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College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Richard P. Himmer

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Walden University
2016

Abstract

The Effect of Target Demographics and Emotional Intelligence on Workplace Bullying

by

Richard P. Himmer

MS, Walden University, 2013

MBA, City University, 1992

BA, Brigham Young University, 1983

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Organizational Psychology

Walden University

May 2016

Abstract

Workplace bullying has escalated among U.S. workers, and aside from its mental and physical toll, it can affect productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. Researchers have identified the primary causes of workplace bullying as envy, leadership disregard, a permissive climate, organizational culture, and personality traits. This non experimental, quantitative study investigated the predictors of workplace bullying at the target level, and specifically examined if target EI, age, gender, and/or race/ethnicity predicts experienced workplace bullying. Participants ($N = 151$) 18 years or older with one year of work experience were recruited from the WBI database, a newspaper column, public presentations, and a blog. Participants completed the Negative Acts Questionnaire to assess experienced workplace bullying, the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Short Form) to assess EI, and a demographic questionnaire. A Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to test the hypotheses. Global trait EI and the 4 trait EI factors of well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability were not statistically significantly related to workplace bullying. Further, EI, age, gender, and race/ethnicity were also not related to workplace bullying. Further research is suggested, to include examining organizational effects on workplace bullying. The implications for social change it that resources currently allocated for target can be more appropriately directed toward supervisors and the organization's culture.

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Cheri, for enduring the past years with few date nights and a husband constantly occupied with schoolwork, research, and a dissertation.

I am grateful to my boys, Abram and Samuel, for being patient with their father's constant focus on schoolwork while they were watching movies, playing games, doing homework, and wishing that I would come out and play. I extend my gratitude to my three older sons, Charles, Andrew, and Stuart, for being great examples and supporting me in the process. I'm grateful to my mother, Sharon L. Himmer, for raising me. Emotional intelligence is not a construct that a 10-year-old boy contemplates, but as a father of five boys, I stand in awe of my father, the late Captain Lawrence Himmer, for exemplifying the qualities of leadership and emotional intelligence.

I wish to acknowledge Dr. Christopher Slaughter for his constant support and the many hours of study that we shared, especially his insightful comments as my dissertation came to an end. I am grateful to Dr. John Schmidt for his direction and guidance. Thank you to Dr. Fortunato and Dr. Edman for being on my committee.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Workplace bullying is a systematic undermining of a target's well-being and a type of psychological warfare that is almost invisible in an organizational culture (Namie, 2003). Olweus (1993) conducted foundational research into bullying, which led to further investigative interest in other Scandinavian countries. Japanese researchers joined in the mid-1990s, followed by those in England, Canada, Australia, and then the United States (P. K. Smith, 2000). Workplace bullying, which is repeated, deliberate, and aggressive behavior that causes emotional harm to the targets (Glendinning, 2001), is a phenomenon that costs organizations millions of dollars in lost revenue and results in employee turnover, absenteeism, intent to leave, reduced commitment and trust, and increased anxiety and stress in the workplace (R. Hogan, Raskin, & Fazzini, 1990).

The study of workplace bullying, which can be categorized as individual, work group, or organizational bullying, is complex (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999). Examinations and interventions overlap at each level and impact each other. In this study, I concentrated on the target level (i.e., individual workers who are the targets of bullying) using self-reporting measurements to capture the frequency of the bully behavior. Bullying at the group or team level was not addressed in the study, but the role of the organization was presented in the overall construct because it related to the potential cause and ultimate solution.

Background

An estimated 56% of workplace bullying incidents are instigated by individuals in supervisory positions, and despite the broadening awareness of workplace bullying (Namie, Christensen, & Phillips, 2014), the number of workers affected by workplace bullying has continued to increase (Lipley, 2006; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002). In 2010, Namie and Namie reported that workplace bullying had impacted 53.5 million workers in the United States. According to Namie et al., in 2014, the number of people impacted by workplace bullying in the United States had grown to 65.6 million.

Between 10% and 20% of employees experience bullying annually (Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006), and 46.5% have witnessed bullying within the past 5 years (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Approximately 28% to 36% of U.S. workers, versus 25% in Sweden and 50% in England (Jennifer, Cowie, & Ananiadou, 2003), have been the targets of bullying or continuous abuse (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006). Miller (1999) indicated that 88% of workers expressed being adversely affected by the threat of workplace violence. Brunner and Costello (2003) found that bullying targets spent nearly 52% of their workdays defending against anticipated or actual bullying attacks. A Gallup poll found that 60% to 75% of employees reported that the worst aspect of their day involved dealing with immediate supervisors (as cited in R. Hogan, 1994).

Leymann (1990) estimated that the average cost of sick leave resulting from workplace bullying was $30,000 to $100,000 for each target. Accounting for inflation, using the Consumer Price Index, this cost ranged between $54,591.74 and $181,972.46 in 2015 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016) and included the loss of productivity and the

cost of professional interventions. Kusy and Holloway (2010) estimated that the cost of replacing employees because of workplace bullying was 1.5 to 2.5 times their salaries. Rayner (1999) reported that in England, 25% of targets eventually left their jobs as the result of being bullied. As of 2007, an average of 21 to 28 million workers in the United States, or 77% of targets, had left their companies annually because of bullying; however, despite this number, 62% of U.S. employers have chosen to ignore the problem (Namie & Namie, 2007). Neuman (2004) estimated that the cost of bullying to corporations in the early 21st century ranged from $3 to $5 billion. This cost included decreased productivity, increased staff turnover, increased absenteeism, and poor morale.

Einarsen, Hoel, and Notelaers (2009) argued that organizational cultures have fostered power structures that have perpetuated workplace bullying. Sheehan (1999) argued that flattening hierarchies, downsizing, restructuring, and the planned elimination of positions have contributed to a bully-producing workplace environment. The dynamics of workplace transitioning have resulted in an increase in the incidence of workplace bullying, with poor leadership promoting this behavior (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; R. Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Nelson & Hogan, 2009; Stein & Book, 2011). Leaders often overlook or ignore workplace bullying, resulting in a permissive culture that leads to increased bullying (R. Hogan, 2014; R. Hogan & Hogan, 2001). Some researchers have linked emotional intelligence (EI) to strong leadership and have seen it as one way to impede the escalation of bullying in the workplace (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Sheehan, 1999; Stein & Book, 2011). This concept is more fully covered in Chapter 2.

Table 1 presents demographics on workplace bullying for 2007, 2010, and 2014 provided by Workplace Bullying Institute (WBI) surveys. Targets were employees who had been bullied; witnesses were those who had seen the bullying. As a percentage, it appears that bullying behaviors have been curtailed (35% in 2010 vs. 27% in 2014); however, by population, they have been on the rise (53.5 million in 2010 vs. 65.6 million in 2012; Namie & Namie, 2010; Namie et al., 2014). A solution to what Glendinning (2001) termed *the American cancer* remains elusive. The research is ongoing.

Table 1

Workplace Bullying Institute Survey Comparison for 2007, 2010, and 2014

Comparison of type	2007	2010	2014
Targets	37%	35%	27%
Male targets	43%	42%	40%
Female targets	57%	58%	60%
Women on women	71%	80%	68%
Witnessed bullying	12%	15%	21%
Aware of bullying	55%	50%	72%
Male perpetrator	60%	62%	69%
Female perpetrator	40%	38%	31%
Supervisor perpetrator	72%	72%	56%

Note. From WBI surveys 2007 (Namie & Namie); 2010 (Namie & Namie); and 2014 (Namie, Christensen, & Phillips).

Workplace Bullying Defined

Workplace bullying has no singular definition. There has been consistency within the various researchers' definitions, and they are used throughout the study. The general definition of time frame (6 months), positional power differential, and psychological warfare are common with most of the definitions found in the literature and are addressed in subsequent chapters.

Namie and Namie (2011) defined workplace bullying as follows:

> Workplace bullying is the repeated, health-harming mistreatment of an employee by one or more employees through acts of commission or omission manifested as: verbal abuse; behaviors-physical or nonverbal—that are threatening, intimidating, or humiliating; work sabotage, interference with production; exploitation of a vulnerability—physical, social, or psychological; or some combination of one or more categories. (p. 13)

Namie (2003), who described workplace bullying as a nonphysical and sublethal form of violence that is almost invisible, asserted that it is a status-blind interpersonal form of hostility that is repeated and is sufficiently severe to injure the target's health. To qualify as bullying, the negative behavior must occur at least once a week for a minimum of 6 months (Zapf & Gross, 2001). Einarsen et al. (2009) defined workplace bullying as the targeted individual's persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from colleagues, supervisors, or direct reports. They further defined bullying as an imbalance of power from either a preexisting or an evolved position.

Leymann (1990) viewed bullying as a prolonged attack on a target and considered it "psychological terror" (p. 120). Adams (1997) explained that bullying at work was like a "malignant cancer" (p. 4). Even though some researchers have used the terms *mobbing* and *bullying* interchangeably (Tehrani, 2004), mobbing now typically refers to employees ganging up on targeted individuals in the workplace (Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010). Some recent distinctions have been made to the definition of mobbing to include multiple

individuals bullying a supervisor, especially one who often is a newly appointed middle manager (Lehane, 2005; Namie & Lutgen-Sandvik, 2010).

Effects of Bullying

Researchers have reported that the targets of bullying might experience high levels of insomnia, anxiety, depression, apathy, melancholy, sociophobia, stress, emotional exhaustion, and burnout, as well as a lack of concentration (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004; Mayhew et al., 2004). Bullying also has correlated positively with posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), sleeplessness, and increased anxiety (Wardell, 2011). Bullying has been linked to both cardiovascular and gastrointestinal diseases, with hypertension being the first symptom. Targets have experienced restrictions in the blood supply (ischemia), strokes, heart attacks, and cardiac failure (Namie & Namie, 2011).

Williams (2007) asserted that advances in neuroscience measuring brain activity have shown that being socially excluded or being insulted, which is defined as bullying when occurring for a minimum of 6 months, can trigger pain. In brain imaging, the areas of the brain responsible for memory and emotional regulation can shrink and lose performance capacity when under stress (Dias-Ferreira et al., 2009). Emotional health is compromised when stress is unrelenting. Researchers have found that work trauma (e.g., bullying) can be as emotionally devastating as the physical trauma of rape and that workplace bullying can cause greater depression, anger, and hostility among the targets than sexual harassment can (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004; Richman et al., 1999).

Target Characteristics

Demographics. Wimmer (2009) found that men bully more than women do. Wimmer found that 71% of the men in her study, versus 29% of the women, had bullied someone. In a 2000 Zogby poll, Namie (2000) found that the women and men bullied about the same frequency and that 81% of the bullies were supervisors. In 2007, Namie and Namie found that the men (60%) in their study bullied more than the women (40%) did and that 72% of the bullies were supervisors. In 2010, Namie and Namie found that the men (62%) in their study bullied more than the women (38%) did and that supervisors made up 72% of the bullies.

In a 2014 Zogby survey, Namie et al. found that the men (69%) in the study bullied more than the women (31%) did and that supervisors were perpetrators 56% of the time. In the same survey, Namie et al. found that 22% of the targets were under the age of 30 years, 38% were between the ages of 30 and 49 years, 25% were between the ages of 50 and 64 years, and 17% were over the age of 65 years. The targets of bullying were disproportionally female (57% female vs. 43% male; Namie et al., 2014). The sample of 1,000 individuals included 123 Hispanic, 109 African American, 36 Asian, and 634 White (Namie & Namie, 2014). Table 2 shows the percentage of targets by race/ethnicity broken down as a direct (target), a witness, or someone else affected by bullying. The breakout shows that the targets were disproportionately minorities and were disproportionately affected overall by workplace bullying.

Table 2

Targets of Workplace Bullying by Race/Ethnicity

Race/Ethnicity	Direct	Witness	Other affected
Hispanic	32.5%	24.4%	56.9%
African American	33.0%	21.1%	54.1%
Asian	33.3%	19.4%	52.8%
White	24.1%	20.2%	44.3%

Note. From Workplace Bullying Institute survey 2014 by G. Namie et al. Retrieved from http://bullyinginstitute.org/

Development. Perren and Alsaker (2006) concluded that the targets of bullying among the 345 children in their study were more submissive; had few leadership skills; were withdrawn, isolated, less cooperative, and less social; and tended to have fewer friends than their classmates.

Behavior. Targets do not fight back or directly confront their bullies, which bullies perceive as a permissive environment to continue their disruptive behaviors (Namie & Namie, 2003). Bullies interpret targets' inaction as submissive and their avoidance behaviors as a willingness to receive more behavior that is abusive. Zapf and Gross (2001) noted that most workplace targets first try to use constructive conflict - solving strategies to disarm their bullies, but when these strategies fail, they usually leave the organizations. Surveyed targets typically have poor social skills; struggle with conflict resolution (Champion, Vernberg, & Shipman, 2003); and have poor problem solving skills (Kodžopeljić, Smederevac, Mitrović, Dinić, & Čolović, 2014; "Poor Problem-Solving Skills Increase Risks for Bullying," 2010). Hallberg (2007) asserted that targets can be individuals who are vulnerable and sensitive. Hallberg also noted that most workplace targets first try to use constructive conflict-solving strategies to disarm their bullies, alter their strategies (trial and error) when the first strategies fail, and eventually

leave the organizations. Other targets simply opt for immediate relocation as their way of dealing with bullies. Neither confrontation nor conflict avoidance works for most targets (Zapf & Gross, 2001). Some initially fight back with their own negative behaviors, but they often resort to frequent absenteeism to avoid being bullied.

Bully Characteristics

From the perspectives of the targets, Namie and Namie (2003) and Vartia (1996) found that envy is the primary reason for workplace bullying. Many theorists have explained that bullies lack self-esteem and feel threatened by people perceived as more popular, intelligent, or better looking (Vartia, 1996; Zapf & Einarsen, 2010; Zapf & Gross, 2001). Researchers have described bullies as narcissistic, antisocial, charismatic, and condescending individuals; two-faced actors; and devil figures (Coyne, Seigne, & Randall, 2000; Tracy, Lutgen-Sandvik, & Alberts, 2006). Einarsen, Raknes, and Matthiesen (1994) described bullies as self-confident and impulsive. Some researchers have explained that bullies lack self-regard or tend to shame themselves and act out to compensate for their degrading sense of being (Neufeld & Mate, 2006; Siegel, 2010; Stein & Book, 2011). Indvik and Johnson (2011) asserted that bullies are controlling and dangerous predators who often target competent and skilled individuals. Sheehan (1999) argued that bullies and the managers of bullies often lack effective communication skills, a problem that can lead to ambiguity and ultimately reward the bullying behavior. Rayner (1997) asserted that 83% of bullies are in management positions.

Although it takes two people to form a relationship, a target-bully relationship is pathological because the target is in the relationship involuntarily: The bully controls all

aspects and reigns with terror, and there is no mutual advantage to the relationship. Bullies engage in bullying because they can and because the workplace environment condones their behavior (Namie & Namie, 2003). Cooper stated, “Bullies are cowards at heart and may be credited with a pretty safe instinct in scenting their prey” (as cited in Namie & Namie, 2011, p. 51).

Researchers have found that some bullies were abused as children (Indvik & Johnson, 2011; Namie & Namie, 2011). Neufeld and Mate (2006) stated that bullies sometimes come from detached families, that is, they felt abandoned by parents or did not have adult mentors when they were children. Many bullies grew up as the personal targets of abuse or as witnesses to domestic violence, and this chaos of childhood skewed their understanding of how to resolve conflict and interact with others. Schoolyard bullies often become workplace bullies in adulthood (Namie & Namie, 2011).

Emotional Intelligence

EI is a manifestation of the social skills that engender trust and respect in the workplace and in other social environments (Heavey, Halliday, Gilbert, & Murphy, 2011; Mayhew et al., 2004). Intelligent quotient (IQ) has been the traditional standard of measurement in academic and organizational settings; however, in the past 20 years, there has been more research in the field of EI. Whereas IQ accounts for about 20% of personal success and is generated in the cortical regions of the brain, EI accounts for up to 47% of personal success and is generated in the limbic system (Goleman, 2001, 2005; Stein & Book, 2011).

Despite the increased attention from researchers, EI has not yet been fully accepted as a viable theory. EI has been viewed by some researchers as an extension of personality traits such as the Big 5 or the Giant 3, whereas others have viewed EI as a lower form of cognitive intelligence (Landy, 2005; Matthews, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2004). EI comprises social skills that focus on the ability to recognize and understand emotions and express them nondestructively (Stein & Book, 2011). EI is the ability to (a) understand how others feel and empathize with their perspectives, (b) manage and control emotions effectively, (c) adapt to change and solve personal and interpersonal problems, and (d) generate positive affect and be self-motivated (Bar-On, Maree, & Elias, 2007).

Charan (1999) asserted that failed chief executive officers (CEOs) put strategy before people and that successful CEOs are the most talented in the area of EI, not planning or finance. Because executives influence the corporate culture, their level of EI impacts how the culture is formed. Leaders with strong EI show integrity, assertiveness, trust-building behavior, people skills, and effective communication (Stein & Book, 2011). In an analysis of 4,000 EI surveys, Stein and Book (2011) found that differences in the EI scores of the male and female respondents were small. The only differences were in specific scales: The women had higher scores on empathy, interpersonal relationships, and social responsibility, whereas the men scored higher on stress tolerance and self-regard. In a separate study of 1,000 participants, the difference in the average overall score across all ethnic groups represented was less than 5% (Stein & Book, 2011). Researchers have used EI to predict scholastic achievement (Parker, Keefer, & Wood,

2011) as well as leadership, sales, and financial success (Stein & Book, 2011; Xiaqi, Kun, Chongsen, & Sufang, 2012).

Problem Statement

The number of targets who have experienced and continue to experience workplace bullying has been escalating (Houshmand, O'Reilly, Robinson, & Wolff, 2012; "Increase in Bullying at Work," 2005), and to date, there is no universal solution to curb the tide of this behavior. Workplace bullying is emotionally, physically, and economically costly. Targets experience declining productivity, sleeplessness, depression, panic attacks, PTSD, substance abuse, and isolation (Wardell, 2011). Organizations continue to lose billions of dollars in lost productivity, higher rates of absenteeism, associated litigation, and increased health care premiums. Research over the past decade has led to greater awareness of the phenomenon; however, there has been no research on EI as a potential cause or correlate of workplace bullying. In addition, no researchers have examined targets' demographics of age, gender, and race/ethnicity in combination with EI to determine how each construct predicts workplace bullying. Age, race/ethnicity, and gender have received some attention, but the predictors in combination with EI have not been analyzed.

Purpose

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between workplace bullying and target EI, including the relationship between target demographics (i.e., gender, race/ethnicity, and age) and EI. I also examined the interactions among target EI, gender, race/ethnicity, and age, and whether any interaction predicted

workplace bullying. Finally, I explored which predictor variable combination (EI and age, EI and race/ethnicity, or EI and gender) best explained the variance in workplace bullying.

Nature of the Study

This study entailed following a quantitative, nonexperimental design using a survey methodology to collect the data. The sample was comprised of participants who were invited to join the study through various social media outlets on a national basis. Targets' EI and the demographics of age, gender, and race/ethnicity (see Appendix A) served as predictor variables (i.e., the independent variables [IVs]). Experienced workplace bullying, as measured by the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ; see Appendix B), was the dependent variable (DV). The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue-SF; see Appendix C) was used to measure the participants' EI. The TEIQue-SF is a shortened version of the full 153-item TEIQue. After data collection, I computed the correlations between the reported target EI and the level of workplace bullying, as determined by the NAQ. A Pearson's correlation was run to determine whether EI predicted workplace bullying. A multiple regression was conducted to determine whether targets' demographics (gender, age, and race/ethnicity) predicted workplace bullying, and the final analysis included a hierarchal multiple regression to examine the relationships among the predictors.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The intent of this quantitative study was to determine whether targets' EI and demographics (gender, race/ethnicity, age) would predict workplace bullying. Following are the research questions (RQs) and associated hypotheses:

1. Does targets' EI predict experienced workplace bullying?

H_{01}: Targets' EI does not predict experienced workplace bullying.

H_{a1}: Targets' EI predicts experienced workplace bullying.

2. Does targets' EI predict experienced workplace bullying, after gender, race/ethnicity, and age have been controlled for?

H_{02}: Targets' EI does not predict workplace bullying after controlling for gender, race/ethnicity, and age.

H_{a2}: Targets' EI predicts workplace bullying after controlling for gender, race/ethnicity, and age.

3. Do interactions among targets' EI, and gender, race/ethnicity, and age predict experienced workplace bullying after gender, race/ethnicity, and age and the main effect of EI have been controlled for?

H_{03}: None of the interaction pairs of EI-gender, EI-race/ethnicity, and EI-age predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying.

H_{a3}: At least one interaction pair of EI-gender, EI-race/ethnicity, and EI-age predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying.

4. What combination of variables best predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying?

Theoretical Framework

Workplace Bullying

The framework of workplace bullying stems from a multidisciplinary study of the construct of workplace bullying and involves many factors at different levels, depending on the point of view: bully, target, culture, or society. Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2010) developed a theoretical framework on bullying and harassment in the workplace. Their framework explains workplace bullying from individual, organizational, and societal factors, in which workplace bullying involves a bully, a target, witnesses (individuals), the organization, and the social mores associated with the organization and the social context (Einarsen, 1999; Hoel & Cooper, 2000). A power differential is central to defining bullying, and the focus is on the relationship between the alleged perpetrators and the targets (Einarsen et al., 2010).

At the organizational level, workplace bullying can take the form of scapegoating and witch hunting. Scapegoating occurs when the team or the organization singles out an individual (mobbing) because the person is different or new; witch hunting is a similar process that occurs when members of a group displace frustration through aggression on to a less powerful group member (Thylefors, 1987). Being viewed as an outsider is sufficient to constitute negative behavior from the group (Schuster, 1996).

Societal factors influence organizational and individual aggression levels as well as the coping resources and defensive skills of the targets (Einarsen et al., 2010). Societal factors are made up national, cultural, historical, legal, and socioeconomic factors (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). The high pace of change, employee turnover, organizational

downsizing, increased number of working hours, and uncertainty influence the levels of stress in many countries and contribute to workplace bullying (Beale, 2010).

Common to all three factors, that is, individual, organizational, and societal, is the differential in power and the inability of targets to defend themselves. According to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), being different might cause a group to see a new person or a person perceived as different as an outsider, thus taking away the individual's base of support. Without the social skills to defend themselves, such employees become the targets of bullying. Being vulnerable, exploitable, or unable to develop strong interpersonal relationships creates an environment suitable for aggressive supervisors or coworkers to thrive (Glasø, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence Theory

Thorndike's study of social intelligence (as cited in Bar-On, 2004) and Gardner's (1993) development of multiple intelligences (MIs) were the genesis of EI. However, Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially developed EI as a psychological theory, defining it as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). There are three approaches to the construct of EI: ability, trait, and mixed. According to the ability approach, emotions are a useful source of information to navigate the social environment (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The trait approach involves a focus on people's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). The mixed approach combines the ability and trait approaches to EI (Bar-On et al., 2007; Goleman, 1998). Petrides and Furnham (2001) proposed a conceptual distinction between

ability EI and trait EI. They suggested that ability EI is the actual ability to perceive and process affect-laden information and pertains primarily to cognitive ability and that trait EI is based upon self-perceptions and dispositions that are emotionally related. Differences between ability and trait EI have been directly reflected in empirical research showing very low correlations between measures of them (Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004).

Ability and trait EI are differentiated by the measurements used to operationalize them. Trait EI is a self-report measurement conceptualized as a personality trait. It is consistent with models of differential psychology and has discriminant and incremental validity in regard to personality (Petrides, 2011). Petrides (2011) explained that ability EI is a maximum performance measurement, as in an IQ test and is seen as a cognitive ability.

Definitions

Emotional intelligence (EI): "A set of emotional and social skills that influence the way we perceive and express ourselves, develop and maintain social relationships, cope with challenges, and use emotional information in an effective and meaningful way" (Multi Health Systems [MHS], 2013, para. 13).

Incivility: Rude or unsociable speech or behavior. It is an impolite or offensive comment. Incivility exists within the construct of workplace bullying but is a minor offense (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Incivility continuum: A 10-point continuum of organizational disruption. Incivilities range from 1 to 3; bullying and harassment cover 4 to 9. The highest score is considered battery, homicide, or suicide (Namie, 2014b).

Harassment: Aggressive pressure, manipulation, intimidation, persecution, or force. Harassment, without qualifiers such as sexual or racial, is synonymous with bullying (Namie, 2014b).

Organizational culture: A basic set of assumptions adapted by a group to deal with "external adaptation and internal integration [which are] taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1990, p. 111).

Personality: The characteristics and traits that form an individual's distinctive character. Personality refers to the structures inside individuals that explain why they create particular impressions on others (R. Hogan & Roberts, 2001).

Workplace bullying: A systematic abuse of power that can assume various distinctions, such as predatory, dispute-related, work-related versus person-related, and direct and indirect bullying, along with the most recent iteration of cyberbullying (Einarsen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 2009; Slonje & Smith, 2008); repeated exposure over time (a minimum of 6 months) to acts of mistreatment and aggression by coworkers, supervisors, or direct reports (Einarsen et al., 2009; Houshmand et al., 2012). Workplace bullying is associated with mobbing, harassment, and incivility, and it has varied meanings among researchers (Einarsen et al., 2009). In this study, workplace bullying was measured using the NAQ, a self-assessment of perceived treatment by bullies.

Significance of the Study

Workplace bullying affects 50% of the U.S. workforce (Namie & Namie, 2010) and costs organizations billions in lost time, lost production, high employee turnover or

absenteeism, and increased medical costs (Neuman, 2004). Finding a correlation between targets' EI and workplace bullying could result in substantial monetary savings in areas such as absenteeism and turnover, medical insurance, production levels, and employees' motivation if acted upon (Namie & Namie, 2003). Raising awareness of the role of EI in organizational leadership could mitigate financial and personnel losses by decreasing employees' turnover, absenteeism, and sickness rates associated with bullying (Sheehan, 1999). Using EI as a hiring and training tool might be another way that organizations could mitigate the level of psychological abuse. Awareness of bullies and bullying behaviors is growing, and by creating greater awareness, bully prevention legislation might gain approval either at the state or the national level (Yamada, 2010).

Scope of the Study

Participation in the study was limited to people with access to computers and the Internet. The invitation to participate was extended predominantly via social media and word of mouth; it was not geographically limited. The WBI volunteered to post a blog on its website, which has more than 10,000 registered potential participants. The construct of bullying was researched at the target level; however, the literature review also included research on organizational and leadership relationships.

Assumptions

I assumed the TEIQue-SF and NAQ accurately measured a participant's EI and if they experienced workplace bullying; both tools were in previous research. The TEIQue-SF was designed to measure trait EI, and the NAQ has a history of measuring workplace bullying. An assumption was that all participants answered accurately without bias to

their individual experiences. Another assumption was that the collected data accurately reflected the relationship between the targets' EI and perceived workplace bullying. Based upon these assumptions, this study should benefit organizations and leadership by providing additional information about workplace bullying at the target or the individual level.

Limitations

The study was limited because self-reporting techniques were used to obtain data from the participants. Workplace bullying is a sensitive topic, and many adults are reluctant to admit or consider that they have been bullied (Namie, 2000). Fox and Dinur (1988) pointed out that "most people are naturally motivated to present themselves in a favorable light—self assessment thus suffers from enhancement or inflation bias" (p. 582). Lutgen-Sanvik, Tracy, and Alberts (2007) found that the participants in their study underrepresented actual instances of workplace bullying in their self-reports. This underrepresentation creates a natural polar pull between potential self-enhancements in self-reported EI and the underreporting of workplace bullying.

Another limitation was that long exposure to continued incivility or bullying might have normalized the participants to the behavior, particularly because many targets often report being targeted when they were younger. The participants could have misunderstood the TEIQue and the NAQ, or they might have misunderstood the actual meanings of questions. Yet another limitation was that they could have perceived a desired result by the administrator or survey and could have skewed their answers. Although precautions were taken to avoid such misperceptions, biased or semantic

challenges remained possible. There was no control for the culture, type, size, or geographical location of the organizations where the bullying took place, nor was there any control for organizational position or field of work.

To be eligible to be in the study, participants had to score a minimum of 45 on the NAQ. According Notelaers and Einarsen (2013), individuals who score between 33 and 45 on the NAQ are considered targets of occasional workplace bullying. A score of 45 or greater is a more frequent and more severe level of bullying. By nature, this cutoff restricted the range of the sample size and could have had implications for the study. Use of the TEIQue-SF limited the spectrum of EI by restricting the scoring to a continuous number (global trait) and four factor scores (i.e., well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability).

Another limitation was the convenience sampling approach. The potential participants were those individuals who had been exposed to bullying in some fashion who had reached out to the WBI for material, had signed up for the blog, or had visited the WBI website. The restriction of potential participants through the use of convenience sampling could have limited an equal representation of participants across demographics. This could potentially have skewed the demographics and could have impacted the data analysis.

Summary

Determining the role of the targets' EI would increase awareness of workplace bullying from an organizational perspective, which is the first step in mitigating the escalating trend. Targets often feel helpless, so providing them with a sense of safety,

protection, and skills to diffuse bullying situations at work by giving them a supportive climate will help to address any gaps in their knowledge. Workplace bullying can be researched from individual, work group, or organizational perspectives. In this study, I emphasized the individual perspective, that is, the targets' EI and personal demographics as the IVs.

Workplace bullying continues to escalate ("Bullies on Increase in Workplace," 2009; "Increase in Bullying at Work," 2005), and Namie et al. (2014) found that most organizations and leaders have failed to recognize or acknowledge that bullying occurs in their organizations. Many physical, emotional, and economic costs are associated with workplace bullying. Bullies are envious, have overly dominant alpha identities, were bullied when they were younger, have been conditioned to believe that their behavior is acceptable, often are supported by other levels of management, cannot control their maladaptive behaviors, lack self-regard, have low self-esteem, and are rewarded for their behaviors (Holden, 2001; Lamia, 2010; Namie & Namie, 2011; Neufeld & Mate, 2006). Targets avoid conflict, have few leadership skills, can be popular, are intelligent, and are usually in a lower position than the bullies and feel helpless to defend themselves. Few solutions that have universal acceptance are available; thus, the construct of bullying remains a complex subject (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

In Chapter 2, I address the current literature and examine the history of workplace bullying and EI, including existing research on correlations among them. Chapter 2 also provides deeper insight into the construct of EI and workplace bullying that addresses the

antecedents of the behavior, the characteristics of bullies and targets, the environment, the interactions between targets and bullies, and the consequences of bullying behaviors.

In Chapter 3, I present information about the design of the study, sample, participant response rates, demographics, instrumentation, data analysis, and ethical considerations. Participant characteristics, the data collection process, and the instrumentation that I used are discussed. The study design and rationale for the design also are explained. Chapter 4 is an account of the data analyses, including the relationship of EI, age, gender, and race/ethnicity on workplace bullying. Chapter 5 is the interpretation of the data, including limitations and implications for future research.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationship between targets' EI and experienced workplace bullying. I also examined whether age, gender, and race/ethnicity predicted experienced workplace bullying and whether, in combination with EI, an understanding of target EI and the demographics of age, gender, and race/ethnicity, could more effectively predict targets' experienced workplace bullying. In the literature review, I addressed the major theories within the construct of workplace bullying and EI to identify a gap in the research on targets' EI and modifying demographics.

The targets of bullying spend a major part of the workday avoiding their bullies; they start the workday with dread and a sense of impending doom. A participant in Lutgen-Sandvik et al.'s (2007) study, who witnessed a coworker get bullied by their boss, explained the situation of two job openings under the bully that "whoever gets them will be doomed" (p. 837). Targets spend the majority of their day on a high state of alert, hoping that their bullies will not detect them. Privately, they are ashamed and confused at their inability to fight back and protect themselves.

The results of workplace bullying are monetarily and culturally important to organizations (Kusy & Holloway, 2010; McEwen & Wingfield, 2003). The financial and emotional costs associated with employees' turnover and absenteeism, increased health care services, and lost productivity have been documented and widely disseminated (Kusy & Holloway, 2010; Mayhew et al., 2004). An organizational culture can either promote bullying behaviors or discourage minor incivility or even rampant harassment

(Hodson et al., 2006; Hsieh, 2013). Workplace bullying might be preventable through EI training and leaders with high EI, as well as organizational cultures that have policies and procedures that address incivility, bullying, and harassment (Xiaqi et al., 2012).

Literature Search Strategy and Focus

The literature was researched using the EBSCO database search tool and the databases of PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, SocINDEX, and Google Scholar. The following search items were used: *bullying*, *mobbing*, *incivility*, *workplace bullying*, *organizational trust*, *organizational culture*, *job satisfaction*, *workplace harassment*, *emotional intelligence*, and *leadership*. I also searched the reference sections of collected articles. I found a good representation of studies conducted in Europe, Scandinavia, and the United States. The terms *workplace bullying* and e*motional intelligence* provided the most relevant results. More than 1.7 million reported results were found when searching for EI in Google Scholar and more than 30,000 using Walden's Thoreau database. For workplace bullying, I found more than 48,700 citations in Google Scholar and more than 8,500 in Walden's Thoreau database. More than 150 articles on EI and 350 articles on workplace bullying were downloaded into my database for review. The volume of potential articles reached the saturation level in the literature review, and through the editing process, many articles were removed for the sake of brevity. For the purposes of the review, I covered scholarly research on workplace bullying and EI by focusing on the dynamics between targets and bullies. In addition, the role of organizational culture, leaders, and society was addressed.

Workplace Bullying Defined

Coyne et al. (2000) compared similarities and nuances of terminology such as mobbing, psychological terror, and bullying and concluded that no consensus on a definition of workplace bullying yet existed. The differences seemed to come from the different countries involved and their particular views of workplace bullying. Table 3 provides a list of common terms used to describe workplace bullying.

Table 3

Terms for and Definitions of Workplace Bullying by Various Researchers

Author	Term	Definition
Brodsky (1976) (USA)	Harassment	Repeated and persistent attempts to torment, wear down, frustrate, or foster a reaction from another.
Thylefors (1987) (Sweden)	Scapegoating	Repeated negative acts toward one or more persons
Leymann (1990) (Sweden)	Mobbing, psychological terror	Hostile and unethical communicating systematically directed by one or a few individuals toward one individual who is pushed into a helpless and defenseless state. The mobbing occurs a minimum of once a week over a minimum of 6 months.
Wilson (1991) (USA)	Workplace trauma	The actual disintegration of a target's fundamental self, resulting from deliberate and malicious treatment from a supervisor or an employer.
Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back (1994) (Sweden)	Work harassment	Repeated harmful activities designed to inflict mental and/or physical pain directed toward one or more individuals who cannot defend themselves.
Einarsen & Skogstad (1996) (Sweden)	Bullying	Repeated harmful behavior over time where the targets cannot defend themselves. It is not bullying if the parties are of equal strength or the incident is isolated.
Keashly, Trott & MacLean (1994) (Canada)	Abusive behavior, emotional abuse	Nonsexual and nonracial hostile verbal and nonverbal behavior direct by one or more persons toward another aimed to undermine the person(s).
O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith (1998) (Ireland)	Bullying	Systematic, destructive, and aggressive behavior that is verbal, psychological, and physical conducted by an individual or a group against others. Isolated incidents are not considered bullying.
Zapf (1999) (Germany)	Mobbing	Harassing, bullying, offending, or socially excluding someone or assigning offending tasks to an employee in an inferior position.
Hoel & Cooper, (2000) (England)	Bullying	A continuation of negative actions from one or more persons toward one or more persons, who are unable or have difficulty defending themselves. One-off incidents are not considered bullying.

Table 3 Cont'd

Author	Term	Definition
Namie & Namie (2000, 2000) (United States)	Bullying	Repeated health-harming verbal mistreatment of a person by one or more workers. The conduct is threatening, intimidating, or humiliating. It is sabotage that prevents work from getting done. It is psychological violence, sublethal and nonphysical, a mix of verbal and strategic assaults to prevent targets from performing work.
Salin (2001) (Finland)	Bullying	Repeated negatives acts toward one or several individuals that create a hostile work environment, where targets struggle to defend themselves. It is not a conflict between parties of equal strength.
Zapf & Gross (2001, 2010) (Germany)	Mobbing, bullying	The systematic harassment of persons for a long time, where the individuals cannot be of equal strength, although those involved might start as equals. It is a set of social stressors conceptualized as daily hassles that can negatively affect the targets' health.
Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez (2006) (United States)	Bullying	Repeated attempts to torment, wear down, or frustrate another person. It is treatment that provokes, pressures, intimidates, or otherwise causes discomfort.
Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers (2009) (Sweden)	Bullying	Persistent exposure to interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from colleagues, superiors, or subordinates.

There are at least six notable features within the bullying construct. First, bullying is a series of negative, unethical, and intentional acts toward individuals over a minimum of 6 months (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1990). A single act of incivility or harassment is not considered bullying. Second, targets cannot defend themselves against the negative actions (Hoel & Cooper, 2000). An imbalance of power is implied and discussed. Although equal status and authority might exist at the commencement of the negative acts, it only becomes bullying when the two parties become imbalanced. The perception of being defenseless might be the imbalance of power (i.e., hierarchal position) or a consequence of the bullying sequence. It also could result from a previous interpersonal conflict (Einarsen, 2000).

Third, bullying is regarded as an interpersonal phenomenon between two individuals or between one or multiple individuals toward one or multiple individuals.

Bullying is typically considered an interaction between coworkers or supervisors and subordinates, but it also could be interactions with individuals outside of the organizations (e.g., clients, patients, and pupils; Hoel & Cooper, 2000). Both supervisors and coworkers have been found to engage in bullying behavior.

Fourth is the intentionality of the bullies includes the enjoyment of negative actions by the perpetrators (Dalton, 2007). The aggressors try to maximize the effects of personal pleasure and/or target discomfort by minimizing personal risks. Fifth, the negative acts committed by bullies are varied and sometimes sequential. Leymann (1990) classified the acts as the manipulation of the targets' (a) reputations, (b) work tasks and performance, (c) communication with coworkers, (d) social lives, and (e) emotional and physical safety.

Bullies typically fall within four categories of behavior but might cross categories according to the situations. The first is the screaming mimi. This bully is stereotypical but statistically rare. Second is the constant critic, who operates silently to maximize plausible deniability. Third is the two-headed snake. This bully is passive-aggressive, indirect, and dishonest. The final category is the gatekeeper, who controls the flow of information and resources (Namie & Namie, 2009a).

History of Bullying Research

Interest in the topic of workplace bullying originated in Scandinavia in the 1980s; continued interest in the subject was partly inspired by the work of Olweus (1993) on bullying among schoolchildren. Leymann (1996), who focused on family conflict, decided to investigate direct and indirect forms of conflict within the workplace. He

encountered a phenomenon that he termed mobbing during research in various organizations. He also believed that the problem was more related to organizational factors and leadership practices than to extraneous matters. Inspired by Leymann, Norwegian researchers initiated large-scale projects documenting existence of the phenomenon and the severe negative impact on targets (Einarsen et al., 1994; Einarsen, Matthiesen, & Skogstad, 1998).

In 1976, Brodsky, inspired by hundreds of years of literature on the brutality and cruelty of human beings toward enemies and friends, wrote a qualitative review that had descriptions of five types of harassment: sexual harassment, scapegoating, name calling, physical abuse, and work pressure. However, Brodsky's work received little attention until years after Leymann's research in Sweden (as cited in Einarsen et al., 2010). During the 1990s, research on workplace bullying was limited largely to the Nordic countries, with few publications in English.

In 1992, Adams popularized the term *workplace bullying* in a series of BBC documentaries and addressed workplace bullying in the most severe of terms:

> Bullying at work is like a malignant cancer. It creeps up on you long before you—or anyone else—are able to appreciate what it is that is making you feel the ill effects. Yet despite the fact that the majority of the adult population spends more waking hours at work than anywhere else, the disturbing manifestations of adult bullying, in this particular context, are widely dismissed. (p. 9)

It was not until the 1990s that the term workplace bullying reached the United States, following publications by Bassman (1992) and Hornstein (1997). In 1997,

Stennett-Brewer coined the term *chronic work trauma* and wrote about “the erosion of well-being and self-worth that can result from chronic mistreatment or devaluation at work” (p. iii). In 1998, Gary and Ruth Namie started a campaign of research and education in the United States to expose the widespread mistreatment of people in the workplace based upon a bullying situation that Ruth had experienced in her workplace (Namie & Namie, 2009a).

Prevalence of Workplace Bullying

In a WBI Zogby survey from 2014 (Namie et al.), 27% of Americans indicated that they had suffered abusive conduct at work, 21% had witnessed it, and 72% were aware that workplace bullying was happening. At the time of the WBI survey, the nonfarm U.S. workforce comprised 137,499,000 people (Namie et al., 2014); by applying prevalent proportions, the equivalent number of working Americans experiencing bullying is more than 9.8 million individuals (see Table 4). More than 27 million U.S. citizens claim that they have experienced bullying, with 28.7 million claiming that they have witnessed it. The total number of people in the United States affected by workplace bullying has reached approximately 65.6 million individuals.

Table 4

Types of Bullying Experiences

Types of experiences with abusive conduct	No. of people
I am experiencing it now or have experienced it in the last year	9,817,429
I have experienced it before, but not in the last year	27,073,553
Total with direct experience	36,890,982
I have seen it happen to others	15,038,462
I know that it has happened to others	13,671,329
Total of those who witnessed it	28,709,791
Total of workers affected (direct + witnessed) by bullying	65,600,000
I've been a perpetrator myself	74,249
I have not experienced or witnessed it: I do believe it happens	26,344,808
I have not experienced or witnessed it: I believe that non-harmful routine interactions are what others consider "mistreatment"	5,651,209
Public awareness of bullying in the workplace	98,339,284
I have no personal experience or knowledge of, or an opinion about, workplace mistreatment	39,132,215
I have never been bullied	71,128,232

Note. From "U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey: February 2014," by G. Namie, D. Christensen, & D. Phillips, 2014. Retrieved from http://bullyinginstitute.org/

In 2014, 56% of bullies were supervisors, 33% were coworkers, and 11% came from lower levels of organizations (WBI, as cited in Namie et al., 2014; see Figure 1). Further statistics from the 2014 WBI study indicated that men comprised 69% of bullying perpetrators and 57% of women were targets. Women targeted women 68% of the time, and men targeted men 43% of the time. Bullying was found to be 4 times more prevalent than harassment, and 62% of employers ignored the problem. A total of 45% of targets reported stress-related health problems, and only 60% of them actually reported that they had been bullied; 97% of targets took no legal action (WBI, as cited in Namie et al., 2014).

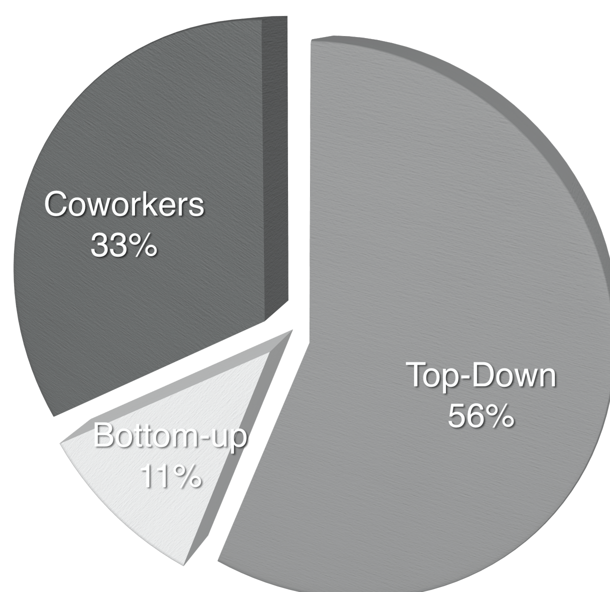

Figure 1. Bullying rank. From “U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey: February 2014,” by G. Namie et al., 2014.

Consequences of Bullying

The stress associated with bullying has been linked to health-related issues such as overeating, alcohol consumption, smoking, and other forms of substance abuse (McEwen & Wingfield, 2003). According to Namie’s (2007) WBI Zogby Survey, 45% of the targets expressed that they suffered from stress-related health problems, including PTSD-related symptoms. In a 2003 WBI research project, 39% of the targets stated that they suffered debilitating anxiety, panic attacks, clinical depression, and PTSD (30% of women and 21% of men suffered PTSD). Once they were targeted, 64% of the targets stated that they were likely to lose their jobs for no reason (Namie, 2007).

Bullying at work results in extreme forms of social stress, and although single acts of incivility occur in everyday situations, repeated exposure to intentional aggression has

been linked to severe health problems (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004). Wilson (1991) found that workplace bullying was more crippling and devastating than all other work-related stressors combined. In a study by O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, and Smith (1998) with 30 Irish targets (nine men and 21 women), all of the participants reported feelings of anxiety, depression, and paranoia. In a study of Norwegian assistant nurses, Einarsen et al. (1998) found positive correlations between bullying and burnout, low job satisfaction, and poor psychological well-being. In a study of 107 nurses from the Portuguese Public Health System, Sá and Fleming (2008) found that bullied nurses had statistically significantly higher levels of emotional exhaustion and lower levels of mental health than their colleagues. Thirteen percent were identified as targets, with the majority of targets between the ages of 31 and 40 years (Sá & Fleming, 2008). Targets experienced more somatic symptoms, anxiety, insomnia, social dysfunction, and severe depression than their colleagues, but these differences were not statistically significant (Sá & Fleming, 2008). Quine (2001) reported that targets in the study had more psychosomatic complaints, irritation, depression, and physical and psychological health problems than nontargets. In a Finnish study of more than 5,000 hospital staff members (Kivimäki, Elovainio, & Vahtera, 2000), 26% had more certified absences than those not bullied.

Tehrani (2004) reported that in a study of 67 care profession targets, 44% experienced high levels of PTSD symptomatology. In a similar study, Leymann and Gustafsson (1996) looked at 64 victims of bullying who had attended a special clinic to better cope with armed raids, industrial accidents, and serious car crashes. When data from the bullying victims were analyzed, 92% had symptoms of PTSD (Leymann &

Gustafsson, 1996). In a study of 160 U.S. Army women returning from the Persian Gulf, Wolfe et al. (1998) found that experiencing sexual assault made a larger impact on PTSD symptomatology than being exposed to combat. Fontana and Rosenheck (1998) concluded that sexual abuse and harassment were 4 times as influential on PTSD development as combat or other duty-related stress. The literature on PTSD has focused primarily on life-threatening menaces and physical harm, but Matthiesen and Einarsen (2004) claimed that PTSD happens if an event is perceived as threatening, scaring or awful, and beyond a certain level of trauma. Bullying is a chronic experience, so the risk of PTSD increases the longer the mistreatment continues. Women abused by their husbands, even in subtle cases, have been reported as manifesting symptoms of PTSD (Vitanza, Vogel, & Marshall, 1995).

Kusy and Holloway (2010) calculated the costs at 1.5 to 2.5 times an employee's salary for every target or witness who leaves an organization. J. Hogan, Barrett, and Hogan (2007) put the cost at 1.5 times the benefit package. Researchers have cited low job satisfaction, low employee motivation, and the need to hire replacements as consequences of employee dissatisfaction (Adams & Crawford, 1992; Houshmand et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2004). Workplace bullying can manifest in declining productivity, uncivil behavior that becomes the norm and forms the organizational culture, reduced self-esteem of employees, sleeplessness, depression, panic attacks, substance abuse, isolation, suicidal thoughts, and fantasies of killing the bullies (Wardell, 2011).

There are few ways to stop bullying in the workplace. According to Namie et al.'s (2014) results, bullying stopped against a specific target when the target quit (29%), was

fired (13%), was forced out of the organization (19%), or was transferred (13%). It theoretically stopped when the perpetrator was punished (11%), fired (10%), or quit (5%). Namie (2014a) found that since the same survey was conducted initially (Namie & Namie, 2012; see Figure 2), workplace bully awareness has increased, along with a higher propensity of consequences for the perpetrators.

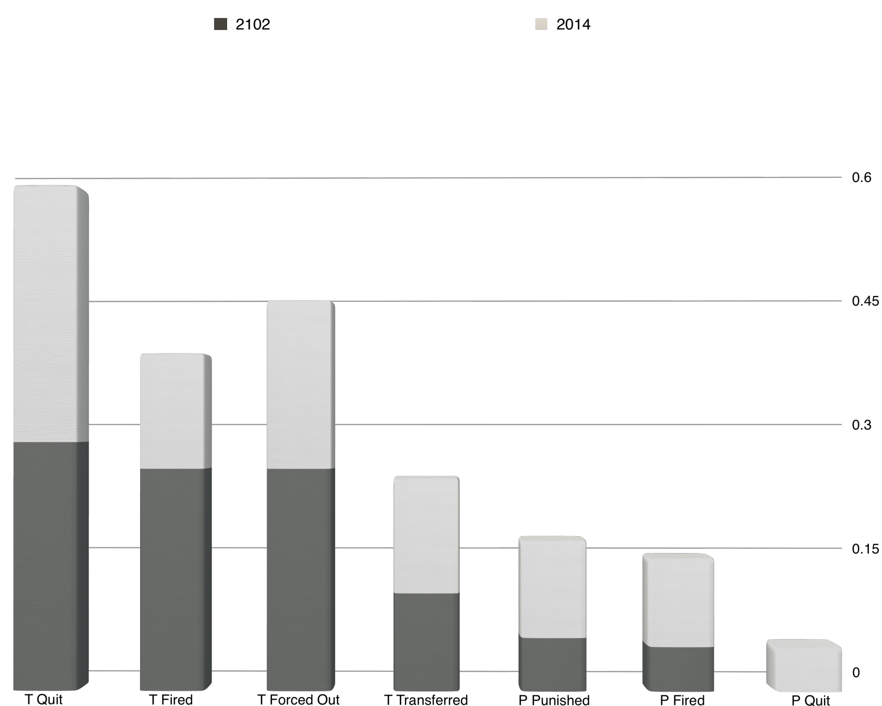

Figure 2. What stopped the bullying: A comparison of 2012 and 2014 WBI surveys. From "U.S. Workplace Bullying Survey: February 2014," by G. Namie et al., 2014. Retrieved from http://bullyinginstitute.org/

Theoretical Foundation of Workplace Bullying

Einarsen et al. (2010) developed a theoretical framework on workplace bullying and harassment through the factors of the individuals (targets and bullies); the organizations and their leaders; and the societies of the organizations, including the

cultures. They explained that the theoretical framework of workplace bullying is not a singular theory, but rather a composition of many antecedents and constructs. The complexity of workplace bullying as a social phenomenon involves many factors at different levels, depending on the lenses of focus. The construct can be viewed through the perceptions and reactions of the targets or through the behaviors of the perpetrators (Einarsen, 1999; Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

On an individual level, the personalities of bullies and targets might be causes of bullying behaviors and perceptions of being targeted. Individual factors, including targets' reactions and lack of coping skills, might contribute to the bullying experience (Coyne et al., 2000). Given that a power differential is central to the bully definition, the focus is on the relationships between the alleged perpetrators and the targets as well as the organizational cultures that set the relationships and behavior protocols.

According to Brodsky (1976), when a humorless target meets up with an artless teaser, a clash of personalities results. Consequently, it is just as relevant to focus on the pathological and deviant personalities not only of targets but also of bullies (Einarsen et al., 2010). In most cases, the targets are not always passive recipients of negative acts and behaviors. As such, their responses would affect (usually negatively) the perpetrators' future behaviors (Hoel & Cooper, 2001). Zapf and Gross (2001) showed that initial targets who fought back with similar means (negative behavior) but avoided further conflict were able to successfully neutralize the perpetrators. Less successful targets usually contributed to the escalation process by counterattacks or "fights for justice" and were unable to avoid future conflict (p. 497).

Behaviors such as scapegoating and witch hunting can become bullying at the group and organizational levels. As already mentioned, scapegoating is an individual singling out by the group because the person is different or new. Witch hunting is similar, but without the caveat of being different or new (Thylefors, 1987). The seemingly innocent act of honesty or of being too honest and unwilling to compromise values, justifies misbehavior toward a target (Thylefors, 1987).

Archer (1999) found that bullying can become integrated within the organizational culture, whereas Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla (1996) found that a high degree of cultural cooperation, combined with rigid controls over workers' time, might contribute to targeting employees. Such environments lead to many interpersonal conflicts and simultaneously undermine potential conflict resolution. Vartia (1996) noted that work environments with bullying have a general atmosphere of stress marked by high levels of competiveness.

Neuman and Baron (2011) cited three elements central to the social interactional approach. First, interpersonal and situational factors are critical to instigating aggression. Second aggressors often view themselves without malice or guilt and perceive their behavior as legitimate and even moralistic (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Third, the interactions of perpetrators, targets, and witnesses are both instrumental and hostile in nature. Instrumental means that the behavior was a means to an end, and being hostile means the behaviors of the aggressors toward the targets was impulsive, thoughtless, and anger centric, with the ultimate goal of causing harm to the targets; and in reaction to perceived provocations from the targets (Anderson & Bushman, 2002).

Brodsky (1976) claimed that although perpetrators might suffer from personality disorders, they act out only when organizational cultures permit and even reward the misbehavior. Situational, contextual, and personal factors might cause coworkers, managers, or supervisors to act aggressively toward targets. However, the behavior would be mitigated, eliminated, or perpetuated depending on the cultural values.

Rayner (1998) concluded that tolerance by workers within an organizational culture is responsible for the negative behaviors of bullies. In her study, 95% of participants claimed that bullying was the result of a permissive organizational culture, because the bullies could get away with the targeting, combined with the victims' fearfulness to report it. Therefore, bullying behaviors might be the combined result of bullies' personal or situational factors and a lack of organizational inhibitors to the harmful behaviors (Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993).

Targets

The following sections cover demographic, personality, and other characteristics of targets.

Demographic Characteristics of Targets

Björkqvist, Osterman, and Hjelt-Back (1994) found that 25% of their respondents claimed gender as the reason for bullying. In a study of 5,288 participants from more than 70 organizations, Hoel and Cooper (2000) found that the men were more exposed to negative behavior than the women in all categories except "Unwanted Sexual Attention" and "Insulting Messages." They also found that the women were more likely than the men to label negative acts and past experiences as bullying and that a greater portion of

women than men had been bullied. Salin (2003) argued that the overrepresentation of women as targets might be explained by the general acceptance of bullying as a label. In other cases, men employed in primarily female positions reported higher rates of bullying than women (Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004). Vartia and Hyyti (2002) identified target gender as statistically insignificant at a general level of misbehavior. In their study of 895 participants, 773 men and 123 women, 20% of the respondents perceived themselves as targets. When asked using a stricter criterion, 11% of the men and 17% of the women reported being bullied. Coworkers usually bullied female targets, whereas coworkers and supervisors bullied the men equally as often.

Most studies of age and bullying have found that being young is associated with an elevated risk of exposure to bullying and negative acts (Di Martino, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003). According to Hoel et al. (1999), the higher propensity for young employees mirrored cultural and labor market differences in terms of entry into the workforce. Zapf, Escartín, Einarsen, Hoel, and Vartia (2011) found that age-related bullying correlations were inconclusive. In the study, age groups were divided into three categories: < 35, 36 to 50, and > 51. In the youngest group, women (25%) were bullied more than men (15%) were. There was no statistically significant difference in the other two age brackets.

In a study conducted in a Norwegian engineering plant, Einarsen and Raknes (1997) found no difference in status for targets, whether supervisor, manager, or coworker. Similar findings have been reported by various other researchers (Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Salin, 2001). In a broad cross-sectional study, Hoel and Cooper (2000) found that Asians were more likely to be bullied (19.6%) than participants from a White

background (10.5%). Shields and Wheatley-Price (2002) demonstrated how almost 40% of ethnic minority nurses, in comparison to 10% of nurses overall, were subjected to racial harassment. Namie et al. (2014) separated bullying into three categories: directly bullied, witnessed bullying, and total affected. Hispanics were the highest affected by bullying at 56.9%, followed by African Americans at 54.1%, Asians at 52.8%, and Whites at 44.3%. Relatively speaking, minorities were more affected by bullying than those in the majority were.

Personality Characteristics of Targets

Glasø et al. (2009) found that being vulnerable and unable to defend themselves in interpersonal relationships was typical for targets. In the same study conducted in Norway, 50% of targets portrayed themselves as having substantial interpersonal problems; however, so did 40% of the general Norwegian working population. Niedl (1996) concluded that targets are unable to defend themselves and that many workers are subjected to harassment but are able to defend themselves, and do not become targets. Targets of bullying are privately ashamed of their victimhood and confused about their inability to fight back (Randall, 2002). Targets often are isolated, demoralized, and unable to escape or prevent bullying behaviors (Einarsen, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003).

According to Neufeld's alpha askew thesis, targets usually have an overdeveloped dependent complex (as cited in Biehn, 2012) and tend to be anxious, depressed, suspicious, and troubled by confused thoughts. They also tend to be submissive, reserved, and introverted; avoid conflict; and have lower social skills and status; however, the researchers did not quantify how they measured targets' social skills (Coyne, Smith-Lee

Chong, Seigne, & Randall, 2003). Zapf and Gross (2001) found that when bullied, targets first attempt to placate or ingratiate themselves with the bullies and then compromise their values in order to get along (i.e., boundary violation). When this tactic fails, they avoid conflict and submit to the abuse, hoping one day to escape it (Zapf & Gross, 2001).

Working with other professionals, Zapf and Buehler (as cited in Zapf, 1999) developed a 45-item list that would allow targets to identify personality traits that are different from those of others within their particular work groups. Items included a lack of social skills, unassertive behavior, and the inability to recognize conflict. The results showed heterogeneous groups of targets. Thirty-three percent of targets saw themselves as unassertive, and 16% saw themselves as worse conflict managers than their coworkers. In a study of 87 targets, Lindemeier (1996) found that 31% reported a tendency to avoid conflict, 27% reported having low self-esteem, and 23% reported being emotionally unstable and subject to easy emotional arousal. In a Norwegian study of 2,200 employees in seven organizations, targets were characterized with low self-esteem, high anxiety, and low social competence (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). In a study of three Norwegian nursing homes, targets were characterized as not having a sense of humor and, instead, having a negative attitude toward humor in the workplace (Einarsen, 1997). Brodsky (1976) claimed that targets, when meeting notorious teasers, might feel victimized and bullied when they become the laughingstock of the department or are subjected to constant practical jokes.

Other Characteristics of Targets

Being an outsider, according to Thylefors (1987), carried the risk of getting into trouble and being made the scapegoat of a group. According to social identity theory, being different might create a “one of them” vs. “one of us” circumstance and lead to aggression toward the perceived outsider (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This circumstance also is termed the *black-sheep effect* (Marques, Yzerbyt, & Leyens, 1988).

Outsiders have weaker social networks and less social support, so socially exposed employees can therefore become target risks. Leymann (1993) found that male Kindergarten teachers, male nurses, and male librarians, all in a minority position, were bullied more often than their female counterparts were. In their study of a nonprofit organization, Lindroth and Leymann (1993) found that 21.6% of employees, who were handicapped, versus 4.4% who were not handicapped, were bullied. Leymann indicated that the employees who were handicapped were bullied 5 times more often than those who were not handicapped. Zapf (1999) found that 14% of targets claimed to be different from other members of the work groups according to age, gender, or physical handicap, compared to 8% of the control group.

Bullies

Although bullies come in every age, race/ethnicity, gender, and religion, Rayner (1997) explained that specific studies of workplace bullying and ethnicity have been rare. Lieber (2010) asserted that 60% of bullies are men and 40% are women. When a woman is the bully, she targets other women 71% of the time and men 29% of the time. A male bully targets other men 53% of the time and women 47% of the time. Namie and Namie

(2007) found that the female bullies in their study inflicted more health harm than the male bullies did (55% vs. 39%).

According to Namie et al.'s (2014) poll of the 1,000 participants in their study, 69% were male bullies, and 31% were female bullies. Male-on-female bullying (male perpetrator and female target) was 57%, and male-on-male bullying was 43%. When a female was the perpetrator, the bullying was overwhelmingly female on female (68%). Leymann (1990) reported that women bullied women more than they bullied men and that men bullied men more than they bullied women as a percentage.

When surveyed who the principal perpetrators were, the respondents in Namie et al.'s (2014) study reported that 40.1% were supervisors a single rank higher; 19.0% were peers; 7.1% were subordinates; 8.1% were multiple levels higher in authority; 9.0% were multiple peers (i.e., involved in mobbing); 2.7% were multiple subordinates; and 14.0% were a combination of bosses, peers, and subordinates. Multiple researchers have identified supervisors, not coworkers, as the predominant bullies (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel & Cooper, 2001; Leymann, 1993; Rayner, 1997). Analyzing 40 samples across 20 countries (N = 6,783 targets), Zapf et al. (2011) found that the percentages weighted by the sample size were supervisors (65.4%), colleagues (39.4%, and subordinates (9.7%).

Glenndinning (2001) explained that the stereotype of a bully is that of a tough and dynamic manager who gets the job done. This type of thinking is slowly changing as the consequences of bullying continue to emerge. Glenndinning also noted that there is a difference between being tough or demanding and being a bully. Field (2002) asserted

that bullies bully to hide inadequacies and incompetencies. The self-reported bullies in Zapf and Einarsen's (2010) study described themselves as high on social anxiety, low on self-esteem, and high on interpersonal aggressiveness.

Field (1996) claimed that bullies compensate for their incompetencies by bringing others down rather than by improving their own skills. Stress, change, uncertainty, fear of failure, and the targets' lack of perceived assertiveness exacerbate bully behaviors. Bullies are adept at projecting their shortcomings onto their targets. Field, who coined the term *serial bully*, discovered that bullies are not singular in their targets. When one target leaves, the bully searches for and finds another target to abuse, much like addictive behavior (Hilton, 2011; Mate, 2010). Bullies do not use physical abuse; instead, their depravity stems from undermining the entire well-being of their targets. Zapf and Einarsen (2005) found that bullies lack emotional intelligence, have a compromised self-regulatory process in regard to a perceived threat to self-esteem, lack social competence, and are the result of maladaptive behavior.

Bully Profiles

Bullying conflicts occur in situations of unequal power, and even when the targets lack positional power, bullies tend to have greater resources than targets, including influential relationships (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013). Researchers have found three general bully profiles based upon motivation, tactics, responses to challenge, and situations: the accidental bully; the narcissistic bully, and the psychopathic bully (Kelly, 2006). Egan (2009) broke down the behaviors as follows.

Accidental bullies are the most common and usually are individuals in supervisory positions with very tough management styles and coarse interpersonal styles. They are very demanding and task oriented with tight deadlines. They lack self-awareness and empathy. This type of bully is usually amenable to intervention, and they often are shocked when they learn of the consequences of their behavior (Namie & Namie, 2011).

Narcissistic bullies are charismatic and driven by fear. This type of bully must be seen as important and competent, is attached to being right, and fears being seen as less than important and competent or being wrong. They are self-absorbed and pretentious, and they fantasize about their achievements. These bullies do not intend harm, but they are not aware of the consequences of their self-absorbed behavior. They use shame as a tactic and are sensitive to any hint of incompetence by others (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013; Namie & Namie, 2011). Their self-image is easily punctured, and when they perceive a threat or a slight, they lack self-control and rage, making outlandish claims about their perceived detractors (Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989). Narcissistic bullies shift between being very congenial one moment and vicious the next. Their abuse is not intended as cold and calculating, but is meant to intimidate as an expression of their superiority and the message that the targets are idiots. They lack empathy (Namie & Namie, 2011).

Psychopathic bullies are a rare personality type (1% to 2% in the general population) but are more common in senior-level management (up to 3.5%; Babiak & Hare, 2006). Other names for psychopathic bullies are industrial psychopaths,

organizational psychopaths, corporate psychopaths, and organizational sociopaths (Boddy, Ladyshewsky, & Galvin, 2010). Unlike criminal psychopaths, these noncriminal bullies are "not prone to outbursts of impulsive, violent, criminal behavior" (Boddy, 2010, p. 301). Instead, they are grandiose but come across as friendly at first. They are motivated by power and are socially talented at networking with influential people. They often experience meteoric rises within organizations; they are authoritarian, aggressive, and dominant (Boddy et al., 2010). They are difficult to communicate with and deflect blame. They ingratiate themselves with cronies who assist in their upward rise within the organization, and the targets must deal with these narcissists and their followers/ supporters. They are not affected by coaching or counseling, and they are unlikely to change their behavior (Clarke, 2005).

Some general bully characteristics fit all three profiles. Most bullies are unlikely to offer praise, and they favor verbal aggression (Wigley, Pohl, & Watt, 1989). Medical evidence has shown that highly aggressive people are born with the trait (Shaw, Kotowski, Boster, & Levine, 2012). There also has been medical evidence that people born with specific traits can be tempered by environment factors (Yong, 2010). Aggressive people usually are not aware that their behavior is offensive or maladaptive (Parkins, Fishbein, & Ritchey, 2006).

Process of Bullying

Empirical studies have indicated that workplace bullying is an escalating process rather than an either-or phenomenon (Einarsen, 2000; Leymann, 1990; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2013; Zapf & Gross, 2001). The behavior during the early stages is indirect and discrete.

As time passes and the perpetrators are not challenged, the behavior becomes increasingly aggressive, and the targets are isolated and sometimes humiliated in a public forum by excessive criticism (Björkqvist, 1992).

Einarsen (1999) and Leymann (1996) described the escalation process of bullying in four stages:

- Stage 1 begins with a conflict that triggers a critical incident that starts the cycle.
- Stage 2 comprises negative acts, incivility, stigmatizing, and scapegoating. The scapegoating process stems from the perpetrator's frustration with the situation and projection of the frustration on to an individual (i.e., the target).
- Stage 3 is the uninvited relationship of the target with the bully as the bully acts out behavior ranging from incivility to aggression, a sequence that starts with minor maladaptive behaviors and escalates to serious ones.
- Stage 4 is expulsion, when the target is compelled to leave the workplace.

Lutgen-Sanvik (2013) expanded the initial four steps into six: (a) initial incident-cycle generation, (b) progressive discipline, (c) turning point, (d) organizational ambivalence, (e) isolation and silencing, and (f) expulsion-cycle regeneration.

In U.S. culture, civility has traditionally been viewed as a source of power and a way to gain favor or social advantage (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Civility is a functional instrument and holds moral implications. Carter (1998) referred to civility as "the sum of the many sacrifices we are called to make for the sake of living together"

(p. 11). The need for civility increases as organizational complexity and human interactions become more frequent.

The business world was once considered the last bastion of civility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). As organizations have flattened, downsized, gone more casual, and experienced increased demands for productivity, employees and managers have become more uncivil and more aggressive (Neuman & Baron, 1998). The ability to discern "proper" business behavior has been replaced with a transactional approach at the expense of an interactional relationships (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011; Siegel, 2010).

According to Andersson and Pearson (1999), workers in complex interactions must attune their conduct to that of others. Siegel (2010) clarified this construct as mindsight, or the ability to see into another person. Within the construct of EI, this ability is known as empathy (Goleman, 1998). According to Namie (2014a), there is a sequence or a process in the workplace culture that sanctions bullying (see Figure 3). The behavior starts with acts or words that are inappropriate, and when they are accepted, rewarded, or ignored, the person moves on to incivility and then disrespect. Because the behavior is either rewarded or ignored, the perpetrator becomes emboldened and commences mild bullying, which progresses to moderate and then severe bullying. In some cases, the process ends only with harassment, battery, or homicide (Namie & Namie, 2009a).

Very little research has been conducted on the lesser forms of social mistreatment of others (incivility); however, in a survey of 178 employees, Neuman and Baron (1998) found that the majority of aggressive behaviors were verbal rather than physical, passive

rather active, indirect rather than direct, and subtle rather than overt. By definition, this type of behavior, when perpetrated over 6 months or more, constitutes bullying. Incivility is an aggressive and deviant behavior, but it is less intense and more challenging to detect at the outset. Incivility is a behavioral spiral that leads to organizational decline, increased aggression, and ultimately psychological warfare (Namie, 2014b). The process parallels addictive behavior, triggering a maladaptive pattern that permeates the culture (Baumeister, 1994).

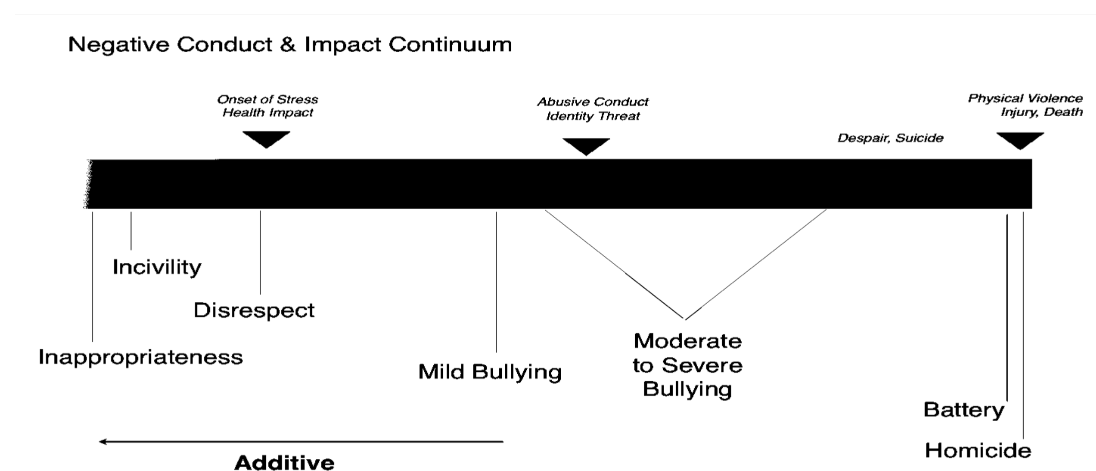

Figure 3. Incivility continuum. From "Workplace Bullying University, by G. Namie, 2014b, Workshop material presented at the Workplace Bullying Training, Bellingham, WA. Used with permission of WBI.

The preceding sections on the characteristics and personalities of targets and bullies, given the abundance of literature available, provided a detailed overview surrounding the complexity within the construct of workplace bullying. Further details or citations saturated the existing literature review and extended beyond the scope of this paper. Absent from the research has been any focus on the EI of either bullies or targets within the dynamics of the dysfunctional relationship. To research both was beyond the

scope of this paper, however, the construct of EI was addressed from a historical and a theoretical basis.

History and Definition of EI

Contemporary psychologists have defined intelligence as the capacity to learn, recall, apply, think, reason, and abstract (Kaplan & Sadock, 1991). Traditionally, this capacity has been measured using a cognitive or an IQ assessment. More than 2,000 years ago, "Socrates declared that the attainment of self-knowledge is humanity's greatest challenge; Aristotle added that this challenge was about managing our emotional life with intelligence" (Wieand, 2002, p. 32). According to Spearman, the term *intelligence* did not appear in print before the 20th century and that it was probably easier to measure than to define (as cited in Bar-On, 2004). Wechsler (1958) defined the term *general intelligence* as the "aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (p. 7). This definition lent itself to consider other forms of intelligence than the standard cognitive approach.

In 1920, Thorndike and colleagues separated intelligence into three forms: mechanical, abstract, and social. They defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations" (as cited in Bar-On, 2004, p. 228). In 1979, Harvard Graduate School commissioned Gardner to conduct a study on what was known in the human sciences about the nature of human cognition. His work culminated in the development of MIs. Gardner (1993) believed that his work would be of interest to other scholars and researchers, "particularly those who studied intelligence from a Piagetian perspective"

(p. xii).

Gardner (1993) identified seven forms of intelligence in his MI theory, and scholars such as Guilford, Thurston, and others supported his dissatisfaction with the IQ approach to intelligence. Gardner argued that the whole concept of IQ being the only type of intelligence needed to be challenged. He felt that the concept had “to be replaced” (p. 7). The seven original MIs were linguistic, logical mathematical, scientific, spatial, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal. The latter two, according to Gardner, “are not well understood, elusive to study, but immensely important” (p. 9).

By the late 1980s, EI began to receive mention in scholarly and mainstream literature. Bar-On mentioned it as early as 1988, Salovey and Mayer in 1990, and Goleman in 1995. These noncognitive intellectual elements that collectively were termed EI continued to gain momentum as a legitimate construct not only as a science but also as an individual measurement of the ability to recognize, control, and interpret emotions (Bar-On et al., 2007; Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, & Adler, 1998; Goleman, 2010). The impact of EI on personal competencies, social competencies, ethics, the ability to lead and manage, marriage, parenting, and academic success has undergone copious research (Bagshaw, 2000; Bowes, Maughan, Caspi, Moffitt, & Arseneault, 2010; Colfax, Rivera, & Perez, 2010; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Stein & Book, 2011). Researchers are continuing to debate the definition and validity of EI, with the discussion centering on three models: ability based, trait based, and mixed. Mayer and Salovey (1997) were the pioneers of ability-based EI.

Petrides and Furnham (2001) developed the trait-based model; Bar-On's (1997) and Goleman's (2005) models were mixed (see Table 5).

Table 5

Comparison of Three EI Models

	1997 Bar-On	1990 Salovey & Mayer	2001 Petrides & Furnham
Framework:	Model of well-being	Model of intelligence	Model of personality
Category:	Mixed model	Ability model	Trait model
Definition:	An array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.	A capacity to reason about emotions and to enhance thinking. A cognitive approach to accurately perceiving and understanding emotions.	A constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions within the realm of personality. Certain emotional profiles will be advantageous in some situations, but not others.
Focus of measurement:	Knowing one's emotions	Perception and expression of emotion	Self-perception and behavior disposition
Skills:	• Recognizing a feeling as it happens • Monitoring feelings from moment to moment • Handling feelings appropriately • Ability to soothe oneself • Ability to emotional handle anxiety, gloom, or irritability • Empathetic awareness and attunement	• Identify and express emotions, feelings and thoughts • Identify and express the emotions in others • Emotions generate memory aids and assist in making judgments • Ability to label emotions and simultaneous feelings • Ability to understand relationships	• Situational context to manifestation of behavior • Measures constructs of depression, coping, emotional expression, style, and life satisfaction • Measured behaviors do not cognate to capabilities, competencies, and skills

Ability Model

According to the ability-based model, EI has been classified as interpersonal and intrapersonal. Mayer and Salovey (1993) purported that any intelligence considered a standard intelligence must meet three criteria: (a) The intelligence must consist of mental abilities, (b) the abilities must meet certain correlational criteria, and (c) the abilities must develop with age. Ability EI was developed in a series of articles during the 1990s

(Mayer et al., 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). From the initial research, a four-branch model resulted, with EI as the hub and four emotions attached: (a) reflectively regulating emotions, (b) understanding emotions, (c) assimilating emotion in thought, and (d) perceiving and expressing emotion (Mayer et al., 1999). These four branches serve as skill levels in ascending order. In ability EI, actual ability is measured over behavior manifestation where the lowest skill level involves the appraisal and perception of emotion (e.g., facial expression or body language). The next level is the assimilation of basic emotional experiences into mental life, including weighing emotions against each other. The third level is emotional understanding and reasoning. Emotions such as anger and fear carry specific rules: Anger surfaces when justice is denied, fear changes to relief, and sadness is expressed during separation. During this stage a link is made with the emotional pieces, connected by understanding how they interface and manifest according to defined rules. The fourth level, the highest, involves the regulation and management of emotion, such as remaining calm in times of anxiety of stress and being able to soothe others. Inherent within ability EI is the concept of right or wrong (Mayer et al., 1999). The challenge is who sets the criteria, that is, peer-group dynamics or group of experts.

Trait Model

Trait EI is about people's perceptions of their own emotions (Petrides, 2011). Trait EI has been defined as a grouping of self-perceptions situated at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides et al., 2007). In trait EI, the inherent subjectivity of the emotional experience is expressed. Trait EI is measured using a self-report survey. The

model emerged as a distinction between ability and trait EI. Petrides (2011) argued that Trait EI belongs within the realm of personality and ability EI belongs within the domain of cognitive theory. Correlations between trait and ability EI are low, supporting the distinction between them (Brannick et al., 2009). Trait EI maintains that specific emotional profiles are advantageous in some contexts, but not in others. For example, an employee who has high trait empathy and moderate assertiveness might struggle to have a voice in a team setting and might be overly reliant on the loudest voice or the strongest will in the group (see Table 6).

Table 6

Adult Sampling of Trait EI

Facets	High scorers perceive themselves as…
Adaptability	flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions.
Assertiveness	forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights.
Emotional self & others' perceptions	clear about their own and other people's feelings.
Emotional expression	capable of communicating their feelings to others.
Emotional management (others)	capable of influencing other people's feelings.
Emotional regulation	capable of controlling their emotions.
Impulsiveness (low)	reflective and less likely to give into urges.
Relationships	capable of having fulfilling personal relationships.
Self-esteem	successful and self-confident.
Self-motivation	driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	accomplished networkers with excellent social skills.
Stress management	capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress.
Trait empathy	capable of taking someone else's perspective.
Trait happiness	cheerful and satisfied with their lives.
Trait optimism	confident and likely to "look on the bright side" of life.

Mixed Model

Using the mixed model, EI often has been conceptualized, particularly in popular literature, as involving more than controlling, understanding, and perceiving emotions.

The alternative conceptions include motivation, nonability traits, and social functioning (Bar-On, 2004). One of the oldest EI instruments is Bar-On's (2004) EQ-i (updated to EQ-i 2.0), which uses a noncognitive capability as a base. Bar-On's model measures the ability to handle daily environmental pressures and demands. Bar-On coined the term *emotional quotient* (EQ), a measurement of EI (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001). Goleman (2005) and Bar-On measured similar behaviors using a self-reporting survey. Bar-On emphasized five core composites: (a) self-perception, (b) self-expression, (c) interpersonal, (d) decision making, and (e) stress management (Bar-On, 2004). Goleman focused on five competencies: (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) self-motivation, (d) empathy, and (e) interpersonal relationships.

According to the literature, the higher the EI score (EQ) is, the more productive the person is (Bagshaw, 2000; Bar-On, 2004; Parker, Saklofske, Wood, & Collin, 2009). The EQ score is a representation of how often the behavior is manifested (Bar-On, 2004). This explanation oversimplifies the scoring process and can distort the actual findings. Within the actual assessment, the focus is on the variance of scores, which indicates dissonance between specific behaviors. High EI is more the result of consistent scores rather than overall high EQ (Bar-On, 2011; Stein & Book, 2011).

EI Theory

The MHS (2013) manual defined EI as "a set of emotional and social skills that influence the way we perceive and express ourselves, develop and maintain social relationships, cope with challenges, and use emotional information in an effective and meaningful way" (p. 2). People with high EI are skilled at specific emotional

competencies, that is, learned social capabilities that result in outstanding work performance (Goleman, 1998). Goleman's (2005) EI framework is organized into 20 competencies nested in four clusters of fundamental social abilities (see Table 7). It reflects statistical analyses of the responses of 596 corporate managers, professionals, engineers, and social work students to the Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). Respondents indicated the degree to which statements about EI-related behaviors were characteristic of themselves. The responses were compared to those made by colleagues about them.

Table 7

Goleman's EI Framework of Emotional Competencies

Approach	Self: Personal competence	Other: Social competence
Recognition	Self-awareness • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence	Social awareness • Empathy • Service orientation • Organizational awareness
Regulation	Self-management • Self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative	Relationship management • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Leadership • Change catalyst • Building bonds • Teamwork & collaboration

Note. From "Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligent in Organizations," by C. Cherniss & D. Goleman. Retrieved from www.eiconsortium.org

According to Goleman's (2001) mixed model EI theory, each domain of EI is directly connected to distinct neurological mechanisms separate from cognitive ability. Each competency nests within one of the four EI domains and from the perspective of affective neuroscience (Goleman, 2001, 2005). The distinction between EI and IQ is

found in the location of the capacity (Goleman, 2001). IQ is a neocortical function, whereas EI is found more within the limbic system. Intellectual abilities (i.e., IQ) like verbal fluency, spatial logic, and abstract reasoning are found primarily in the neocortex. A damaged prefrontal cortex results in the corresponding executive function being compromised. In contrast, EI encompasses behaviors underlying neurological circuitry linking the limbic areas of emotion centered in the amygdala and extending throughout the brain into the prefrontal cortex (Goleman, 2001, 2005; Mayer et al., 1990; Siegel, 2010).

Taylor, Parker, and Bagby (1998) asserted that self-awareness hinges on the neural circuits that run among the prefrontal and the verbal cortex, the amygdala, and the viscera. Emotional self-management is the ability to regulate anger and anxiety, inhibit emotional impulsivity, and protect personal boundaries (Goleman, 2001; Stein & Book, 2011). Activity in the left medial prefrontal cortex indicates the level of emotional regulation. The major locus of control is found between the amygdala and the left prefrontal cortex. Social awareness encompasses empathy and involves the amygdala (Goleman, 2001). Empathy is the ability to understand the feelings of others from their perspectives and is critical for building relationships (Stein & Book, 2011). In neurological findings and comparative animal studies, Brothers (1989) pointed to the amygdala and its associated connections with the visual cortex as part of the underlying empathy circuitry. Relationship management, or social skill, is the effectiveness of one's relationship skills and the ability to be attunes to the emotions of others (Goleman, 2001, 2005). Patients with lesions in the prefrontal-amygdala circuits have impaired self-

management and empathy behaviors, despite their cognitive behavior remaining intact (Damasio, 1994).

Significance of EI in Leadership Success

Most workplace bullies are supervisors (Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Namie et al., 2014). Workplace bullying does not occur in organizational cultures that do not permit it (Connors & Smith, 2012; Hsieh, 2013). Leaders create cultures, so the connection to leadership EI is partly associated with workplace bullying (Hodson et al., 2006; Xiaqi et al., 2012). In a study by House (1998), 160 social scientists examined the interrelationships of societal and organizational cultures and organizational leadership. The participants studied 60 cultures, which represented all of the major regions of the world (House, 1998). The scientists in the study by House found that EI transcended cultures, nations, and politics. Yukl (2009) pointed out that successful leaders have higher EI scores than average or poor leaders. Stein and Book (2011) asserted that EI skills account for 48% of what differentiates high- and low-performing leaders.

The GLOBE Project highlighted that EI is not just a U.S. fad or a culturally indigenous belief structure (House, 1998). Dysfunctional personality characteristics often are hidden from view when considering employees through the lens of technical or cognitive skills (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). Employees who are technically superior are naturally more visible than employees with mediocre skills (Yukl, 2009). The attention given to employees with technical skills over social skills is misaligned according to the job requirements (R. Hogan, 1994) and the reason many researchers have pointed out the social incompetence of existing managers (R. Hogan & Kaiser, 2005; R. Hogan et al.,

1990; Yukl, 2009). It also is common for employees who are technically or cognitively skilled to become confident in their abilities at the expense of social competence, which they feign because they can outperform or verbally manipulate situations (Nelson & Hogan, 2009).

In a study of 250 executives, Goleman (2005) found that the predominant perception was that their work required their heads, not their hearts. Weinstein (2006) asserted that leaders who use only numbers and fail to connect with employees create a work environment of low morale and decreased production. The EI of supervisors has been found to have a statistically significant positive effect on personal trust between employers and employees, in which abusive supervision and positive leadership both play moderating roles (Xiaqi et al., 2012). In a study of the impact of leaders' EI on employee trust, abusive supervision was negatively correlated with employee affective trust (-0.421), LMX (-0.359), and employee cognitive trust (-0.468; significant at $p < .01$; $N = 201$; Xiaqi et al., 2012). Kellerman (2004) considered studying what does not work in leadership (i.e., the dark side of leadership) just as important as studying what does work. Bagshaw (2000) argued that although insensitive managers might think that criticism, a loud voice, and threats motivate employees, in reality, such behaviors lead to anger, antagonism, fear, revenge, bad behavior, and a downward spiral in morale.

In a study of almost 4,000 executives and employees, McBer (2001) found that 50% to 70% of the employees reported that their supervisors' EI was linked to organizational climate. In a mixed methods study of school administrators, Maulding, Peters, Roberts, Leonard, and Sparkman (2012) identified building relationships, having

effective communication skills, listening, showing empathy, and building trust as traits of effective leaders. Hodson et al. (2006), as well as Folger and Skarlicki (2008), found that mismanagement and poor leadership could create workplace environments supportive of bullying. Bar-On (2004) found that nearly 30% of leadership success is predicated upon EI and only 6% of occupational performance is attributed to IQ or technical skills.

Effective leaders empathize, understand, and build and maintain teams (R. Hogan et al., 1994). Poor leaders create misery in the workplace by manifesting dysfunctional behavior that is toxic and destructive (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). R. Hogan (2007) estimated that 65% to 75% of all supervisors are considered bad primarily because of their dysfunctional interpersonal patterns. A Gallup poll (as cited in R. Hogan, 2014) showed an 82% potential failure rate for U.S. managers. Leadership derailment is caused by personality defects, troubled interpersonal relationships, and the inability to build teams (Lombardo, Ruderman, & McCauley, 1988).

Bullies and targets exhibit different levels of EI depending on the specific competency. For example, bullies and targets lack self-awareness and self-regulation; bullies have high independence; targets have low independence; bullies have high impulsiveness; targets have low emotional resistance; bullies and targets have low self-regard; and assertiveness, which is low for targets, is high for bullies (Kodžopeljić et al., 2014). Researchers have positively correlated poor leadership with low trust and low EI, and high levels of trust and successful and positive leadership with high EI (Goleman et al., 2001; Jamrog, 2004; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of targets' EI, gender, race/ethnicity, and age to experienced workplace bullying. Workplace bullying is monetarily and culturally important to organizations (Kusy & Holloway, 2010; McEwen & Wingfield, 2003), along with the monetary and emotional costs that impact employee turnover and absenteeism rates, increased health care services, and reduced production (Kusy & Holloway, 2010; Mayhew et al., 2004). Targets spend most of their workdays avoiding bullies, and they feel confused and ashamed that they cannot protect themselves at work (Lutgen-Sandvik et al., 2007).

Researchers have addressed workplace bullying from the perspectives of targets' personalities and characteristics such as conflict avoidant, low EI, vulnerable, popular, intelligent, isolated, demoralized, dependent, reserved, submissive, and introverted (Biehn, 2012; Coyne, Craig, & Smith-Lee Chong, 2004; Randall, 2002). Researchers also have addressed workplace bullying from the perspectives of the bullies: dominant, lack of self-regard, tough managerial style, incompetent, narcissistic, controlling, and low empathy (Biehn, 2012; Coyne et al., 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003). Organizational culture and society were found in the review of the literature to play roles in the phenomenon of workplace bullying (Adams, 1997; Namie, 2003, 2014a; Neuman & Baron, 1998). The theoretical framework also addressed envy and an imbalance of power. What was not addressed within the framework or the literature review was the EI of either targets or bullies.

Some researchers have alluded to bullies having low EI (e.g., Goleman et al., 2001); however, their observations have never been measured. Although there is some overlap in the constructs of personality and EI, personality is static, but EI can be changed through training and practice (Goleman, 2005). Any correlations found in the RQs might provide additional data for leaders to use in their attempts to mitigate workplace bullying in their respective organizations. In this study, the target EI, which is different from personality, was measured and combined with demographic predictors (age, gender, race/ethnicity) to analyze the role of EI within the construct of workplace bullying.

Workplace bullying manifests as repeated aggression and hostile behavior toward other people. It has been defined as a pattern of hostility over at least 6 months meant to undermine the confidence of the targets. Factors relevant to targets that contribute to the phenomenon are personality, behavior, lack of self-regard, and conflict avoidance. Factors relevant to bullies are envy, personality, and maladaptive behavior traits. Factors relevant to organizations are culture, poor leadership, and the imbalance of power between bullies and targets. Bully research originated in Scandinavia and spread across the globe, with the United States being one of the last Western nations to join in the research. Namie et al. (2014) estimated that approximately 65.6 million U.S. workers are affected by workplace bullying, with supervisors being the predominant perpetrators.

There is no universal theory or specific causality for workplace bullying, but target and bully research has become more widespread, with greater emphasis on the behaviors and personalities of targets and bullies, with an increasing amount of research

on organizations and the role of leadership. Workplace bullying is found in organizations that are led by low-EI leaders who create environments conducive to workplace bullying.

As mentioned previously, there are three models within the construct of EI: mixed, ability, and trait. Approaching this study from the perspective of target EI and seeking to determine a correlation between ability EI and workplace bullying might be perceived as blaming the targets for having low EI. The mixed model gives a total EI score and provides a functional measurement for the analysis. As with ability EI, the score designates good or bad, positive or negative. The mixed model, to a lesser extent than the ability model, addresses score differential to denote behavior dissonance. For the purposes of this study, however, a single score was desired to measure whether EI could predict workplace bullying, despite EI being high or low. Trait EI measures whether the behavior exists without positive or negative judgment associated with it and fits the desired model. Chapter 3 addresses the research design, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter 4 presents the data analyses, including the relationship of EI, age, gender, and race/ethnicity on workplace bullying. Chapter 5 provides my interpretation of the data, limitations of the study, and implications for future research.

Chapter 3: Research Method

In this quantitative study, I examined the relationships between experienced workplace bullying and target EI, including the relationships among target gender, race/ethnicity, and age and whether target demographics predicted the relationship between EI and workplace bullying. I also examined the interactions among target demographics (gender, race/ethnicity, and age). This study is expected to contribute to the literature by adding data to the construct of workplace bullying and offering potential suggestions for further research. Targets' EI, gender, race/ethnicity, and age were the predictor variables, and workplace bullying was the criterion variable (the DV). This chapter includes explanations and descriptions of the research design, sample, and source of sampling; instrumentation; data collection; and data analysis. This quantitative study entailed the use of Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analyses to assess the relationships between the participants' demographics (gender, race/ethnicity, and age) and EI with experienced workplace bullying.

Research Design and Approach

A quantitative survey design was used to investigate the impact of targets' EI, gender, race/ethnicity, and age on workplace bullying. An experimental design was inappropriate because EI is an individual difference characteristic and cannot be manipulated. A survey design facilitated the collection of the data. The survey was cross-sectional, with the data collected at one point in time through the use of self-administered questionnaires (Creswell, 2009). The surveys were hosted by the WBI, located in

Bellingham, WA, and were conducted via the Internet. The data were transferred into an Excel spreadsheet preparatory to entering the data into SPSS for analysis.

The criterion (DV) was experienced workplace bullying, measured on a 5-point scale on the NAQ. EI was one of the predictors and was a continuous variable. The demographic variables of gender, race/ethnicity, and age were explored as IVs to help to explain the DV. Age was measured as a continuous variable. Gender was dummy coded as 0 for female and 1 for male, and race/ethnicity was dummy coded to make group comparisons.

Setting and Sample

The WBI has accumulated a list comprising a pool of more than 110,000 potential participants. Drs. Gary and Ruth Namie volunteered their list of potential candidates for this research, and they were notified of the research via a singular blog post. Other participants were notified via my business website and an article written for the local newspaper. Potential participants had to be 18 years of age as part of a convenience sampling method, a form of nonprobability sampling. This method involved selecting the participants based upon their availability and convenience (Creswell, 2009). Although using a nonprobability sample might have weakened the external validity of the study (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008), use of this method generated a sufficient cross-section of participants compared to a random sampling approach. Using a clustering approach was more appropriate than a stratified sampling or multistage sampling, given the infinite nature of the target population and the time constraints of conducting the research.

The objective in conducting this study was to determine whether there was a relationship between target EI and workplace bullying, including the demographics previously described (i.e., age, race/ethnicity, and gender). A power analysis was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size. A high statistical power improves the probability that the findings are not due to chance; the minimum acceptable power is 80% (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2008). The standard alpha level for psychological research is 0.05.

The effect size was calculated to determine the appropriate sample size sufficient to quantify the strength of the variable relationships. Past researchers have examined EI relationships that ranged from medium to large effect sizes ($r = .15$ to $r = .25$; Clemmer, 2013; Ferguson, 2014; Griffin, 2013; Wardell, 2011). The number of tested predictors was four, and the number of total predictors was five. Using an alpha of 0.05, a statistical power of 0.95, and a medium effect size ($r = .15$) when conducting regressions, the total sample size according to G*Power's multiple regression was calculated at 129 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009).

Procedures

All potential participants were invited via e-mail, newspaper columns, blogs, word of mouth, and personal invitations. I used WBI's list of 10,000 potential participants and sent an invitation about the study through a blog post. The WBI has been conducting survey research for over 10 years and has collected a subscription list of people who have been the targets of bullying or are interested in workplace bullying. Each invitee who chose to participate had to agree to accept the terms of the consent form

before downloading the form for their personal files and taking the survey by way of a secure website. Responses to the demographic survey determined whether a participant would continue with the process. Participants were required to be a minimum age of 18 years of age, employed for a minimum of 1 year, and the targets of workplace bullying. If the individual was under 18 years of age, had less than 1 year of work experience, or had not been a target of bullying, the individual would not remain in the study and complete the process. The informed consent page briefed participants about the procedures, confidentiality protocol, voluntary nature of their participation, risks of participating, and benefits of being in the study. It also provided my contact information. No mention of an employer was required. There has been no record of anyone experiencing trauma or high anxiety as the result of completing previous NAQ or TEIQue assessments.

Instruments

Once the participants voluntarily agreed to join the study, they were asked to complete three assessments: a demographic questionnaire, the TEIQue-SF, and the NAQ. The demographics questionnaire captured information about age, gender, and race/ethnicity, as well as information about length of employment, highest level of education, primary area of work, role or position within the company, organization type, and organization size. The participants completed the TEIQue-SF, a self-assessment of their EI. The NAQ determined whether the participants were bullied, and how often. Each instrument is a forced-choice approach requiring an answer for each question. Following data collection, the data were exported into an Excel file and then entered into SPSS for analysis. The survey was open for approximately 5 weeks. Two blogs were

posted, one on my website and the other on the WBI website. An article in the local newspaper was run that also had a web presence, and I spoke before an audience of approximately 550 people at a Midwestern university on the topic of workplace bullying and invited each attendee to participate (the website was shown on the screen at the end of the presentation).

Demographics Questionnaire

The minimum age for a participant was 18 years to ensure that minors did not participate. Each participant had a minimum of 1 year of work experience to provide sufficient opportunity to qualify as a target (minimum of 6 months is required by definition). Gender was dummy coded (female = 0 and male = 1). Race/Ethnicity was coded using White as the reference category, with the four coded race/ethnicities being Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Other. Age was a continuous variable.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form

The TEIQue-SF was derived from the full-length assessment, which holds 153 items; each scale includes two items (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). The TEIQue-SF is a validated instrument (S. G. Smith, Petrides, Green, & Sevdalis, 2012). Participants respond to each item using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*completely disagree*) to 7 (*completely agree*). Scores on the TEIQue-SF range between 30 and 210, with higher scores indicating higher trait EI.

The TEIQue-SF provides a global trait EI and four separate facets (Petrides, 2009a):

- Emotionality: Individuals are in touch with their own feelings and others' feelings. Included facets are empathy, emotional perception, emotional expression, and relationships.
- Self-control: Individuals are in control of desires and impulses. Included facets are emotional regulation, impulsiveness, and stress management.
- Sociability: Individuals engage in social relationships and influence. Included facets are emotional management, assertiveness, and social awareness.
- Well-being: Individuals feel positive, happy, and fulfilled based on past actions and future expectations. Included facets are optimism, happiness, and self-esteem.

Petrides (2009a) explained that the global trait EI score is a broad index of general emotional functioning (see Table 8). For the purposes of this study, only the global trait EI was used for the statistical analysis, unless an analysis of the data was sufficiently compelling to break down the analysis into the following four facets.

Trait EI has been defined as a grouping of self-perceptions situated at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides et al., 2007), which accounts for criterion variance and incremental validity above the Giant Three and Big Five personality models (Petrides & Furnham, 2006; Petrides, Niven, & Mouskounti, 2006; Petrides et al., 2007). Trait EI was appropriate for the current study because of the distinct advantages over other EI models. First, trait EI acknowledges the subjectivity of emotional experiences.

Second, trait EI integrates with differential psychology and does not operate separately from the larger body of scientific knowledge. Third, the general nature of trait EI provides a framework on which to conduct measurements using EI-related constructs or general questionnaires. Fourth, trait EI is applicable to other forms of intelligence (Ferguson, 2014; Petrides, 2010).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for TEIQue-SF

Facets	*M*	*SD*	Cronbach's	No. of items
Well-being	5.43	1.01	.80	6
Self-control	4.62	0.94	.65	6
Emotionality	5.25	0.90	.73	8
Sociability	4.97	0.89	.69	6
Global trait EI	5.11	0.89	.69	30

Validity and reliability. The theory of trait EI emerged from the distinction between ability EI and trait EI. The sampling domain of trait EI consists of 15 facets, four factors, and a global trait EI derived from a 153-item questionnaire. The 30-item short form (TEIQue-SF) is based upon the full form and includes two items from each of the 15 facets. The TEIQue-SF does not yield scores on the 15 individual facets; however, in addition to global trait EI, it yields scores on the four factors of well-being, self-control, emotionality and sociability (Petrides, 2011). These tend to have lower internal consistencies (around .69) than in the full form (Petrides, 2009b). Strong construct reliability has been found between the TEIQue and EI (Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010). The survey has been normed in multiple languages, professions, and industries (Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl, & Rindermann, 2008; Martins et al., 2010; Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy, & Roy, 2007). Conceptually, trait EI has an advantage

over instruments such as the Big Five and Giant Three and has superior criterion and predictive validity relative to other EI questionnaires (Freudenthaler et al., 2008; Petrides et al., 2010).

In 2013, the British Psychological Society (BPS) compared five EI assessments for quality of documentation, quality of materials, norms and reference groups, construct validity, criterion-related validity, and reliability. Each assessment was rated up to four stars for the six criteria. The TEIQue rated the highest of the group with 22 stars (see Table 9). The following scoring criterion was used: 1.0 star was considered inadequate, 2.0 stars indicated that the survey was no longer used, 3.0 stars meant adequate or reasonable, and 4.0 stars meant good/excellent. Global trait EI was measured using four factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. Each factor had multiple facets, such as happiness, self-esteem, emotion regulation, impulse control, stress management, and empathy, to name a few.

Validity represents instrument accuracy and the degree to which a particular test score correlates with scores on subsequent tests measuring the same construct (Singleton & Straits, 2009). Construct validity within the construct of EI has received little attention, and the research that has been conducted has focused on ability and a mixed methods approach (Joseph, Jin, Newman, & O'Boyle, 2015; Van Rooy, Viswesvaran, & Pluta, 2005; Van Rooy, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). To date, there is no evidence that trait EI has been measured for construct validity against either ability EI or mixed methods EI.

In a 2013 review of the TEIQue by the BPS, construct validity, criterion-related validity, and overall validity were measured on a 5-star basis, with

1 = inadequate, 2 = not now use, 3 = adequate or reasonable, 4 = good, and 5 = excellent. Construct validity scored 4.0 stars, criterion-related validity scored 3.0 stars, and overall reliability scored 3.5 stars.

In a study of 352 participants, Global trait EI had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 (Freudenthaler et al., 2008). In a study of 455 men and 653 women (N = 1,108), using the TEIQue-SF, Global trait EI had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 for men and 0.88 for women (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). Cooper and Petrides (2010) recruited participants from university campuses and the general community between the ages of 17 and 80 years and repeated the previous study. The sample comprised 432 males and 416 females (N = 848) with a mean age of 26.97 years. In the second study using the TEIQue-SF, global trait EI had Cronbach's alphas of 0.88 (men) and 0.87 (women), respectively.

Table 9

BPS Review Star Ratings on EI Assessments

Overall BPS criteria	TEIQue	EIQ	EIQ16	Bar-On EQ-i	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso
Quality of documentation	***½	***	***	****	****
Quality of materials	****	****	****	****	****
Norms and reference groups	****	***	***½	***	***
Construct validity	****	****	*	***	***
Criterion-related validity	***	*	***	***	***
Reliability	***½	***	****	***	***
Totals	22	18	17.5	20	20

Note. From BPS website. Retrieved from http://ptc.bps.org.uk/

Negative Acts Questionnaire

The NAQ is a behavioral perception questionnaire developed by Einarsen et al. (1994) and designed to assess perceived exposure to bullying and victimization at work. The 22 items on the questionnaire describe behavior that could be perceived as bullying without using the actual term: For example, items describe "spreading gossip and rumors

about you," "being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work," and "persistent criticism of your work and effort." The NAQ is free for use in noncommercial research projects. The 22 questions are answered using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*yes, almost daily*). The NAQ was selected because of its popularity in measuring workplace aggression and its established reliability.

Validity and reliability of the NAQ. Einarsen and Raknes introduced the NAQ in 1991 to measure perceived exposure to bullying and victimization at work. Up to that time, workplace bullying had lacked a standardized measurement tool (Einarsen & Raknes, 1991; Hoel et al., 1999). The scale has satisfactory reliability and construct validity (Einarsen et al., 2009). The NAQ is a widely used instrument for measuring workplace incivility, harassment, and bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009; Nam, Kim, Kim, Koo, & Park, 2010; Notelaers, Einarsen, De Witte, & Vermunt, 2006), and according to Einarsen et al. (2009), the NAQ, as an instrument, was designed to measure workplace bullying. It has been validated in multiple verticals and languages. Einarsen et al. found that the NAQ correlated with measures of mental health, psychosocial work environment, and leadership, indicating good construct validity.

With the increased focus on negative behavior in the workplace, researchers have found that using a latent class cluster approach (i.e., the NAQ) to measure the phenomenon of workplace incivility, and so on, has provided greater construct validity than the traditional approach, such as the Leymann (1990) Inventory of Psychological Terror (LIPT), or what has been called the operational classification method (Notelaers et

al., 2006). The NAQ has been proposed as a standardized instrument for the measurement of workplace bullying (Einarsen et. al, 2009).

Cowie, Naylor, Rivers, Smith, and Pereira (2002) examined current methods for measuring workplace bullying. The researchers included Leymann's (1990) LIPT; the revised LIPT or LIPT-II (Niedl, 1996); the Work Harassment Scale (Björkqvist et al., 1994); the NAQ (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997); and two other questionnaires in their study. Only the NAQ had independent evidence of validity (Cowie et al., 2002).

Einarsen and Hoel (2001) found the Cronbach's alpha for the NAQ was 0.91. Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2007) reported that the Cronbach's alpha for the NAQ in the United States was 0.92. The internal consistency of the NAQ, which measures how well the items on a scale measure a single construct, was 0.87 (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) and 0.92 (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), respectively. In a study of 830 men and 796 women (N = 1626), Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the internal reliability of the NAQ were high for male and female participants (0.91-0.95; Tsuno, Kawakami, Inoue, & Abe, 2010). In a study by Matthiesen and Einarsen (2004) of 102 participants using the NAQ for experienced bullying behavior, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.85. A total of 190 female nurses in a university hospital in Korea were assessed using the NAQ for workplace bullying, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.926 (Nam et al., 2010). The NAQ has been normed with more than 60 studies and more than 40,000 respondents from about 40 countries (Einarsen et al., 2009).

Data Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS. Demographic characteristics of the sample included the mean, standard deviation, and range for continuous variables and frequency and percentages for categorical scaled variables.

1. Does targets' EI predict experienced workplace bullying?

H_{01}: Targets' EI does not predict experienced workplace bullying.

H_{a1}: Targets' EI predicts experienced workplace bullying.

Hypothesis 1 was tested using a Pearson's correlation. The DV was bullying, as measured by the NAQ. EI (IV), a continuous variable, was the predictor variable. I also analyzed the four factors of EI: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability using four Pearson's correlations with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. To reject Null Hypothesis 1, the *F* statistic for the IV needed to be statistically significant.

2. Does targets' EI predict experienced workplace bullying, after gender, race/ethnicity, and age have been controlled for?

H_{02}: Targets' EI does not predict workplace bullying after controlling for gender, race/ethnicity, and age.

H_{a2}: Targets' EI predicts workplace bullying after controlling for gender, race/ethnicity, and age.

A single multiple regression was performed with the predictor variables of gender, race/ethnicity, and age. Gender was dummy coded into two categories: 0 (Female) and 1 (Male). Race/Ethnicity was dummy coded to make group comparisons as

follows: White (0 0 0 0) being the reference group, followed by Black (1 0 0 0); Hispanic (0 1 0 0); Asian (0 0 1 0); and Other (0 0 0 1). Age was a continuous variable. The gender, race/ethnicity, and age variables were entered into the regression as IVs. The variables were tested to determine whether the delta R^2 was significant between the variables. For Null Hypothesis 2 to be rejected, the overall F value for the regression needed to be statistically significant, and at least one of the predictor variables had to show a statistically significant t value.

3. Do interactions among targets' EI, and gender, race/ethnicity, and age predict experienced workplace bullying after gender, race/ethnicity, and age and the main effect of EI have been controlled for?

H_{03}: None of the interaction pairs of EI-gender, EI-race/ethnicity, and EI-age predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying.

H_{a3}: At least one interaction pair of EI-gender, EI-race/ethnicity, and EI-age predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying.

For Hypothesis 3, I performed a two-step hierarchal multiple regression. In Step 1, EI, age, race/ethnicity, and gender were entered as predictor variables. The DV was bullying, as measured by the NAQ. In Step 2, the interaction terms were calculated involving EI were entered as predictor variables. The interaction terms were calculated through multiplication, which meant EI multiplied by the race/ethnicity variables, EI multiplied by gender, and EI multiplied by age. For Null Hypothesis 3 to be rejected, delta R^2 for Step 2 needed to be statistically significant, and at least one of the predictor variables for the interactions had to show a statistically significant t value.

4. What combination of variables best predicts targets' experienced workplace bullying?

Having tested the first three hypotheses, I planned on creating a best fit model.

Ethical Considerations

The study commenced after Walden University's Institutional Review Board granted approval (IRB approval #07-14-15-0294242). The IRB is responsible for protecting and enforcing ethical standards that align with university and U.S. federal regulations. Any student who wants to conduct research through Walden University is required to receive approval; otherwise, no credit is offered. The noted exceptions to IRB approval are literature reviews, hypothetical research designs, and faculty projects that are not dependent on Walden resources, participants, and funding.

Confidentiality is required in any study, so all participants were provided with an informed consent form that they had to sign before being allowed to complete the surveys. Their agreement was confirmed once they took the surveys. This process ensured that their participation was voluntary and withdrawal from the process was acceptable at any time. There had been no previous recorded problems of participants completing previous NAQ or EI assessments, so there were no expected risks as the result of high anxiety or stress to the participants in this study.

Included with the informed consent was an explanation of how confidentiality and anonymity would be maintained. Each participant received a copy of the consent form (if desired via a link to download) and was required to agree to the terms. The information

was provided on a website at the beginning of the study. There was no conflict of interest with the employer of any participant.

Threats to Validity

There are several threats to validity, namely, internal, external, construct, and statistical conclusion, in any study (Creswell, 2009). The threats to internal validity are ambiguous temporal precedence, confounding, selection bias, instrument change, and experimenter bias. Ambiguous temporal precedence addresses the lack of clarity about which variable occurred first and might yield confusion regarding cause and effect. Confounding addresses changes in the DV and might be attributed to variations in the degree of a third variable. Selective bias refers to difference between existing groups and the IV. If too many participants share similar characteristics, there is a threat to internal validity. Instrument change can be an issue with self-reporting measures given at different times. This was not a concern with this study. Experimenter bias happens when the researcher inadvertently affects the outcome through unintentional behavior by influencing participants. This was controlled through the collection process because no names or personal data were collected and all surveys were conducted online and anonymously (Cook, 1979).

External validity also was a concern. The random sampling design limited the potential equal representation of demographics. Each participant was selected and then invited via e-mail and mailing lists, which limited the potential pool. One-way external validity was controlled was through the neutral approach of testing. Another threat to

external validity was making incorrect generalizations to other contexts, such as age, gender, race/ethnicity, or EI scores based upon the random sampling.

The threat to construct validity was how the constructs of EI and workplace bullying have been operationalized. To control EI, I chose to use the TEIQue-SF assessment for brevity and the specific construct of measurement versus ability EI, as described earlier. The social threat to construct validity was possible through participants' guessing my intent and wishing to influence the outcome. The participants also might have become anxious taking the assessments because of the experienced trauma and embarrassment. Participants also might have become normed and in denial of past events.

It is important for researchers to evaluate the data accurately to ensure that the statistical tests' assumptions are not violated. Statistical conclusion validity also is a threat. The threat is concluding a statistical relationship between the variables where none exists or perhaps finding no relationship where one exists. Every analysis is based upon assumptions concerning the data and the procedures used to conduct the analysis. Finally, a normal distribution was assumed present.

Summary

Chapter 3 detailed the methodology. This quantitative survey design evaluated the effect that targets' EI had on workplace bullying modified by three demographics (gender, race/ethnicity, age). A Pearson's correlation was performed for RQ1, a multiple regression analysis was performed for RQ2, and a hierarchal multiple regression analysis was performed for RQ3, all using SPSS.

I used password-protected, Internet-based surveys to collect the data. Each participant took a short survey to obtain demographic information (gender, race/ethnicity, age) and the TEIQue-SF to measure EI. The NAQ was used to measure the level of perceived workplace bullying by each participant. Explanations of the reliability and validity of the TEIQue-SF and NAQ were provided in detail. Chapter 3 clarified the RQs and hypotheses; addressed the ethical considerations; and explained the setting, sampling, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter 4 provides an account of the data analyses, including the relationship of EI, age, gender, and race/ethnicity on workplace bullying. Chapter 5 presents the interpretation of the data, limitations of the study, and implications for future research.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the relationships between target EI and experienced workplace bullying as well as to examine the relationship with experienced workplace bullying and target EI after controlling for target demographics (gender, race/ethnicity, and age). I also examined whether interactions among the target demographics of gender, race/ethnicity, and age, with EI predicted workplace bullying. A set of predictor variables that best explained the variance in targets' perceptions of workplace bullying was also examined. The scope of the study encompassed four RQs to determine (a) whether target EI predicted workplace bullying; (b) whether EI predicted workplace bullying after gender, race/ethnicity, and age were controlled for; (c) whether interactions among target EI and gender, race/ethnicity, and age predicted workplace bullying after gender, race/ethnicity, and age and the main effect of EI were controlled for; and (d) what combination of variables best predicted target experienced workplace bullying. This chapter provides an overview of the sample composition, reports the statistical results of the hypotheses, and describes all follow-up tests.

Sample Demographics

Of the 165 participants who completed the surveys, 14 did not qualify and were removed because their NAQ score indicated that they did not experience workplace bullying, thereby reducing the final sample size to 151 participants (see Table 10). The demographic survey showed that the number of female participants (n = 136) significantly outnumbered the number of male participants (n = 15) and that White

participants (n = 115) were more prevalent than the other ethnic groups combined (n = 36). The average age of the participants was 46.7 years (SD = 10.75). Ages ranged from 21 to 70 years, with the majority of participants (63.6%) between the ages of 40 and 59 years.

Table 10

Sample Gender and Race/Ethnicity Demographics

Demographics of participants	*n*	%
Gender		
Female	136	90.1
Male	15	9.9
Race/Ethnicity		
White	115	76.2
Black	7	4.6
Hispanic	8	5.3
Asian	5	3.3
Other	16	10.6
Total no. of participants	151	100.0

Nondegreed respondents (high school = 9.3%, vocational school = 11.3%, some college = 23.2%, other = 11.3%) made up 45.8% of the sample. The remaining degreed categories were bachelor's (23.8%), master's (22.5%), doctoral (5.3%), and professional degree (2.6%), for a cumulative 54.2% of the total sample having a bachelor's degree or higher (see Table 11).

Table 11

Sample Education Demographics

Education	*n*	%
Non-degreed		
High school	14	9.3
Vocational school	17	11.3
Some college	35	23.2
Other	3	2.0
Degreed		
Bachelor's	36	23.8
Master's	34	22.5
Doctoral	8	5.3
Professional	4	2.6
Total no. of participants	151	100.0

Descriptive Statistics

Table 12 displays the descriptive statistics for participants' age, TEIQue, and NAQ. The participants' ages ranged from 21 to 71, with an average age of M = 46.71 and a standard deviation of SD = 10.75. The NAQ average score was M = 73.4 and SD = 13.87. The TEIQue scores had an average of M = 154.0 and an SD = 23.49. Table 13 displays the descriptive statistics for the TEIQue-SF EI assessment and the NAQ workplace bullying assessment broken out by gender and race/ethnicity. Female participants scored higher (M = 154.40) than male participants (M = 150.40) on the TEIQue assessment. The difference was not statistically significant, $t(149)=.873$, p = .384. For race/ethnicity, Asian participants (M = 161.00) scored the highest on the TEIQue, followed by White (M = 155.34), Hispanic (M = 151.86), Black (M = 151.29), and Other (M = 144.00). The difference in TEIQue-SF scores among the five ethnic groups was not statistically significant, $F(4,146)=.873$, p = .482.

For the NAQ, the female participants (M = 73.76) scored higher than the male participants (M = 70.47), although the difference was not statistically significant,

t(149) = .624, *p* = .534. Other (*M* = 78.38) scored the highest on the NAQ, followed by Black (*M* = 78.14), Asian (*M* = 74.60), Hispanic (*M* = 73.50), and White (*M* = 72.41) participants. The difference in NAQ scores among the groups was not statistically significant, *F*(4,146) = .904, *p* = .463.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Age, NAQ, and TEIQue-SF

	Min	*Max*	*M*	*SD*
Age	21.0	71.0	46.71	10.75
NAQ	46.0	110.0	73.44	13.87
TEIQue	82.0	200.0	154.00	23.50

Note. *N* = 151.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for the TEIQue and NAQ by Gender and Race/Ethnicity

		TEIQue		NAQ	
Gender	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Female	136	154.40	23.48	73.76	13.62
Male	15	150.40	24.20	70.47	16.16
Race/Ethnicity					
White	115	155.34	22.78	72.41	13.66
Black	7	151.29	32.50	78.14	17.18
Hispanic	8	151.86	18.41	73.50	14.92
Asian	5	161.00	22.60	74.60	8.68
Other	16	144.00	26.96	78.38	14.80
Total	151	154.00	23.50	73.44	13.87

Correlation and Reliability

The study contained three continuous variables: NAQ, TEIQue, and age. Pearson’s correlation was performed between these variables (see table 14). For the NAQ and the TEIQue, *r*(149) = -.102, *p* = .214; for the NAQ and age, *r*(149)=.027, *p* = .746; and for the TEIQue and age, *r*(149) = .053, *p* = .521. The NAQ and the TEIQue were

composite scores, relying on 22 and 30 items, respectively. Cronbach's alpha for the NAQ was .851 and .882 for the TEIQue (N = 151).

Table 14

Pearson's Correlations Between Age, TEAQue, and NAQ

	Age	NAQ	TEIQue
Age			
NAQ	.027		
	.746		
TEIQue	.053	-.102	
	.521	.214	

Note: N = 151

Statistical Analysis

The following sections cover the analyses to address each RQ and associated hypotheses. Included are the underlying tests of the assumptions to run the respective analyses for each set.

Research Question 1

The relationship between EI and workplace bullying was assessed by means of Pearson's correlation. The Pearson's correlation was not statistically significant, $r(149) = -.102$, $p = .214$; therefore, the hypothesis that EI predicted workplace bullying was not supported. Because the global EI trait score showed no statistical significance, I analyzed the four factors of EI: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (see Table 15). Cronbach's alpha for well-being was .77, for self-control .59, for emotionality .68, and for sociability .70. These individual factors were assessed with EI to determine whether any of them predicted workplace bullying. The hypothesis was tested using four Pearson's correlations with a Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, given an adjusted alpha ($p < .05$) of $p < .0125$. Well-being was the only factor before adjustment to

have a statistically significant correlation with NAQ, $r_{(149)} = -.188$, $R^2 = .035$, $p = .021$. Yet, at the adjusted alpha level, well-being was not statistically significant. Therefore, there was no evidence to support the hypothesis that EI or its constituent factors were predictive of workplace bullying.

Table 15

Correlations Between Workplace Bullying (NAQ) and Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality, and Sociability

	1	2	3	4	5
(1) NAQ					
(2) Well-being	-.188*				
	.021				
(3) Self-control	-.069	.520**			
	.398	.000			
(4) Emotionality	.001	.420**	.310**		
	.989	.000	.000		
(5) Sociability	-.048	.557**	.384**	.328**	
	.559	.000	.000	.000	

Note. $N = 151$
* Correlation is significant at $p < .05$
**Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

Research Question 2

RQ2 was tested with hierarchical multiple regression. The criterion variable was NAQ. At the first stage, the demographic variables of age, gender, and race/ethnicity were the predictors. Gender and race/ethnicity were dummy coded. The code for gender was 1 for male, 0 for female. For race/ethnicity, there were four variables, Black, Asian, Hispanic, and Other, with White as the reference category. At the second stage of the regression, EI was added.

Tests were run to determine whether the assumptions for the planned analysis were met, based on the full model, with all predictors added. A histogram of the standardized residuals (Figure 4) showed evidence of homoscedasticity, with the plot

showing broad normality. The Shapiro-Wilk statistic was $.992_{(151)}$, $p = .532$. A scatterplot of the standardized predicted values and residuals indicated that heteroscedasticity might have been an issue, with there being some clustering (see Figure 5). However, a Breusch-Pagan test for heteroscedasticity was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(7) = 1.56$, $p = .980$.

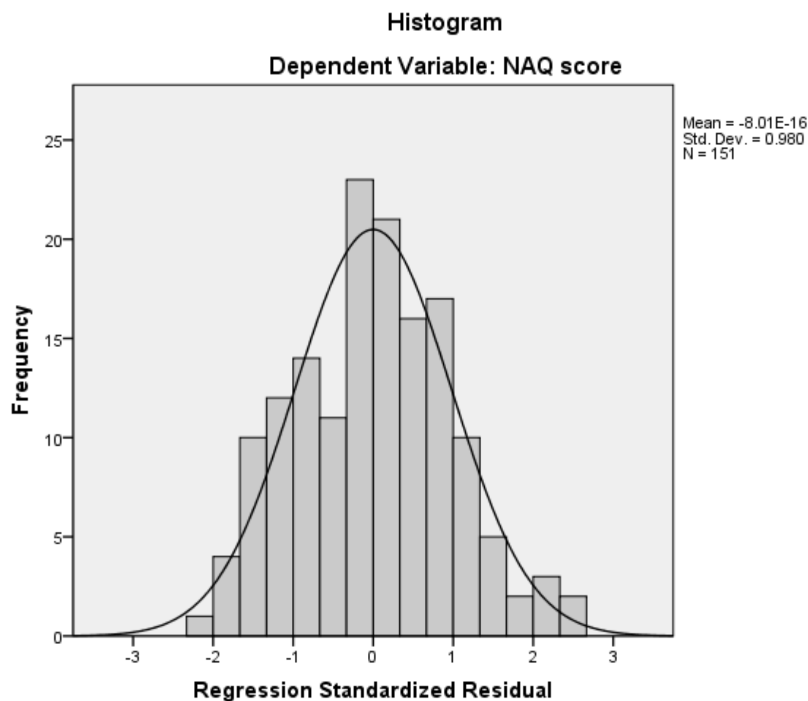

Figure 4. Histogram of the standardized residuals for NAQ scores.

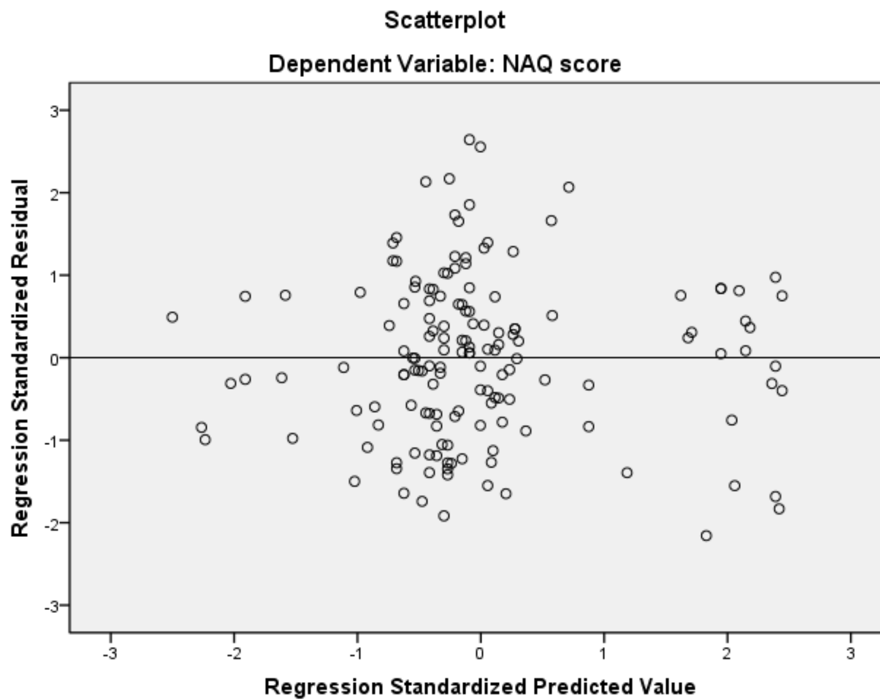

Figure 5. Scatterplot of standardized predicted values and standardized residuals for NAQ scores, with NAQ as the criterion and gender, age, race/ethnicity, and EI as predictors.

The first step of the multiple regression was not statistically significant, $F_{(6,144)} = .811$, $p = .563$, $R^2 = .033$. None of the individual demographic predictors had a significant impact on NAQ (see Table 16). The second stage of the regression, where EI was added, did not lead to a significant change in R^2, $\Delta = .008$, $F_{(1,143)} = 1.188$, $p = .278$. After the addition of EI, the regression was not statistically significant, $F_{(7,143)} = .866$, $p = .535$, $R^2 = .041$. EI did not have a statistically significant relationship to NAQ, $\beta = -.053$, $p = .278$. The hypothesis that EI predicts experienced workplace bullying, after race/ethnicity and/or age have been controlled for, was not supported.

Table 16

Hierarchical Regression With NAQ as the Criterion. The Predictor Variables Age, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity Were Entered at the First Step, EI at the Second

	ΔR^2	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1	.033			
Age		.07	.11	.057
Gender		-3.60	3.85	-.078
Black		7.25	5.60	.110
Asian		2.42	6.38	.031
Hispanic		1.15	5.14	.019
Other		6.15	3.74	.137
Step 2	.008			
Age		.08	.11	.060
Gender		-3.84	3.85	-.083
Black		7.11	5.59	.108
Asian		2.75	6.38	.036
Hispanic		.95	5.14	.015
Other		5.57	3.78	.124
TEIQue		-.05	.05	-1.090

Research Question 3

RQ3 was tested using hierarchical regression. NAQ was the criterion variable. At the first stage of the regression, the predictor variables were age, gender, race/ethnicity, and EI. Gender and race/ethnicity were dummy coded using the same scheme as in RQ2. At the second stage of the regression, the variables entered were the interactions involving EI, which were EI age; EI gender; and EI race/ethnicity (Black, Asian, Hispanic, Other).

Diagnostic tests were performed on the complete model before performing the regression. The histogram of the residuals (see Figure 6) for Step 2 indicated that they were normally distributed, with the Shapiro-Wilk statistic being $.993_{(151)}$, $p = .678$. A scatterplot of the standardized residuals and predicted values (see Figure 7) indicated a clump of cases with standardized predicted values close to zero, with a scattering of cases

outside this clump. It is possible that this scatterplot indicated heteroscedasticity. A Breusch-Pagan test for heteroscedasticity was performed. It was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(13) = 2.91$, $p = .998$.

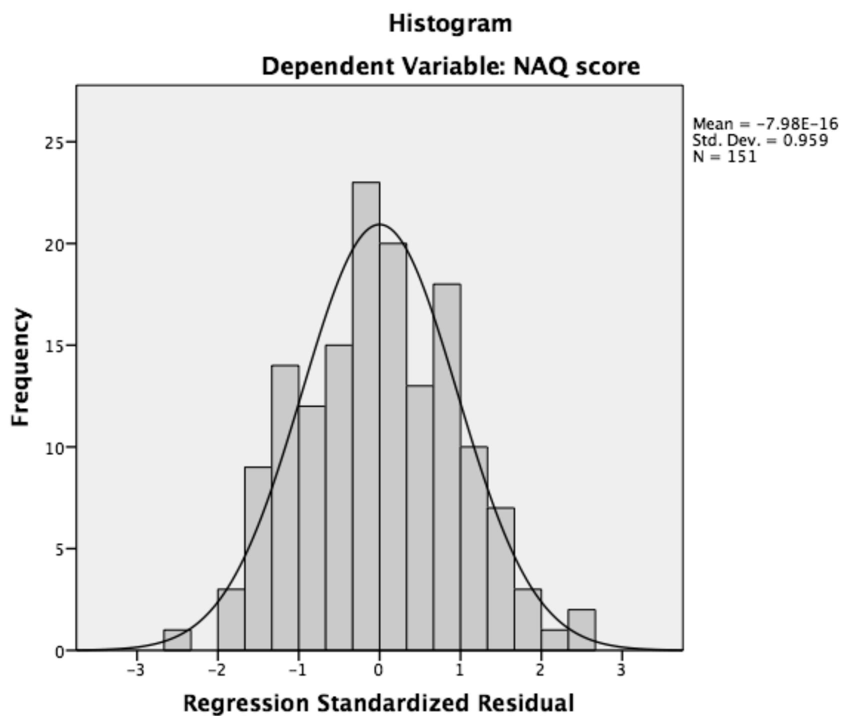

Figure 6. Histogram of standardized residuals for NAQ scores, with NAQ as the criterion and gender, age, race/ethnicity, EI, and the interactions with EI as predictors.

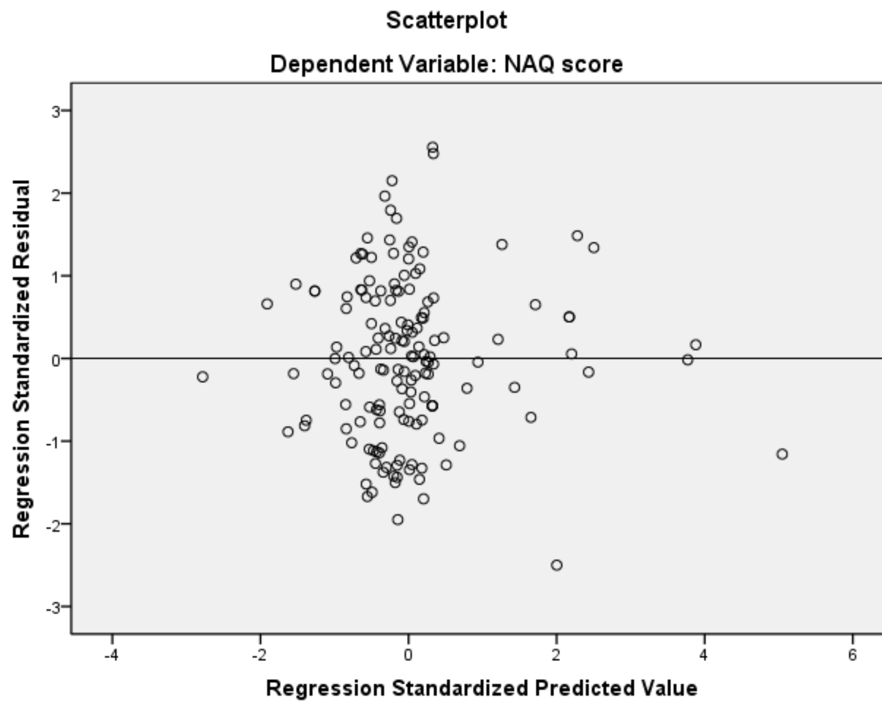

Figure 7. Scatterplot of standardized predicted values and standardized residuals for NAQ scores, with NAQ as the criterion and gender, age, race/ethnicity, EI, and the interactions with EI as predictors.

The first step of the multiple regression was not statistically significant, $F_{(7,143)} = .866$, $p = .535$, $R^2 = .041$ (see Table 17). None of the individual demographic predictors had a significant impact on NAQ. The second stage of the regression, where the interactions of EI were added, did not lead to significant change in R^2, Δ =.062, $F_{(6,137)} = 1.589$, $p = .155$. After the addition of the EI interactions, the regression was not statistically significant, $F_{(13,137)} = 1.211$, $p = .278$, $R^2 = .103$. The main effect of the ethnicity “Other,” after addition, had a statistically significant relationship to NAQ, $\beta = 1.165$, $p = .016$, as did the interaction between EI and “Other,” $\beta = -1.035$, $p = .031$. However, because the overall regression was not significant and the addition of the interactions did not lead to a significant increase in R^2, the hypothesis that interactions

involving EI predicted experienced workplace bullying, after gender, age, race/ethnicity, and EI have been controlled for, was not supported.

Table 17

Regression Analysis of Target EI Interacting With Demographics

	ΔR^2	*B*	*SE*	*β*
Step 1	.041			
Age		.08	.11	.060
Gender		-3.84	3.86	-.083
Black		7.11	5.60	.108
Asian		2.75	6.40	.036
Hispanic		.95	5.14	.015
Other		5.57	3.78	.124
TEIQue		-.05	.05	-.091
Step 2	.062			
Age		.18	.95	.139
Gender		7.50	25.73	.161
Black		60.06	31.54	.914
Asian		42.76	50.29	.554
Hispanic		72.72	45.51	1.211
Other		52.31	21.54	1.165
TEIQue		.07	.30	.111
EI_Age		.00	.01	-.069
EI_Gender		-.08	.17	-2.53
EI_Black		-.35	.20	-.812
EI_Asian		-.25	.31	-.529
EI_Hispanic		-.49	.30	-1.195
EI_Other		-.32	.145	-1.035

Research Question 4

The first three hypotheses were not supported, so RQ4 was not addressed.

Summary

The statistical analyses conducted in an attempt to determine whether target EI and target demographics could predict workplace bullying were not supported for Hypotheses 1 to 3. Null Hypothesis 1 was not rejected because the correlation was not statistically significant, indicating that target EI does not predict workplace bullying. Null Hypothesis 2, using the predictor variables of age, gender, and race/ethnicity, was not

rejected. Race/Ethnicity was covered by four variables, Black, Asian, Hispanic, and Other, with White as the reference category. The multiple regression was not statistically significant, so EI, after controlling for demographics (age, gender, and race/ethnicity age) did not predict the targets' experienced workplace bullying. The third hypothesis used a hierarchal regression to determine whether the interactions of EI, age, gender, and race predicted workplace bullying after controlling for each. The analysis was not statistically significant, so the interactions of EI with target demographics (age, gender, and race/ethnicity) did not predict workplace bullying in Step 1. Null Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Chapter 5 summarizes this study, provides an analysis of the findings, and presents the limitations of the study. Recommendations for future research are also presented. The study concludes with an outline of the implications of the findings for business and social change.

Chapter 5: Conclusions, Summary, and Recommendations

Introduction

Workplace bullying is the systematic undermining of targets' well-being and a type of psychological warfare that is almost invisible in an organizational culture (Namie, 2003). The study of workplace bullying is complex and has been categorized as individual, work group, or organizational bullying (Hoel et al., 1999). Examinations and interventions overlap at each level and impact each other. This study concentrated on the target level (i.e., individual workers who were the targets of bullying) using self-report measures to capture the frequency of the bullying behaviors. This study entailed following a quantitative, nonexperimental design using a survey methodology to collect data. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between target EI and experienced workplace bullying as well as target demographics (gender, race, and age) and EI with experienced workplace bullying. The purpose of this study was also to assess whether interactions between target EI and the demographics of gender, race/ethnicity, and age predicted workplace bullying. A final purpose of this study was to examine what set of predictor variables best explained the variance in targets' perceptions of workplace bullying.

Interpretation of the Findings

The participants in this study were self-assessed targets of workplace bullying according to the NAQ. The mean score for all participants was M = 73.4, or more than two standard deviations (SD = 13.14) higher than the needed minimum (33) to be considered a target of workplace bullying (Notelaers & Einarsen, 2012). The sample

comprised 151 participants, with 136 (90.1%) female and 15 (9.9%) male. There were five race/ethnicity categories: White (*n* = 115), Black (*n* = 7), Hispanic (*n* = 8), Asian (*n* = 5), and Other (*n* = 16). The participants took an EI assessment (TEIQue-SF) to determine their global trait scores and their respective scores on the four factors of well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability. The TEIQue manual shows a global EI norm of *M* = 156 (Petrides, 2009b), or 2 points higher than the mean of the participants in this study (*M* = 154). The average scores on the four factors were in line with averages found in the TEIQue technical manual (Petrides, 2009).

The purpose of the study was to determine whether target EI predicted workplace bullying. A Pearson’s correlation determined that target EI, based on a global total score, as well as the four factors’ scoring, did not predict workplace bullying. Brodsky (1976) claimed that employees often are targeted because of their personality disorders but only when the organizational climate permits such behavior. According to researchers in the literature review, aggressive behavior in the workplace is situational and contextual and that other personal factors also can play into bullying (Neuman & Baron, 2011; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994).

Coyne et al. (2000) posited that the personalities of targets and bullies, including the target traits such as coping skills, might be the causes of workplace bullying. The results of the current study did not support the concept that target personality traits or behaviors on an overall global level, which also includes the four factors of well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability, leads to workplace bullying. It is noteworthy that many of the researchers combined their observations with organizational climate,

noting that the more permissive an organizational culture is, the greater is the likelihood of workplace bullying (Brodsky, 1976; Rayner, 1998). Rayner (1998) concluded that tolerance in an organizational culture is responsible for workplace bullying because the bullies are not contained.

Pryor et al. (1993) explained that bullying behaviors might be the combined result of bullies' personal or situational factors and a lack of organizational inhibitors to the harmful behaviors. The possibility of a combination of both target and bully personality types and EI scores could provide another opportunity for research. It might be that target EI or personality traits are not important when considering the overall construct of workplace bullying. Researchers have tended to include personality traits with organizational culture when explaining or analyzing the reasons for workplace bullying (Einarsen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 2010; Hoel & Cooper, 2000).

RQ2 addressed the target demographics of age, gender, and race as predictors of workplace bullying. In general, researchers have agreed that women are targeted more often than men are targeted, although when a target is a minority, such as a man in a traditionally female position, higher levels of bullying have been reported (Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004). This fact might have more to do with a bully's personality, character, or EI than a target's similar traits, as well as a organizational culture that tolerates and even promotes aggressive behavior.

Thylefors (1987) explained that scapegoating, the singling out of a target by the group because the person is different, occurs at the organizational or cultural level. Being different by age, gender, or race did not have a significantly statistical correlation to

workplace bullying in this study. In the literature review, three factors cited by researchers were central to workplace bullying: (a) interpersonal and situational factors, (b) ignorant aggressors who believe themselves without malice, and (c) the interactions between targets and bullies (Anderson & Bushman, 2002; Neuman & Baron, 2011; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). The results of this study only addressed the role of the targets, whereas Vartia (1996) concluded that the general atmosphere of the workplace environment plays a role in the dynamics between target and bully. The current study supported Einarsen et al.'s (2010) findings that bullying is not related to the age of the target. Archer (1999) found that organization culture often becomes intertwined with workplace bullying, which includes increased stress and interpersonal conflicts, which then highlight perceived target weaknesses encompassed by personality and characteristic traits and demographics.

Many researchers have concluded that target personality, gender, or age can have an influence on the level or extent of incivility. These same researchers, cited in the literature review and the theoretical framework, also have pointed to the permissiveness of leadership and witnesses (i.e., coworkers) within the organizational culture as responsible for workplace bullying (Einarsen, 1999; Glasø et al., 2009; Hoel & Cooper, 2000; Zapf et al., 1996). Witch hunting, for example, is a phenomenon that occurs when members of a group displace frustration through aggression on to a less powerful group member (Thylefors, 1987). This is a societal factor where the target is highlighted as less powerful, and power differential is a key factor in the behavior of workplace bullying (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Social identity theory, a component of the workplace bullying

theoretical foundation, identifies that a worker who is different (i.e., is an outsider) has no base support within the organization. It is possible that a target might have low EI or a personality behavior that is different, but the key factor is the culture or society rather than the target.

RQ3 analyzed the interactions between target EI and demographics to determine whether one interaction pair (EI-gender, EI-race/ethnicity, EI-age) predicted workplace bullying. Researchers have determined that women are more likely than men to label aggressive behavior or incivility as bullying. Likewise, researchers have found that women are more likely to be bullied than men. However, Hoel and Cooper (2000) found that men were more exposed to negative behavior than women. To date, there has been no research combining EI with age, gender, or race. I found that interacting EI with gender, race/ethnicity, and age showed no statistically significant evidence to predict workplace bullying. The results supported previous research that has not found any statistically significant correlations between age (Zapf et al., 2011); race (Namie et al., 2014); gender (Vartia & Hyyti, 2002); and workplace bullying.

It is possible that the characteristics, personality, behavior, and EI of the targets are, by themselves, not predictors of workplace bullying. Future researchers might discover their roles as interacting factors within the social dynamics of organizations. What might be important are the interactions between the characteristics of the bully, the characteristics of the target, the situational circumstances, and the organizational culture and the level of incivility permitted by leadership and personnel. The results of the current study eliminated the target as a standalone predictor of workplace bullying.

Limitations of Study

There were numerous limitations to this study. The collection of the data was limited to participants on the Internet who were involved in the workplace bullying community to some degree. This restriction of potential participants through convenience sampling created an unequal representation of participants across the demographics of gender and race. Increasing the invitation process through other means might have generated a broader representation of gender and race. The sampling process involved selecting participants via blogs, newspaper columns, and speaking engagements on the topic of workplace bullying or EI (Singleton & Straits, 2009). The size differentials between participants in gender (female = 136; male = 15) and race (White = 115; Black = seven; Hispanic = eight; Asian = five; Other = 16) could have skewed the analyses because no correlations were found where actual correlations might have existed. These were threats to statistical conclusion validity. The heavily weighted variables of gender and race limited the analysis, which influenced the external validity.

Another limitation was that long exposure to continued incivility or bullying might have normalized the participants to the behavior. The participants could have misunderstood the TEIQue-SF and the NAQ, or they might have misunderstood the actual meanings of specific questions. There also was no control for culture, type, size, or geographical location for organizations in which the bullying was taking place and no control for organizational positions or field of work.

Each potential participant was screened during the initial questionnaire for workplace bullying. The survey was cross-sectional and limited to a one-point-in-time

experience through the use of self-administered questionnaires. Lutgen-Sanvik et al. (2007) found that participants have a tendency to overstate their EI ability and understate their experienced workplace bullying or self-presentation bias. This tendency could skew results; however, this was not found to be the case in this study because as mentioned earlier, the NAQ scoring was well above the needed score for workplace bullying and therefore not skewed. The level or degree of bullying was not measured, so any score above 45 was considered bullying for the purposes of this study, and the overall reporting was in line with other studies (Notelaers & Einarsen, 2012). The restriction of scoring on the NAQ provided a limitation by eliminating possible comparisons among the levels of bullying: not bullied, mild bullying, and severe bullying. The total percentage of participants who scored below 45 was less than 10%. A higher percentage mix could have provided a contrasting analysis of participants within the bullying spectrum.

Use of the TEIQue-SF might have limited the scope of the study by providing only a global (total) score and a score on four factors. The limitation excluded specific EI traits that might have provided a broader understanding of specific target behavior manifestations, such as coping skills like self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-expression. The full TEIQue provides scoring on 15 facets (i.e., 153 questions), which could have provided another perspective on the construct of workplace bullying. Participant tendencies to inflate personal EI scores could have influenced the outcomes, which would have been measured comparing EI scores found in other studies. The TEIQue showed a global EI norm of $M = 156$ (Petrides, 2009b), or 2 points higher than the mean of those participants in this study ($M = 154$). The average scores on the four

factors were in line with averages found in the TEIQue technical manual (Petrides, 2009b). There was no evidence to support self-presentation bias, researcher bias, or hypothesis guessing.

Using a global trait score for the EI assessment limited the spectrum of predictor values to a single score, not the multipossible behaviors associated with the full trait EI assessment. Using a total score might have overshadowed behavior manifestations such as the lack of emotional expression or the lack of self-awareness that would have singled out the targets due to their being different. Furthermore, the global score approach limited the interactions of specific EI behaviors as possible predictors.

Another limitation was that only targets' EI was measured. Measuring bullies' EI or supervisors' EI would have added to the depth of the possibilities to determine predictor variables. There are inherent limitations associated with data collection when working with minorities, including problems of access, smaller numbers, and the apparent reticence of participants to share (Croteau & Bieschke, 1996). The study design did not allow me to determine causation. The selection of trait EI limited the approach. Possible alternatives would have been a mixed EI or an ability EI approach or the full TEIQue.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research on the relationship between EI and workplace bullying should be conducted because of the almost limitless variables associated with the constructs of EI and workplace bullying. Future scholars should address the impact of EI, education, and race as predictors of workplace bullying in non-White participants. Furthermore, further

research should be conducted on EI traits to determine possible correlations. Basic EI traits such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, problem solving, and so on, as well as their interactions, could be possible predictors in target and perpetrator assessments. I only addressed targets' total trait EI and the four factors (well-being, self-control, emotionality, sociability) without assessing individual traits or trait differences. I did not measure bullies' EI or EI traits. Measuring bullies' EI would be challenging because bullies are not known for their awareness (admittance) in the bully construct, so any such research would need to come through an assessment of bullies' EI by either targets, witnesses, or supervisors.

Another consideration would be to measure the EI of immediate supervisors of targets to determine any possible relationship between leadership social skills and a workplace culture that permits bullying to exist. The majority of bullies are supervisors, and exploring the possible predictor variables associated with immediate supervisors and even the executive level could provide valuable data about the construct. Leadership impact, coupled with the role that incivility plays and how the continuum spreads from minor social acting out to bullying and even to homicide, should be a field rich with possibilities. Because workplace bully theory supports multicausality of the construct, further research is needed to combine more variables in an attempt to determine an accurate sequence or list of variables that predict workplace bullying.

Another possible consideration would be to study the families of origin of targets to determine whether they (i.e., the targets) were taught coping skills that generated a natural tendency to draw unwanted attention. This is similar to the argument made by

Neufeld's alpha askew theory (Biehn, 2012). The same type of research also would be applicable to the families of origin for bullies to determine coping and collaboration skills taught and what, if any, behaviors might be able to predict involvement in bully-type behaviors in adulthood.

In the literature review, I indicated that the organizational culture played a role in the permissiveness of workplace bullying. Organizational culture dictates civility or incivility norms, social interactions, and power discrepancies. Brodsky (1997) pointed out that although targets might suffer from personality disorders, perpetrators only act out when organizational norms permit or reward the misbehavior. Rayner (1998) concluded that the primary culprits in workplace bullying are the organizational culture and the tolerance of negative behavior of bullies by leadership and witnesses. It appears from the literature review and the results of this study that organizational culture should be highlighted for future research as a contributing factor to workplace bullying.

Longitudinal studies would provide valuable information for further research, such as health costs, days absent, worker engagement, and employee turnover. Leadership training research on antibullying, or the promotion of civility could measure the impact of developing a culture that promotes healthy interpersonal interactions using EI training, along with the impact of implementing policies and procedures that protect workers from uncivil behavior. Insufficient research exists connecting PTSD to workplace bullying. Assessing this link would increase public awareness and perhaps bridge the medical gap indicting workplace bullying as a primal cause of medical costs.

Implications for Social Change

Six of 10 targets of workplace bullying find redress only when they leave their place of employment (Namie et al., 2014). Furthermore, targets are driven out as the result of escalating health problems that families and physicians recognize and then encourage them to terminate their jobs. Because individuals do not invite bullying into their lives, it is noteworthy that 60% of targets will lose their jobs when bullies choose to target them for reasons that have nothing to do with their behavior (EI), age, gender, or race. Noting that workplace bullying is one directional and that bullying does not occur in a vacuum, it seems that focusing attention on bullies and organizational cultures would lead to greater understanding. Namie and Namie (2011) pointed out that training targets or bullies has little to no effect on behavior; therefore, placing greater focus on the organizational culture and addressing incivility are important implications to consider. Only 1.7% of targets experience complete satisfaction with their employer's handling of complaints (Namie & Namie, 2000).

As shown in the literature review in Chapter 2, bullies come from every age, race, gender, and religion, and studies of workplace bullying and ethnicity have been rare (Rayner, 1997). However, it is possible to categorize bullies, name their behaviors, and measure the financial and psychological implications of their behaviors. Organizational leaders can hinder or perhaps even prevent workplace bullying by focusing on workplace incivility and empowering employees to address bullying behaviors without fear of retribution. Using HR personnel to teach employees how workplace bullying manifests by naming and defining bully types provides employees with greater awareness and

perhaps greater protection. Because witnesses often cower rather than stand up, employers can empower them by providing protection to employees who reveal bullying behaviors through supportive policies and procedures. The literature review outlined the escalation process, which can prove beneficial to organizational leaders, if they teach their employees how to recognize the process and emphasize the importance of civility within the workplace culture. Namie and Namie (2011) described corporate policies and procedures that promote civility and discourage and even punish incivility, which includes bullying, if manifested for more than 6 months, to be the most effective approach to stemming the increasing display of workplace bullying.

Conclusion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the relationships among target EI; target demographics (age, race, gender); and the interactions between target EI and demographics on workplace bullying. This study did not find that targets' global trait EI or the four factors of well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability predicted workplace bullying. Targets' demographics did not predict workplace bullying. The interactions between targets' EI and targets' demographics also failed to predict workplace bullying. Workplace bullying occurs for multiple reasons, but the results of the study indicated that targets' EI or targets' demographics did not predict the construct of workplace bullying. The results of this study might generate greater awareness about the widespread implications and consequences of workplace bullying. Namie and Namie (2007) pointed out that 62% of employers ignore the problem and that with 65 million

U.S. workers impacted by bullying (Namie et al., 2014), finding a solution is monetarily and morally cogent.

Workplace bullying is not carried out by a single person, nor is there a single target. Witnesses, departments, teams, and organizations all feel the impact of bullying. The solution to workplace bullying cannot be found simply by identifying the EI or demographics of targets. Few models or templates have been designed to prevent workplace bullying. The United States remains the last developed country to enact laws against workplace bullying. Further research must be conducted to identify the reasons for workplace bullying, but the complexity of the dynamics of workplace bullying seems to favor a continued multicausality framework, with the organizational culture serving as the foundation, until definitive research findings indicate differently. Perhaps one of the more salient aspects of the literature review was to show the role that incivility, as depicted by the incivility continuum (Namie, 2014b), plays within organizational cultures. All personnel are impacted by the organizational culture in which they operate, so the solution to workplace bullying might be as straightforward as creating a workplace culture that emphasizes and supports civility at all levels. Could it be as simple as teaching the Golden Rule? Do unto others as you would have others do unto you.

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Appendix A: Demographics Questionnaire

Purpose. Your completion of the demographic study is important to determine the influence of a variety of factors. All of your information will be anonymous and confidential. No published reports will have any identifying information of the participants involved. This study is for participants who believe they have been targets of workplace bullying. If you believe you have never been targeted, thank you for your time, there are no further questions.

Directions. Please check the appropriate line for each question.

Question	Response
What is your age?	____ Years
What is your gender?	____Female ____Male
What is your race?	____Asian ____Black ____Hispanic ____White ____Other
Do you believe you have been a target of workplace bullying?	____yes ____no
How long have you been employed?	____less than 1 year ____more than 1 year
What is your highest level of education attained?	____Grammar school ____High school or equivalent ____Vocational/technical school (2 yr.) ____Some college ____Bachelor's degree ____Master's degree ____Doctoral degree ____Professional degree (MD, JD, etc.) ____Other ______________________________
Primary area of work	____Homemaker ____Retired ____Student ____Unemployed ____Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing, etc. ____Broadcasting ____Education – College, University ____Education – K-12 ____Education – Other ____Construction ____Finance/Insurance/Banking/Mortgage ____Government/Public Administration ____Health Care/Social Services ____Hotel and Food Services

	____Information – Services and Data ____Information – Other ____Processing ____Legal Services ____Manufacturing ____Military ____Publishing ____Real Estate, Rental, Leasing ____Religious ____Retail ____Scientific or Technical Services ____Software ____Telecommunications ____Transportation and Warehousing ____Utilities ____Wholesale ____Other________________________
Role or position within your company	____Upper management ____Middle management ____Junior management ____Administrative staff ____Student ____Trained professional ____Skilled laborer ____Consultant ____Temporary employee ____Researcher ____Self-employed ____Other _________________________
Organization type	____Public sector ____Private sector ____Not-for-profit ____Don't know ____Other_________________________
Organization size	____1-25 employees ____26-50 employees ____51-100 employees ____101-250 employees ____251-1,000 employees ____1,000 – 5,000 employees ____5,000+ employees

Appendix B: Negative Acts Questionnaire

Purpose**.** The purpose of the assessment is to determine the level of negative behavior (workplace bullying) you have experienced in the workplace, if any at all. The cumulative answers will provide a score associated with how often and to what level you have experienced the negative behavior. The following behaviors in the assessment are often seen as examples of workplace bullying.

Directions. Over the last 12 months, how often have you been subjected to the following negative acts at work? Please check the number that best corresponds with your experience over the last 12 months (There are no right or wrong answers to this questionnaire):

1 (never) 2 (now and then) 3 (monthly) 4 (weekly) 5 (daily)

1) Someone withholding information which affects your performance	1 2 3 4 5
2) Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	1 2 3 4 5
3) Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	1 2 3 4 5
4) Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	1 2 3 4 5
5) Spreading of gossip and rumors about you	1 2 3 4 5
6) Being ignored, or excluded from the workgroup	1 2 3 4 5
7) Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life	1 2 3 4 5
8) Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)	1 2 3 4 5
9) Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way	1 2 3 4 5
10) Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	1 2 3 4 5
11) Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	1 2 3 4 5
12) Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	1 2 3 4 5
13) Persistent criticism of your work and effort	1 2 3 4 5
14) Having your opinions and views ignored	1 2 3 4 5
15) Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get on with	1 2 3 4 5
16) Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines	1 2 3 4 5
17) Having allegations made against you	1 2 3 4 5
18) Excessive monitoring of your work	1 2 3 4 5
19) Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)	1 2 3 4 5
20) Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	1 2 3 4 5
21) Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	1 2 3 4 5
22) Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix C: Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-SF

Purpose. The purpose of this assessment is to measure your overall Emotional Intelligence (EI) score. The score will be used to determine what, if any, role EI plays in workplace bullying. Your EI score will be computed with the NAQ score and eventually combined your gender, age, and race to discover further potential correlations each variable makes in workplace bullying.

Directions: Please answer each statement by selecting the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. There are seven possible responses to each statement, ranging from *completely disagree* (1) to *completely agree* (7).

1 (completely disagree) 2 3 4 5 6 7 (completely agree)

Statement							
1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I generally don't find life enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can deal effectively with people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7