control group of bullying victims in connection with her PhD project.

The new awareness was presented in a number of contexts – union activities, conferences, dialogue with the newspapers etc. The result was a partnership with a consultant from a project called “The Inclusive Labour Market”, and this led to an application for funding for a pre-project under the local pool of the Coordination Committee for the Inclusive Labour Market in Århus.

### *The pre-project*

The problem of bullying on the labour market and its consequences was demonstrated in the pre-project for the Titijob project from 15/12 2001 to 31/12 2002. The pre-project included interviews of 45 victims of bullying (15 new victims, 15 who had suffered from bullying more than one year ago, and 15 who had suffered from bullying more than five years ago). The tendency for such victims to be marginalised or excluded from the labour market was highly apparent, as were the huge costs of bullying for society. The pre-project also included work by Specular (a group of psychologists), focusing on ways of preparing victims of bullying for rehabilitation, agreements with companies regarding re-entry into the labour market, research into the occurrence of PTSD by Eva Gemzøe Mikkelsen, and last but not least the creation of a website at [www.mobning.nu](http://www.mobning.nu) (in Danish only at the moment).

### *The Titijob project – a rehabilitation project*

The results of the pre-project formed the basis of an application for funds to rehabilitate victims of bullying who had all been marginalised or excluded from the labour market. Funds were granted for the period 1/6 2002 - 30/11 2004.

### *Description of rehabilitation in the Titijob project*

The Titijob project contains a number of elements – but the main element concerns the rehabilitation of 15 victims of bullying in all fields of work. These victims are all either out of work, or off sick, or being retrained. Most of them have been given the diagnosis PTSD. The process of rehabilitation lasts two years, and contains three different activities (training course, work and research). The training course started in August 2002, and finishes in June 2004.

The method used by the training course centre will be described by way of introduction to our presentation at the conference:

Specular was chosen for the training course because it has a tried and tested method of working with people. In Danish “Specular” stands for “Reflection in depth”, and here is a brief description of Specular’s philosophy and method:

The Specular method is based on the fundamental idea that everyone has a positive core. A core that provides a permanent state of preparedness to deal with problems and inhibitions. This core is not static, but contains the potential for development. The Specular method focuses on all aspects of the human being: body, emotions and thought processes, plus the underlying energy structures that connect the body, emotions and thoughts with each other. The broad scope of this method ensures that participants learn to work on a problem from a number of different angles in a process that allows time for immersion and development.

The method used in the work activities is balanced carefully to match the training course activities, in close collaboration with the organisation running the course. Inger Lise Eriksen-Jensen has had primary responsibility for the work activities, and has functioned as the anchor and company consultant when the participants re-enter the labour market. Tailor-made material has been drawn up for the companies taking part, and a Café Seminar is arranged at all these companies.

At the conference Inger Lise Eriksen-Jensen, the project manager, will primarily concern herself with the rehabilitation part of the process – based on the experience gained so far.

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Union consultant at HK (the Union of Commercial and Clerical Employees in Denmark) since 1983, project manager and process consultant at HK since 1998. Has completed two projects - "Senior visions in the retail trade" and "Pre-project for Titijob". A very popular speaker in all types of organisation. Teaches psychological first aid, and assertion training. Has completed a basic course in adult education (VPG), courses in general education theory, a basic project manager course, and a course of supplementary education in psychology including advanced studies lasting a total of eight years. Inger Lise has conducted more than 600 interviews with victims of bullying.

## **The victim's journey**

Evelyn M. Field

When organizations deal early and firmly with bullying, employees are less likely to be injured. Most require a fair resolution and a safe workplace. However most organizations don't comply. As a psychologist in private practice and a professional speaker, I am very aware of the limits of support, knowledge and therapeutic assistance provided to victims of workplace bullying by employers, mental and medical health professionals, lawyers, insurance and rehabilitation companies. In addition, there is little understanding of how the mediocre or antagonistic intervention by their organization, medico-legal specialists, the law and insurance company etc create another level of injury leading to secondary traumatization. There is limited understanding of trauma, leading to poor diagnoses. Often traumatised victims are inadequately labelled as having a chronic stress condition or depression. Many victims are pressured to return to work too early. Their whole future can be affected by their diagnosis. Their injuries can be very difficult to understand. This makes it difficult to assist them, many are mislabelled with personality disorders etc. There is limited research on how to effectively treat victims with workplace bullying injuries. Treatment can take years using a variety of orthodox and non- orthodox treatment methods. Thus victims suffer further. Basically it is very difficult to know how to help victims of workplace bullying cope and move on. Thus, over the past few years I have been working on a very rough guideline to help me deal more effectively with victims individually, in my group and with their doctors, lawyers etc. I have researched the work of other psychologists and Dr Elizabeth Kubler Ross. However, ultimately this model suits my work. I value any feedback I can receive.

*Introduction: The process of being a target or recipient of workplace bullying.*

Some targets or recipients experience bullying behaviours but are not affected. Their survival instinct compels them to do something about the bullying behaviours. Either they know how to respond assertively, play games, confront or escape when convenient. They don't become stuck or paralysed.

*The victim's journey*

Every victim of workplace bullying experiences different stages on their way to becoming a survivor. At any stage they can feel very angry, scared and sad. This simple model is designed to create some understanding of the stages they experience. They can work through a number of stages simultaneously. Most require some form of validation to move on. I will include some cases, brief suggestions, more will be included in my workshop and forthcoming book.

*Stage 1: The initial impact – identify the bullying behaviours*

The target identifies at a conscious or unconscious level that something is very wrong. These bullying behaviours are not fair. They represent an abuse of their human rights.

There experiences include: shock, doubt, confusion, bewilderment, unreality, denial, guilt, self-blame, anger, justice, hope, physically sick,

*Stage 2. The unsuccessful attempt to stop the bullying behaviours*

Although the target confronts the bully and higher levels of management, they deny, minimise, condone, retaliate or lack the structures to stop the bullying. They forget their ethical and legal duty of care towards their employees. They do not realise that a target only

requires a genuine apology and a safe workplace. Many targets utilise their survival instinct to fight, flee or freeze (do nothing).

*Stage 3. The search for validation and justice*

Many victims feel blamed and humiliated. They search for vindication and *validation* to prove that they were a good employee and did nothing wrong. Many pursue *justice* to punish the bullies and the organization. Legal action may provide them with *validation* and *financial compensation*. Many are in *limbo* until lengthy, legal avenues have been explored, resolved or abandoned. Once they feel validated they can move on.

*Stage 4. Identifying and dealing with your injuries*

The target is now aware of their injury. They experience new painful and debilitating feelings eg such as helplessness, shame and humiliation. They *obsess* for many months about the bullying and its impact on them. They are more *suspicious* and *less trusting* of people. They are consumed with *anger* about the bullying and *fear* for what may happen next. They experience physical and psychological symptoms.

*Stage 5. Acceptance of your bullying experiences*

The victim needs to acknowledge all the changes to their life which have affected them since the bullying began. Then they have to change their faulty beliefs, accept the truth, including the lack of justice and their injuries.

*Stage 6. Mourn your losses*

Victims need to mourn their many losses, eg health, career, financial status, relationships. Their personality has changed, some losses are temporary, others are permanent.

*Stage 7. Becoming a survivor*

A *survivor* makes the best of a rotten situation. Victims need to slowly rebuild their lives. Moving on means *new beginnings*. Some survivors will find a *special meaning* to their experience.

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Evelyn M. Field is a psychologist in private practice. She treats child and adult victims of bullying. She is also a professional speaker and presents keynotes and workshops to schools and organizations on dealing with school and workplace bullying. Her first book, 'Bully Busting' (Finch 1999) is a self-help book for parents, children and educators. It is based on her unique model of the six social survival skills. She is currently completing a self help book on dealing with workplace bullying.

## **Development of a framework for assessing risks relating to workplace bullying**

Sabir I. Giga & Helge Hoel  
University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology

### *Introduction*

The problem of workplace bullying has received considerable attention over the last few years, with a number of studies reporting on its prevalence, pervasiveness and impact on individuals and organisations. Closer scrutiny of workplace bullying research, particularly examination of cross-sectional data from different occupational sectors and longitudinal national statistics indicate that some groups are at more risk than others (Di Martino, Hoel and Cooper, 2003).

Whilst particular antecedents of bullying may vary greatly between occupational sectors, the occupational environment, organisational structure, policies, job roles and task demands are major determining factors in the level of stress and negative behaviour exposure faced by employees. Current best practice guidelines from stress research suggest that we need to recognise and deal with these issues more accurately by developing an understanding of situational factors and risks, in order to ensure targeted and thus potentially more sensitive intervention strategies (Giga, Faragher and Cooper, 2003).

In response, particular risk assessment tools have been developed for the purpose of hazard identification and reduction. According to Spurgeon (2003) a risk management framework could also successfully be applied to tackle the problem of workplace bullying. Such an approach acknowledges bullying as being an organisational problem and highlights the responsibility of managers for its prevention and control.

As indicated above, a central element of a risk management strategy is the development of appropriate tool for hazard identification and assessment. Furthermore, it is acknowledged that both subjective and objective measures need to be incorporated for such an approach to be effective. This paper reports on the first stage of a study sponsored by the British Occupational Health Research Foundation (BOHRF) concerned with evaluating the effectiveness of interventions to deal with destructive interpersonal conflict in organisations and deliberates on the processes involved in developing a risk assessment tool specifically for workplace bullying.

### *Method*

In order to develop a risk assessment tool a focus group study was carried out. A total of 50 focus groups were conducted involving almost 300 participants from 5 organisations, including three NHS Trusts, one Central Government Department and a large Police Force. At the beginning of each focus group session, participants were provided a list of negative acts (NAQ R) (Einarsen and Hoel, 2001). Previous studies have suggested that there is a need for more sensitive instruments, suggesting that different types of behaviour may have different meaning depending upon factors such as context, gender and age (Einarsen et al., 2003). Consequently participants were requested to individually indicate how difficult they would find each of the behaviours from the list to deal with if they were subjected to them, by choosing one of four options varying from (0) not at all difficult to (3) very difficult. Participants were provided the opportunity to list other negative behaviours which they personally found difficult but which were not present on the list provided and were also asked

to identify organisational or situational factors which may give rise to or contribute to bullying. The completed responses then served as a vehicle for discussion.

Both participant responses and transcriptions of recorded sessions were analysed further. Similar instruments used in risk assessment of other psychosocial hazards were also identified and assessed.

### *Results*

Preliminary results from focus groups highlight behaviour involving some degree of personal attack as most difficult to deal with, with behaviours such as humiliation, being ignored, personal allegations and persistent criticism rated as most difficult. Focus group participants also identified behaviours that were not listed on the NAQ(R) and which they found difficult to deal with. These include issues such as uncooperative colleagues or subordinates and lack of management support and recognition. However, discrepancies exist both within specific organisations as well as between different organisations. For example, certain negative behaviours such as being ordered to work below their level of competence are normalised by some individuals as being a part of their job specification, and in some instances even welcomed, whereas as for others it is much more problematic.

Issues such as increasing workload and time pressures are reported frequently as organisational factors or situations which may increase the likelihood of conflict and bullying. From the review of other relevant risk assessment tools, the objective part of the questionnaire should entail collection of general organisational data, such as absenteeism, turnover, complaints and grievances, change and performance etc. which may highlight specific areas of the organisation that may be experiencing problems.

### *Discussion*

As the preliminary analysis of both focus group transcripts and forms used for assessment of severity of behaviour demonstrate, it is impossible to generically rate the severity of individual negative behaviour and related risks as perceptions vary considerably between organisations, levels in organisations and demographic groups. However, whilst, in line with definitions of bullying frequency may be considered a proxy for severity, the findings suggest that it is important to understand the negative behaviour within its context, highlighting the importance of employee involvement at all stages of the process.

It is suggested that a risk assessment tool which includes objective and subjective measures and which acknowledges the impact of context on bullying is likely to be most successful in identifying and assessing risk. Moreover, by combining subjective and objective measures, the involvement of employees is highlighted, whilst emphasising the overall responsibility of control for risk management and risk reduction.

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Dr Helge Hoel is Centrica lecturer in Change Management at the Manchester School of Management, University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology (UMIST), where his time is divided equally between the International Business Group and the Organisational Psychology Group. After a varied career in the Norwegian hotel and catering industry, he came to Britain in 1991 to study Human Resource Management and Industrial Relations. After completing his MSc, he held a number of posts at the University of Salford, where he was involved with research and teaching in the field of occupational health and safety. Prior to taking up his post as lecturer, he was working together with Professor Cary Cooper (UMIST) undertaking the first nationwide survey of workplace bullying to be undertaken in the UK. He has published a number of articles and book-chapters on the issue of bullying and harassment for academics and practitioners, and contributed to public debate on the issue at numerous conferences and seminars.

## **The Medical Centre for Occupational Stress and Harassment (CDL) of Clinica del Lavoro “Luigi Devoto”, Milan, Italy**

Dr. Renato Gilioli  
University of Milan

In Italy the issue of psychological harassment at work began to raise the interest of public opinion and of scientific community only after 1995. Heinz Leymann, a few years earlier, was invited to give a seminar at the Post Graduate School of Occupational Medicine of the University of Milan, but the cultural climate was not yet ready to be confronted with this phenomenon.

In 1996, despite initial suspicions and a certain cultural delay with respect to Northern Europe, it was decided to activate the first Italian Medical Centre at the Milan University with a day hospital service in the “Clinica del Lavoro Luigi Devoto”. This centre, named Medical Centre for Occupational Stress and Harassment (CDL), was aimed at carrying out diagnostic work-up as well as preventive/rehabilitation interventions on patients suspected of having developed a medical condition connected with the workplace situation.

CDL is a public hospital centre with a staff of occupational physicians, psychiatrists, psychologists, psychotherapists and technicians. From its inception, some 4.000 persons coming from the entire national territory were examined. The increase in hospital admissions, in terms of number of persons, has been constant throughout the years rising from 132 in 1997 to 782 in 2003. CDL still represents a public medical reference centre for harassment-related disorders in Italy, although other centres have been set up more recently. CDL carries out mainly clinical activity and the patients are generally taken to the day hospital when the psychophysical impairment has reached a certain degree of severity.

In 2002, CDL was recognised by the Italian Ministry of Labour as an example of good practice.

The patients are taken to the CDL day hospital in order to evaluate the presence of a situation of psychological harassment at work and its consequences on the subjects' health. An ad hoc protocol for harassment-related disorder is adopted. It comprises a general medical examination with a thorough collection of the occupational history, a psychiatric interview, a psychological interview and a battery of psychological tests, including a questionnaire developed for the evaluation of harassment, a subjective symptoms questionnaire, an occupational stress questionnaire, personality tests as well as projective tests. The aim is to obtain a profile of the social-emotional balance, the personality, and behavioural disorders. An important objective is the establishment, whenever possible, of the compatibility between the clinical picture and harassment.

CDL is also involved in preventive work by means of spreading of information, raising general awareness, arouse individual insight into the phenomenon, and training. In the last few years courses for health professionals, managers, human resources directors, legal community, unions and workers were run. In addition, papers and pamphlets have been published with the same target and a consensus document of the Italian Society of Occupational Medicine on harassment at work appeared in the journal “La Medicina del Lavoro” in 2001. A booklet named “Raising awareness of psychological harassment at work”

was jointly produced in 2003 by the World Health Organization, CDL and the Institut Universitaire Romand de Santé au Travail (Lausanne).

Scientific studies are in progress: the case profiles of CDL patients are being examined with a view to reaching more insight into the phenomenon. Thus far, a sample of 300 subjects taken at random has been analysed. The study objective is to obtain statistical data regarding gender, age, education, profession, duration of harassment and to establish how many subjects have developed harassment-related health effects. The entire protocol of the sample of 300 subjects was examined with the following results: 36% of the patients received a diagnosis that had no correlation with harassment, 55% was diagnosed as Adjustment Disorder and 9% as Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder.

In these last two groups, reaching 64% of the total, about half had high probability of harassment while in the other half the probability was not as high. 47% were male and 53% were female; 46% were in 45-54 years age range; 55% had over 14 years of school attendance; 57% were clerks, 31% managers, 5% were blue collars; 56% worked in the private sector, 44% in the public sector; 41% underwent harassment for a period from 2 to 4 years.

These data show that in our sample of workers coming from different parts of Italy psychological harassment is a real psychosocial risk that can produce significant health effects in the area of stress-related disorders.

Further studies are ongoing with a progressively increasing analysis of 3.706 cases (as of January 31st 2004).

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## **Emotion work in leader-subordinate relationships**

Lars Glasø & Ståle Einarsen  
University of Bergen

The aim of this study is to explore to what extent leaders and subordinates suppress and fake their emotions during interaction. The study was conducted using two samples with a total of 342 respondents, 135 leaders and 207 subordinates from both private and public sector. The respondents completed a questionnaire on emotion work and three more questionnaires: The Leader Member-Exchange Inventory (LMX), Facet Free Job Satisfaction and Subjective Health Complaints Inventory (SHC). The study indicates that, as a rule, negative emotions such as disappointed, uncertain and annoyed were suppressed, while positive emotions such as enthusiastic, interested and calm were faked. Although comparable patterns of emotion work were found among leaders and subordinates, the reported level of emotion work was significantly higher for leaders than for subordinates. Furthermore, emotion work correlated strongly and significantly with LMX, job satisfaction and with SHC. Suppressing negative emotions correlated negatively with LMX and with job satisfaction, and positively with SHC. Faking positive emotions correlated negatively with LMX and job satisfaction, and positively with SHC.

*Keywords:* Leadership, Emotion work, Leader-subordinate relationships, Leader-member exchange, Job satisfaction, Subjective health complaints

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## Lessons from a lawsuit of the harassment of an employees' representative

Charmian Bondi and Jan Gregersen  
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In Norway, various loosely organized groups of people having faced dysfunctional workplaces have taken interest in studying the phenomenon further. It has been noticed that claims against employers are often lost in court, which in turn have a negative signalling effect to the rest of the society. The present case-study, trying to investigate why that happens, is a result of these discussions.

In this case, the Employee was not formally fired, but claims to have been squeezed out. In some countries this would be a case of constructive dismissal. In Norway, the Employee was obliged to bring a claim for compensation to court. The burden of proof then falls on the plaintiff. Many lawyers advise their clients against bringing such cases at all, as the risk of losing and the legal costs are usually very high, whereas any compensation awarded is usually rather low. However, the Employee started out with strong support from her Union, several colleagues, health professionals etc. and was also entitled to special legal protection as the employees' representative. During proceedings a court-appointed psychologist also supported her. The question is: Why did she lose? The answer lies, not in the facts or what happened in the courtroom, but in the Judge's reasoning, which we will compare to recent bullying research presented in "*Administrative Mobbing at the University of Toronto*" by Professor Ken Westhues.

### *Harassment*

In this case, a boss is accused of having harassed a subordinate. Legislation in many countries confines harassment to discrimination against members of vulnerable groups. If the Employee's case had somehow been related to sexual harassment, the Director's actions would have to be examined more closely, which might have influenced the outcome. The parties involved could not agree about a definition of harassment, and the judge did not offer any.

### *Serial bully*

The court's view was that it was the actions of the Director towards the Employee that should be considered. The Judge did not take into consideration the Director's actions towards other employees, nor the work environment in general. Despite the fact that the court appointed a psychologist, the Judge viewed him as the Employee's man, and dismissed his evidence. Thus he disregarded lay witnesses and the expert witness. Perhaps the Judge had an a priori conviction that serial bullies do not exist. In addition, he appears to be uninterested in the personal characteristics of the antagonists, only the interactions between them.

### *"Bullying" or "mobbing"*

The judge chose to regard it as a conflict situation with the two sides fighting each other, and thus he ruled out the conclusion that the boss targeted his victim and forced her into certain behaviour.

### *Lack of personal responsibility*

As practiced in Norway, the Employee's claim was formally directed against the Ministry. However, the Judge releases superiors from personal responsibility. Working Environment Act (WEL) states clearly: "*Employees shall not be subjected to harassment or other improper conduct*". Here the judge ignores this law altogether by referring to the more general Law of Torts. Thus he avoids clarifying whether this was a break of employer's duties. From the Union's

point of view the WEL may become meaningless and thus they have taken the case to the Court of Appeal.

### *Conclusion*

The present case tells us something about court's ability to settle such cases. Insufficient knowledge about the phenomenon and the formal requirements of such proceedings may turn out disadvantageous to people in such a situation. Also it causes extra burdens that the Employee had to wait long for her case and is still queuing for her appeal case, more than three years after having left her workplace on sick-leave. This supports Westhues' conclusion that the legal system should be avoided if possible. The question related to the present story is whether there are better ways to approach the problem.

### Reference:

*Administrative Mobbing At the University of Toronto The Trial, Degradation and Dismissal of a Professor During the Presidency of J. Robert S. Prichard*

[Westhues](#), Kenneth, Edwin Mellen Press, Canada 2004.

*This book provides a comprehensive report of a decade of research: systematic exposition of the conceptual frame and detailed analysis of one extraordinary case, with which 50 others are contrasted and compared.*

*Full-text article of the abstract above will be published in a second volume of additional essays soon.*

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## **Workplace psychological aggression: Types of aggression and organizational policies in a representative sample of U.S. companies**

Paula L. Grubb

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health, USA

Workplace psychological aggression is an emerging concern for organizations. This is particularly true in many countries in Europe where it has received extensive attention. However, in the U.S., workplace psychological aggression has received less emphasis as the focus has been on high-profile shootings and homicides. It is only during the past decade that non-fatal forms of violence have appeared on the radar screens of U.S. researchers. For the most part, the concept of workplace psychological aggression has made its way into the U.S. literature via several parallel disciplines, with very little crosstalk amongst researchers from different fields (Keashly & Jagatic, 2000). As a consequence, there have been many organization-based studies of psychological aggression but very few national studies with representative samples.

Psychological aggression encompasses topics such as incivility, non-productive work acts, bullying, mobbing, verbal attacks, and harassment. Studies of psychological aggression have shown that being on the receiving end of such behaviors results in deleterious effects in worker health, well-being, and performance (World Health Organization, 2003), as well as adverse organizational outcomes such as reduced productivity and organizational commitment (Keashly & Jagatic, 2000). There is little information on the nature and extent of the problem in U.S. companies, nor is it clear what types of workplace aggression policies and procedures are being utilized in U.S. organizations. The goal of the present study was to describe the extent of various forms of psychological aggression in a representative sample of U.S. companies as well as policies and programs that might be in place at these organizations. Also of interest was examining which factors are related to organizations having workplace aggression policies and procedures.

### *Method*

Data were collected as part of a workplace violence module developed for inclusion in the National Organizations Survey (NOS), a nationally representative telephone survey of U.S. organizations conducted by the National Opinion Research Center. Responses were gathered from key informants at 516 public and private organizations (unadjusted response rate = 59%) ranging from 5 to 20, 000 employees.

Key informants were asked about the frequency of psychological aggression at the organization in the past year, including incivility, bullying, and verbal or written threats (response scale: never, rarely, sometimes, often). Key informants were also asked for the number of physical assaults that occurred at their workplace in the past year. Information was also collected for each category of aggression as to who was victimized in the most recent incident (employee, supervisor, customer, someone else), and who was the aggressor in the most recent incident (employee, supervisor, customer, current or former spouse/intimate partner). Data were also collected regarding organizational characteristics (e.g., company size, type of company, union representation, etc.) and on workplace aggression training, policies, and procedures (“Has your organization ever offered seminars or workshops on general workplace violence risk factors and specific prevention strategies?”; “Has your organization ever offered hands on or classroom training in conflict resolution or de-escalation techniques?”; “Has your organization ever offered hands on training in restraint of

disruptive persons or management of disruptive behavior?"; "Are there documents describing policy about workplace violence?"; "Are there formal procedures for resolving disputes between employees and their supervisors or co-workers?"; "Before hiring them, do you require job candidates to take psychological tests to determine whether they are at risk for committing acts of violence in the workplace?").

### *Preliminary Findings*

Results indicated that the majority of companies had not had any incidents of physical attacks (84%). For companies that had physical attacks, there were most frequently 5 or fewer incidents in the past year. Fifty-eight percent of the organizations reported incivility in the past year, 24% reported bullying, and 32% reported verbal/written threats. For physical attacks and for all types of psychological aggression the aggressor was typically an employee, and the victim was typically another employee.

For workplace aggression policies, 59% of the organizations reported having documents describing policy about workplace violence, 44% reported having formal procedures for resolving disputes between employees and their supervisors or co-workers, 44% of the organizations had offered training in conflict resolution and de-escalation, 42% had offered seminars or workshops on general workplace violence risk factors and prevention strategies, and 34% had offered training on restraining disruptive persons or managing disruptive behaviors.

Correlational analyses indicated that there was a high degree of correlation among the various types of psychological aggression, and that all of the types of psychological aggression were significantly correlated with the number of physical assaults, verbal/written threats being the strongest correlate of physical assaults.

Correlational analyses also indicated that there was a high degree of correlation among the various types of psychological aggression training, policies, and procedures. The existence of these programs, however, was not significantly related to the prevalence of physical attacks or any of the forms of psychological aggression.

### *Conclusions*

The "less severe" forms of aggression were the most common, and aggression was typically employee on employee. The findings also suggest that organizations having one form of psychological aggression are also likely to have the other types as well, perhaps indicating an underlying work environment or culture that is fertile grounds for hostility. Interestingly, the existence of workplace aggression training programs, policies, and procedures was not related to actual incidents of psychological aggression. The conclusions that can be drawn from these data are limited by the cross-sectional nature of the study and by the reliance on key informants. Future research should examine the issue of psychological aggression policies in a more in-depth, systematic manner.

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## **Passive-avoidant leadership, burnout and neuroticism among ICT personnel**

Hilde Hetland, Gro Sandal and Tom Backer Johnsen  
University of Bergen

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between passive-avoidant leadership and burnout, when controlling for Neuroticism. Transformational and transactional leadership were also included in the model. Ratings from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the NEO FFI were collected from 289 subordinates in an Information Technology (IT) firm.

A structural equation model revealed that passive-avoidant leadership was significantly related to exhaustion and cynicism. Furthermore, transformational leadership was significantly related to cynicism and professional efficacy, while transactional leadership was not linked to burnout. Regarding the impact of personality, Neuroticism was directly linked to burnout in subordinates, but did not mediate the relationship between leadership and burnout.

The results suggest passive-avoidant leadership has negative consequences for health among subordinates, also after controlling for neuroticism, which is known to bias ratings. Further studies including destructive leadership measures could be of value in this area of research.

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## **The French law concerning moral harassment in the workplace: What are the prospects?**

Marie-France Hirigoyen & Claire Bonafons

### *Summary*

The authors will show how in France, from a simple description of the pain caused by harassment, a law was quickly passed to condemn this scourge. They will then describe and analyse the jurisprudence and the evolution of the behaviours entailed by this law. Finally, they will propose some ideas for future research and some advice about how to improve the existing clauses of the law.

### *Abstract*

While the book *Mobbing* by Heinz Leymann was only noticed by few specialists, the publication of the book *Moral harassment* by Marie-France Hirigoyen in 1998<sup>1</sup> enabled the French victims of bullying to give a name and a concept to their pain.

Then, on January 17, 2002, the so-called “social modernization law” adopted some measures enabling employees to protect themselves better from the scourge of harassment in the workplace. This law was changed in January 2003. It did not define precisely what harassment is, but aimed more at describing the consequences of the prohibited behaviours. Now, “*repeated acts of moral harassment that aim at or lead to a degradation of the working conditions likely to undermine the employee’s dignity, to damage his physical or moral health or to compromise his professional career*” will be sanctioned. Next, the law gives some details about the protective measures planned for the targets and the witnesses, the sanctions intended for the perpetrators (a fine of up to 15,000€ and one year of imprisonment), and the obligation for employers to take measures in order to prevent moral harassment in the workplace. It is in fact a double law, since it is applied both in the labour code and in the penal code. This law constitutes an important social improvement, and France thus appears as a pioneer in this field.

Nevertheless, this bill, which was passed urgently, remains imperfect and imprecise, and would benefit from an improvement of several points, especially concerning prevention, an essential element of the law. As a matter of fact, there are no indications concerning the way of preventing or treating moral harassment inside the firm.

Following France, Belgium passed a law condemning moral harassment in July 2003. The Belgian law provides more details as what prevention should consist of. Furthermore, the French law introduces an inequality in practice between the employees of the private and public sectors, because some measures are not applicable to civil servants.

On the other hand, during the two years following the promulgation of the law, the term “moral harassment in the workplace” has become a generic phrase that includes other harmful behaviours which aren’t considered as bullying from a clinical point of view. It is indicative of a much broader uneasiness in the working world which is important to analyse.

Everything has happened as if the bringing of moral harassment into the spotlight also caused the exposure of some other harmful behaviours, which had so far remained concealed, and

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<sup>1</sup> Marie-France HIRIGOYEN, *Le Harcèlement moral*, Editions Syros, Paris, 1998



which now tend to hide the real cases of harassment. This trend has been emphasized by the excessive mediatization which surrounded the appearance of this new concept, by the general increase of harmful working situations, and by the lack of a precise definition in the law. The mediatization of moral harassment and the fact that it has become so commonplace entail a risk of confusion, which can cause prejudice to victims, to so-called aggressors, and to work teams.

Far from minimizing the other forms of suffering in the workplace which have to be treated by other means than those proposed by the law, attention must be paid not to apply the term “harassment” to situations that are not.

In face of these excesses, it seems like there has been a repositioning since a few months with some managers sometimes even questioning the very notion of moral harassment. Unfortunately, this constitutes a serious prejudice for victims of actual bullying.

Since the promulgation of the law, the concept of harassment is very often referred to in courts, and many litigations concerning lay-offs evoke some bullying behaviours. Nevertheless, as shown by jurisprudence, judges remain very cautious, and the cases are seldom won by victims because of the difficulties of establishing the proof of these behaviours, and also because in a lawsuit, the bench grounds its judgement essentially upon the aggressor’s intention to harm, which is even more difficult to prove.

Concerning prevention, several large private firms (such as Coca-Cola, Dupont de Nemours, etc.) have become aware of the importance of preventing moral harassment and have worked out some prevention policies, including procedures for case settlement. But things that are possible in large firms are not so easily workable in small family companies, and even less in large public administrations. At any rate, the lack of indications and recommendations in the law makes this undertaking lengthy and arduous. Most of the time, these prevention policies include the drafting and editing of a charter, the establishment of an informal listening mechanism and a case settlement procedure, and the training of the employees.

Given the seriousness and the importance of the problem that harassment constitutes in the workplace, it would be good if subsequent research and governmental recommendations, especially concerning prevention, could dissipate the blur and the fear which still surround the notion of harassment. Employers still have to be convinced of the interest of early detection and fast resolution of the harassment problems. As a matter of fact, harassment is very costly, not only from a humanistic point of view, but also from an economic point of view, because of the absenteeism of the targets, of the disorganization of work and of the damage to the firm’s image.

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**Ethnic discrimination in the Finnish context:  
Ethnic minorities and work organizations**

Jonna Holopainen

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Ethnic discrimination is the act of treating people differently due to their ethnic origin - not according people the same rights or opportunities, without a relevant reason. Today several instances are working to combat this form of discrimination, be it in housing, schooling or in working life. Lately in the Finnish context, especially discrimination in labour has attracted increasing attention. The labour market has been regarded as the site for integration into the Finnish society. It is very difficult not to note the existence of ethnic discrimination in the Finnish labour market, and it can unfortunately even be regarded as considerable. Combating ethnic discrimination in this context is consequently of extreme importance and will still require incessant efforts from both national and organisational decision makers.

At a macro level the effects of discrimination can be recognised by the significantly higher unemployment rates among non-Finns. In 2002 unemployment rates of foreign jobseekers were approximately 20% higher than that of the total population. The clustering of the labour market, where some specific tasks are left to foreigners or national ethnic minorities, is a further evidence of discrimination taking place. Normally these ethnicised tasks are both low-skill and low-pay tasks, such as cleaning and transportation services in the Finnish case. These low-skill tasks can equally be seen to be “entrance-jobs” - a means for persons to become an active part of the labour system. The problem arises in case groups of people are trapped into these “entrance jobs” and when a significant part of their working life careers are condemned to be conducted within these.

The menace of the consequences of discrimination are apparent, not only for ethnic minorities themselves, but for the entire society. The existence of formal discrimination and discrimination in recruitment is generally accepted, and relatively easy to recognize. What is more problematic is informal discrimination, it is less commonly acknowledged and today still not enough studied. As it is both difficult to recognize and prove the existence of informal discrimination the prevention and work against this form of discrimination is specially demanding. The veiled nature of the processes of informal discrimination leads to a danger of underestimating the pervasiveness of the problem. It operates at an individual level but collectively leads to reducing entire groups of people opportunities'. The forms of informal discrimination may vary a lot, it can consist of open acts of racism, harassment, bullying - a common trait being the difficulty of demonstrating the discriminatory act. Sometimes this form of discrimination is not even recognised by the victim him/herself.

Organisational policies and programs aiming at increasing tolerance and combating discrimination might have very slim results, if any results hoped for at all, if the more veiled discriminatory processes and acts are not exposed and confronted. It is thus of crucial importance to increase the understanding of the more informal discriminatory practices.

The aim of this work in progress is purposely to shed additional light into the different informal discriminatory practices ethnic minorities are confronted with in Finnish work organisations. The study presented in this paper is conducted in such Finnish business organisations that work towards becoming more multicultural and tolerant. Formal and direct discrimination can be assumed to be reduced by the organisational anti-discrimination efforts, but whether the programs affect the more informal discrimination is not equally obvious.

This paper approaches the problematic of discrimination from two perspectives: an ethnic minority employee perspective and a managerial perspective. The empirical part of the paper is based on in-depth interviews with ethnic minority employees and managers responsible for programs aiming at reducing discrimination.

The descriptions of ethnic minority employees about their working life realities, the every-day routines and practices as well as specific events having taken place during their careers in Finland, provide a path into better understanding how the Finnish working context is experienced by minority members. These experiences and perceptions will be contrasted with the organisational view. What do managers perceive as challenging for ethnic minorities, and for the organisation as a whole? What do managers see as causing tensions in the organisation in relation to ethnic minorities? And what are the actions organisations are undertaking in the purpose of rendering the working realities of ethnic minorities equal to those of majority members? These are all questions this work in progress is to approach.

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**About the link between bullying and whistleblowing at work.**  
**Findings from a Norwegian municipality sample**  
Andreas Høstmælingen, Kari Severinsen & Stig Berge Matthiesen  
University of Bergen

Within the last three decades, the topic of whistleblowing at the workplace has attained growing attention in media, as well as in organizational psychology. Whistleblowing may be defined as the disclosure by organization members (former or current) of illegal, immoral, or illegitimate practices under the control of their employers, to persons or organizations that may be able to effect action” (Miceli and Near, 1985).

Movies such as "The Insider" and "Serpico", with whistleblower stories presented in a dramatic fashion, and Time Magazine's "Name of the year award" given to three female whistleblowers (2002), has not lowered the interest. Still, an increasing number of studies indicate that employees may suffer severe retaliation at the workplace after engaging in the act of whistleblowing (Keenan, 2002; Glazer & Glazer, 1986; McDonald & Ahren, 2000; Bowers et al., 1999; Lennane, 1993; Rotschild og Mieth 1999). Any organizations resistance against negative publicity or economical loss increases the risk of whistleblower retaliation (Keenan, 2002). Retaliation may appear as transfer, demotion, getting fired, intimidation and harassment (Glazer & Glazer, 1986). Ostracism, e.g. make the working environment unbearable for the whistleblower so that he or she "voluntary" resigns may be a typical example of retaliation. Severe workplace sanctions attack the whistleblowers credibility, integrity and emotional stability (McDonald & Ahren, 2000).

Media headlines and anecdotal descriptions may indicate that it is very risky to blow the whistle, and that almost everyone risk bullying afterwards. An overview (Miceli and Near, 1996) of empirical studies (mostly American) indicates that the number of incidents where whistleblowers are seriously retaliated are much lower than what may be reflected in media. Thus, it is a myth that whistleblowing inevitable lead to bullying. The present study was conducted with the purpose of contributing to the field’s general base of knowledge, as the very first whistleblower workplace survey undertaken in Norway.

#### *Method*

The study was based on a randomized survey with 505 respondents. The respondents all worked in the municipality of Bergen, situated in the Western part of Norway. The respondents filled out a 15 pages questionnaire (4 pages with whistleblowing questions), which covered various psychosocial and psychological topics (e.g. bullying, interpersonal conflicts, leadership, workplace commitment, 5 factor model of personality, political preferences, among others). The survey was introduced for the respondents as an organizational culture study. The response rate obtained was quite low, unfortunately. Only 1 in 3 of the chosen population took part in the study.

#### *Results*

A surprisingly high number of respondents (32 per cent) reported that they viewed themselves as whistleblowers, when presented for the most established definition of whistleblowing, created by Micheli and Near (1985, 1996).

The results demonstrated that the whistleblowers experienced a significantly higher degree of workplace bullying, conflicts and negative experiences in the workplace than non-whistleblowers.

The participants in general reported very positive attitudes towards whistleblowing. This may, of course, reflect their "espoused theories", and not their "theory in use" (cf. Argyris & Schön's Action Science, 1985). Some variations across sub samples did exist, however.

We also found that the average whistleblower is a middle-aged, extroverted person which most likely has been working for the organization over a longer period of time and possesses a leader position. He or she most frequent blows the whistle about negative acts that involves interpersonal issues such as illegitimate work performance and incompetent destructive leadership style that affect others. Commonly, the whistleblowers are met by positive reactions from the organisation, according to their self reports.

### *Discussion*

The high number of whistleblowers found in the present study may reflect a cultural bias. It could be that the Miceli and Near definition is too wide or open to be applied to the Norwegian working life. Norway is a country with very low power distance, according to Hofstede's (1980) seminal research. It is also a very feminine country, with high social acceptance when vulnerability and feelings are expressed, according to Hofstede. Thus, whistleblowing may lead to fewer sanctions than what is found in masculine countries with a high power distance.

Due to low response rate it is likely that whistleblowers are over-represented in the study. This first pioneering study must therefore be succeeded with follow up research, preferably survey studies in combination with a qualitative research design, to better grasp the phenomenon of whistleblowing. It may be that the Micheli and Near definition of whistleblowing should be modified or restricted, when applied in Norway.

## **Moving forward: From issues of prevalence and definition towards a focus on intervention and evaluation, incorporating an exploration of social-cognitive models of behaviour change**

Vikki Knott  
University of South Australia

### *Background*

Since the late 80s and early 90s a vast literature on bullying at work has developed. As noted in a recent International review of bullying research (e.g., Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2003) the content and emphasis of this literature is largely focused on issues such as the costs of bullying, prevalence estimates, and conceptual issues with respect to defining and measuring bullying. Presently, the literature regarding intervention efforts is small and focuses predominantly on facilitating the development of policy and procedure, increasing knowledge and encouraging reporting of bullying. In reality, most interventions implemented in organisations lack any specific involvement of theory governing behaviour change attempts; and further, evaluations of effectiveness rarely incorporate theoretical constructs to predict and measure change efforts.

### *Moving forward*

This presentation encourages researchers to move forward and explore the use of theoretical models that have the potential to predict the likelihood of change following intervention efforts. The models advocated in this discussion include two social-cognitive models, including Ajzen's (1988, 1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), and Bandura's (1995) Self-Efficacy Theory (SET). These models are typically used in health research to predict the likelihood of individuals engaging in health-related behaviours (for a review see Armitage & Conner, 2001), however, it is likely that these models are applicable, and useful, in other domains too.

### *Brief overview of TPB & Self-Efficacy*

In brief, SET refers to an individual's belief regarding capabilities to cope with a particular situation or to perform a particular task. For example, individuals with low self-efficacy will avoid tasks they judge to exceed their capabilities. In contrast, individuals with high efficacy for particular tasks will expend more effort and persist longer to achieve mastery over the task, even in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1977a; Bandura, 1977b, Bandura & Adams, 1979). The TPB is an extension of an earlier theory (e.g., Theory of Reasoned Action, Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Individuals are more likely to engage in particular behaviours when they expect it will result in a favourable outcome. Further, the theory incorporates the influence of social norms and predicts that perceptions of behavioural control will also influence behaviour. TPB has its origins in Fishbein & Ajzen's (1975) Expectancy-Value Model.

### Case study – The Department for Correctional Services

The results of an exploratory study conducted in 2003 with the Department for Correctional Services (DCS), South Australia (SA) is provided as a case study. The aims, broadly, included:

- Assessment of the prevalence and nature of bullying
- Evaluation of the effectiveness of an intervention

## *Methodology*

### Participants

Participants comprised 158 Correctional Services staff employed at various prison locations throughout SA. All attended a workshop on “Inappropriate Workplace Behaviour”. The intervention was based on Liefgooghe & Davey’s (2003) concept of developing a shared understanding regarding bullying. Thus, participants were encouraged to draw on their own experiences in developing understandings regarding bullying. Thus, a deliberate effort was made to ensure that behaviour was not labelled as bullying from the outset and instead terms such as inappropriate or negative workplace behaviour were used.

### Measures

*Bullying:* Both a global definition, along with the extended version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ; Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellesoy, 1994; Hoel, 1999) were included.

*Evaluation:* To assess for the effectiveness of intervention efforts, constructs from the TPB and SET included: *intentions* to use the complaints process; *attitude* towards the complaints process; *subjective norm* (attitudes of others in work-group); *perceived behavioural control* for using the complaints process; *efficacy beliefs* (e.g. perceptions of ability to use process) *self-efficacy* (e.g., how equipped overall to use the process). Items for intention, attitude and subjective norm were based on previous research (i.e., Bunce & Birdi, 1988) and all other items were developed specifically for this study.

### Procedure

Following participation in the workshop, participants completed the survey.

## *Results*

### Prevalance & nature of behaviours

In response to the global definition provided, 42.8% of participants reported experiencing bullying. Thirty five percent experienced “Occasional Bullying” and 7.7% experienced “Regular Bullying”. Responses to the NAQ indicated that the most frequently experienced negative acts included: offensive language ( $X = 2.33$ ,  $sd$ , 1.59); withholding information ( $X=2.03$ ,  $sd$  1.21); opinions ignored ( $X=1.90$   $sd$  1.00); gossip & rumours (1.81,  $sd$  1.04); being humiliated ( $X= 1.71$ ,  $sd$  1.06); insulted ( $X = 1.71$ ,  $sd$ , 1.09); reminder of errors ( $X=1.64$ ,  $sd$  .95); responsibility removed ( $X= 1.65$   $sd$ , 1.05). Results from a factor analysis, revealing a 7 factor solution, will be presented.

### Evaluation of Intervention

Almost 60% of participants indicated that they intended to use the complaints process. An overwhelming majority of participants (68.4%) of participants acknowledged that had acted like a bully toward their work colleagues! The most frequently cited impediments to using the complaints process included a lack of trust in management, perceptions that nothing would happen and a fear of the consequences with colleagues.

A multiple regression analysis revealed that attitudes toward the complaints process, control over the process, and self-efficacy accounted for 20 percent of the unique variance on intentions to use the complaints process. Efficacy beliefs and subjective norms predicted overall self-efficacy scores ( $R$  square = .28). Victims of bullying had significantly less favourable attitudes toward the complaints process and perceived low levels of control in using the process. Also presented will be the results of a path analysis predicting intentions to



use the complaints process. Other analyses will also include examination of perceived behavioural control as a moderating variable.

### *Conclusion*

Summarising comments focus on a discussion of the results in terms of the implications for designing interventions and an assessment of the applicability of the TPB and SET theories to bullying research. Improvements in the operationalisation of constructs pertaining to social-cognitive theories are required. Despite this, it will be argued that inclusion of these theories (and potentially other health models) will be beneficial to knowledge development in bullying research and practice.

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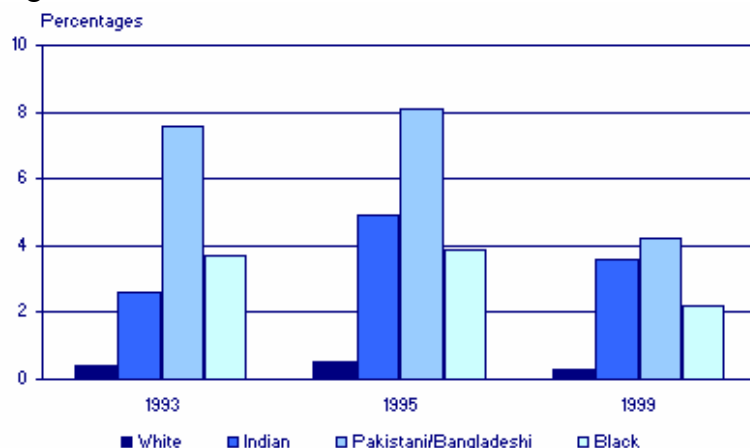
## Workplace bullying and ethnicity: Differences or similarities?

Duncan Lewis  
University of Glamorgan, Wales

Numerous international studies of workplace bullying have revealed the prevalence of workplace bullying to oscillate between approximately 5% and 25% of the workforce across a range of industries and sectors (see for example Einarsen and Skogstad 1996; Hoel and Cooper 2000; Lewis 2002; O'Moore 2000). Whilst comparisons between these international studies are difficult, due to confusions of definition, frequency criteria, and duration, there is sufficient agreement to indicate generalizability in the patterns of results. Within these broad patterns researchers have shown how age, gender, longevity of service, and differences in employment contract produce a broad spectrum of configurations (see for example Rayner 1997; Hoel and Cooper 2000; Salin 2001) (For a useful summary see Zapf et al 2003). Whilst researchers have categorised the available evidence across a number of criteria, race or ethnicity has been at best sparse, or worse, largely ignored.

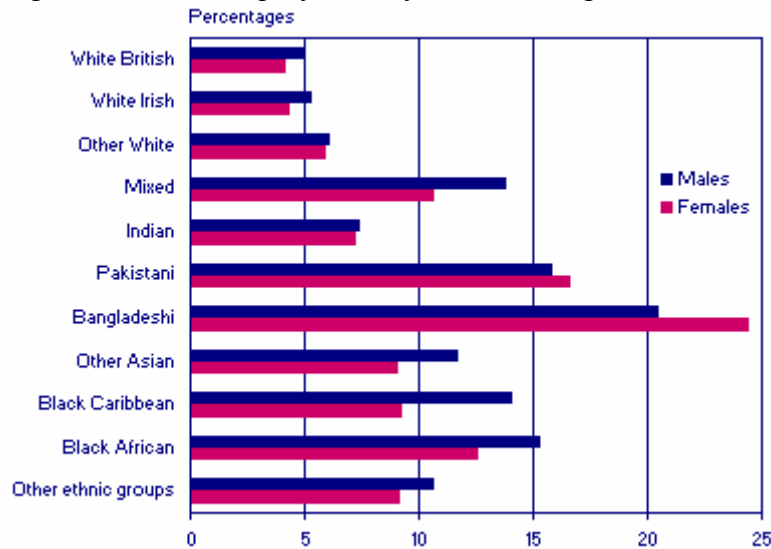
Within the UK ethnicity has historically been seen as a bi-product of its Imperialist traditions which has seen a more diverse pattern of race and religion compared to many other countries in Europe. The entry of the UK into the EU in the early 1970's has seen a significant shift in the Europeanisation of the UK populace and this has been further exacerbated by the globalisation phenomena, as we have seen an increase in racial and cultural diversity in employment sectors such as health workers and education. This blend of peoples has seen a polyvocal approach to representation in law (Race Relations Act 1976; Race Relations (Amendment) Act 2000) and in politics (Commission for Race Equality). Equally, inside organisations, employers have over twenty years of established good practices in equal opportunity policies and codes of practice. Yet despite the strident attempts of organisational, legal, and political bodies to ensure equality of opportunity, measures of activity such as unemployment and crime continue to demonstrate that some ethnic groups suffer disproportionate levels of disadvantage over their white counterparts (see figures one and two for example)

Figure1: Victims of Crime in the UK



Source: National Statistical Office

Figure 2: UK Unemployment by Ethnic Group and Gender 2001/2002



Source: National Statistical Office

Against this backdrop of sparse ethnic group data on workplace bullying, alongside clear UK evidence that suggests ethnic minorities are economically and socially disadvantaged, this study explores the experience of workplace bullying amongst ethnic workers in one geographic area of the UK, Wales. The aim of the study is to establish whether ethnic groups: a) suffer more or less incidences of workplace bullying than their white colleagues; b) whether the experience and causality of bullying is similar, or different to their white counterparts and; c) whether the patterns of victim and bully follow those of white colleagues.

### *The Study*

The Ethnic minority proportion of the population of Wales remains relatively small at 2.1% that is, non-white groups (see <http://www.statistics.gov.uk/ccj>). This is comparable with Scotland (2%) but significantly less than England (9%). Yet even within this relatively small population group there are clusters of ethnicity both in geographic terms and in employment sectors. Around half of the Black and Asian groups and a third of the Mixed and Chinese groups live in the capital city, Cardiff. The study therefore focuses on Cardiff and the south eastern county of Rhondda-Cynon-Taf (combined population of 539,000 – as at 2001 census) as having the most likely ethnic population in Wales. Alongside this geographic cluster, the study has selected the most likely employment sectors to employ ethnic minorities. The study has therefore selected a cross-section of employers including: two National Health Service Trusts; a large University; two Further Education colleges; A Fire Department; two local Councils; two Trades Unions; and a cross section of Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SMEs).

The methodology of the study employs an adapted version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ - after Einarsen and Raknes 1997; adapted by Hoel and Cooper 2000). Alongside the NAQ survey instrument, a small number of unstructured interviews have taken place with self-selecting victims of bullying from racial minorities.

### *Results*

Results are currently in the process of analysis. Returned questionnaires (n=240) and unstructured interviews (n=15).

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Dr. Duncan Lewis has been researching workplace bullying in the UK for almost 10 years. Adopting a Social Constructionist perspective, Duncan is interested in exploring the meanings, labels, and support networks employed by victims, organisations, and trades unions in dealing with bullying at work. He is currently researching constructs of guilt and shame for victims of workplace bullying and how ethnic groups experience bullying at work.

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## **The victims of bullying and their experiences of shame: A theoretical approach**

Odd Lindberg  
University of Örebro, Sweden

“I nominate shame, as the premier social emotion” (Thomas J. Scheff 2000:84).

The aim of this paper is to apply theories of shame (Scheff 1997,2000; Retzinger 1991; Lewis 1971) in order to acquire a deeper understanding and also explain (theoretically) some of the effects that bullying have on the victims. This theoretical approach has hardly been applied in the research of the victims’ negative experiences of being exposed to bullying. Three themes will be discussed. 1. The relation between being exposed to bullying - experiences of shame and the individual’s self-esteem, anxiety and depression. 2. The relation between being exposed to bullying - experiences of shame and the individual’s social bonds to others. 3. The relation between being exposed to bullying - experiences of shame and aggression. The empirical data (qualitative interview data), which is the basis for the theoretical discussion, is collected by students in Masters level in social work and in sociology. Victims between the age of 18 and 60 have been interviewed.

Shame is “...a larger family of emotions that includes many cognates and variants, most notably, embarrassment, humiliation and related feelings such as shyness that involve reactions to rejection of feelings of failure or inadequacy” (Sheff 2000:97). Let me try to give a comprehensive presentation of the concept of shame, and in so doing also distinguish it from the concept of guilt. Guilt is a kind of uneasiness and anxiety emanating from violating norms and values (Lewis 1971). Guilt is generated from the individual’s thoughts about behaviour not corresponding to the normative expectations of people around him/her. The various emotions included in the concept of shame lie on a scale from feelings of slight uneasiness in certain types of social situations and embarrassment to more intensive variants such as experienced humiliation and outrage. Shame affects the identity more directly than guilt because feelings of shame bring forth anxiety about the sufficiency and adequacy of one’s own life-narrative, that it is not solid enough. The nature of shame implies that it always involves the self in a relationship with one or more other persons. The feelings of shame make us experience that we have become strangers in a world where we thought we were at home. Experiencing shame is a very painful and negative feeling. Experiences of shame may be the underlying mechanism that explains the victims’ depression, anxiety and low self-esteem. The concept of social bonds indicates something, which happens between individuals, i.e. something that has to do with relations. Scheff (2000,1997) thinks that there are two systems of interpersonal relations, which are decisive of in what direction the social bonds between individuals and groups will develop. When it comes to create or maintain social bonds, feelings of pride play an important role. Stable social bonds can most often be explained by a mutual trust and confidence that has grown and developed between people. Feelings of shame indicate on the other hand a threat against these bonds. The prime mover and the basic motivating power of human beings is to experience a sense of belonging together with others in an intellectual and emotional community. Scheff stresses very strongly that emotions are connected with social interplay. Since the individual is continuously evaluating him/herself in relation to others, this self-evaluation leads to feelings of pride or shame. Feelings of shame and pride regulate the state of the social bonds. Feelings of shame threaten the social bonds and pride indicates stable social bonds. Feelings and the quality of the social bonds are products of our social relations, or better, *they are* our social relations. A typical defence-reaction to shame on the part of the individual is to try to escape from the experiences of that feeling in order to be spared from the pain of being rejected. A self who feels shame

experiences at the same time the helplessness implied in not being capable to control the situation and the individual reacts by withdrawing from it. It goes without saying that individuals who permanently experience very deep feelings of shame try to keep away from contexts in which such feelings may arise and become alive and real. The feelings of shame can thus explain why individuals avoid places where they might be subjected to bullying and also avoid to build new social relations because of fear of once again being exposed to bullying.

Of interest is also Retzinger's (1991) discussion of the relationship between shame and anger. She argues that it is unusual to find anger, lengthy in time, without the simultaneous presence of shame and vice versa. But there are only a few studies that explicitly emphasize the predominant place of shame and its role in conflicts and physical acts of violence. A feeling of shame, caused by a real rejection or an imagined one, always precedes the anger. Experienced shame is also often perceived and apprehended as an assault coming from the other. Individuals experiencing shame also feel that their own self is the target of the hostility of the other person. If the individuals suppress the feelings of shame this may lead to an escalation of the anger, which may in turn change into aggressive behaviour, rage or furiousness towards both the family and other people around. It does not seem unusual that many of those who are subjected to bullying show aggressive tendencies. They are however often demonstrated in other contexts than at school or work.

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## **Workplace bullying in the United States: Incidence, comparison to international research and an introduction of bullying "degree"**

Pamela Lutgen-Sandvik, Sarah J. Tracy & Janet K. Alberts  
Arizona State University

The negative effects of workplace bullying are extensive and enduring. Bullying negatively impacts workers' personal, psychological, cognitive, and physiological functioning (Leymann, 1990); interpersonal relationships, communication, and family functioning (Davenport, Schwartz, & Elliott, 1999); professional performance, job satisfaction, job stability, and workplace citizenship behaviors (Zellars, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002); and organizational productivity, reputation, and stability (Bassman, 1992). "The overall nature of the effects indicates a deterioration or disabling of the target, the people around him or her, and the organization" (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003, p. 53).

This paper reports upon bullying behavior in American organizations using pilot data gathered from a version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire modified for an American audience (developed by Professor Ståle Einarsen and Dr. Helge Hoel) as well as group and individual interviews. Although previous research has established the serious consequences of workplace bullying, little of that research has been conducted in the United States. Aside from a few scholars studying employee emotional abuse (e.g., Keashly, Trott, & MacLean, 1994; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003b), the topic mainly has been taken up in the popular press (e.g., Bess, 1999; DeBare, 1998; Guynn, 1998a, 1998b; Lesly, 1992; Lewis, 1999; McIlvaine, 1999) and self-help type books such as *Brutal Bosses* (Hornstein, 1996), *Mobbing: Emotional Abuse in the American Workplace* (Davenport et al., 1999), and *Work Abuse: How To Recognize It and Survive It* (NiCarthy, Gottlieb, & Coffman, 1993). Although, notably, the American Drs. Gary and Ruth Namie, an organizational and a clinical psychologist, have published two books on bullying and established the Workplace Bullying and Trauma Institute (Namie & Namie, 1999, 2000; WBTI, 2002).

The little attention dedicated by U.S. scholars to bullying at work is ironic given that America is oftentimes considered the "bully" to the world (Bernstein, 2003). Indeed, little reliable data documents the prevalence of bullying in the US, and we know even less about the industries in which it is most common. International researchers suggest that, depending on the definition used and the industry surveyed, 3.5-50 percent of workers have been bullied (e.g., Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). Studies of US workplace incivility, emotional abuse, harassment, conflict and aggression (while different, operationally, than bullying), indicate that bullying likely is common.

For example, in a study of Michigan workers, "almost 20% of the sample reported they had been exposed to five or more different emotionally abusive behaviors" at work (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003, p. 35). A Northwest National Life Insurance survey (1993) of 600 full-time workers found that one out of four employees had been harassed, threatened or physically attacked at work in the prior year. A survey of 354 undergraduate college students found that over 44% (158) had experienced workplace abuse (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003a). In a study of nurse managers and nursing staff (Cox, Braun, Christle, Walker, & Tiwanak, 1991), 97.1% of nurse managers and 96.7% of nursing staff reported experiencing verbal abuse. Similarly, in Braun and colleagues' study of registered nurses and non-nursing staff (1991), 96% of the nurses and 69% of non-nursing personnel reported being verbally abused. In short, behaviors associated with workplace mistreatment appear to be quite common in the United States, and this study will move extant research forward by analyzing the bullying issue, specifically.

The data regarding the prevalence of bullying is accompanied with suggestions about how a lens of communicative theory may be particularly appropriate for further studying bullying since such behavior is largely constituted by language. Past studies emanating from the communication discipline, while related to workplace abuse and conflict, have not focused upon bullying per se. For instance, communication scholars have analyzed issues of organizational conflict (e.g., Buzzanell & Burrell, 1997; Knapp, Putnam, & Davis, 1988; Papa & Canary, 1995; Putnam & Poole, 1987), verbal aggressiveness (e.g., Infante, Myers, & Buerkel, 1994), rudeness in the workplace (e.g., Tracy, 2002; Tracy & Tracy, 1998), sexual harassment (Alberts, 1992) and emotions in organizations (e.g., Mumby & Putnam, 1992; Tracy, 2000; Waldron, 1994).

Critical organizational communication scholars may be particularly adept at helping tease out the power relations associated with the existence of work place bullying. Organizational cultures are socially constructed through communicative interactions manifest in organizational rituals, performances and language patterns (Deetz, Tracy, & Simpson, 2000). As such, a communicative lens provides a powerful way to examine how certain aspects of organizational culture subtly encourage workplace mistreatment and abuse.

Although current research suggests that chaotic or disorderly organizations are more likely to spawn bullying behavior (Hodson, 2001; Keashly & Jagatic, 2003), we know little about other organizational cultural issues that are more or less likely to encourage workplace bullying. This is not surprising. Issues of workplace stress are oftentimes framed as individual pathologies that are best handled through employee assistance programs or individual relaxation techniques (Newton, 1995). However, merely focusing on individualistic interventions, “miss(es) the social reproduction of working patterns that contribute to, and define, stress” (Fineman, 1995, p. 120). Particular organizational and interactional structures likely play important roles in understanding the prevalence of bullying in various workplace contexts.

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Pamela Lutgen-Sandvik (M.P.A., City University-Belleview Washington, 1993) researches issues of employee advocacy, bullying, and injustice in the workplace. Her work has appeared in Management Communication Quarterly and the Iowa Journal of Communication. Professionally, she has served in private, nonprofit management in the fields of substance abuse treatment and women’s advocacy.



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Sarah J. Tracy (Ph.D., 2000, University of Colorado, Boulder) conducts critical qualitative research in the areas of emotion labor, stress, burnout and cultural control in organizations. Her work has appeared in the Journal of Applied Communication Research, Management Communication Quarterly, Human Communication Research, and Qualitative Inquiry, among other venues.

## **Workplace bullying: Psychological effects, coping strategies and personality constructs of recipients of bullying behaviours**

Lynch, J. and O'Moore, M.  
Trinity College, Ireland

This study examines the effects of workplace bullying and the relationship of personality constructs and coping strategies. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed. The sample consisted of a bullied group and a control group. The bullied group (N=30) was selected from people who attended the Anti Bullying Research and Resource Centre, Trinity College, Dublin, for psychological assessments, advice, and/or support as a result of their negative experiences at work. Purposive sampling was used to select a control group (N =30) matched with respect to gender, age group, economic sector, and occupational group. Quantitative data only were secured from the control group.

Qualitative data, obtained during interview with the bullied group, were organised into themes and confirmed, or otherwise, by psychometric findings from the completion of validated questionnaires and inventories. Both groups completed inventories to identify coping strategies, personality constructs, and their level of self esteem. Results showed elevated levels of state anxiety (State/Trait Anxiety Inventory, Spielberger, 1970), state anger (State/Trait Anger Expression Inventory, Spielberger, 1991), symptoms of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (Impact of Event Scale, Horowitz et al, 1979), low self esteem (Rosenberg, 1965), and physiological and psychological ill-health (General Health Questionnaire, Goldberg & Williams, 1988).

Using the Mann Whitney U-test it was found that the bullied group had significantly lower level of self esteem ( $U = 212.5$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) than the control group. Comparisons were made, using Spearman's rho, between low self-esteem and other aspects of psychological distress displayed by the bullied group. There was a significant positive correlation between low self-esteem and the total score in the GHQ ( $\rho = 0.480$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and the depression scale in the GHQ ( $\rho = 0.694$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This indicates that participants with low self-esteem are more likely to suffer general physical and psychological ill-health and depression. It was also found that recipients of bullying behaviours in this study with low self esteem were more likely to have suicide ideation ( $U = 58.5$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ).

Significant differences were sought between the bullied and control group in coping strategies identified by the completion of COPE (Weinman, Wright, & Johnston, 1995). Examination of the data revealed that with active coping ( $U = 228.00$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), planning ( $U = 310.00$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), turning to religion ( $U = 259.00$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), venting of emotions ( $U = 195.50$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), denial ( $U = 277.50$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and mental disengagement ( $U = 300.00$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ), the bullied group scored significantly higher than the control group. The control group scored significantly higher than the bullied group in humour ( $U = 280.00$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). There was no significant difference in the use of adaptive coping strategies between the bullied and control groups but significant differences were found for less-adaptive ( $U = 282.00$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and mal-adaptive strategies ( $U = 210.00$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) with these strategies used more frequently by the bullied group.

Correlations were sought between coping strategies and scores in the measures of psychological distress for the bullied group. Behavioural disengagement correlated positively with state anxiety ( $\rho = 0.376$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) indicating that those who are anxious, due to their negative experiences in their workplace, are more likely to withdraw from attempts to address

their situation. A negative correlation between acceptance and social dysfunction ( $\rho = 0.417, p < 0.05$ ) suggests that participants who accepted their situation were likely to be able to function better in their daily activities. Negative correlation was found between denial and trait anxiety ( $\rho = -0.452, p < 0.05$ ) whereas there was a positive correlation between denial and state anxiety ( $\rho = 0.483, p < 0.01$ ). This suggests that participants who were not normally anxious are likely to deny negative circumstances in their lives but anxiety brought on by being a recipient of bullying behaviour was likely to cause participants in the bullied group to use denial as a coping strategy.

Comparisons were made between measures of psychological ill-health and adaptive coping. It was found that there was negative correlation between low self esteem and adaptive coping ( $\rho = -0.411, p < 0.05$ ) and less adaptive coping ( $\rho = -0.533, p < 0.01$ ) indicating that high self esteem is associated with adaptive and less adaptive coping. The total GHQ score correlated positively with less adaptive coping ( $\rho = 0.858, p < 0.01$ ) suggesting that severe physical and psychological effects may lead to the use of strategies in the less adaptive category of coping.

Personality construct were ascertained using NEO-PI (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Significant differences were found in agreeableness and conscientiousness between the bullied and control group with the bullied group scoring higher ( $U = 170.00, p < 0.01$  and  $U = 262.50, p < 0.01$ ). There were no significant differences for neuroticism, extraversion, and openness. Correlation was sought between personality domains of the bullied group and effects of bullying behaviours. A positive correlation was found between extraversion and the total score for the GHQ ( $\rho = 0.367, p < 0.05$ ) indicating that it is more likely that people who are bullied and outgoing are more likely to suffer physical and psychological ill-health. A negative correlation between extraversion and trait anger ( $\rho = -0.383$ ) was found which suggests that people, in this study, who experience angry feelings and frustration, are more likely to be reserved and independent. Also a positive correlation between neuroticism and low self esteem ( $\rho = 0.412, p < 0.05$ ) was found, suggesting that low self esteem is likely to be associated with people who have been bullied and whose adjustment, or emotional ability is low.

In this study, qualitative data confirms and enriches quantitative data. Statistical analysis of quantitative data enabled the identification of individual participants. This resulted in explanations for outlying scores by reference to information gained during interview.

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Jean Lynch is a psychologist (member of the British Psychological Society), presently working with the Anti Bullying Centre as an external investigator into allegations of bullying. In addition to being co-presenter in workshops on dealing with bullying, she carries out psychological assessments for people who claim to have been bullied at work and has

experience as an expert witness. As a researcher, she has presented papers at international conferences on workplace bullying. The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions recently invited her to be a speaker at a seminar on Violence and Harassment in the Workplace where practical measures aimed at preventing and combating violence in the workplace were discussed

## **Bullying among teachers in Kaunas, Lithuania**

Vilija Malinauskiene  
Kaunas University of Medicine, Lithuania

### *Introduction*

The prevalence of bullying in the workplace has been investigated in Western societies, reporting different rates. The investigations in the countries after transition have not yet been performed. The objective of our study was to investigate the prevalence of bullying among teachers of one gymnasium in Kaunas, Lithuania.

### *Methods*

We investigated the prevalence of bullying in a sample of 54 teachers by the short version of the NAQ questionnaire of Einarsen & Hoel, containing 22 questions on various forms of bullying in the workplace and the last 23d question, explaining the essence of bullying and possible duration.

### *Results*

We collected the information from 36 teachers (response rate 66.7 percent). 5 teachers were found to experience bullying as a situation where they perceived themselves to be on the receiving end negative actions from one or several persons, in a situation where they had difficulty in defending themselves against these actions; and they have been bullied at work several times per week or almost daily over the last 6 months. The prevalence of bullying among the investigated was 13.9 percent.

### *Conclusions*

Our results indicated that bullying is prevalent among teachers in Kaunas, Lithuania. The small sample size do not let to generalize the conclusions. More investigations in the field of bullying and its effect on health outcomes is in need.

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Woman, 45 years, married, 3children. Background: medical doctor. 2001: PhD thesis. Field of interest: social and psychological factors in the workplace and their effect on first myocardial infarction risk in the population of Kaunas men and women. Common project with Bergen University and Finnish institute of Occupational health on prevalence of bullying among different occupations of Kaunas men and women, sponsored by the Nordic Council of Ministers information office in Lithuania.

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## **About perpetrators and targets of bullying at work Some personality differences**

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Bullying is a long lasting phenomenon that “wears down” its victims (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Typically the bullying process last for more than a year, and about 2 in 3 of the targets are women (Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia, 2003). We also know that in general males are bullied by other men, whereas the female worker is bullied by other women, at least in the Scandinavian countries (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Quite widespread, many of the targets of bullying suffer from severe health problems, such as depression, anxiety, compulsory behaviour (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Niedl, 1996), or by posttraumatic stress symptoms (Leymann & Gustavson, 1996; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002).

Important empirical knowledge about workplace bullying has been assembled throughout the last decade. A paradox do exist, however, which Rayner and Cooper (2003) has denoted a “black hole” in the research field. To our knowledge, there are still no published work place studies, in which the perpetrators of bullying have been the research subject. Indeed, perpetrator behaviour are evaluated by the targets of bullying in popular science case interviews (see, e.g., Adams, 1992; Kile, 1990). Another example is anecdotic stories about perpetrators as they are presented in the book “Crazy bosses” (Bing, 1992). The perpetrators are also evaluated in some survey studies, e.g. when their leadership styles were assessed by their victims (Nielsen, 2003). Yet, no published interviews of the dyadic relation between perpetrator and targets of bullying have yet been published. Correspondingly, no survey study is presented with the perpetrators in the role as survey respondents. The present study poses an exception.

The first aim of the study is to investigate the relative number of provocative victims in a group of self-reported targets of bullying. Provocative victims are individuals who do admit that they have subjected others to bullying at the work place as well as claiming to be target of bullying themselves. The second aim is to investigate the number of self reported perpetrators of bullying. Some of the hypothesis investigated:

- 1) The perpetrators will report a) high level of aggression, and b) a high but unstable level of self-esteem
- 2) Provocative victims will a) report a low level of self esteem, combined with b) a high level of aggressiveness
- 3) Provocative victims will report more prior experiences with bullying compared to others victims, be it in a) former job(s) or b) in their childhood (at school)

### *Method*

Respondents were randomly selected from six different samples of labour union members and members of the Norwegian Employers’ Federation (NHO). All samples were studied as part of a more comprehensive research project on bullying and harassment in the workplace (see also Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen, & Hellesøy, 1994; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). A total of 4742 labour union members and employers’ representatives were selected randomly from a total population of 10 616 individuals. A total of 2215 people responded (a 47% response rate). The questionnaire used in the present study comprised demographic variables, health-related variables, scales on psychological traits,

single questions and scales on harassment and bullying, and scales and questions measuring perceived work environment quality (20 pages in total).

### *Results*

No statistical difference was revealed between the bullied victim group and the provocative group regarding the amount of bullying they report to have been the target of, as portrayed by the Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen et al., 1994). Correspondingly, we found minor differences regarding the perceived consequences of bullying. Statistics demonstrated that the first hypothesis could not be verified. Hypothesis 2 and 3 were verified, however (hypothesis 2 partially). Thus, provocative victims reported a low level of self esteem, combined with a high level of aggressiveness. Provocative victims reported more prior experiences with bullying compared to others victims.

### *Discussion*

The study demonstrates that it is important to differentiate between targets of bullying and so-called provocative victims. Provocative victims have exposed others to bullying. In addition, they have experienced being bullied themselves. Contrary to what may have been expected in advance, some employees do admit that they are perpetrators of bullying. An implication of the present study may be that one in future research should distinguish between 3 bullying groups. The perpetrators should be included in the survey study design. The dyadic research level should be incorporated into bullying research, as earlier suggested (Matthiesen, Aasen, Holst, Wie & Einarsen, 2002).

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## **Workplace behaviour: The experience of students in the workplace**

Darcy McCormack<sup>1</sup> & Gian Casimir<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>La Trobe University & <sup>2</sup>University of Newcastle, Australia

The experience of university students as victims of bullying behaviour while participating in the labour market merits examination. The numbers and proportions of students employed while undertaking their undergraduate courses has increased significantly in most developed countries in recent years. In Australia, part-time or casual employment is now the only or main source of income for over one-third of first year university students. A substantial majority of students now work part-time or full-time throughout the duration of their studies. This can be attributed to a number of causes including significant increases in course fees faced by students, deregulation of labour markets and changing societal tastes and preferences. As well as their increasing numbers, university students working in the labour market are of particular interest because of their characteristics. The students are concentrated overwhelmingly at the lower levels of the employing organisations' hierarchies and are among the organisations' youngest employees. They may therefore be considered particularly 'at risk' of becoming victims of bullying behaviour. These characteristics have the potential to shed some light on the bullying phenomenon.

The subjects of this research were undergraduate students enrolled in business degree courses at a major Australian university. Students were invited in lectures to participate in the research by completing an anonymous questionnaire. The only requirement was that they had been employed during the previous twelve months. An operational approach was used in this research with the term 'bullying' not used in the questionnaire. In this way, self-labelling was not used, and associated potential problems with inaccurate reporting due to social pressures or self-perceptions of weakness were avoided. The frequency of the behaviour is the central issue in this approach.

Respondents were asked first about their gender and that of the perpetrator, their occupation and industry and how long they had been working in their current place of employment. The second section of the questionnaire concerned their experiences of workplace behaviour. Twenty forms of bullying behaviour were used from the literature and respondents were asked to indicate, using a Likert scale, their frequency of experiencing each form of behaviour. Respondents were then asked about their rank in the organisation relative to that of the perpetrator.

The majority of respondents were employed in the retail industry, with smaller numbers in labouring positions, administrative positions and the hospitality industry. The retail and hospitality industries, in particular, are notable in Australia for their relatively high rates of casual employment making them attractive to students who are able to thereby fit their studies and employment into their timetables.

The issue of the gender of bullies and victims is important in the literature with most bullying found to be gender-dependent. Interestingly, males were not found in the current study to be more likely than females to be bullies. The role of gender was found to be critical, however. The frequency of same-gender bullying was greater than between-gender bullying. In cases where the perpetrator was female, the majority of her victims were female. In cases where the perpetrator was male, the majority of his victims were male.



The forms of workplace bullying were many and varied. The most frequently experienced form of bullying reported by the students was unjustified criticism or monitoring of performance, followed by unfair pressure to produce work, unpleasant comments or sarcasm, and shifting the goalposts without telling the victim. Physical violence was the least frequently reported behaviour, followed closely by violence to property.

The role of power in bullying has also received considerable attention in the literature. Formal power based on the position one holds may play a role in influencing the occurrence of bullying behaviour. Employees holding relatively senior positions may be in a position to perpetrate bullying behaviour on staff holding less senior positions. Informal or personal power which does not have as its source the position one holds, but rather is psychologically-based, may be significant. The results of this study indicate that formal power, in terms of the relative ranks of the perpetrator and victim, plays a significant role in influencing bullying behaviour. The role of informal power in influencing bullying requires further analysis.

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## **Coping with exposure to bullying at work – results from an interview study**

Eva Gemzøe Mikkelsen,  
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### *Introduction*

Previous studies have shown that victims of bullying at work use a variety of strategies in order to cope with their victimisation. One general finding is that although most victims actively try to put an end to the bullying, this is often to no avail. However, a study by Zapf and Gross (2001) indicated that the usage of certain coping strategies might be linked to a successful outcome.

### *Aims of the study*

The interview study aimed at assessing victims' coping with exposure to bullying at work and to explore the extent to which the victims' coping efforts led to a successful outcome. A third aim was to investigate which strategies victims would recommend other victims use.

### *Method*

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with thirty former victims of bullying who were all members of the Danish Union of Employees working in offices and trade. Twenty-eight of the victims were female and two were male.

### *Results*

The victims employed a wide range of strategies in order to cope with their victimisation. The most commonly used strategies were: 1) efforts to work harder or otherwise live up to the bully's demands; 2) controlling their own negative feelings, hoping that the bullying will eventually stop; 3) seeking support; 4) attempting to avoid the bully or any conflicts with him/her; 5) confronting the bully; 6) blaming themselves; 7) complaining to superiors and finally; 8) taking a sick-leave.

Generally, the victims used a combination of strategies, the most prevalent being 1) initial attempts to control or suppress their negative feelings whilst trying to live up to the bully's demands; followed by 2) seeking support among colleagues and in some cases their superiors; 3) confronting the bully; and finally 4) taking a final sick-leave after which they left the company (the latter strategy were used by the majority of victims after they had sought assistance from their union).

In none of the cases did the victims succeed in putting an end to the bullying. Results also confirmed previous findings in as much as those victims who confronted the bully reported that this strategy was unsuccessful and in some cases led to an escalation of the bullying.

Almost all the victims recommended that other victims should either confront the bully immediately after the bullying started and/or leave the organisation.

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## **Teachers - a critical focus group in both schools-Based and workplace anti-bullying research: Perspectives from Ireland**

Stephen James Minton & Astrid Mona O' Moore  
Trinity College

In the course of this paper, it is contended that for a variety of reasons, teachers are a critical group for anti-bullying researchers to consider. Data from research undertaken in Ireland over recent years are presented in support of this key point, and, along with other material, are presented according to three main category headings:

### *(i) Teachers as Victims of Bullying*

In demonstrating the prevalence, nature, severity and frequency of workplace bullying in schools, key statistics from surveys of their members conducted by the Irish National Teachers Organisation (1998) (INTO, Ireland's largest primary teachers' trade union), the Association of Secondary Teachers of Ireland (1999) (ASTI, Ireland's largest post-primary teachers' trade union), and Dr. Mona O' Moore (on behalf of the Teachers' Union of Ireland (1999) (the TUI is Ireland's second largest post-primary teachers' trade union)) are presented.

### *(ii) Teachers as Perpetrators of Bullying*

With corporal punishment being abolished with effect from February 1982, by order of the Minister for Education, classroom discipline measures have changed accordingly. However, it is noted that Ireland is currently having to come to terms with the fact that until recent years, as members of the religious orders made most of the educational provision on behalf of the State, and the social and litigious power of the Roman Catholic Church and the State have traditionally been intertwined, instances of extreme physical violence under the guise of classroom 'discipline', and instances of sexual abuse, went unreported (or reports were disbelieved), quite literally, for generations. Whilst such horror is, hopefully, a phenomenon of the past, the Department of Education and Science's 1993 Guidelines on Countering Bullying Behaviour in Primary and Post-Primary Schools recognised that teaching and non-teaching school staff may be the perpetrators of bullying behaviour in schools.

### *(iii) Teachers as Agents of Intervention in Pupil-Pupil Bullying*

Selected data from both the nationwide survey of bullying behaviour in Irish primary and post-primary schools (O' Moore, Kirkham & Smith, 1997) and the Donegal national schools anti-bullying programme (O' Moore & Minton, 2003) are presented. In the Donegal national schools study, it was evident that although pupils' estimations of their teachers' likelihood of putting a stop to bullying improved after the implementation of the anti-bullying programme, there was a notable discrepancy between pupils' estimations of their teachers' efforts, and teachers' assessments of their own actions (the overwhelming majority of teachers reported that they *always* tried to put a stop to bullying when it happens). It is argued that this discrepancy has particular resonance when it comes to the attempt to increase levels of reporting of bullying behaviour, by those who are victims of it, to teachers and parents (where the Donegal programme, as well as the earlier Sheffield schools programme (Smith & Sharp, 1994) met with no success, despite having proven to be effective in most other respects). In other words, teachers should not only be confident that they act against bullying behaviour, but pupils must share this confidence if they are to feel safe in reporting incidents of bullying behaviour.

### *(iv) Discussion and Conclusions*

In a discussion of the material raised in the sections above, several major points emerge:

(a) Firstly, whilst it is fair to say that the research data that are available in respect of workplace bullying behaviour amongst teachers are not as complete as those regarding bullying behaviour amongst pupils, sufficient evidence exists to suggest that as far as schools go bullying is a reality in the staff room, as well as in the playground.

(b) Secondly, in attempting to give any coherent answer to the aspect of this paper devoted to 'teachers as perpetrators of bullying', a lack of 'hard data' gleaned from educational / psychological research has become apparent. It is a matter of considerable importance to accurately investigate violence, harassment and bullying perpetrated by teachers on pupils in future schools-based surveys, although methodologically this is likely to be a somewhat sensitive issue.

(c) Thirdly, it is essential to think about teacher-teacher and teacher-pupil bullying in the context of the socialising effect that the educational experience has on young people. Teachers are in a position of considerable responsibility, not just in terms of imparting information to pupils, but also in shaping *attitudes*. It is contended that if teachers can play their role in helping pupils to develop healthy and pro-social attitudes, then one might expect to see incidents of workplace bullying diminish in the future.

(d) Finally, such questions take on an additional importance when we consider the issue of implementing school anti-bullying programmes, where teachers have, quite naturally, a critical role in all such programmes thus far conceived. For as long as teachers themselves, however infrequently, engage in either the bullying of their peers or their pupils, they are unlikely to be able to effectively deliver anti-bullying content effectively or convincingly.

It is concluded that as teachers have an important role to play in (i) addressing their own issues of workplace bullying; (ii) implementing anti-bullying interventions as part of their existing teaching practise, and in their potential role in the delivery of schools-based anti-bullying programmes; and (iii) shaping the attitudes of young people towards victimisation and aggression, thereby in turn shaping society's attitudes towards violence, that targeting teachers as a focus group unites the efforts of anti-bullying researchers, regardless of workplace or schools-based specialisation.

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## **Organisational antecedents of bullying at the workplace: A mixture between classical stressors and role problems**

Guy Notelaers, Catholic University Leuven, Belgium

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The Belgian law about bullying at the workplace has encouraged applied research in the organization. Most researches focus their work on the diagnostics at the individual level. As a consequence they are mapping bullying at the workplace in a particular way: who is a victim and who is bullying. With this focus they are trying to analyse the problem at the intra-individual level without actually dealing with the problem at the organizational level. This does not mean that the more clinical perspective has not lead to prevention schemes, on the contrary. However, a risk of such a n approach may be that it fails to pinpoint the responsibility of the employer in organizing the workload in such a way that the probability of bullying behavior decreases.

However, in the literature it has been argued that bullying was exclusively caused by poor organizational conditions, while others argue that bullying is a consequence of the intra-individual relationships at work. Between these two, a more moderate position arose. Empirical research designs in de mid '90 indicated that bullying can be explained with the organizational framework i.e working conditions, job design, and so on. Due to problematic research designs only very partial hypotheses have been tested. But the results indicated that some features of job design do explain bullying at the workplace. Maybe, due to quite unsatisfying results i.e. low proportion of variances that could be explained, not much organizational research in explaining bullying has been conducted the last recent years. Instead the research focusing on problems in diagnosing bullying behavior and victimization is still growing.

Reviewing the literature leads to the hypothesis that role-ambiguity, role-conflict and ill-initiated change in the organization act to cause to conflicts that are responsible for higher emotional load and higher pace of work. These job features can account for some of the variance of the occurrence of bullying. With the data form the Belgian dataset<sup>1</sup> (N = +/- 4000), collected after various legally required stress diagnoses, it is possible to test this hypothesis. The data gathered, by the Questionnaire Evaluation and Experience of work (van Veldhoven, M. Meijman, T. 1994) that takes into account a lot scales relating to job features, and by the Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen, 1996) that is measuring bullying at the workplace, makes it possible to conduct this research.

In this contribution we'd like to give a brief overview of the literature about bullying in order to formulate our hypothesis. After dealing with the theoretical concepts and their measurements instruments, a path model combining Job Demand Control variables with role-related variables is presented and discussed.

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<sup>1</sup> Developed by the national institute for the research of working conditions (DIOVA).

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## **The need for a legal perspective in cases that involve escalated conflicts and/or bullying**

Harald Pedersen

When a conflict has escalated to a level where at least one of the parties are building prejudices linked to the other party's personal qualities, the balance between the parties will be disturbed and a situation that directly and/or indirectly ends in bullying is due to arise. This can happen directly, as in what the "winning" party is saying and doing. It can happen indirectly, as when the employer takes side and handles the case as if the "losing" part is the problem. From a legal point of view, the employer has the power to instigate action to solve the conflict. The employer can use his or hers leading position to decide that the involved employees shall participate in bringing the conflict down to an acceptable level. It can however be difficult to convince the employer that the real cause of the problem is the conflict between the two parties. This is where it can be beneficial to bring in a legal perspective.

First, connect the problem to the psychosocial working-environment. Focus on the employer's obligation to maintain the national legal standard in this area. It is sufficient cause for action that one party describes the escalating conflict as the real problem (even if the other party denies that a conflict exists). This will force the employer to investigate the allegations (and in some cases the denials), and pursue proper action based on the findings.

Second, emphasize possible legal consequences if the employer maintains focus on the "losing" party as the problem, and carries on neglecting the working-environment perspective, instead of taking proper action. In these situations the problem can evolve in two directions:

- 1) The direct and/or indirect bullying finally results in a situation where it is impossible for the "losing" party to work. This action (or absence of action) can be the foundation of a lawsuit where the "losing" party claims different types of economic compensation.
- 2) The employer dismisses the "losing" part, after a process that often can be described as a witch-hunt. The dismissal can either be based on several insignificant incidents (which the employer will exhibit as much worse than they really are), or it can be based on one dramatic incident where the "losing" part - after having been forced to accept several changes in working conditions/replacement - finally refuses to accept another change. The dismissed employee can file a lawsuit where he or she claims compensation and/or getting back the job based on the fact that the dismissal is wrongful. If the dismissed employee can provide evidence that shows involvement in an escalated conflict that wasn't handled properly by the employer, it can lead to the conclusion that the dismissal is wrongful because it was based on a procedural error that might have influenced the decision.

By establishing legal pressure on the employer, the "losing" party assumes an obligation to cooperate if the employer takes action. When the conflict has escalated to a high level, it can be very difficult for the "losing" part to accept proper action from the employer as sufficient. If the "losing" part is unable to cooperate in this part of the process, it can have a major negative impact on the possibilities to win future lawsuits.

If the legal pressure doesn't result in proper action from the employer, the pressure itself will be adequate as evidence and therefore contribute to a stronger legal claim if the "losing" part decides to file a lawsuit. Proving that the employer didn't fulfil the national legal standard can be a useful strategy when building up a lawsuit. This applies whether it's related to bullying or to wrongful dismissal.



A consequence-oriented legal perspective is useful for the employer, after proper action to bring the conflict to an acceptable level has been taken. First, secure the situation and make sure that the parties don't start escalating the conflict again. Second, ensure that the right person gets the dismissal if he or she doesn't follow the instructions

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## **Perceived frequency, intensity of feelings toward, and expected impact of different forms of workplace aggression (WA)**

Dr. C. Pietersen

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### *Introduction*

Aggression appears to be a problematic trend in society in general and it is of particular concern in the workplace. It is also consistently a topic of interest in the media and it is suggesting that human aggression is on the rise today.

Although there is a current lack of conceptual clarity in the use of different but apparently overlapping constructs such as: “workplace violence”, “workplace bullying”, “workplace incivility”, and “workplace aggression” (Andersson, 1999; Keim, 1999; Myers, 1996; Neuman and Baron, 1998), human aggression involves any act in which one individual intentionally attempts to harm another. When we apply this definition to organizations, workplace aggression (WA) can be defined as efforts by individuals to harm others with whom they work, or have worked, or the organizations in which they are presently, or were previously, employed (Neuman, & Baron, 1998). (The term workplace violence would, on this approach, only be applied to serious instances of physical assault.)

A wide range of aggressive behaviours has been identified in work settings. The majority of these behaviours do not involve physical assault; rather, they involve aggression that is verbal and covert in nature. This means that all forms behaviour engaged in to intentionally harm co-employees in organizations would qualify as WA.

Neuman and Baron (1998) developed and empirically verified a three-tier system of workplace aggression (hereafter: WA) ranging from: expressions of hostility, obstructionism, and overt aggression. It should, however, also be kept in mind that the specific behaviours that make up WA are likely to differ among cultures (Andersson, 1999).

The negative impact of WA on organizational functioning (Pearson, et.al., 2000) means that organizations need to manage the problem. One way to do this is through training (Banner, 2001; Coco, 1998). A first step an intervention program to deal with this issue would be to determine how prevalent the problem is in an organization. To do this one can determine how frequently different forms of WA occur in an organization. However, one also needs to determine how strongly employees feel about the different forms of aggressive behaviour in their workplace and what impact WA has on the operations in the organization.

The reasons for this observation are, firstly, the fact that how we feel and what we think have a substantial impact on what we do. A large body of research findings suggests this is very much the case with respect to human aggression (Andersson, 1999; Awadalla and Roughton, 1998; Chen and Spector, 1992; Geddes and Baron, 1997; Goulet, 1997; Moore, 1997; Zohar, 1999). Just as personality traits may predispose individuals to respond in a particular way, subtle feelings and thoughts may predispose individuals to particular forms of behaviour, in this instance to behave aggressively or not.

Secondly, WA has a severe negative impact the operations in an organization in terms of, for example, time and productivity (Coco, 1998); interpersonal relations (Andersson, 1999);

increased absenteeism; reduced commitment; organizational departure (Pearson, et.al., 2000) and performance decrements (Zohar, 1999).

### *Method*

With the above in mind, the objectives of this, exploratory, study were to determine:

- How frequently different forms of aggression occur in the workplace,
- How strongly employees personally feel about the different forms of aggression in their workplace and lastly,
- What the perceived impact of the different forms of WA is on the effective operation of an organization.

A *Workplace Aggression Inventory (WAI)*, was developed and used to collect data from a sample of 39 employees of a security company contracted by the University of the North, in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The questionnaire was designed according to Neuman and Baron's Three-Factor Model and corresponding empirical findings (Neuman & Baron, 1998).

Results will be reported using the following scheme:

#### I: EXPRESSIONS OF HOSTILITY

- Primarily verbal and symbolic behaviour (negative gestures, facial expressions, verbal assault).

#### II: OBSTRUCTIONISM

- Actions that impede a person's ability to perform his/her job and action that interfere with the organization's ability to meet its goals and objectives.

#### III: OVERT AGGRESSION

- Acts of workplace violence (attack with weapon; physical assault against persons, personal property and company property; theft).

The WAI includes items on all three dimensions/levels; 24 multiple choice items in total, for each of the following research issues of interest:

- Frequency of observing WA in the workplace,
- Intensity of feelings about the occurrence of WA behaviours,
- Perceived impact of WA on organisational effectiveness.

### *Results*

Little research is currently being done in the field of WA in South Africa (generally acknowledged to be one of the most violent countries in the world), and in the Limpopo Province. The study reported here is the first of a series of intended investigations into this area of human conduct in the workplace.

An analysis of the instrument indicates promising results. Good item-scale inter-correlations were obtained, showing that items largely cluster according to the three dimensions of Neuman and Baron's model. In addition, a principle components analysis produced further support with eigen values ranging from 1.20 to 6.00, and a total variance of 75.65. Reliability values (Alpha coefficients) are also encouraging and range from .78 to .91 for the 24 items, and .89 for the WA overall measure

Empirical results and findings, as well as indications for further research will be reported at the conference.

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## The Boundaries of Bullying at Work

Charlotte Rayner,  
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Bullying at work has been studied as a discreet concept for over a decade. Throughout this period, those engaged in the field have been conscious of the boundaries of ‘bullying’ with other highly related areas such as sexual and racial harassment. In acknowledging these types of boundaries, authors have been sensitive to the level of overlap between bullying and the other form of harassment. This has led to the preservation of discreet domains of harassment (e.g. racial, sexual, disability) as areas of study.

However research has shown a blurring of general psychological harassment (bullying) at work and these discreet areas. Earnshaw and Cooper (2001) found that UK lawyers reported ‘bullying’ as the real underlying problem in many legal cases that were ostensibly brought on sexual or racial grounds – possibly as there is no law against bullying specifically in the UK. As a result consideration has been given as to whether bullying should be the overarching concept under which racism and sexism (for example) sit, or indeed whether these concepts should be examined on their own (Rayner, Hoel & Cooper, 2002). Thus contention exists over the topic boundaries of bullying at work. The author considers these ‘territorial’ discussions potentially distracting, preferring to see one larger whole rather than many smaller isolated elements.

To date the study of workplace bullying has been dominated by descriptive studies, and this is appropriate for a new field (Van de Vliert, 1999). However there is an urgency to move on to explanatory models and these are only just emerging in the ‘bullying’ literature. In their search for explanatory models, researchers are sensibly looking to other domains for related literature (e.g. Keashly & Jagatic, 2003). Thus the links to theoretical paradigms have been widening. Whilst these developments are appropriate, they increase the potential for further boundary issues as subsets of research develops and risk schism within the topic.

The author suggested a framework for placing various approaches into one schema in a previous conference paper (Rayner, 2002). It was hoped that such a framework would provide not only an integrating vehicle to act against schism, but also a useful tool for analysing approaches to any type of negative behaviour at work thus allowing explanations to ‘jump’ boundaries. For example, is an explanation used in racism also useful for bullying? Can explanations used in the case of Enron be useful in cases of bullying? The framework (Rayner, 2002) is presented below:

Table 1: Examples of explanations for negative behavior at work

Broad Approach	Unit of analysis		
	Individual	Group	Corporate
Deviancy			
Normal			
Structural			
Additive			

The model provides two axial dimensions. One axis is concerned with the unit of analysis (individual/ group/ corporate) which is self-explanatory, and arguably could be further extended wider to industry/ societal and cultural levels.

The other axis relates to the theoretical approach or explanation, and is more complex. The first two dimensions in this axis focus on whether theories/ explanations consider bullying to be a 'normal' action (for example an act of workplace sabotage, Analoui, 1995) or as a demonstration of some deviant aspect. An example of the latter would be the psychoanalytic approach of De Board (1978) where whole organisations can be seen as sociopathic. Such an approach is present in the work of some popular non-academic writers such as Tim Field (1996). Those approaches that might attempt to explain bullying (as a whole) should be able to be placed in either of these categories.

The simple dichotomy above was insufficient to reflect the domain of theoretical links, and thus was expanded to two more concepts. Taking the 'additive' concept first, various factors have been examined that are potentially moderating, mediating or influential in some way so as to dampen or exacerbate aspects of bullying at work. Some aspects such as stress (Hoel & Cooper, 2000), and control over work (Einarsen, 1996), can be thought of as reasonably straightforward to define and research. That said, the literature highlights some fundamental problems. Firstly the direction of cause and effect might be unclear. If someone is stressed are they more likely to bully/be bullied and/or does the bullying cause stress to increase? (e.g. Quine, 1999; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). In addition Liefoghe and Mackenzie-Davey (2003) have exposed that some factors which might be 'seen to affect bullying' are actually seen to be bullying in themselves: "(performance related pay) is not just an environmental factor facilitating interpersonal bullying, but it is bullying in itself" (p227). Thus the factor moves from being a potential explanation to being a description of a bullying tactic. This author welcomes these observations as they highlight some potential difficulties within the field.

The reason for including a fourth dimension, that of 'Structural' in the framework was to pick up less well-defined explanatory aspects. As such, this parameter is a repository for 'fuzzy' concepts. Notions of organizational climate and national culture are less easy to define and research, but may be utilised as explanations by academics and those involved in the area.

The original conference paper was conceptual. Feedback revealed a level of surprise concerning the breadth of explanation suggested for a single topic such as bullying. There was clearly a need to undertake a systematic test of the conceptual framework. In this paper the author applied the framework to a systematic analysis of the text 'Bullying and Emotional Abuse at Work' (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, Eds. 2003) which contains 25 chapters from 35 authors.

Results found that the 'structural' parameter needed refining and that the points raised by Liefoghe and Mackenzie-Davey (ibid) were potentially problematic. However the ability to place a variety of theoretical explanations of bullying at work into one schema was largely successful. This is thus useful for meta analyses and review, where apparent contradictions could be teased out and explained. It may also retain a large 'whole' and thus dynamic picture rather than fragmenting into smaller fragments with many boundaries requiring constant surveillance!

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Charlotte Rayner has been researching in the area of bullying at work since the mid-1990s. She completed the first systematic study into bullying in the UK with the BBC. She then undertook two large surveys with Britain's largest trade union, UNISON. She has recently moved from Staffordshire University to Portsmouth University Business School where she is Professor of HRM.

## **Predictors of workplace discrimination: Results from a nationally representative survey of U.S. organizations**

Rashaun K. Roberts, Paula L. Grubb, James W. Grosch & W. Stephen Brightwell  
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### *Introduction*

Discrimination against non-dominant social groups is an unfortunate reality in American work organizations, and allegations with respect to it appear to be growing. Data from the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission show that complaints filed with the Commission alleging race/ethnicity, religious, age, and disability discrimination rose steadily from 61,778 in fiscal year (FY) 1999 to 68,367 in FY 2002.

Discrimination or differential treatment, whether in terms of age, religion, race/ethnicity, or disability, is increasingly recognized as a chronic stressor that adversely impacts physical and psychological health, well-being, and a variety of job-related outcomes. For example, some researchers have found that experiences of racial discrimination are associated with higher levels of blood pressure and physiological reactivity. A number of other studies reveal that the subjective experience of discrimination leads to elevated levels of psychological distress for a broad range of minority groups. Further, discrimination has been found to diminish labor force participation, increase levels of job stress, impede job advancement and development of work skills, compromise interpersonal relationships with coworkers, and decrease job satisfaction.

Despite the apparent toxicity of discrimination to health, well-being and performance, few U.S. researchers have utilized national data to identify aspects of the work environment which predict the emergence of race/ethnicity-, religion-, age- and disability-related discrimination. Isolating these predictors would help shape effective approaches to the prevention of workplace discrimination as the diversity of American workforce continues to flourish.

### *Method*

Data were collected as part of a workplace violence module developed for inclusion in the National Organizations Survey (NOS), a nationally representative telephone survey of U.S. organizations conducted by the National Opinion Research Center. Responses were gathered from key informants at 516 public and private organizations ranging in size from 5-20,000 employees. Key informants who participated in the study were asked whether or not there were any discrimination complaints on the basis of racial/ethnic and religious status in the past year. Similar questions about age-related and disability-related complaints of discrimination were asked.

In order to control for structural factors related to complaints of workplace discrimination, key informants were asked to provide information on variety of characteristics including company size (i.e. number of full-time employees), extent of organizational hierarchy, type of organization (i.e. service or product), profit or non-profit status, and unionization.

We hypothesized that fairness of organizational practices, level of job security, pride in working for the organization, employee's degree of trust in management, and quality of employee-management relations would be predictive of workplace discrimination. Key informants were asked: "...Would your employees strongly disagree, disagree, neither disagree nor agree, agree, or strongly agree that a) promotions are handled fairly b) job



security is good c) employees are proud to work here d) employees trust the management at this place.” Key informants were also asked to “rate the relationship between management and employees...? Is it very good, good, neither good nor bad, or very poor?”

Multiple regression analyses were performed. Structural variables including size of company, hierarchy, type of organization, union representation, company sector were entered into the model first. Perceptions of fairness of promotions, job security, employee pride, degree of employee trust in management and the perceived quality of employee-management relations were entered in the second step.

### *Results*

With respect to racial/ethnic and religious discrimination, 13.4% of key informants interviewed indicated that there had been complaints in relation to these forms of discrimination in their organization in the past 12 months, 8.7% indicated that there had been complaints of age-related discrimination and 8.1% indicated that there had been complaints of discrimination that were disability-related. With respect to organizational practices, data indicated that 9.3% of key informants disagreed or strongly disagreed that promotions within their organization are handled fairly. Additionally, 8.3% disagreed or strongly disagreed that job security is good. Further, 4% percent disagreed or strongly disagreed that employees are proud to work for the organizations, and 6.4% disagreed or strongly disagreed that employees trust management. Only 1% of key informants described employee-management relations as poor or very poor.

Results of the regression analyses indicated that non-profit status predicted of a greater number of racial/ethnic and religious discrimination complaints as did larger company size, unionization, lack of fairness in promotion and poor employee-management relations.

Further, non-profit status, unionization, and poor management-employee relations predicted a greater number of age-related discrimination complaints. Similarly, non-profit status, unionization, and poor employee-management relations predicted a greater number of disability-related discrimination complaints.

### *Conclusion*

This study represents the first attempt at determining the extent of workplace discrimination in a nationally-representative survey of organizations. The study findings suggest that structural factors such as non-profit status, unionization, and company size may play an important role in facilitating discrimination complaints. Larger companies, companies/organizations with unions and non-profit organizations may be more likely than other types of organizations to have mechanisms that empower employees to register complaints of discrimination. Future studies will need to examine this issue more closely in addition to examining the impact of such empowerment on employee and organizational health, well-being, and performance outcomes.

Study findings also indicate that poor employee-management relations were predictive of all types of discrimination complaints. This suggests that organizational interventions should incorporate strategies that improve upon critical aspects of these relationships. For racial/ethnic and religious discrimination, instituting strategies that ensure fairness in organizational processes (e.g. promotions) is another potential area to target in intervention and prevention.

This study had a number of limitations. All data is dependent upon the perceptions of key organizational informants rather than employees. Further, the study was cross-sectional in design which limits the conclusions that can be drawn from the data. Longitudinal research (incorporating key informant, employee and management perspectives) is needed in the future to more comprehensively examine the antecedents and consequences of workplace discrimination. The advantage of this study however, is that the data is nationally representative and does provide a sense of what is actually happening in the U.S. with respect to workplace discrimination.

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## **Organisational measures against bullying: The view of business professionals**

Denise Salin

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### *Introduction*

In the past few years the social responsibility of organisations has received increasing attention, both from practitioners and academic scholars. Still, the prevention of bullying and the promotion of dignity at work seem to have received relatively little attention on the social responsibility agenda.

The aim of this study is to analyse what action companies have taken against bullying. More precisely, it is analysed to what extent companies have informed their employees about bullying, to what extent employees feel that their organisations have the capabilities to successfully intervene in a bullying situation and how victims and observers of bullying describe the actions of the organisation in bullying episodes.

### *Method*

A cross-sectional survey was conducted in cooperation with The Finnish Association of Graduates in Economics and Business Administration, a Finnish nationwide professional organisation for employees holding a university degree in business studies. The questionnaire was sent to 1,000 randomly drawn members and a total of 385 questionnaires were returned. The respondents were employed in a wide variety of organisations, the majority (82%) being within the private sector. Over four-fifths of the respondents were employed in either managerial or expert positions. Women accounted for 57.3% of the sample and men for 42.7%.

The questionnaire included background questions regarding the respondents and their organisations and questions regarding the general work environment of the respondents, the respondents' experiences of bullying and organisational measures against bullying. The respondents were asked whether the employers had informed about bullying or whether the issue had been discussed at the workplace and whether the employees perceived that the organisation had the capabilities to successfully intervene in a possible bullying situation.

In addition, in connection with the questionnaire all respondents who had any experiences of bullying, either as victims, perpetrators or observers, were encouraged to write down more about their experiences in their own words.

### *Results*

In this study more than 4/5 of the respondents reported that no information about bullying had been given in the workplace, and only 2% reported that enough information had been provided. What is more, the results showed that observers reported having received more information about bullying than non-observers.

Furthermore, more than half of the respondents felt that their organisations did not have sufficient capabilities to deal with bullying should such situations arise. Chi-square tests revealed significant differences between different groups of employees. For example, whereas fully two-fifths of the employees in the private sector felt that the organisation had sufficient capabilities, only one-fifth of the employees in the public sector felt the same. In general, men and employees in higher managerial positions were more optimistic than women and employees in lower positions about the capabilities to intervene. The analyses further showed

that both victims and observers were clearly more pessimistic than non-victims and non-observers about the capabilities of their organisations to resolve possible bullying situations.

At the end of the questionnaire all those who had any experiences of bullying were asked to write down more about their experiences. Most of the victims seemed to be rather disappointed with the support and help they had received from their supervisors and the organisations: Several victims claimed that they had not received any help from management despite repeated attempts. Instead, most cases had been resolved only when either the perpetrator or victim had chosen to leave the work group. On the other hand, some of the managers who had witnessed bullying among their subordinates provided a clearly more optimistic picture about the willingness and possibilities to intervene in bullying. However, their stories also revealed many of the difficulties in trying to intervene in and stop such escalated conflicts and the frustration and helplessness experienced by the managers. The managers very clearly expressed a need for more training and knowledge on how to successfully handle such situations.

#### *Further research*

This study can be seen as a preliminary attempt to gain some insights into organisational measures against bullying. The aim of the researcher is to continue research on the same topic by making case studies in large Finnish companies to explore how HR managers perceive and have dealt with actual bullying situations and the perceived successfulness of these. This project will be started in the autumn of 2004.

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## Conceptualising upwards bullying

Dr. Michael Sheehan, Sara Branch, Professor Michelle Barker & Dr. Sheryl Ramsay  
Griffith University, Australia

In order to survive in the current economic climate, organisations have been forced to adapt and change. This has resulted in the nature of managerial work changing and becoming ever more demanding (Cartwright, 2000). Within this organisational environment Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher (2001) suggest that managers are increasingly vulnerable to being the recipients or targets of workplace bullying. Davenport, Schwartz, & Elliott (1999) also agree that managers are now targets, arguing that during times of high stress when there is great the pressure to perform, bullying in the workplace can happen at all levels. They claim that staff may bully upwards as a way of dissenting against the manager who they believe is the main cause of their stress. It may well be that upwards bullying is part of “a game” (Salin, 2003, p. 10) played by staff to compete in an increasingly competitive environment. Thus, the pressures of contemporary organisational change, exacerbated by the changing nature of interpersonal workplace relationships, may lead to managers becoming vulnerable to workplace bullying from their staff. The present paper explores the phenomenon of upwards bullying by investigating the concept of dependency, the sources of power available to staff, and the consequences for managers

Despite the wealth of literature on workplace bullying, to date the research has focused mostly on ‘downwards’ bullying, conducted by managers towards their staff (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003). More recently, research has focused on ‘horizontal’ bullying, that is, bullying from one colleague to another (Lewis & Sheehan, 2003). Within this paper another perspective of workplace bullying will be presented termed ‘upwards’ bullying, meaning bullying that is directed at managers from their staff. It is proposed that staff, in response to organisational change and the resultant uncertainty, may misuse alternative sources of power such as personal power, to bully managers.

Keashly and Jagatic (2003) and Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper (2003) suggest that in the case of workplace bullying, it is the target’s dependency on the offender which produces a power imbalance, enabling bullying in the workplace to occur. Bassman (1992) states: “one common thread in all abusive relationships is the element of dependency. The abuser controls some important resources in the victim’s life, and the victim is therefore dependent on the abuser” (p. 2). Mechanic (2003) suggests that due to their dependency on their employees, organisations and managers are at the mercy of those employees. In a truly interdependent relationship, staff rely on their managers for direction, motivation, resources and rewards, while managers are dependant on staff to be productive and fulfill the goals of the organisation (Cook, Yamagishi, & Donnelly, 1997). It is argued in this paper that a manager’s dependency on their staff provides staff with a form of power that can be abused (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003).

Managers obtain most of their power from the position they hold, although this power is limited to whether staff perceive a manager’s claim to power as legitimate (French & Raven, 1959). If a manager’s claim to power is perceived to be illegitimate, perhaps due to a violation of one of the three social and cultural values proposed by French and Raven (1959)<sup>1</sup>,

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<sup>1</sup> Value One: Cultural values, for example, acceptance of the value of age and that with age comes respect; Value Two: the social structure, for example, a staff member acknowledges that managers have power within organisations; Value Three: a legitimizing agent to endorse the manager.

then the manager's power sourced from his or her position will be diminished (Mechanic, 2003). Miller's (1997) study of gender harassment within the U.S. Army reveals that men often do not recognise the authority of women in power, believing that their power was obtained illegitimately or that they have used their gender inappropriately to rise to their position. As a result, Miller (1997) suggests that men within the army take on covert behaviours, which undermine women's legitimate power, making it difficult for them to do their job. Examples of covert counterproductive behaviour included tardiness, constant scrutiny of the manager's decisions, gossip and rumors, as well as sabotage. Therefore, although a manager may retain a position that traditionally holds power, their own power may be limited due to another person or person's denial to accept or recognise their power. This can occur, as demonstrated in Miller's (1997) study when the manager is perceived as a member of a minority group within society based on their gender, age, sexual orientation, religion or ethnicity. What may be gleaned from Miller's study is that staff can use covert behaviours to bully and undermine a manager's positional power.

Unlike managers who obtain the majority of their power from their position, staff members obtain power through alternative sources. Staff acquire most of their power from personal sources such as access to networks, information and knowledge (Porter, Angle, & Allen, 2003; Yukl, 1989) and the use of political tactics like, pressure tactics, coalition tactics and going to the manager's supervisor (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Porter et al., 2003). These sources of power could be mis-used against a manager especially if they see the manager's claim to power is illegitimate (Mechanic, 2003). For example, staff members who have access to sources of power such as expert power could withdraw their information or knowledge as a form of punishing their manager (Argyle & Henderson, 1985).

Moreover, it is proposed that when faced with upwards bullying, a manager may feel constrained in how they seek assistance or support, possibly due to the position they hold and the expectations they and others may have of their role. A person in a higher status position may not want to seek help as it could be seen to affect their standing within the organisation or because there is an expectation they should be able to handle the situation. In her study of gender harassment in the US Army, Miller (1997) found that women were reluctant to report inappropriate behaviour as they felt it would be considered a sign of their inability to lead or get along with others. It could be that those in higher status positions may feel that by seeking help or support they will appear incompetent and that this may be used against them in a performance review or harm their individual standing in the organisation (Lee, 1997). Workplace bullying has been found to be a form of workplace conflict that degenerates progressively into ongoing abuse (Leymann, 1996; Zapf & Einarsen, 2001). If workplaces are to be productive and healthy places for members of the organisation, it is vital to provide managers with early intervention strategies that enable them to save 'face' and to resolve interpersonal conflicts. The provision of timely, effective assistance to managers is even more vital, given the findings that the perpetrator's power is enhanced when the recipient remains silent due to fear of speaking out (Adams cited in Hadikin & O'Driscoll, 2000). The present paper outlines the conceptual and applied imperative to understand more about the shape and impact of upwards bullying in organisations, and effective remedies to address the phenomenon.

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## Bullying, post-traumatic stress disorders, and social support

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Bullying at work may be defined as a destructive dynamic process constituted by a series of hostile statements and actions which, if taken in isolation, may seem harmless, but whose constant repetition has pernicious destructive effects on the target person. Our objective will be to identify the existing links between symptoms of post-traumatic stress and bullying in two groups of professionals in Quebec as well as the moderating effect which social support may have on PTSD symptoms.

### *Methodology*

Two quantitative studies were completed among unionized professionals in Quebec (Canada). We developed a questionnaire combining the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror and different scales concerning mental health. Among these, two measure symptoms of post-traumatic stress: the PTSS-10 (Rafael, B., et al. 1989) and the IES - Impact of Event Scale (Horowitz, M. et al. 1982). The response rate was 32% (n = 613) for study I and 32% (n = 469) for study II.

### *Results and Discussion*

We have identified four groups of individuals: those that experienced Bullying at the time of the research (VB), those that experienced Bullying in the last 12 months (BB), witnesses to Bullying (WB), and those that never experienced Bullying at work (NB). The ensemble of the VB, BB and WB groups was 29.2% for study I and 38.4% for study II (see table 1).

Table 1: Bullying among Professionals in Québec

<b>Four groups</b>		<b>Study I (%)</b>	<b>Study II (%)</b>
I am presently a target of bullying	<b>(VB)</b>	10.5	7.5
I have been bullied in the past 12 months	<b>(BB)</b>	12.0	21.5
I witnessed incidents of bullying	<b>(WB)</b>	6.7	9.4
I have never experienced bullying	<b>(NB)</b>	70.8	61.6

Presently, there is a debate on the existence of a relationship between bullying and post-traumatic stress syndrome (Leymann & Gustafsson, 1996; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002; Soares, 2002).

In the two studies, through the use of the Scheffé test, multiple comparisons allowed us to determine that the differences between the group currently subjected to bullying (VB) and the other two groups (BB and WB) are statistically significant (see table 2). By comparison, the differences between the BB and WB are not statistically significant. This indicates that post-traumatic stress symptoms are significantly higher among individuals being subjected to bullying compared to individuals who have been but are not presently being victimized or those who have witnessed bullying. Internal reliability for PTSS-10 (Study I Cronbach's  $\alpha = .86$  and Study II Cronbach's  $\alpha = .83$ ) for the total IES (Study I Cronbach's  $\alpha = .92$  and Study II Cronbach's  $\alpha = .90$ ).



Table 2: PTSD Symptoms among Professionals in Quebec

	Study I			Study II		
	WB	BB	VB	WB	BB	VB
<b>PTSS-10 (%)</b>						
Low ( $< 2$ symptoms)	74.2	48.2	32.7	62.5	45.9	23.8
Uncertainty (3 to 5 symptoms)	19.4	21.4	26.5	25.0	32.1	28.6
Occupational Dysfunction ( $> 6$ symptoms)	6.5	30.4	40.8	12.5	22.0	47.6
<b>IES (%)</b>						
Low ( $< 8,5$ )	60.9	25.0	9.1	45.7	27.2	2.2
Medium (8,6 to 19,0)	13.0	18.8	11.4	20.0	27.2	20.0
High ( $> 19$ )	26.1	56.3	79.5	34.3	45.6	77.8

Also, there is a positive correlation between the length of bullying (study I  $r = .38$ ,  $p < .01$ ; study II  $r = .33$ ,  $p < .01$ ), its frequency (study I  $r = .34$ ,  $p < .01$ ; study II  $r = .44$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and symptoms of the measured post-traumatic stress symptoms. That is to say, the more bullying lasts, the more it is frequent, and the higher the PTSS and the IES symptoms are.

Finally, individuals affected by bullying seek more social support from families and friends outside work. However, it is only the social support of work colleagues that may counter symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorders (study I  $r = -.30$  for the PTSS,  $p < .01$  and  $r = -.22$  for the IES,  $p < .05$ ; study II  $r = -.39$  for the PTSS and  $r = -.40$  for the IES,  $p < .01$ ).

The understanding of this problem seems fundamental, not only in the dynamics of intervention and prevention of bullying, but also in the dynamics of the back to work programs of individuals being targeted of bullying. Although we cannot generalize these results for the whole of the Quebec population, these results confirm other results that we had in other projects with different populations here in Quebec. Presently, other research projects in progress seek to validate these results in a more general manner.

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## **A preliminary analysis of how bullying and harassment issues are filtered through the constructs of UK law**

Roger M Walden & Helge Hoel  
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### *Introduction*

Unlike countries such as Sweden, France and Belgium, the UK Government has so far resisted introducing general legislation aimed at incidents of workplace bullying (Di Martino, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Instead, it is judged that current legislation and other available legal remedies are adequately able to deal with such cases.

Hitherto, the only area in which UK law that has regularly encountered bullying and harassment as a central issue - and to some extent recognized it and treated it as a discrete problem - is that of sexual and racial harassment. Nevertheless, until recently the issue has been filtered through various legal constructs of discrimination which have led to inconsistent decision-making. Indeed, a recent ruling of the House of Lords may have substantially set back the development of the existing law in this area. While these problems may in part be ameliorated by virtue of the recent enactment of EU legislation (Article 13 EU treaty) requiring specific and common definitions of “harassment” in the areas of discrimination on grounds of race, religion and sexual orientation (and, from October 2004, disability), in general, UK law discloses no coherent approach to workplace bullying and harassment.

Indeed, in large part, it fails to recognize bullying and harassment at all as a discrete problem that may require specific definition or remedies. This is illustrated by the fact that the HSE itself addresses the issue only tangentially as an adjunct to broader concerns about combating stress at work and third-party violence by clients, customers and/or the public. As a result, bullying and harassment *within* the workplace is addressed partially, and its relevance depends on the *legal* context of the particular dispute. The fragmentation of potentially operative legal principles means that it is addressed only in so far as it is relevant to the determination of often narrowly focused and radically different legal questions.

### *The courts in action: inconsistency and partial understanding*

A review of the psychological literature suggests that the following features or characteristics are commonly incorporated in definitions of bullying: frequency and duration of experience, the reaction of target, the balance of power between the parties and the intent of the perpetrator (e.g. Hoel, Rayner & Cooper, 1999). However, to the extent that harassment and bullying is recognized by the courts, different definitions or features of definitions may be inconsistently applied.

Brief examples drawn from only a handful of the most recently decided cases illustrate this inconsistency in the application of legal principles and the partial understanding of the phenomenon by the courts:

- Judicial development of the legal concept of foreseeability of psychiatric damage in personal injury cases has severely limited the scope for pursuing such claims based on what might be regarded as the “normal” or expected psychological and social consequences and effects of bullying/harassment. Indeed, it has now become almost a requirement of establishing employer liability that employees expressly inform employers in advance if they have any special disposition or particular vulnerability to psychiatric illness.

- On the other hand, foreseeability of a particular type of damage has been held to be unnecessary in race (and by implication sex and other *specific*) discrimination cases. Thus if injury to feelings (short of medically recognized psychiatric damage) is a foreseeable consequence of racial abuse/harassment, damages may be awarded in respect of *both* injury to feelings (in the form of, for example, upset, frustration, worry, anxiety, distress, fear, grief, anguish, humiliation etc) *and* any consequent psychiatric injury.
- Similarly, a potentially seminal decision by the Court of Appeal has held that (pending further appeal) compensation could be awarded in a general unfair dismissal case for “real” injury to the employee’s feelings or self-respect, where he was driven from his job (and thus constructively dismissed) by “a prolonged campaign of harassment and undermining” by his colleagues and line manager. Note, however, that *overall* compensation here is subject to a statutory cap of £55,000, and the injury to feelings element of the employee’s compensation in the case in question was £10,000.
- Finally, certain cases indicate that there may be status/class elements that determine the availability and viability of certain legal remedies.

#### *Aims and method*

The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to outline and illustrate aspects of a methodology by which we intend to test the assertion that current UK law is adequate, and to contribute to the wider debate about the role of law in comprehending and combating workplace bullying and harassment. In turn, this methodology has been developed within the broader context of a proposed two-stage research project, by means of which we ultimately hope to develop practical guidance and case study material on bullying and harassment issues for use by UK regulatory and other interested bodies (in particular, for example, the HSE).

Our methodology in the first instance takes the form of a close textual analysis of selected appellate cases (ie at Employment Appeal Tribunal [EAT] level and above, and including personal injury claims), which are legally significant (in terms of establishing/illustrating the application of legal principles and/ or authoritative interpretation of statutory rules) and the facts of which are likely to be instructive in elucidating the relationship between the legal, social, psychological and/or organizational dimensions of bullying and harassment in a range of different circumstances. We thus aim to establish how various aspects of psychological definitions of bullying and harassment are applied in - and how contextual factors inform - the decisions of the courts.

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## **Is that a "no"? The interpretation of responses to sexual harassment in the workplace**

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### *Introduction*

Putting one's arm over another person's shoulders can be seen as either a friendly gesture or a hostile act of sexual harassment. The labeling of such behavior is related to the target's interpretation of the other person's intentions. In a similar vein, joking as a response to sexual advances can be perceived as a rejection, a neutral response, or an encouragement. Furthermore, responses to sexual harassment are often vague since the majority of victims do not respond directly by confronting the harasser (Gruber & Smith, 1995; Rudman, Borgida & Robertson, 1995). Nevertheless, whereas many studies examined observers' perception of sexual harassment behaviors, the interpersonal perception of responses to sexual harassment was not studied extensively. Instead, responses to harassment were mostly studied from the point of view of the victim (Cochran, Frazier & Olson, 1997; Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg & Dubois., 1997; Peirce, Rosen & Hiller, 1997).

The present study examined observers' interpretation of discouraging responses to sexual advances at the workplace. Kelly's (1972) attribution model was used to identify relevant dimensions of perception. Kelly suggested that when interpreting another person's behavior we use information from three major dimensions: a) consistency- the extent to which the person reacts to the event in the same way on other occasions; b) distinctiveness- the extent to which the person reacts in the same manner to other events, and c) consensus- the extent to which others react to the same event in the same manner as the person we are considering. The theory suggests that we are likely to attribute a behavior to internal causes under conditions in which consensus and distinctiveness are low and consistency is high. Applying Kelly's model to predict interpretations of responses to sexual harassment<sup>1</sup>, we assumed that consistency and distinctiveness of the response would determine whether it is interpreted as reflecting a stable internal attitude of rejection rather than as a haphazard behavior. In addition, the interpretation of the behavior was expected to be influenced by the level of assertiveness, which was found to be an important dimension in typologies of responses to sexual harassment (Brooks & Perot, 1991; Gutek & Koss, 1993). More specifically, it was expected that a discouraging response to sexual advances will be perceived as more effective when it is consistent, assertive, and not unique. The perceived effectiveness of the response was conceptualized in terms of its clarity, whether it conveys a message of rejection, and its expected effect on the other person's behavior.

### *Method*

The respondents, 230 female students, were presented with scenarios describing a man who has initiated several sexual advances toward a female colleague in the workplace. The manipulations were included in the description of her reaction in terms of high or low levels of assertiveness (asks him to stop or changes the topic of the conversation), consistency (the response is repeated whenever a certain sexual advance is made or is only repeated sometimes) and distinctiveness (the response is repeated for all types of sexual advances or just for one type).

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<sup>1</sup> Only two of the dimensions, consistency and distinctiveness, were applied to the context of sexual advances. The third dimension, consensus, is less relevant to that context because sexual advances might be directed only to one person.

The research design consisted of two between-subjects variables (i.e., consistency and distinctiveness) and one within-subjects variable (i.e., assertiveness). There were four versions combining low and high levels of consistency and distinctiveness. Each respondent was presented with two scenarios, one describing an assertive response and the other describing a non-assertive response. The order of the presentation of assertive and non-assertive scenarios was varied such that half of the respondents first read the "assertive" scenario and the other half first read the "non-assertive" scenario.

### *Results and Discussion*

The hypotheses were examined with three analyses of variance for repeated measures with the three dimensions of response effectiveness as the dependent variables. The order of the presentation of assertive and non-assertive responses was entered as a covariate.

The results show that as expected, consistency, distinctiveness, and assertiveness of responses to sexual harassment have separate as well as interactive effects on the perceived clarity of the response and the estimated effect of the response on future sexual advances. Both clarity and the estimated effect of preventing future sexual advances were perceived as higher when the response was consistent, not distinctive, and assertive. Perceived rejection of the advances was affected separately by each of the three response characteristics but no significant interaction effects were found. The results therefore suggest that the additive effect of the response components is less important in regard to the message it conveyed than in regard to its clarity and impact. The effect of distinctiveness and assertiveness was found to be stronger than the effect of consistency with regard to the three dependent variables. The higher importance of distinctiveness than consistency suggest that when a discouraging response is limited to a certain behavior it might be perceived as casual rather than reflecting a stable attitude toward the sexual advances.

In summary, the present study contributes to the literature of sexual harassment by exploring responses to harassment from the point of view of an observer rather than the victim. The results show that consistency and distinctiveness, as well as assertiveness, affect the interpretation of such responses.

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Dana Yagil is a senior lecturer of social and organizational psychology in the department of Human Services, the University of Haifa, Israel. She is studying power and influence in regard to leader-follower relationships, the abuse of power, and the effect of laws.

## POSTERS

### **Associations between bullying at work, health outcomes, and physiological stress reactivity**

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Bullying at work is a serious stressor that very often affects the health and well-being of the targets. It has been demonstrated that victims of bullying at work report more physical and psychological health problems, than employees who have not been subjected to bullying. They also seem to have a higher risk of developing symptoms similar to Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). In a Finnish longitudinal study an increase in sickness absence among bullied employees was demonstrated.

In the present study seven workplaces with 434 employees (292 women and 142 men) in the southern part of Sweden participated in a questionnaire study of work conditions and health with a response rate of >80%. The questionnaire included one question about bullying from the QPS- Nordic. The questionnaire also included different outcome scales, e.g. GHQ-12, three subscales from the SCL-90 (somatization, anxiety, and depression), and single items on sickness absence, fatigue, job satisfaction, and social support from supervisor.

Physiological stress reactivity was measured as cortisol in saliva. Participants were asked to sample saliva at awakening, 30 minutes after awakening, at 2 p.m. and 8 p.m. Saliva was collected in Salivette® tubes.

Of the respondents, 5% of both the women and the men were bullied. We found that the bullied respondents were less satisfied with their jobs, had more sickness absence, and they reported more health problems and anxiety compared to the non-bullied respondents.

Concentrations of cortisol in saliva were lower during the day in bullied respondents compared to non-bullied respondents. Similar results have been reported in people with PTSD.

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**The measurement of mobbing at the work unit level.  
Introduction of LEiden's Mobbing Scale-II (LEMS-II)**

Adrienne B. Hubert  
Hubert Consult, Leiden, The Netherlands

For about two decades mobbing has been subject of research in Europe. Most empirical data on mobbing have been gathered by the use of self-report from victims (Einarsen, Zapf, Hoel & Cooper, 2003). Some well-known instruments in this regard are:

- the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terrorization (LIPT; Leymann, 1990),
- the Work Harassment Scale (Björkqvist and Niemela, 1994), and
- the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ; Einarsen and Raknes, 1997).

*LEiden's Mobbing Scale-II*

The preoccupation with the perspective of the victim caused a general ignorance of the workgroup as study entity. LEiden Mobbing Scale-II (LEMS-II) is a screening instrument at the work unit level (Hubert & Furda, 1997). The questionnaire consists of 11 items relating to incidents that have occurred in the respondents work unit over the past six months. The 11 items represent different substructures found by: Zapf, Knorz and Kulla (1995), Niedl (1995), Einarsen and Raknes (1997) and Björkqvist and Niemela (1994) who applied Principal Component Analysis on the instruments mentioned above. Studies have shown that internal stability of the scale is high, ranging from .85 to .91 as measured by Cronbach's alpha in different subsamples.

*National Mobbing File*

Organisations that use the instrument return the data they gathered to what is called 'The National Mobbing File'. In return they receive reference information from 'The National Mobbing File'. In meantime 'The National Mobbing File' exists of information of about 12.000 employees, among which:

- local councils (n=2116: representative sample);
- health care (n= 2528: representative sample);
- financial institutions (n= 4219: two organisations);
- -industry (n=562: three organisations);
- police (n= 943: one organisation);
- education (n=404: one organisation).

The (dis)advantages of measuring mobbing at the level of the work unit will be discussed.

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*Brief resume of presenter:*

Adrienne B. Hubert started scientific research on mobbing in the Netherlands in 1996 at the University of Leiden. Since 1999 she is director of Hubert Consult, a Dutch institute on applied research, training and consultancy regarding unwanted behaviour at work.

## **Evaluating a bullying intervention: Predicting intentions to use organisational complaints procedures using the Theory of Planned Behaviour and Self-Efficacy Theory**

Vikky Knott  
University of South Australia

This poster will present the results of an evaluation of a bullying intervention implemented in 2003 in the Department for Correctional Services, Adelaide, Australia. The Intervention was based on Liefgooghe & Davey's (2003) concept of developing a shared understanding. The primary aim of the intervention was to facilitate an increase in knowledge and understanding regarding bullying and its impact on victims, and to encourage reporting of bullying by using the Department's complaints process. In addition to providing details of prevalence rates and the nature of behaviours involved in bullying in the correctional work-environment, the results of an evaluation that utilised constructs from the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1988, 1991), and Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1995) will be presented. A path analysis that predicts employee's intentions to use the complaints process is provided. Barriers to using organisational complaints procedures, particularly for victims of bullying, are identified.

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### *Brief resume of presenter:*

Vikki Knott works as a research assistant for the Work & Stress Research Group at the University of South Australia. Vikki has worked on two projects for the Department for Correctional Services (e.g., trust and bullying in the correctional work environment) and has recently commenced on another project that will examine the efficacy of Interventions provided by the South Australian Employee Ombudsman's office. This latter study will form the basis of the commencement of PhD that will attempt to devise interventions to assist in eliminating bullying in work-environments with cultures resistant to organisational change and development.

## **Salutogenesis and shattered assumptions among targets of bullying at work: A case study approach**

Guro Knudsen-Baas, Trude Rønvik & Stig Berge Matthiesen  
University of Bergen, Norway

Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen and Hellesøy (1994) present the following definition of bullying: "Bullying and harassment occurs when one or more individuals repeatedly over a period of time are exposed to negative acts conducted by one or more other individuals. The person confronted has to have difficulties defending himself /herself in this situation".

The definition cited above is taken from one of the pioneering studies about workplace bullying. The study demonstrated that many of victims of bullying suffered from severe health problems and even suicide thoughts. Later on, several other empirical studies have proven that many victims of workplace bullying suffer from PTSD- analogue symptoms (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004).

Most of the empirical results obtained are, however, collected by the use of surveys. Using a survey methodology may pose some problems, for instance lack of in depth understanding of bullying as a unique individual experience being in "the eyes of the beholder" (Matthiesen, Aasen, Holst, Wie & Einarsen, 2003). Overall, few studies exist, in which case study design has been applied.

Janoff-Bulman's (1992) cognitive theory of trauma may be used to explain why victims become traumatized due to workplace bullying (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). The theory suggests that all individuals have a set of ideas or basic assumptions about themselves, others and the world. The three main assumptions are as follow: 'the world is benevolent' 'he self is worthy' and 'the world is meaningful'. When these beliefs are threatened by traumatic events, victims may experience that the assumptions they hold to be true are shattered.

Antonovsky's (2000) Salutogenetic theory focuses on which factors that will contribute to health rather than looking for risk-factors of disease. He emphasises six general resistance resources used in coping. Availability of these resources determines whether we are successful in coping with stressful life events and thus to what extent individuals have what Antonovsky calls 'Sense of Coherence'. 'Sense of coherence' consists of three dimensions; 'Comprehensibility', 'Manageability' and 'Meaningfulness'.

The aim of the present study was to investigate workplace bullying by the use of case study design. The main focus was to examine bullying in depth qualitatively, and to examine possible cognitive and emotional disturbances as after-effects of being exposed to bullying as perceived by the targets of bullying. Hence, Janoff-Bulman's theory of basic assumptions and Antonovsky's theory of sense of coherence were used in order to explain traumatization from a cognitive and emotional perspective.

### *Method*

By means of a semi structured interview five targets of severe workplace bullying were thoroughly interviewed. Giorgi's (1975) meaning condensation principles were adopted, to systematize the data in line with qualitative research conventions. Each interview was digitally recorded, and then transcribed. Each interview session lasted between 2 and 4 hours.

### *Results*

The findings presented indicate that the basic assumptions of the interview persons were shattered to some extent. In the opposite, the respondents' sense of sense of coherence appeared to be reasonably high. In combination, the two cognitive theories applied in this study appear to be useful tools to gain a deeper phenomenological understanding of bullying as a kind of severe social stress.

### *Discussion*

Our findings revealed that most of the interviewed targets of bullying regarded themselves as whistleblowers as well, and that they seem to have a strong sense of justice. Even though the bullying distorted the victim's basic assumptions, they are still able to view other people as basically good and they are able to make plans for the future. Their reasonably high sense of coherence may have functioned as a buffer to prevent the total shattering of their basic assumptions.

A recommendation for future research is to interview targets of bullying when they are still exposed to daily or weekly bullying. Beehr (1995) claims that there is an urgent need for experimenting with research design within work- and organizational psychology. He suggests case studies to be one of the recommended experimenting strategies.

## **When the bully is a leader: The relationship between destructive leaders and symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder among victims of workplace bullying**

Morten Birkeland Nielsen, Stig Berge Matthiesen & Ståle Einarsen  
University of Bergen

Within the past two decades, the topic of destructive leadership and bullying at the workplace has attained growing attention in both media and public debate, and in psychological and social science research as well. In several studies of workplace bullying, between 50 and 80 % of the targets reports superiors to be the main perpetrator, implying that bullying is highly related to leadership styles and subordinate-super interaction (Einarsen et al., 2003; Skogstad, 1997). The present study had two main objectives: First, to identify characteristic management styles of leaders who expose their subordinates to negative acts in the form of bullying; and second to explore possible relationships between perceived destructive leadership styles, and symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder among victims of destructive leaders. The study was based on a survey with 221 respondents, of whom 199 (90 %) had been the target of bullying from one or more of their superiors.

The leadership styles were measured by the inventory *Constructive and Destructive Leadership Behaviour* (CDLB; Einarsen, Skogstad, Aasland & Bakken-Løseth, 2002), asking the respondents to describe the immediate leader. The following subscales are included in the inventory: Constructive leadership, tyrannical leadership, "popular but disloyal" leadership and derailed leadership. The inventory was supplemented with the index laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Symptoms of posttraumatic stress disorder were measured by the inventory IES-R. IES-R consists of the subscales avoidance behaviour, intrusive thoughts/feelings and hyper-arousal. All subscales mentioned had satisfactory reliability.

of the five leadership scales in the inventory, tyrannical ( $M=1.91$ ;  $SD=0.58$ ;  $M=197$ ), laissez-faire ( $M=1.65$ ;  $SD=0.68$ ;  $M=197$ ) and derailed leadership styles ( $M=1.50$ ;  $SD=0.66$ ;  $M=198$ ) have the highest mean values. Both constructive ( $M=0.79$ ;  $SD=0.60$ ;  $M=197$ ) and the "popular but disloyal" ( $M=0.54$ ;  $SD=0.43$ ;  $M=196$ ) leadership styles have fairly low values. Behaviours associated with tyrannical leaders did also have the highest frequencies, while behaviours associated with constructive leadership were seldom reported.

The results clearly demonstrate that destructive leadership in the form of bullying represents a serious problem for the victims. In particular, leaders characterized by the style compatible with the criteria for tyrannical leadership, constitute a severe stress factor. In many cases, victims are exposed to long-lasting bullying not only from the immediate superior, but also from other team-members and fellow workers.

For most victims, being exposed to bullying is experienced as something that seriously reduces work efforts and capacity. Health complaints are also frequently reported. The findings in this study indicate that 82 % of the respondents experienced symptoms of post-traumatic stress above the recommended cut-off values for the disorder. For each of the subscales, the results indicate that the victims of destructive leaders have a mean score at 20.59 for avoidance behaviour, 23.17 for intrusive thoughts/feelings, and 20.93 for hyper-arousal. Compared to other traumatised groups these are fairly high scores (Dyregrov & Matthiesen, 1987; Eid, Thayer & Johnsen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 1999)

With correlational analysis the tyrannical, "popular but disloyal", and derailed styles correlates with all three symptoms of post traumatic stress disorder. Laissez-faire correlates with intrusive thoughts and hyper-arousal. Constructive leadership style correlates with avoidance behaviour. Using regression analysis, the tyrannical leader remained the only explanatory style for all three symptoms. The "popular but disloyal" style contributes significantly for the variance in avoidance behaviour and hyper-arousal, but not for intrusion. The other three leadership styles did not contribute significantly to the variance in any of the symptom scales.

Building essentially on a correlational design, the present study does not permit conclusions of direct cause-effect relationships between destructive leadership and negative reactions in the victims.

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Morten Birkeland Nielsen works as researcher at the Department for Psychosocial Sciences, University of Bergen. His main research activities includes destructive leadership in organisations, workplace bullying, organisational whistleblowing, and research methodology

## **Clinical definitions determining the size of bullied workers versus data driven estimation with latent cluster analysis**

Guy Notelaers, Stale Einarsen, Jeroen Vermunt & Hans De Witte

Research about bullying is using operational definitions derived from Leymann 's definition to estimate the size of bullied workers. Nonetheless there is a broad agreement about the use of such definitions some authors stated grievances which can be summarized to the fact that the use of such definitions is quite arbitrary.

Following Leymann's typology about bullying, most of the measurements measuring bullying at the workplace are multi-dimensional. Though in determining the size of bullying at the workplace the multi-dimensional property is, forgotten: always undergoing one of the items or indicator of the multi-dimensional concept in the last six months is used as a cut-off to identify a victim of bullying. Also, while explaining the variance of bullying sum scores are used, often regarding the concept as one dimensional or neglecting the correlations between the factors.

With the data form the Belgian dataset<sup>1</sup> (N = +/- 5000), collected after various legally required stress diagnoses including bullying at work, we try to show that it is possible to stick with the theoretical multi-dimensional concept about harassment at the workplace and meanwhile to identify and to estimate the number of bullied workers. Introducing the Negative Acts Questionnaire in to the framework of Latent Class Analysis allows us to apply a data driven approach to construct latent clusters which capture the multidimensionality of the concept and to estimate the size of each cluster.

In this contribution we'd like to give a brief overview of the literature about bullying in order to formulate our hypothesis. After dealing with the theoretical concept and their measurements instruments a latent cluster model is presented using Latent Gold to confront the operational definitions. After the results of this analysis have been presented, advantages and disadvantages of using the Latent Class framework are discussed.

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<sup>1</sup> Developed by the national institute for the research of working conditions (DIOVA) of the federal Ministry of Labour.

## **Bullying at work: a cross cultural perspective. Assessing measurement equivalence with the bilingual version of the NAQ in Belgium**

Guy Notelaers<sup>1</sup>, Jeroen Vermunt<sup>2</sup>, Stale Einarsen<sup>3</sup> & Hans De Witte<sup>1</sup>

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Cross-cultural survey research usually has to deal with a lot more methodological issues and problems than intra cultural survey research. Perhaps the most prominent of these additional concerns is the problem of equivalence, or in other words: the problem of making valid comparisons across groups. Two closely related concepts play an essential role in cross-cultural comparisons; equivalence and bias. Construct equivalence is to be achieved first, before going into item bias analysis. Construct equivalence is usually evaluated by means of structure oriented approaches. According to Van de Vijver and Leung (1997), exploratory factor analysis and structural equation models are widely used techniques to investigate construct equivalence, focusing on the equality of factor loadings and factor covariances across the groups to be compared. Less often used is cluster analysis or latent class analysis (LCA). Yet, in several often-occurring situations LCA may be much more suitable to assess construct equivalence than standard, structure-oriented approaches (e.g., when items must be scored on a two-category scale or a polytomous scale that is categorical by nature). Such answering formats are quite common in occupational health psychology, e.g., when respondents must indicate whether or not they suffer from specific health complaints. The key objective of this contribution is to show how LCA can be applied to compare the answers of Flemish and French-speaking respondents on the Belgian Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen, et. al, 1997).

Data were sampled from 16 projects where the NAQ was used. in the context of a series of independent quality of work-surveys. Since the data are highly skewed classical statistical tools are nor really applicable. Therefore the instrument has been remodelled with Latent Cluster Analysis to classify respondents properly according to the prevalence of the bullying at work.

The results reveal that the NAQ used in Belgian is equivalent for French and Dutch speaking respondents. Therefore it can be concluded that French speaking respondents are more bullied than Dutch speaking respondents.

We conclude that LCA is an useful tool to assess the equivalence of categorical data across groups. In this respect an useful addition to the toolbox of the OHP-researcher, interested in ordering respondents according their exposure level to bullying at work within multinational companies.

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## Workplace bullying and coping strategies: A longitudinal study

Heli Pehkonen  
University of Vaasa

The purpose of this study is to explore coping strategies of bullied people. Although research on the concept and nature of workplace bullying do exist (e.g. Einarsen 2000; Leymann 1996), as well as on frequency and forms (e.g. Hoel & Cooper 2000; Einarsen and Skogstad 1996; Vartia 1996), only a few studies have yet been published providing information on coping with workplace bullying.

A number of different theoretical approaches have contributed to understanding of the concept of coping (Lazarus 1966; Pearlin & Schooler 1978; Lazarus & Folkman 1984; Moos 1986; Dewe, Cox & Ferguson 1993). According to Pearlin & Schooler (1978) coping refers to behavior that protects people from being psychologically harmed by problematic social experience. Dewe, Cox & Ferguson (1993) consider coping as a psychoanalytical process; as a personal trait or style; as a description of situationally specific strategies; as a sequence of stages; and as a classification or taxonomy of strategies. General research question of this study is:

### *How do people cope with workplace bullying?*

The time-period of this longitudinal study comprises about 3 years, from 1999 up to 2002. Data were gathered through interviews and written assignments. Experiences on workplace bullying and coping are obtained from 32 victims in the eight categories. Eight coping strategies that are used: confrontation, distancing, self-controlling, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, planning problem solving, and positive reappraisal.

Results showed that the most popular coping strategy is to seek social support. Every third victim got professional help and advice from psychologist. Surprising was that all the respondents felt that they did not get enough support and help from other work colleagues. On average, respondents reported using two or three different coping strategies to deal with workplace bullying.

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### *Brief resume of presenter:*

Heli Pehkonen (M.Sc. Econ.) is a PhD student in management and organization (specialization in HRM and workplace bullying). She works as a project researcher at the University of Vaasa. She recently participated in the Second International Course on Bullying and Harassment at Work (arranged by NIVA).

## **Portuguese adaptation of the Negative Acts Questionnaire: Preliminary results**

Salvador Araújo, Instituto Politécnico do Porto, Scott McIntyre, Instituto Superior da Maia &  
Teresa McIntyre  
University of Minho

In Portugal, psychological violence at the workplace has not been a concern for the government or the labour unions. More recently, some sectors of Portuguese society have called attention to the need to bring more dignity and respect into work relationships, with gains to both employers and workers. Researchers in the domain of Health Psychology and Occupational Health Psychology have become interested in evaluating violence at the workplace in different sectors of the Portuguese workforce. Since there are no Portuguese instruments that evaluate bullying at the workplace and given the good psychometric qualities of Negative Acts Questionnaire (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), the authors have started the process of adapting this instrument into Portuguese with the aim of stimulating further research in this domain. This poster presents the preliminary results of a study of the psychometric properties of the NAQ in a sample of workers in the private sector and another sample in the public sector. Reliability and validity testing results are presented which point to a promising Portuguese version of the NAQ.

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## **Mobs and bullies: Collective and individual negative interpersonal behaviors**

Dana Yagil  
The University of Haifa, Israel

### *Introduction*

Group bullying and individual bullying are rooted in different theoretical traditions. Whereas group bullying is conceptually related to theories of group dynamics and inter-group relations, individual bullying stands closer to theories of personality, conflicts, and dyadic relationships. The purposes of this paper are to integrate research on group and individual bullying, present several differential predictions, and suggest directions for future research. It is assumed, that since a group is more than a sum of its members, a bullying group is more than a sum of bullying individuals. A second assumption is that the difference between group and individual bullying should be analysed from an interpersonal functionalist perspective<sup>1</sup>. The literature is reviewed according to three issues: the purpose of bullying, perceived characteristics of the victim, and the process of bullying.

### *The purpose of bullying*

Bullying is often an instrumental behavior motivated by the desire to achieve a specific purpose (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003). A basic motivation of a bullying group is to preserve homogeneity in terms of members' characteristics and their adherence to group norms (Alport, 1979; Archer, 1999; Schachter, 1951). It is argued, however, that a basic motivation of an individual bully is to exercise and manifest power as a response to a perceived threat, a means to achieve power, or a routine demonstration of control (Ashforth, 1994; Bjorkqvist, Osterman & Hjelt-Bac, 1994; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003). These different motives are likely to affect the characteristics of the 'chosen' victim as well as the development of the bullying process.

### *Perceived characteristics of the victim*

A functionalist approach to bullying implies that victims are not chosen in random but according to their fit for the bully's purposes. Thus, bullies' perceptions of the victim should be taken into consideration when studying the victim's characteristics. Victims of workplace bullying are described as being outsiders (Einarsen et al., 2003; Schuster, 1996; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003), weak, anxious, unassertive (Coyne, Seigne & Randall, 2000), overachievers, and overcritical employees (Brodsky, 1976). Since the group's motivation is to maintain homogeneity, being an outsider is likely to be a major characteristic of a victim of group bullying.

*Proposition 1:* The victim's similarity-difference to other members (in terms of behavior, demographics etc.) will be his/her most salient characteristic for bullying group members. It is suggested that the individual bully's motivation to demonstrate power would lead him/her to choose a victim whose central characteristic is weakness in terms of status, competence, resources, etc.<sup>2</sup> The magnitude of the power gap between the bully and the victim can be expected to be inversely related to the bully's power (e.g., a person with a very strong position

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<sup>1</sup> Therefore, the analysis focuses on instrumental bullying and not on bullying that might result from lack of social competencies (Zapf & Einarsen, 2003).

<sup>2</sup> PT<sup>2</sup> TPBeing an outsider and having a weak position are likely to be related but represent separate characteristics of the victim.

in the organization might bully someone who is weaker than himself/herself but with a high status) because this will result in the optimal demonstration of power.

*Proposition 2:* The dimension of the victim's strength-weakness (in terms of competence, status, etc.) will be his/her most salient characteristic for the individual bully.

*Proposition 3:* The extent of the power gap between the bully and the victim will be inversely related to the bully's perceived power (in terms of competence, status, etc.).

#### *The process of bullying and the victim's reactions*

Bullying is often a gradual process (Keashly & Nowell, 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001) described as following the pattern of conflict escalation ((Einarsen, 1999; Keashly & Nowell, 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001). It is suggested, that the bullying process will develop along different dimensions for individuals and for groups, due to the different motives for bullying as well as the different reactions of victims. Specifically, group bullying is expected to escalate along the dimension of rejection whereas individual bullying is expected to escalate along the dimension of severity.

Groups are likely to exercise overt bullying, designed to pressure the victim to conform to group norms or to leave the group (Schachter, 1951). If neither happens the victim will be gradually rejected and excluded from the group (Archer, 1999; Cowie et al., 2002; Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003; Owleus, 2003; Rayner et al., 2002; Schuster, 1996; Teharani, 2001; Williams, 1997). Victims of group bullying are described as being overwhelmed and responding by withdrawal (Allport, 1979; Archer, 1999; Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003) thus contributing to their own separation from the group.

*Proposition 4:* Group bullying will escalate in terms of the victim's exclusion from the group.

*Proposition 5:* The victim will maintain a passive position in interactions with group members.

Individual bullying is likely to escalate in its severity because severity of bullying reflects the bully's ability to punish another person and hence his/her power (French & Raven, 1959). Furthermore, up to a certain point the victim takes an active part in the interaction, often in an attempt to cope with the conflict constructively, but with the result of escalated hostility (Zapf & Gross, 2001; Keashly & Nowell, 2003).

*Proposition 6:* individual bullying will escalate in severity of bullying.

*Proposition 7:* The victim will take an active part in the interaction with an individual bully, attempting to terminate bullying.

#### *Suggestions for Areas of Future Research*

1. Reactions of bystanders/audience of individual and group bullying
2. Bullying of a single victim and bullying of a group of victims
3. The effect of the individual within a group that bullies
4. The effect of the victim's leaving on individual and group bullies

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*Brief resume of presenter:*

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## **A behavioural model of destructive leadership**

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Recent research on bullying at work has shown that many managers and supervisors harass and torment their subordinates (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf & Cooper, 2003). Between 50 and 80 per cent of all cases of bullying, involve a superior in the role as the alleged bully (Einarsen et al., 2003). However, research and theory developments related to the issue of destructive leadership and the potential negative effects of leadership on the organisation and its employees have so far been very scarce (Ashforth, 1994; Skogstad, 1997; Einarsen et al., 2002). The aim of the present study was to test empirically the conceptual validity of a proposed model of destructive leadership, called "Constructive and destructive leadership behaviour" (CDLB) (Einarsen, Skogstad, Aasland & Bakken, 2002).

The model is an extension of Blake and Mouton's "Managerial grid" (1968). The extension involves lengthening the two axis of human-oriented leadership, and task-oriented leadership, so that these axes also describe destructive aspects of leadership. This is in accordance with the definition of destructive leadership, that, contrary to laissez-faire leadership, demands that the behaviour must be actively negative, rather than just a lack of leadership (Aasland & Bakken, 1999; Skogstad, 1997). From this model, four "extreme" variations of leadership behaviour can be outlined, namely: "Constructive"-, "Tyrannical"-, "Derailed"- and "Popular, but disloyal" leadership behaviour. These types of leadership behaviour are "extreme" because they are situated towards the extremities of the model, in either a positive or a negative direction. Below is a description of the four extreme variations of leadership behaviour.

Constructive leadership behaviour is called team-management according to Blake and Mouton's matrix of leadership style (1968) and focuses on constructive aspects of both the relationship with the subordinate, and the tasks at hand. This leadership style invites employees to an extended engagement, involvement and the participation in the decision processes. Constructive leaders act with determination, bring clarity to the priorities, maintain the stand, and carry out the plans and tasks of the organization.

Tyrannical leadership behaviour obtain results not through, but at the cost of, their subordinates. (Ashforth, 1994; Tepper, 2000). These leaders humiliate, belittle, and manipulate the subordinates in order to "get the job done". Tyrannical leadership behaviour has some features in common with the leadership style that Blake and Mouton (1968) terms authoritative leadership style. Both types of leadership behaviour have a strong interest in the tasks. The authoritative leader has little interest for the subordinates, and wishes to spend as little time as possible interacting with them, so that he/she can concentrate on their own tasks. Leaders with tyrannical leadership behaviour are, on the contrary, aggressive and destructive towards their subordinates, possibly from the belief that this will contribute to increased work effort.

Derailed leadership behaviour may involve insensitive and arrogant behaviour towards the subordinates, these leaders may also not be able to delegate tasks and to motivate their subordinates (Shackleton, 1995). This type of leadership behaviour implies that the leader is actively negative both on the task-oriented and the human-oriented dimension, and will thus

be destructive both towards the subordinates and towards the organization he/she is working for.

The concept “Popular, but disloyal leadership behaviour” describes leaders that are destructive on a task-oriented dimension, while showing consideration for the welfare of the employees (Ditton, 1977). The “disloyal” leaders may be popular in their relationship with their subordinates, but they undermine the tasks they are supposed to fulfil, and goal attainment in the organization. Such leaders steal resources from the organization, either material, time, or economic resources (Altheide, Adler, Adler & Altheide, 1978; Ditton, 1977; Brottsförebyggande Rådet, 1983, 1987). Disloyal leaders may grant their employees more benefits than they are obliged to, at the cost of the organization. They may also encourage low work ethic and bad conduct, and actively lead their employees towards a low level of efficiency.

The study was based on a survey with 130 part-time students with a full employment status and a mean age of 30 years.

The leadership behaviour where measured by the inventory *Constructive and Destructive Leadership Behaviour* (revised edition) (CDLB; Einarsen et al., 2002), where participants were asked to describe the behaviour of their immediate superior using a questionnaire with 42 items. Destructive and constructive leadership behaviour is also measured by four vignettes and corresponding descriptions (Aasland & Løseth, 2002). These descriptions corresponds to the four extreme combinations of leadership behaviour from the model (CDLB), namely, “Constructive”-, “Tyrannical”-, “Derailed”- and “Popular, but disloyal” leadership behaviour.

An exploratory factor analysis revealed the existence of four leadership-styles; constructive-, tyrannical-, derailed-, and the popular but disloyal leadership behaviour. Perceiving ones immediate superior as a tyrant or a derailed leader correlated with low job satisfaction and with a negative evaluation of ones leader-member exchange. Having a disloyal but popular superior did not correlate with these criteria. Constructive leadership behaviour correlated with high job satisfaction and with a positive evaluation of ones leader-member exchange. Hence, the proposed conceptual model of leadership behaviour, including both constructive and destructive elements, received substantial empirical support in this study and may be a fruitful way of linking research on bullying and research on leadership.