THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING PROFILE IN THE BULLYING AND TURNOVER INTENTION RELATION

by

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DECLARATION

I, Jeannette van Dyk, student number 33107092, declare that this thesis, entitled "**The mediating effect of a psychological wellbeing profile in the bullying and turnover intention relation**", is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This thesis has not, in part or in whole, been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at this or any other university.

I also declare that the study has been carried out in strict accordance with the Policy for Research Ethics of the University of South Africa (Unisa). I took great care that the research was conducted with the highest integrity, taking into account Unisa's Policy for Infringement and Plagiarism.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa. Permission to conduct the research has been obtained from the participating organisation.

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JEANNETTE VAN DYK   DATE

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ABSTRACT / SUMMARY

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DEPARTMENT : Industrial and Organisational Psychology

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The research focused on constructing a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices by investigating employees' psychological wellbeing-related attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), and whether these significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation when controlling for bullying, age, gender, race, tenure and job level. A quantitative survey was conducted on a convenience sample of employed adults (N = 373) of different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups from various South African organisations.

The canonical statistical procedures indicated work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) as the strongest psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship. The mediation modelling results showed that workplace bullying significantly predicted turnover intention, which in turn, significantly predicted either high/low levels of work engagement (vigour and dedication) in one's work. Self-esteem, emotional intelligence or hardiness did not seem likely to influence the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The multiple regression analysis indicated that participants' biographical variables (age, gender, race and job level) significantly predicted workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention. The tests for significant mean differences indicated that participants from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differed regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

On a theoretical level, the study deepened understanding of the cognitive, affective and conative behavioural dimensions of the hypothesised psychological wellbeing profile. On an empirical level, the main findings were reported and interpreted in terms of an empirically derived psychological wellbeing profile based on the work engagement of the participants. On a practical level, the findings provided valuable guidelines for the development of talent retention and wellness interventions, which might add to the body of knowledge relating to psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes that influenced workplace bullying and talent retention.

Keywords: wellbeing profile, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychological wellbeing, employee wellness, workplace bullying, turnover intention, intention to leave, voluntary turnover

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

This research focuses on constructing a psychological wellbeing profile for employee retention purposes in the South African context. The constructs of relevance to the research are self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing (as a composite set of mediating psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes), workplace bullying (as independent variable) and turnover intention (as dependent variable). This chapter provides the background to and motivation for the intended research; formulates the problem statement and the research questions; states the research aims; discusses the paradigm perspective that guides the boundaries for the study, and describes the research design and methodology. Finally, the manner in which the chapters will be presented is introduced.

1.1   BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The context of this research is the psychological wellbeing and retention of employees and their perceptions of workplace bullying as these relate to turnover intention in a diverse South African context. The research highlights the attributes that influence individuals' psychological wellbeing and how these attributes mediate the relationship between employees' reaction to bullying and their intention to leave. More specifically, the research examines a set of psychological wellbeing constructs, namely: (1) self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing (as a composite set of mediating psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes); (2) workplace bullying (as the independent variable); and (3) turnover intention (intention to leave) (as the dependent variable). Knowledge of the mediating effect, interrelationships and the overall relationship between these constructs will allow the researcher to construct a psychological wellbeing profile that may potentially inform Human Resource and Industrial Psychology professionals on career wellbeing support interventions and talent retention practices in South African organisations.

The turbulent economy, market pressures, globalisation and advancement in technology have a great influence on organisations to adjust their talent management strategies (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). Global and local competition for knowledge workers increased (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004; Jamrog, 2004; Somaya & Williamson, 2008), and intensified the demand for talented employees. Knowledge workers have high levels of capability, education and skills; they provide inventive ways for improvement and apply their knowledge (Davenport 2005), which is essential to construct

and maintain a competitive advantage (Lubit, 2001). Therefore, talent retention is gaining priority in organisations across the world (Bhatnagar, 2007; Frank et al., 2004; Omar, Majid, & Johari, 2013; Rutherford, Wei, Park, & Hur, 2012; Somaya & Williamson, 2008; Tymon, Strumpf, & Doh, 2010; Vaiman, Scullion, & Collings, 2012).

In South Africa, high voluntary turnover and skills shortages (Momberg, 2008; Wöcke & Heymann, 2012) seem to be a major obstacle to economic growth and job creation (Bhorat, Meyer, & Mlatsheni, 2002; Kraak, 2008; Rasool & Botha, 2011). Additionally, the skills shortages seem to limit South Africa's level of global participation (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Many talented South African employees emigrate (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012) to the United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia, Europe or Canada (Reddy, 2006) for better career opportunities and job security (Comins, 2008; DHET, 2014). The turbulent economy and downsizing may cause employees to experience feelings of job insecurity. Direnzo and Greenhaus (2011) argue that the decline in job security may result in employees recognising the value of remaining employable in a dynamic, often antagonistic economy, thereby assuring higher employee mobility. Another challenge for talent retention is that the current generation is more mobile than previous generations (Lyons, Schweitzer, Ng, & Kuron, 2012; Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015; Thorne & Pellant, 2007). Therefore, it is essential to keep young talent satisfied and happy in their jobs.

Professional employees tend to have implicit knowledge about organisational processes and systems, and these skills tend to be specialised and hard to replace (McKnight, Phillips, & Hardgrave, 2009). Therefore, professional employees tend to be highly employable, which can further result in higher voluntary turnover. The loss of skilled employees has a rigorous impact on the competitive edge and the ultimate survival of organisations (LeRouge, Nelson, & Blanton, 2006). Companies face significant costs when talented employees decide to leave (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012), for example recruitment, induction and training of new employees can be expensive and time consuming. Moreover, employee turnover increases the workload and demands made on existing staff and, as a result, overburdening and exhaustion may appear, which can further result in additional voluntary turnover (Stroth, 2010), and possibly lower psychological wellbeing. Research indicates that general work environment conditions have deteriorated over time and it is challenging for organisations to improve work conditions that facilitate employee flourishing (Bichard, 2009; Kossek, Baltes, & Matthews, 2011).

Organisations need employees who are in good mental and physical health in order to flourish and endure the on-going changes in the world of work (Ferreira, 2012). Employees

with higher levels of psychological wellbeing tend to be more prolific and dedicated than employees with lower levels of psychological wellbeing (Wright & Cropanzano, 2004; Wright & Bonett, 2007). Therefore, in order to obtain success, organisations need to ensure that employees are satisfied with their work and have a high level of wellbeing (Rathi, 2010).

Ryff (1995) argue that psychological wellbeing represents aspects of positive functioning, which is a process of persistent improvement through life that involves the realisation of one's true potential. Thus, psychological wellbeing is more than just happiness; it entails a life lived to its fullest (Ryff & Singer, 1998). Psychological wellbeing is a complex construct that involves effective psychological performance and encompasses the perception of engagement with existential encounters in life; for example, pursuing meaningful objectives, personal development, and to bond well with others (Keyes, Shmotkin, & Ryff, 2002). Psychological wellbeing in this study can be viewed as subjective, a combination of positive and negative feelings, and self-perceived success in various dimensions of a person's existence and being (Diener et al., 2010).

During the human capital development process organisations invest extensive resources and as a result, employees may feel more valued, and in turn experience higher career wellbeing (Menon, 2012). Moreover, Koslowsky, Weisberg, Yaniv and Zaitman-Speiser (2012) argue that employees who are half-heartedly employed in their current job are likely to experience negative feelings that may lead to a decrease in psychological wellbeing. Similarly, Tambur and Vadi (2012) argue that employees' career wellbeing can be affected negatively when job insecurity and feelings of uncertainty are experienced, and may therefore be a major reason for the increase in workplace bullying. There is a global increase of concern about violence against employees (Mayhew & Chappell, 2007). Workplace bullying behaviour may include passive-aggressive threats to an individual's professional or personal position, physical and emotional isolation, work over- or under load, and active attempts to threaten the individual's emotional and physical wellbeing (Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2002).

Harassment in organisations can be viewed as frequent and continued behaviour intended to torment, annoy or irritate co-workers, supervisors or subordinates; and to frighten, intimidate, terrorise, or cause embarrassment and/or uneasiness to the targeted employee (Brodsky, 1976; Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2011). Bullying is also referred to as 'psychological terror' or 'mobbing', which involves antagonistic and unscrupulous interaction directed in an organised manner by one or a few employees, mainly towards one individual who is pushed into an exposed and vulnerable position, and the individual is kept there by means of persistent bullying behaviours (Leymann, 1996).

In addition, workplace bullying can be viewed as behaviour that deviates from the norms in the workplace and consequently threatens the survival of organisations (Mayer, Thau, Workman, Van Dijke, & De Cremer, 2012). Bullying in the workplace can also be seen as the abuse of power, which can isolate employees socially, especially those who already view themselves as defenceless (McDaniel, Ngala, & Leonard, 2015; Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009). Furthermore, workplace bullying is regarded as an intensifying progression of actions where the victim ends up in an inferior position and becomes the focus of organised adverse interpersonal behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2011). Similarly, workplace bullying in this study is viewed as a situation where employees perceive themselves to receive relentless and continuous negative behaviour from one or more individuals; these employees experience difficulty defending themselves against these negative actions (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Einarsen et al., 2011).

The occurrence of workplace bullying is increasing worldwide (Einarsen et al., 2011; Johnson, 2009; Mistry & Latoo, 2009; Salin, 2003, 2008, 2009). In South Africa, the research into and awareness of workplace bullying are still in its infancy (Pietersen, 2007; Van Schalkwyk, Els, & Rothmann, 2011). Workplace bullying is viewed as a significant work-related stressor, and affects approximately 5% to 30% of employees in Europe (Agervold, 2007; Nielsen et al., 2009). In addition, approximately 54 million employees experience workplace bullying in the USA (Sperry, 2009).

Tambur and Vadi (2012) found that workplace bullying can be triggered by on-going organisational changes, which can result in vagueness and feelings of uncertainty. More specifically, unmanageable workloads, poor communication of information, excessive monitoring and inappropriate tasks can result in workplace bullying (Tambur & Vadi, 2012). On the other hand, organisational practices that encourage information-sharing across the organisation sent a message of trust to employees, which in turn, increase employee wellbeing (Menon, 2012).

Mayhew and Chappell (2007) found employees who experience bullying frequently have greater negative effects on their psychological wellbeing. Research also indicates bullying has more severe consequences than physical assaults (Mayhew & Chappell, 2003). Likewise, Hansen, Hogh, and Persson (2011) found that frequently bullied employees generally reported more mental health symptoms when compared to non-bullied employees. Thus, there seems to be a relationship between wellbeing and bullying in the literature. Additionally, bullying seems to impact the mental health of occasionally bullied employees (Hansen et al., 2011), indicating the severity thereof.

Research studies also indicate that turnover intention (intention to leave) may be an indicator of employee wellbeing (Derycke et al., 2010). Thoresen, Kaplan, and Barsky (2003) suggest that negative feelings are likely to result in a higher intention to leave. Tett and Meyer (1993) view turnover intention as an intentional, determined tenacity to leave one's current organisation. On the other hand, Mobley (1977) identified impulsive leaving behaviour. Employees move directly from withdrawal thoughts (turnover intention) to leaving the organisation without searching for other employment (Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992). Similarly, Lee and Mitchell (1994) argue for some employees' turnover intention directly predicts actual leaving but for other employees' turnover intention triggers a search for alternative opportunities, which in turn, predicts eventual leaving. Koslowsky et al. (2012), however, view turnover intention as more representative of an employee's psychological wellbeing (state) and less influenced by external factors; for example, travel distance and relocation. Turnover intention in this study will be viewed as an employee's goal to terminate employment personally (DeTienne, Agle, Phillips, & Ingerson, 2012).

Moreover, voluntary turnover represents employees who have chosen to terminate a significant organisational affiliation (Morrell, Loan-Clarke, & Wilkinson, 2001). While involuntary turnover includes employees forced to leave the organisation due to budget cuts, restructuring or downsizing (Morrell et al., 2001). Researchers' and organisations' abilities to predict and explain decisions of voluntary turnover remain inadequate (Allen, Renn, Moffitt, & Vardaman, 2007). Although, Statistics South Africa (2015) indicates a decline in the number of professionals leaving the country, talent retention and skill shortages seem to remain challenges among local organisations (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012).

Allen et al. (2007) argue that, when employees leave the organisation, it involves risk-taking and many times the risks associated with leaving may be too profound despite work dissatisfaction or alternative job opportunities. Their study results indicate employees who express an intention to leave the organisation do not always act on the intention, which is congruent with the research of Mobley (1977), and Lee and Mitchell (1994), as mentioned earlier. Allen et al. (2007) also argue that this may be explained by the general tendency to avoid consequences associated with risky decisions. On the other hand, employees who act on their intention to leave do not always perceive the decision as a risk (Allen et al., 2007), and may therefore decide to act on the intention and end up leaving the organisation.

Various research studies indicate that exposure to bullying is related to an increase in intention to leave the organisation (Berthelsen, Skogstad, Lau, & Einarsen, 2011; Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2004; Mathisen, Einarsen, & Mykletun, 2008; Vartia, 1996). Berthelsen et al. (2011) found over a two-year period that employees exposed to bullying changed employers more often than employees who were not exposed, indicating the significant effect of bullying on turnover intention. Similarly, research done by Djurkovic, McCormack, and Casimir (2008) indicate that bullying exposure predicts intention to leave, and even less severe types of bullying were found to have a significant impact on employees and their intention to leave the organisation.

Furthermore, workplace bullying is found to be a predictor of mental health problems (Nielsen, Glasø, Matthiesen, Eid, & Einarsen, 2013). Trépanier, Fernet, and Austin (2013) found that workplace bullying directly and positively predicts burnout. Burnout is when a person is emotionally tired and psychologically withdraws from their work (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). Thus, bullying may cause emotional and mental exhaustion, and therefore decrease the psychological wellbeing of employees.

Workplace bullying affects organisations and individuals negatively, since bullying affects not only the targets of bullying but also employees witnessing the bullying behaviour (Hoel, Faragher, & Cooper, 2004; Mayhew & Chappell, 2007). On organisational level there are costs associated with bullying; for example, productivity loss, increased sick leave and absenteeism (Hoel & Einarsen, 2010). Thus, bullying at work has significant consequences on profitability and voluntary turnover. On an individual level workplace bullying affects employees' job satisfaction and organisational attachment negatively; and also increases stress, depression, suicidal tendencies and heart attacks (Salin, 2003). Workplace bullying is also related to an increase in the use of tobacco, alcohol, and other substances (Normandale & Daview, 2002), which are detrimental to employees' health.

On the other hand, Laschinger, Grau, Finegan, and Wilk (2010) found that exposure to bullying is significantly related to emotional exhaustion. Similarly, bullied employees may experience lower psychological wellbeing symptoms such as anxiety, depression, and a lack of self-confidence (Cortina & Magley, 2003). Additionally, Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2002) found that victims of bullying show significantly more post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms as opposed to employees who have been diagnosed with PTSD. Likewise, Tehrani (2004) found that bullied employees experience comparable psychological and emotional states than individuals who had experienced an armed robbery.

Additionally, Hoel et al. (2004) found that witnesses of bullying behaviour experienced worse mental and physical health than employees who neither experienced nor witnessed bullying behaviour. The authors also argued that the negative effects of workplace bullying might remain for a substantial time after the bullying incident had ended, which might indicate considerable consequences for organisations (Hoel et al., 2004).

Hobfoll (2011) argues that individuals make use of significant resources in order to regulate themselves, their behaviour and interactions, and how they manage, act, and fit into organisations and the organisational culture. The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2002) suggests that during highly stressful situations, people tend to recognise and mobilise resources (Hobfoll, 2002). In addition, the COR theory highlights that, when people gain these resources, it will promote enhanced psychological wellbeing, health and overall functioning (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2009; Wells, Hobfoll, & Lavin, 1999; Hobfoll, Vinokur, Pierce, & Lewandowski-Romps, 2012).

On the other hand, resource loss is viewed as the main reason for negative reactions to stressful situations, which include psychological distress, negative health outcomes, and weakened functioning (Hobfoll et al., 2012). Two types of coping resources are identified, namely: internal and external resources (Hobfoll, 2002). With regard to internal resources, individual resources can be viewed as dispositional factors existing within each individual; for example, personality, personal preferences and different ways of viewing difficulties in life. Self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing are all regarded as wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, and they are seen as internal individual dispositional resources that employees can retrieve to resolve difficulties in life (Hobfoll, 2002).

There are different perspectives on the concept of wellbeing. Wellbeing can be viewed from the eudaimonic approach, where wellbeing is considered in terms of the individual's happiness, optimal functioning, meaning, and self-actualisation (Deci & Ryan, 2008), or from the hedonic approach, where the main perspective of wellbeing is based on indicators of positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction (Kopperud & Vitters, 2008). Diener, Sapyta, and Suh (1998) argue that neither the hedonic nor the eudaimonic approach is adequate in itself to explain the wellbeing of individuals.

The World Health Organisation's report (WHO, 2004) on mental health define mental health (psychological wellbeing) as a condition of wellbeing, where a person understands his or her own capabilities, is able to handle everyday stress, is able to work effectively and

constructively, and influence his or her community positively (World Health Organisation [WHO], 2004). Ryff (1989a) refers to wellbeing as positive psychological functioning. Similarly, Wright, Larwood and Denney (2002) argue that psychological wellbeing is associated with the effectiveness of an individual's psychological and social functioning.

On the other hand, Garg and Rastogi (2009) view wellbeing as the extent to which individuals evaluate the general quality of their life, and their contentment and satisfaction with their physical and psychological health in relation to their life and work enjoyment (psychosocial environment).

Psychological wellbeing is also referred to as 'subjective wellbeing' and is viewed as an established social scientific concept that apprehends how individuals assess their lives, and contains aspects such as life satisfaction, lack of depression, lack of anxiety, positive attitudes and emotions. Thus, psychological wellbeing is more than just satisfaction with a part of an individual's existence; it is affected by the environment, perceptions, and everyday events and happenings (Diener, 2000; Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999).

Kidd (2008) found that employees who had problematic relationships with their employing organisation experienced lower levels of career wellbeing. Career wellbeing entails features of careers that are important for psychological wellbeing because it involves a wide range of feelings that occur during the quest of a person's career. In addition, it involves meaningful relationships with colleagues and management, perceived support, job recognition, and the links a person has with a particular job and organisation (Kidd, 2008). This is supported by literature on psychological wellbeing in the work context (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Warr, 2002).

Career wellbeing is jeopardised when individuals experience job loss or when they have difficulty adjusting to a new work role (Kidd, 2008). On the other hand, employees tend to experience more positive feelings when events and relationships are going well at work (Kidd, 2008). Thus, it seems that employees may experience higher levels of career wellbeing when they perceive work relationships and organisational circumstances to be pleasant, which may positively influence employees' general psychological wellbeing.

In this study, the core self-evaluations of individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing will be measured to determine the psychological wellbeing of employees in relation to their experiences of bullying and intentions to leave the organisation. In addition, the psychological wellbeing attributes (self-

esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) are regarded as personal resources that may potentially mediate or buffer the effect of bullying on turnover intention.

Self-esteem is often seen as an indicator of psychological wellbeing (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). David and Vivek (2012) have found that people who experience lower personal success may experience feelings of disengagement, which can result in a negative self-evaluation with regard to their self-value and self-image within the work context. Thus, employees who experience these feelings may experience a lower self-esteem. Also, David and Vivek (2012) argue that individuals will develop negative attitudes when their evaluation of their self-value is damaging. In turn, this can impact their behaviour and organisational efficiency negatively. Individuals who have negative thoughts about their self-worth and self-image may demonstrate destructive behaviour with the potential of causing lower organisational performance and success.

Next, Kong, Zhao, and You (2012) found that individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence experienced lower negative affect and more positive affect; therefore, promoting mental wellbeing. Thus, individuals with high emotional intelligence tend to have fewer negative feelings and more positive feelings, which can improve their psychological wellbeing (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kong et al., 2012; Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne, & Quoidbach, 2008). Therefore, the development of emotional capabilities can act as a precautionary measure to assist individuals in handling their future mental distress (Kong et al., 2012).

In contrast, various research studies indicate no significant relationship between emotional intelligence ability based measures and affective indicators of individual adjustment, for example anxiety, perceived stress and depression (Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck 2005; Gohm, Corser, & Dalsky, 2005; Zeidner & Olnick-Shemesh, 2010). Indoo and Ajeya (2012) found that emotional Intelligence predicted work stress. Thus, emotional intelligence could influence how one reacted or handled stressful situations, such as workplace bullying.

Kobasa (1979) proposes that individuals who stay healthy and stress intensively as opposed to extremely stressed individuals who get sick, may possess the belief that they can control or influence circumstances, have the ability to engage in daily actions, and view change as an eventful occasion for personal development. Kobasa (1982) also argues that commitment, control and challenge encompass the personality type of stress or hardiness. Thus, hardiness is seen as a set of personality characteristics that act as a resource to handle

difficult circumstances effectively for example, workplace bullying. Bartone and Hystad (2010) view hardiness as a psychological resource, which can be obtained through personal training and development. Research indicates that military service individuals who experience long-term stress may develop the post-traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD), especially when a person has lower levels of hardiness (Escolas, Pitts, Safer, & Bartone, 2013).

On the other hand, individuals with high levels of hardiness may be fairly unaffected by frequent stress (Escolas et al., 2013). It seems that individuals with high levels of hardiness appear to have the psychological resource to cope better with constant stressors, such as workplace bullying, and appear to avoid some of the negative psychological effects and potential intention to leave the organisation.

In addition, engagement is seen as a vigorous and energetic mental condition that promote the utilisation of resources, even during mentally strenuous circumstances (Hakanen & Schaufeli, 2012). Research also indicates that work engagement may act as a buffer and protect individuals during difficult circumstances, potentially reducing the likelihood of experiencing anxiety and depression symptoms (Hakanen & Schaufeli, 2012; Seppälä et al., 2012). According to Schaufeli, Taris, and Van Rhenen (2008), work engagement is an effective indicator of psychological wellbeing (mental health). Similarly, Bakker (2009) regards work engagement as employees who often experience positive emotions, and who tend to have better psychological and physical health. Moreover, research indicates the degree to which employees perceive their work to be meaningful is shown to be a predictor of turnover intention (Shuck, Reio, & Rocco, 2011a).

When employees are emotionally committed to their organisation, feel they have meaningful work, and view that they have appropriate resources to complete their work it may cause employees to be less likely to leave the organisation (Shuck et al., 2011a). Thus, meaningful work appears to increase employee work engagement and attachment to the organisation which may reduce turnover intention (intention to leave). Similarly, Kabungaidze and Mahlatshana (2013) found employees who were satisfied with their jobs experienced lower intentions to leave the organisation.

Furthermore, longitudinal research studies indicate that work engagement may promote health and psychological wellbeing (Hakanen & Schaufeli, 2012; Innstrand, Langballe, & Falkun, 2012), such as lowered absenteeism due to illness and fewer symptoms of depression (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Van Rhenen, 2009b).

Catalino and Fredrickson (2011) found over a period of time that individuals who generally flourished, as opposed to individuals who did not flourish or were depressed, responded with more positive feelings to everyday enjoyable incidents (helping, interacting, playing, learning, spiritual activity), which predicted higher levels of the cognitive resource of mindfulness. Mindfulness means a person pays attention (focuses) for a specific purpose in the present with a non-judgemental attitude (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). Catalino and Fredrickson's (2011) research findings support the broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001). It suggests that repeated experiences of positive feelings may eventually develop a wide range of personal resources needed to cope with life's challenges. In addition, work experiences seem significant for individuals' general level of health and psychological wellbeing over the long-term (Hakanen & Schaufeli, 2012).

The central hypothesis of this research is that individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) will constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile. It is proposed that individuals' psychological wellbeing profiles will significantly mediate the effect of their experiences of bullying on their intention to leave the organisation. More specifically, a strong psychological wellbeing profile will significantly reduce the negative effect of bullying experiences on individuals' intentions to leave their organisations. The effect of negative experiences of bullying on strong intentions to leave will be significantly lowered because of the positive psychological strengths embedded in the overall psychological wellbeing profile. Moreover, individuals from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups may have different levels of psychological wellbeing resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), and different experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Organisations are becoming more aware of matters related to employee wellbeing (Hooper, 2004). Currently individuals face many work demands and as a result experience more stress in the workplace (Anitei, Chraif, & Chiriac, 2012). Research indicates that stress negatively influences physical and mental health (Peltzer, Shisana, Zuma, Van Wyk, & Zungu-Dirwayi, 2009). Furthermore, workplace bullying is regarded as a stressor that needs to be managed effectively to avoid detrimental effects for employees and organisations (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010).

Some employees may choose to stay at their organisations due to various reasons; for example, lack of alternative opportunities, an unfavourable labour market or high organisational commitment (Berthelsen et al., 2011). Higher levels of workplace bullying and

rudeness are related to lower levels of work engagement in various countries (Loh, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2010; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). Thus, workplace bullying may cause employees to be less engaged in their organisation. Organisations need to focus on reducing workplace bullying, since lower work engagement can cause lower organisational profit, work performance and organisational involvement (Medlin & Green, 2009; Saks, 2006; Schneider, Macey, Barbera, & Martin, 2009).

Individuals who have higher levels of psychological resources tend to have the capability to manage their careers and stressful work situations better, and adapt easier to changing situations (Marock, 2008). Factors, such as self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychological flourishing may have a positive effect on protecting the psychological health of employees by withstanding work stress, such as workplace bullying.

Therefore, the current research study aims to construct a psychological wellbeing profile for talent retention by exploring the influence of psychological wellbeing constructs in turnover intention in order to provide a better understanding of employee wellbeing within a workplace environment where bullying occurs. In this regard, the study aims to inform organisational wellness and talent retention practices.

The present research takes a two-pronged approach to investigating the effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention as mediated by psychological wellbeing attributes. Firstly, a variable-centred approach is used to explore how bullying relates to turnover intention, and how psychological wellbeing attributes influence this relationship. Secondly, the research also takes a person-centred approach by assuming that individuals from homogenous socio-demographic subgroups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) will experience these variables differently. These differences may potentially influence the relations between the variables, which will in turn, have specific implications for retention and wellness practices in the workplace.

Moreover, research indicates demographical variables, such as age may influence self-esteem (Orth, Robins, & Trzesniekwski, 2010), hardiness (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010), work engagement (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Robinson, 2007), psychosocial flourishing (Compas, Connor-Smith, & Jaser, 2004; Ranta et al., 2007), workplace bullying (Djurkovic et al., 2008; Hoel et al., 2004); and turnover intention (Cheung & Wu, 2013). Similarly, gender seems to affect self-esteem (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010), emotional intelligence (Bennie & Huang, 2010; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Stein & Book, 2011), hardiness (Benishek & Lopez, 1997; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010), work engagement

(Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010), psychosocial flourishing (Compas et al., 2004; Ranta et al., 2007), workplace bullying (Hoel et al., 2004; Rayner et al., 2002), and turnover intention (Groeneveld, 2011).

Likewise, race may influence self-esteem (Richman, Clark and Brown, 1985), whereas tenure appears to affect employees' engagement levels (Robinson, 2007) and turnover intention (Kabungaidze & Mahlatshana, 2013). In addition, demographic changes influence organisations due to the rapid aging of the active population while fewer young individuals enter the labour market (Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, & Baert, 2011). The Aids pandemic may also influence the age gap, and employees with skills in technical or complex work may become increasingly scarce in years to come (Hankin, 2005).

Although numerous studies point to the reasons why individuals leave their organisations, there seems to be a paucity of studies on psychological wellbeing of employees experiencing workplace bullying and factors influencing turnover intention of employees in a South African organisational context (Pietersen, 2007; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2011). Moreover, previous research has focused on different concepts of psychological wellbeing separately or in relation to other variables (Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy, & Weisberg, 2009; Gowan, 2012; Harrington & Loffredo, 2011; Shier & Graham, 2010; Welthagen & Els, 2012). Furthermore, there appears to be a paucity of such research in the South African work context. In this regard, research on the relationship between these variables could make an important contribution to retention strategies in the South African workplace.

1.2   PROBLEM STATEMENT

In light of the review of the aforegoing research literature, the problem is that there seems to be a scarcity of research that investigates the psychological wellbeing attributes, behaviour and preferences that may potentially influence employees' perceptions of workplace bullying and their intentions to leave the organisation jointly in a single study, especially in a diverse South African work context. Against this background, the research study aims to extend research on employee wellness and talent retention practices by investigating and determining the mediating effect of individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) on the relation between experiences of bullying and intention to leave (turnover intention).

This research intends to construct an overall psychological wellbeing profile based on

constructs that have been shown to buffer the negative effects of stress in the workplace. It is proposed that individuals with a particular psychological wellbeing profile (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) will be more capable to cope with workplace bullying (as a high stress factor in the workplace), which in turn, will influence (lower) the employees' intention to leave their organisations. Furthermore, individuals from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups will have different levels of psychological wellbeing resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), different experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intention. Subsequently, it is suggested that the empirical investigation of this relationship will assist in developing interventions that may help to strengthen the overall psychological wellbeing profile of individuals, which may be useful to industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in employee wellness and talent retention practices.

The following research hypotheses are formulated to achieve the empirical objectives of the study.

H1: There is a statistically significant positive interrelationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.

H2: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

H3: The significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

H4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

H5: Age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

H6: Individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differ regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

A review of the current literature on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention indicates the following research problems:

- Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing (as a composite set of psychological wellbeing-related dispositions), workplace bullying and turnover intention in a single study.

- In the context of a wellbeing profile within the diverse South African context, industrial and organisational psychologists, as well as human resource practitioners require knowledge about the nature of the theoretical and observed relationship between these variables. The reason is that the knowledge that may be gained by the research may potentially bring new insights that could inform organisational wellness and talent retention practices.

- There seems to be a paucity of research that investigates the psychological wellbeing attributes, behaviour and preferences that potentially influence employees' perceptions of workplace bullying and their intentions to leave the organisation. The same applies to how their biographical characteristics (age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups) contribute to the dynamic interplay between these variables, especially in the diverse South African work context.

The problem statement leads to the following general research questions:

- What are the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing?

- Do person-centred characteristics significantly influence individuals' experiences of workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention?

- Do individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding these variables?

- Do individuals' psychological wellbeing profiles (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intentions to leave their organisations.

- What are the implications for employee wellness and retention practices?

From the above, the following specific research questions were formulated in terms of the literature review and the empirical study:

1.2.1 Research questions arising from the literature review

Research question 1: How does the literature conceptualise psychological wellbeing, bullying behaviour and turnover intention within the context of the 21st century world of work?

Research question 2: How are the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature?

Research question 3: What is the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and how can this relationship be explained in terms of an integrated theoretical model?

Research question 4: How do individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions?

Research question 5: Can a conceptual psychological wellbeing profile in a bullying work environment for talent retention be proposed, based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between constructs for the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention?

Research question 6: What are the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing?

Research question 7: What are the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices?

1.2.2   Research questions with regard to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions have been formulated:

Research question 1: What is the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context?

Research question 2: Do the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables significantly relate to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables? What are the direction and magnitude of the relationship?

Research question 3: Do the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile?

17

Research question 4: Do the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Research question 5: Do age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention?

Research question 6: Do individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables)?

Research question 7: What recommendations can be formulated for industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals for employee wellness and talent retention practices, and what suggestions can be made for future research in the field?

1.3   AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

From the above research questions, the following general and specific aims are formulated.

1.3.1   General aims of the research

The general aim of this research is to investigate and determine whether individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing) significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation. The research also aims to investigate and determine the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile (constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), and whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding these variables. Furthermore, the research aims to outline the implications of an overall psychological wellbeing profile to inform employee wellness and retention practices in a

diverse South African organisational context.

1.3.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims are formulated for the literature review and the empirical study.

1.3.2.1 *Literature review*

The specific aims of the theoretical study are the following:

Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological wellbeing, bullying behaviour and turnover intention within the context of the 21st century world of work.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and to explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing); their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, and their turnover intentions.

Research aim 5: To propose a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile, based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between constructs for the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research aim 6: To identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile, constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

Research aim 7: To outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

The specific aims of the empirical study are the following:

Research aim 1: To empirically assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context. (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H1.)

Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables. (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H2.)

Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile. (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H3.)

Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable). (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H4.)

Research aim 5: Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention. This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H5.)

Research aim 6: Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables). (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H6.)

Research aim 7: To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals for employee wellness and talent retention practices, and to formulate suggestions for future research in the field.

1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

The factors underlying the problem of developing a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention appear to be varied and complex. Many factors may impede or endorse the development process. The role of psychological wellbeing attributes such as self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and constructs such as workplace bullying and turnover intention in the development of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention is complex and not yet well researched jointly and in a single study in the diverse South African organisational context.

This research is a starting point in investigating the relationship dynamics between self-esteem (as defined by Battle, 1992), emotional intelligence (as defined by Schutte, Malouff, & Bullar, 2007), hardiness (as defined by Kobasa, 1982), work engagement (as defined by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002), psychosocial flourishing (as defined by Diener et al., 2010), workplace bullying (as defined by Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) and turnover intention (as defined by DeTienne et al., 2012) in the employee wellness and talent retention context.

1.4.1 Potential contribution on a theoretical level

On a theoretical level, this study may prove useful in identifying the relationships found between the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing (mediating psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes variables), workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable). If significant relationships are found, then the findings will be useful in

the construction and proposal of a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention, which can be empirically tested. In addition, by exploring how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the manifestation and development of these attributes and constructs, it may prove useful in understanding talent retention in a diverse organisational context.

1.4.2   Potential contribution on an empirical level

On an empirical level, the research may contribute by constructing an empirically tested psychological wellbeing profile that could be used to inform employee wellness and talent retention practices. If no relationships are found between the variables, then the usefulness of this study is restricted to the elimination of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychological wellbeing as psychological wellbeing attributes. Energy can then be transferred to other research studies and avenues that could yield significant proof for solving the problem of how psychological wellbeing variables predict employees bullying perceptions and influence their turnover intentions.

In addition, the study may indicate whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention. The study may also indicate whether individuals from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ in terms of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. In view of the current South African organisational context characterised by a diverse culture and generations, the results may be valuable in the development of an empirically tested psychological wellbeing profile by indicating differences in terms of the biographical information that attends to the needs of a diverse group of employees.

1.4.3   Potential contribution on a practical level

On a practical level, industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals may develop a better understanding of the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention in considering the psychological wellbeing profile of employees that could positively influence employee wellness and talent retention. Subsequently, the outcomes would be significant enough to justify the persistence of this

study.

Positive outcomes from the proposed research could include raising awareness of the fact that individuals in the workplace differ in terms of psychological wellbeing resources, perception of workplace bullying in relation to their turnover intention, in that each individual needs to be treated in a manner that is appropriate to them in order to promote employee wellness and job satisfaction, which may culminate in talent retention. Another positive outcome may be the realisation of the way in which employees' psychological wellbeing resources influence their level of intention to leave the organisation.

The findings may prove useful where relationships between these constructs are found for future researchers exploring the possibility of preventing the effects of workplace bullying, absenteeism and high voluntary turnover in attempts to increase employee wellness and talent retention. Furthermore, the research results may contribute to the body of knowledge relating to psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes that influence workplace bullying and talent retention in the South African context.

This research is breaking new ground because to date there is no existing study on the relationship dynamics between the psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention in a single study. Studies on the relationship between these constructs are limited, as is research on the development of a psychological wellbeing profile, especially in the South African context (Pietersen, 2007; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2011).

1.5   THE RESEARCH MODEL

The research model of Mouton and Marais (1996) will serve as a framework for this research. The model aims to incorporate five dimensions of social science research, namely the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions, and to systemise them within the framework of the research process.

Social science research is a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it. The model is described as a systems theoretical model with three subsystems. The subsystems represent the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself. These subsystems are interconnected and relate to the research domain of the specific discipline

(Mouton & Marais, 1996). In this study, the disciplinary domain is Industrial and Organisational Psychology and Organisational Psychology.

1.6   PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Paradigms act as viewpoints to provide a foundation for the research. They also provide a basis for the researcher to use specific methods of data collection, observation and interpretation (Terre Blance, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Moreover, 'a paradigm is an overarching philosophical framework of the way in which scientific knowledge is produced' (Brink, 2006, p. 22). In the social sciences a paradigm includes accepted theories, models, a body of research and the methodologies of a specific perspective (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.6.1   The intellectual climate

Thematically, the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention are relevant to this study. The literature review will be presented from the **humanistic paradigm**, **cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm** and **existential paradigm**, while the empirical study will be presented from the perspective of the **positivist research** paradigm.

1.6.1.1   Literature review

The literature will be presented from the humanistic, cognitive-behaviouristic and existential paradigms.

(a)   Humanistic paradigm

Humanistic psychology is based on the belief that (1) human behaviour is mainly the result of individuals' observation of the world in which they live and their personal connotations; (2) individuals are not completely the result of their environment or their genetic makeup; and (3) individuals are internally focused and motivated to reach their potential (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

In addition, humanistic psychology focuses on psychological wellbeing, more specifically on optimistic characteristics such as happiness, contentment, compassion, consideration, and thoughtfulness. Individuals have freedom of choice and take responsibility for their own future. In addition, life is viewed as a process where individuals have the instinctive

motivation to develop and reach their full potential to experience fulfilment (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

Thematically, the humanistic paradigm relates to the constructs of psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

(b)   Cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm

The cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm assumes that individuals learn by observing others. According to Bandura's theory, a set of cognitive structures and perceptions, called the 'self-system', regulate a person's behaviour (Bandura, 1978, 1997a, 2000; Sharf, 2012). The cognitive structures include self-awareness, self-inducements, and self-reinforcement that can influence an individual's reasoning, actions and emotions. Self-efficacy is an aspect of self-esteem, which relates to these cognitive structures and reflects a person's ability to view him or herself dealing well with difficult situations (Bandura, 1986). Thus, self-efficacy is the learned capability obtained through observation, to handle difficult situations, the belief that one can be successful and to experience low levels of anxiety (Sharf, 2012).

In summary, the basic principles of behavioural theory are reinforcement and the lack of reinforcement (operant conditioning); learning through observation; behavioural antecedents (events occurring before the happening of behaviour) and consequences (Sharf, 2012; Spiegler & Guevremont, 2010). Reinforcement is the consequences of behaviour, which can increase the probability of behaviour occurring again. Lack of reinforcement can result in the disappearance of behaviour (Sharf 2012; Spiegler & Guevremont, 2010). Thematically, the cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm relates to psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

(c)   Existential psychology

Existential psychology focuses on the dynamic transitions that one come across as it happens, change and develops. Individuals are responsible for their own strategies, goals and future happenings (Sharf, 2012). Therefore, individuals are not victims of circumstances, since they are what they choose to be, to a large extent (Corey, 2009).

Existentialism is concerned with how individuals relate to their objective world, to other

human beings, and to their own sense of self. Existential psychology accentuates the significance of time (past and future), mostly the here and now in order to understand oneself and the world in which one lives (Sharf, 2012). Thus, individuals discover and make sense of their existence by questioning themselves and others around them (Corey, 2009). The basic dimensions of the existential approach, include (1) self-awareness ability; (2) freedom and responsibility; (3) establishing your identity and having meaningful interactions; (4) the pursuit of connections, direction, beliefs, and aspirations; (5) apprehension as a state of existence; and (6) consciousness of mortality and non-existence (Corey, 2009).

Thematically, the existential paradigm relates to the constructs of psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

1.6.1.2 Empirical research

The empirical research will be presented from the perspective of a positivist research paradigm. Positivism is an approach that distinguishes between the 'positive' data of sensory experience, and what is going on beyond the data. Positivism focuses on what can be directly observed and measured, while any other kind of information is seen as being unscientific (Hayes, 2000). Positivism is also referred to as realism, and the scope is on those aspects that can be measured and tested objectively (Scotland, 2012; Terre Blanche Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Thus, positivistic research focuses on what is real or actual.

Positivist research emphasises that causality is inferred by a person's perceptions when certain happenings are viewed as occurring together, and that causes can be duplicated. It also emphasises the opinion that the observer is totally free from what is being perceived, and it holds an exemplar of scientific information as being free of worth, while taking place separately from culture and the social context. Positivist research states that all sciences should be conducted by the same general methodology (Hayes, 2000).

The empirical study will consist of a quantitative study conducted within the ambit of the positivist research paradigm. Thematically, the quantitative study focuses on investigating the relationship dynamics between the variables self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention. This study provides quantitative measures of these constructs that have a concrete and tangible value through statistical science and techniques. The quantitative approach is seen as objective and focuses on measurable aspects of human behaviour. The data is

analysed through statistical procedures (Brink, 2006; Scotland, 2012).

1.6.2   The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs, which has a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statements (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purpose of this study, the theoretical models, meta-theoretical statements and conceptual descriptions about self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention, as well as the central hypothesis and theoretical and methodological assumptions are presented.

1.6.2.1   Meta-theoretical statements

Meta-theoretical statements are the underlying assumptions of theories, models and paradigms that form the context of a specific study (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In the disciplinary context, this study focuses on industrial and organisational psychology with Organisational Psychology as field of application.

Industrial and organisational psychology make use of psychological principles as well as recent research to provide recommendations and solve problems in the work environment (Bergh, 2009; Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). Industrial and organisational psychology can be viewed as the scientific study of individuals within a work context where psychological principles, theory and research are applied to the work context (Riggio, 2009; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2010). Thematically, this research will apply to constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing in a workplace bullying environment to provide an understanding of the effect of these constructs on the bullying turnover relation.

1.6.2.2   Conceptual descriptions

The following conceptual descriptions serve as points of departure for the discussion in this research:

(a)   Self-esteem

In this study, self-esteem is conceptualised as a combination of an individual's emotions, aspirations, uncertainties, opinions and judgements of oneself, and how one views oneself

with regard to past, current and future happenings (Battle, 1992). Self-esteem will be measured by the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992).

(b)   Emotional intelligence

For the purpose of this research, emotional intelligence is conceptualised as the subdivision of social intelligence that encompasses the capability to be aware of your own feelings and those of others, to distinguish between emotions, and to use this knowledge to direct your reasoning and behaviour accordingly (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence will be measured by the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2007).

(c)   Hardiness

Maddi and Kobasa (1984) view hardiness as an overall feeling of contentment with one's environment. Hardiness consists of three dimensions, namely control, commitment and challenge. Control is when people believe that they can control and influence their life circumstances; commitment is when people fervently participate in events and happenings, and challenge is when people view change as an exciting experience to grow and develop in the process (Kobasa, 1979). Hardiness will be measured by the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987).

(d)   Work engagement

In this study, work engagement is conceptualised as an optimistic, rewarding, work-related mindset that is typified by vigour, dedication and absorption. Engagement refers to a consistent and extensive emotional-intellectual condition that is not directed at a certain situation, person or action (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Vigour can be viewed as intensive levels of liveliness and psychological flexibility while doing your work, the enthusiasm to devote energy towards your work and to continue when obstacles are in the way of your goals. Dedication is viewed as feelings of meaning, eagerness, interest, passion, pride and challenge (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Absorption is typified by being absolutely focussed and completely involved in your work, whereby time flies by and one struggles to stop working (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Thus, highly engaged employees tend to be more energetic (vigour), may show more enthusiasm (dedication), and may be more focused on their work (absorption). Work engagement will be measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al. 2002).

(e)   Psychosocial flourishing

Psychosocial flourishing is when a person experiences positive emotions, is mentally (psychologically) healthy and deals well with others (socially) (Keyes, 2002). Psychosocial flourishing consists of various dimensions: having supportive and rewarding social relationships; contributing to the happiness of others; feeling respected by others; experiencing a life with purpose and meaning; being involved in and committed to personal goals; optimism; and believing in your own competence and capability (Diener et al., 2010). Psychosocial flourishing will be measured by the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2010).

(f)   Workplace bullying

Workplace bullying is viewed as a situation where an individual is exposed to severe and frequently negative behaviour by one or more individuals, and also finds it difficult to defend him- or herself against these negative actions. An isolated once-off incident will not be regarded as bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Workplace bullying will be measured by the Negative Act Questionnaire Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009).

(g)   Turnover intention

For the purpose of this research, turnover intention is when an employee's aim is to end employment voluntary and wilfully (DeTienne et al., 2012). Consideration to leave may decrease if employees find that they still prefer their current job or organisation after comparing it to other possibilities (Mobley, 1977). Turnover intention will be measured by the Turnover Intention Scale (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

Table 1.1

Summary of Research Constructs

Core construct	Sub-constructs	Measuring instrument
Self-esteem (mediating variable)	• General self-esteem • Social self-esteem • Personal self-esteem • Lie / defensiveness items	Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992)
Emotional intelligence (mediating variable)	• Perception of emotion • Managing own emotions • Managing others' emotions • Utilisation of emotions	The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2007)
Hardiness (mediating variable)	• Commitment • Control • Challenge	The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987)
Work engagement (mediating variable)	• Vigour • Dedication • Absorption	The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al. 2002)
Psychosocial flourishing (mediating variable)	• Measure major aspects of social-psychological functioning from the respondent's own point of view	The Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010)
Workplace bullying (independent variable)	• Work-related harassment • Organisational harassment • Personal harassment	The Negative Act Questionnaire Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009)
Turnover intention (dependent variable)	• Intention to leave	The Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010)

1.6.2.3   Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of the research can be formulated as follows:

Individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) will significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation. The study further assumes that the overall relationship between the constructs (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention) will constitute a psychological profile consisting of cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that may potentially inform employee wellness and retention practices. Furthermore, individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) will differ significantly

regarding self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and intention to leave the organisation.

1.6.2.4   Theoretical assumptions

Based on the literature review, the following theoretical assumptions are addressed in this research:

- There is a need for basic research that seeks to isolate psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention in a single study.
- Environmental, biographical and psychological factors such as socio-cultural background, age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups, and employees' range of psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention will influence employee wellness and talent retention.
- The seven constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention can be influenced by external factors such as age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups.
- Knowledge of an individual's level of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, as well as perception of workplace bullying and level of turnover intention will increase understanding of the factors that may potentially inform employee wellness and talent retention practices.

1.6.2.5   Methodological assumptions

Methodological assumptions are beliefs that concern the nature of social science and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Moreover, methodological assumptions affect the nature and structure of the research domain and these relate to the methodological choices, assumptions and suppositions that make for good research.

(a)   Sociological dimension

The sociological dimension conforms to the requirements of the sociological research ethic that makes use of the research community for its sources of theory development, which is viewed as a joint or collaborative activity. Within the bounds of the sociological dimension

research is experimental, analytical and exact, since the issues that are being studied are subject to quantitative research analysis. The variables and concepts related to this research will be described in chapter 5 (empirical research) and chapter 6 (research results).

(b)   Ontological dimension

The ontological dimension of research "specifies the nature of reality that is to be studied and what can be known about it" (Terre Blanche et al., 2006, p. 6). It also encompasses human behaviour, which can be measured. This research study will measure the properties of the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bulling and turnover intention.

(c)   Teleological dimension

The teleological dimension is the practice of science that is goal-oriented. Research goals refer to the immediate goals of a given research project, the different types of goals, and the relationship between research goals and the ideals of social science. The research goals in this research are clear and specific, namely to measure the relationship between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bulling and turnover intention. Furthermore, in practical terms, the teleological dimension looks to further the fields of industrial and organisational psychology and human resource management by providing them with knowledge that could enable an organisation to potentially inform employee wellbeing and talent retention practices.

(d)   Epistemological dimension

The epistemological dimension may be regarded as the quest for truth. A primary aim of research is to generate valid findings, which approximate reality as closely as possible. This research attempts to achieve this truth through a good research design, and the achievement of reliable and valid results.

(e)   Methodological dimension

"Methodology specifies how researchers may go about practically studying whatever they believe can be known" (Terre Blanche et al., 2006, p. 6). The methodological dimension is concerned with the type of methods (what) and in which way (how) the research will be done. The aim of the methodological dimension is to develop a more critical orientation on the part

of researchers by eliminating obviously incorrect decisions and, as a result, the validity of the research findings is maximised (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Thus, explaining how research will be done and the logical sequence thereof.

In this research, exploratory research will be presented in the form of a literature review on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bulling and turnover intention. Quantitative (exploratory, descriptive and explanatory) research will be presented in the empirical study.

1.7   RESEARCH DESIGN

Research is a process that begins with a problem (question) and ends with the problem resolved or addressed (Brink, 2006). Research design is the plan and structure of investigation to obtain answers to the research questions (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The research design also enables the researchers to complete the process validly, objectively, accurately and economically as far as possible (Salkind, 2011). The types of the research design conducted will be discussed, followed by a discussion on validity and reliability.

1.7.1   Exploratory research

Exploratory research is an investigation into relatively unknown areas of research. The process is open and flexible, and attempts to find new insights into phenomena (constructs and concepts) (Salkind, 2011; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). This research is exploratory in that it compares various theoretical perspectives on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bulling and turnover intention.

1.7.2   Descriptive research

Descriptive research aims to describe phenomena (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). During descriptive research, the variables of interest are defined conceptually and operationally. The variables can be categorised as views, beliefs, attitudes or facts, after which they are explained to deliver a holistic illustration of the phenomenon as it exits (Brink, 2006; Salkind, 2011).

In the literature review, descriptive research applies to the conceptualisation of the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial

flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention. In the empirical study, descriptive research applies to the means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas of the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

1.7.3 Explanatory research

Explanatory research aims to provide causal explanations of phenomena, and the focus should be on eliminating plausible rival hypotheses (Salkind, 2011; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Therefore, the researcher will seek to explain the relationship between variables (Salkind, 2011). Due to the cross-sectional nature of the research, the focus will not be on establishing cause and effect, but rather on establishing the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationship between the variables. In the empirical study, this form of research will be applicable to the relationship between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention scores of a group of subjects.

The end goal of the research is to draw conclusions about a psychological wellbeing profile (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention (intention to leave), with the aim to inform employee wellness and retention practices.

1.7.4 Validity

Validity refers to the extent to which the research conclusions are trustworthy (Salkind, 2011; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). There are various types of validity, namely internal, external, measurement, interpretative and statistical validity. All these types of validity are important in research (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

1.7.4.1   *Validity with regard to the literature*

In this research, validity is ensured by making use of literature that relates to the nature, problems and aims of the research. In this research, certain of the constructs, concepts and dimensions that form part of psychological coping, that is, wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention are to be found in the relevant literature. Constructs, concepts and dimensions were not chosen subjectively.

Moreover, such concepts and constructs are ordered logically and systematically, and every attempt has been made to search for and make use of the most recent literature sources, although a number of the classical and contemporary mainstream research streams have also been referred to, because of their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs relevant to this research.

1.7.4.2 *Validity with regard to the empirical research*

Research should be valid both internally and externally. Internal validity refers to the study generating accurate and valid findings on a specific phenomenon (Salkind, 2011). Internal validity refers to the extent to which the research results can be ascribed to the controlled, independent variable as opposed to uncontrolled unrelated factors (Brink, 2006). For research to be internally valid, the constructs must be measured in a valid manner, and the data measured must be accurate and reliable (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

Moreover, the analysis should be relevant to the type of data collected, and the final solutions must be adequately supported by the data. Internal validity also refers to whether variations in the dependent variables can be attributed to the independent variable and not to extraneous or confounding variables related to, for example, maturation, history, testing or instrumentation (Salkind, 2011). Internal validity is illustrated in Table 1.2 below.

Table 1.2
Internal Validity

Internal validity	
Conceptualisation	Theoretical validity
Constructs	Construct validity
Operationalisation	Measurement validity
Data collection	Reliability
Analysis/interpretation	Inferential validity

Source: Mouton and Marais (1994, p. 51)

Internal validity will be ensured by minimising selection bias (targeting the population of individuals working in the South African context). A large as possible sample will be chosen

35

to offset the effects of extraneous variables. The questionnaire will include standard instructions and information to all participants. The statistical procedures will control for biographical variables. The instruments will be tested for construct validity and reliability. Extraneous factors are unrelated to the research but affect the dependent variables (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Thematically, the present study focuses on the influencing role of age, gender, race, tenure and job level as a set of control variables.

External validity refers to the degree to which it is possible to generalise from the data gathered and context of the research study to larger populations and the environments (Terre Blanche et al., 2006; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). External validity is also associated with the sampling procedures used, the time and place of the research, and the conditions under which the research will be conducted (Salkind, 2011).

External validity will be ensured by the results being relevant only to individuals who are currently working in South African organisations. Targeting employed individuals across various sectors in the South African context will help to increase the generalisability of the results to the target population. The research will be cross-sectional in nature and non-probability purposive sampling will be used. Standard instructions will be provided to all participants.

The validity of the data gathering instruments will be ensured as follows:

- The constructs of this research will be measured in a valid manner by the use of questionnaires that are tested in scientific research and accepted as most suitable in terms of face validity, content validity and construct validity.
- Efforts will be made to ensure that the data collected is accurate, and is accurately coded and appropriately analysed to ensure content validity. The processing of statistics will be done by an expert, and by using the most recent and sophisticated computer packages.
- The researcher will ensure that the findings of this research are based on the data analysed to ensure content validity. The reporting and interpretation of results will be done according to standardised procedures.
- The researcher will ensure that the final conclusions, implications and recommendations are based on the findings of the research.

1.7.5 Reliability

Reliability is the stability of a measuring instrument over time (Black, 2009), or the degree to which results are repeatable (Babbie, 2010). Reliability in the literature will be addressed by using the existing literature sources, theories and models that are available to researchers (Salkind, 2011).

Reliability is concerned with stability and consistency. It refers to whether a particular measuring method (instrument), applied repeatedly to the same object, would yield the same result each time (Salkind, 2011). Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficients (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient) will be used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the questionnaires.

Appropriate statistical techniques that are congruent with the aims of this research will be used to analyse the data. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient measure estimates the reliability, based on the number of the items in the test and the average intercorrelation among test items (Murphy & Davidshofer, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranges from 0, which means there is no internal consistency, to 1, which is the maximum internal consistency score (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Therefore, the higher the alpha, the more reliable the item or test will be. In the social sciences, a desirable cut-off for Cronbach's alpha coefficients is .70 (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) deem the lower limit of acceptability as .60 for broad research purposes in the social sciences field.

1.7.6 The unit of research

The most common object in social science research is the individual (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The unit of analysis distinguishes between the characteristics, conditions, orientations and actions of the individuals, groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level), organisations and social artefacts (Salkind, 2011). This research focuses on the constructs of wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

On an individual level, the individual scores on each of the measuring instruments will be taken into consideration. On a group level, the overall scores on all the measuring instruments will be taken into consideration, and on a sub-group level the age, gender, race, tenure and job level scores will be taken into consideration. This is done to determine whether there is a relationship between the constructs of wellbeing-related dispositional

attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention. Furthermore, it is done to develop a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention for practical application in organisations.

1.7.7 The variables

The current research aims to measure the effects of five mediating variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), one independent variable (workplace bullying) and one dependent variable (turnover intention). The research will also assess the influence of the overall wellbeing-related dispositional construct (as mediating variable) on the relation between workplace bullying (as independent variable) and turnover intention (as dependent variable). The independent variable affects the other variables; therefore, instigating change (Brink, 2006). While the dependent variable reveals the result of or effect on the independent variable (Brink, 2006; Salkind, 2011). Mediator variables explain the relation between the independent and dependent variables. Mediators explain how external physical incidents take on internal psychological meaning; thus, mediator variables explain how or why such effects occur (Hayes, 2013). Mediating variables influence the relationship between the independent variables and dependent variables (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

In this research, the criterion data of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing instruments are the mediating variables, the criterion data of the workplace bullying instrument is the predictor data or independent variable, and the turnover intention measuring instrument is the dependent variable (the criterion data). Figure 1.1 provides an overview of the relationship between the control, mediating, independent and dependent variables.
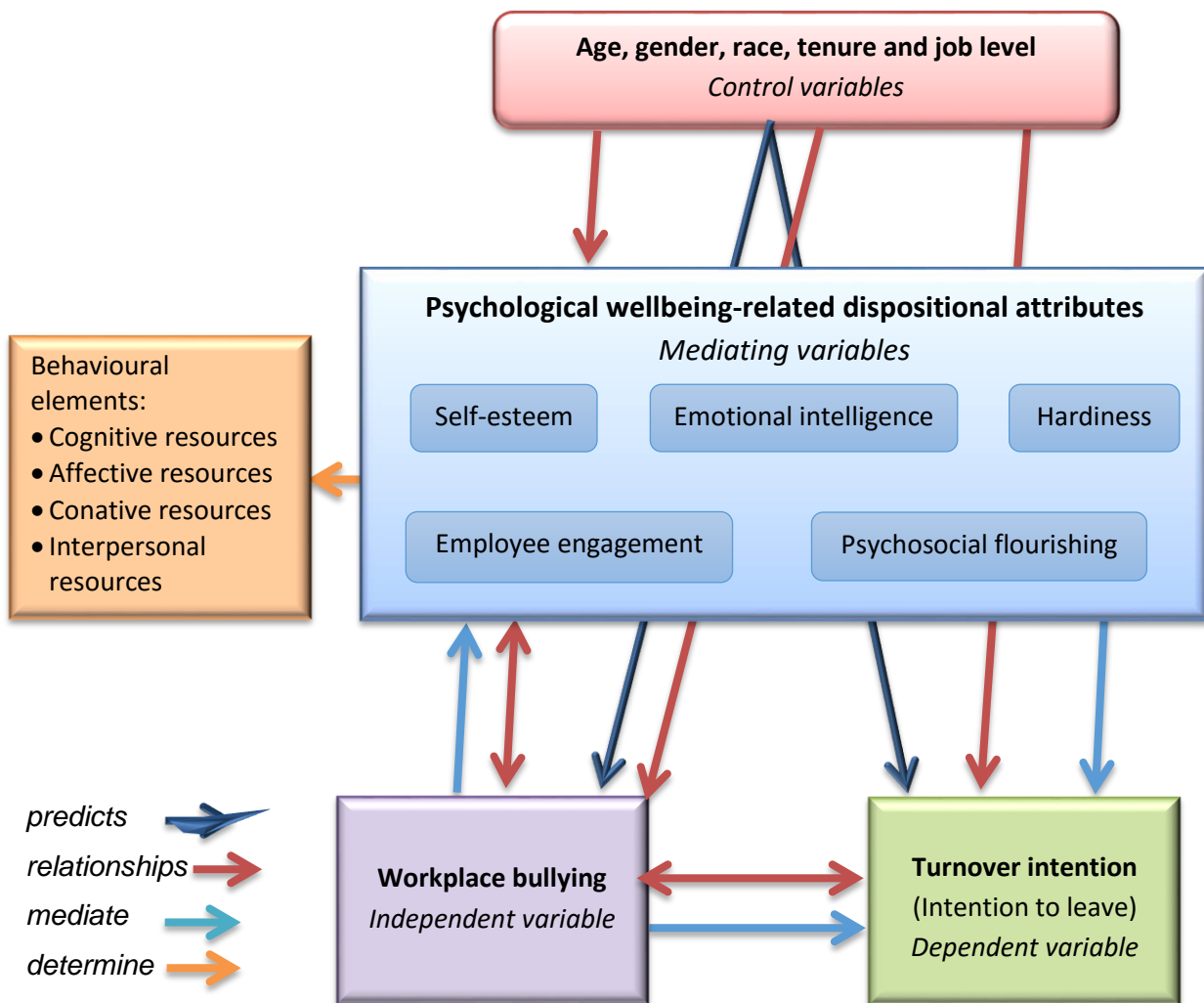
Figure 1.1: The relationship between the variables

1.7.8 Delimitations

The study is confined to research dealing with the relationship between the seven core variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention. In an attempt to identify oblique factors that could influence individuals' levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention, the variables used as control variables are limited to age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

No attempt will be made to manipulate or classify any of the information, results or data on the basis of family or spiritual background. Also, not included in any classification process, are factors of disability or illness, physical or psychological illness. The research is intended as ground breaking research that restricts its focus to the relationship between self-esteem,

emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing; workplace bullying and turnover intention. If such a relationship is indeed identified, then the groundwork information could be useful to future researchers to address other issues relating to the seven constructs.

The selected research approach is not intended to establish the cause and effect of the relationship, but merely to investigate whether such relationships do exist, and whether the relationships between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing; workplace bullying and turnover intention are influenced by variables such as age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

1.7.9   The potential limitations of cross-sectional quantitative research design

Cross-sectional research design studies allow the researcher to utilise data from a large number of subjects and the research is not geographically limited (Hall, 2008). However, cross-sectional studies have no time element, depend on existing dissimilarities, and measure differences between people, subjects or phenomena as opposed to the measurement of change (Durand & Chantler, 2014; Hall, 2008). Moreover, research results are static and provide information only at one point in time (time bound) (Durand & Chantler, 2014; Hall, 2008). Therefore, the findings of a cross-sectional research study can be different if another time-frame is chosen to collect the data (Hall, 2008).

In addition, research questions with regard to causation and effect between variables cannot be established (Durand & Chantler, 2014; Hall, 2008). Utilising a quantitative research method ensures objectivity of the research findings and conclusions. However, quantitative methods do not make provision for "grey area" answers, which may limit the interpretation of data (which is sometimes needed in the social sciences) (Madrigal & McClain, 2012).

1.8   RESEARCH METHOD

The research will be conducted in two phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study, as illustrated in figure 1.2

PHASE 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

Step 1: Individual career behaviour and retention in the 21st century	Step 2: Conceptualisation of the meta-theoretical context of the study	Step 3: Conceptualisation of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing)
Step4: Conceptualisation of the workplace bullying construct	Step 5: Conceptualisation of the construct turnover intention	Step 6: Theoretical relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, workplace bullying and turnover intention
Step 7: Conceptual psychological wellbeing profile	Step 8: Implications of the psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices	

PHASE 2: THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

Step 1: Psychometric battery	Step 2: Population and sample	Step 3: Administration of psychometric battery
Step 4: Data capturing	Step 5: Research hypotheses formulation	Step 6: Statistical processing of data
Step 7: Reporting and interpretation of results	Step 8: Integration of research	Step 9: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

Figure 1.2: Overview of the research methodology

1.8.1   Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review consists of a review of the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention with a focus on the wellness of employees while coping in a bullying work environment for talent retention.

Step 1:   Employee wellness within a bullying work environment in the 21st century talent retention context

This phase will conceptualise coping behaviour and wellness within a bullying work environment and in a talent retention context.

Step 2: Psychological wellbeing

This phase will conceptualise the psychological wellbeing-related attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

Step 3: Workplace bullying and turnover intention

This phase will conceptualise workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Step 4:   The integration of the hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention

The integration and development of the hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile comprises the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. The relationship between these constructs and its implications for employee wellness and talent retention practices for the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology will be discussed.

1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study

An empirical study was conducted in a diverse South African context, and a quantitative survey design will be utilised. A quantitative survey design is beneficial, since it is cost-effective, more objective and can easily reach a large number of respondents (Salkind, 2011).

The empirical study will entail the following nine steps:

Step 1: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

The psychometric properties of the measuring instruments, which are intended to measure the five mediating variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), the one independent variable (workplace bullying) and the one dependent variable (turnover intention) will be described in chapter 5.

Step 2: Determination and description of the sample

The process for determining the sample and the sample characteristics will be defined and discussed in chapter 5 in this step.

Step 3: Ethical considerations and administration of the psychometric battery

The ethical considerations and the process used to collect data will be explained in chapter 5.

Step 4: Capturing of criterion data

The capturing of the data and data analysis will be summarised in chapter 5 during this step.

Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses

In this step, the hypotheses to achieve the research objectives will be formulated in chapter 5.

Step 6: Statistical processing of data

The relevant statistical procedures will be explained in more detail during this step in chapter 5.

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

During this step, the manner in which research results is presented will be discussed in chapter 6.

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research will be integrated into the findings of the literature review in chapter 6.

Step 9: Formulation of conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

The final step relates to conclusions based on the results and their integration with theory in chapter 7. The limitations of the research will be discussed, and recommendations will be made in terms of the empirical psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices, and future research.

1.9 CHAPTER DIVISION

The next chapters will be presented in the following manner:

Chapter 2: Meta-theoretical context of the study: employee wellness and talent retention
Chapter 2 addresses the first literature research aim, namely to conceptualise employee coping behaviour and wellness within a bullying work environment and in a talent retention context. The psychological factors and variables impacting individuals' turnover intention will also be discussed. Finally, the antecedents and consequences of turnover intention will be summarised.

Chapter 3: Psychological wellbeing
The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise the psychological wellbeing-related attributes, namely, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and how these constructs are conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature. Then, the variables influencing these constructs will be explored. Finally, the implications of the psychological wellbeing-related attributes for employee wellness and talent retention will be discussed.

Chapter 4: Workplace bullying and turnover intention

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention, as well as the manner in which these constructs are conceptualised and explained by theoretical models in the literature. Then, the variables influencing these constructs will be discussed. Finally, the implications of workplace bullying and turnover intention for employee wellness and talent retention will be explored.

Integration of the literature review: constructing a theoretically hypothesised psychological wellbeing profile.

The purpose of the theoretical integration of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention is to formulate a conceptual framework describing the theoretical relationship between these constructs. Based on this theoretical framework, a psychological wellbeing profile will be developed, which comprises the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. The relationship between these constructs and its implications for employee wellness and talent retention practices for the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology will be discussed in chapter 4.

Chapter 5: Empirical research

The objective of this chapter is to describe the empirical research. The measuring instruments will be described, followed by a discussion of the data gathering process. Next, the aims of the empirical research will be given and an overview of the study's population and sample will be presented. Finally, the research hypotheses will be formulated.

Chapter 6: Research results

The statistical results of this research study will be described and the various research hypotheses that were tested will be outlined. The empirical research findings will be integrated with the literature review. The chapter will conclude with a discussion of the statistical results and interpretation of the descriptive, common and inferential (multivariate) statistics.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The last chapter will entail an integration and conclusion of the research results. The limitations of this study will be explored and recommendations provided for the field of

industrial and organisational psychology, and in terms of further research. The chapter will conclude with final observations to integrate the research, together with an evaluation of the value this research has added on a theoretical, statistical and practical level.

1.10   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the scientific orientation to the research. Furthermore, it described the background to and motivation for the research, the aim of the study, the research model, the paradigm perspectives, the theoretical research, the research design and methodology, the central hypothesis and the research method. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that no known research has been conducted on the mediating effect and relationship dynamics between the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychological wellbeing, workplace bullying and turnover intention, and whether the relationship dynamics between these constructs can be used to construct a psychological wellbeing profile for talent retention in a single study.

The research sets out to evaluate critically and, based on sound research methodology, investigate the relationship dynamics, the associations and the overall relationship between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing (as a composite set of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) in relation to workplace bullying (as independent variable) and turnover intention (as dependent variable).

The research also aims to investigate and determine the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, the research aims to investigate whether individuals from various biographical characteristics (gender, age, race, tenure and job level groups) differ significantly regarding these variables. This research may inform industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals on more effective employee wellness and talent retention strategies.

Chapter 2 focuses on the first research aim and review coping behaviour and wellness within a bullying work environment in a talent retention context.

CHAPTER 2: META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY: EMPLOYEE WELLNESS AND TALENT RETENTION

The aim of this chapter is to put the current study in perspective by clarifying the meta-theoretical context that forms the conclusive parameters of the research. The new world of work entails numerous challenges (Szeto & Dobson, 2013) and requires increased adaptability to a fast changing work environment (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Hence, individuals are increasingly exposed to stressors at work, which subsequently produce a conflict-enriched work environment (Sahin, 2011). The 21st century world of work requires coping capabilities for employees to adjust and handle difficult relationships more effectively. Research indicates social conflict at work is associated with poor mental health such as depression, health problems and lower job satisfaction (Schat & Frone, 2011; Spector & Bruk-Lee, 2008) and consequently, lower organisational productivity and increased turnover intentions (Schat & Frone, 2011). The challenging work context creates a need for employees to acquire coping resources to adjust and advance in their careers (Marock, 2008), and for organisations to improve their talent retention initiatives to gain a global advantage (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2012). There seems to be a need for understanding employee coping behaviour, which in turn, may potentially inform employee wellness and talent retention strategies in the modern workplace.

This section will conceptualise coping behaviour and wellness within a bullying work environment and within a talent retention context.

2.1 TALENT RETENTION IN THE 21st CENTURY WORKPLACE

Retaining talent is developing as the most significant challenge of the imminent future for human capital management (Sinha & Sinha, 2012). Talent retention is a process where employees are encouraged to continue working at the same organisation for a prolonged period of time (Gurumani, 2010; James & Mathew, 2012). In addition, talent retention involves measures to inspire and support employees to remain at the organisation (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011). Chaminade (2007) describes talent retention as a voluntary action by the organisation to create an environment where employees feel constantly engaged. The main strive of talent retention strategies is to prevent the loss of skilled employees from the organisation (James & Mathew, 2012). Individuals also have different needs, and may get disgruntled and look for other work opportunities. Therefore, organisations need to take control to retain their valuable employees or stand a chance of losing their talent base (Gurumani, 2010; James & Mathew, 2012). Sinha and Sinha (2012) view talent retention as

a complex concept and argue that there is no single strategy to prevent employees from leaving.

The prospects and social requirements of employees have changed and as such, these changes have an impact on the world of work in the 21st century. The work environment is increasingly complex and demanding, and makes it also more challenging for organisations to attract talent and retain valuable employees (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, Perryer, & Pick, 2010). A significant amount of organisations suffered mass restructuring and downsizing, which resulted in major lay-offs due to the global financial crisis (McDonnell, 2011). As such, countries and organisations of various sizes are now engrossed in a war for talent (DHET, 2014; Frase, 2007). Egerová (2013) argues that companies that are skilled in recruiting, developing and retaining their current talented workforce can obtain an excellent advantage over their competitors. In addition, high voluntary turnover is a major cause of lower productivity and negative attitudes in the workplace, which can cause an increase in recruitment and training expenses (James & Mathew, 2012; Kumar & Dhamodaran, 2013). Therefore, it seems high turnover can be extremely expensive and time consuming.

On an individual level, globalisation has caused individuals to become more adaptable, dynamic and knowledgeable in order to gain a strategic advantage in the new world of work (Baruch, 2006; Uy, Chan, Sam, Ho, & Chernyshenko, 2015; Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015). The propensity in the modern workplace is that employees need to become more self-concerned (Baruch, 2006) since personal development and professional growth are currently the responsibility of employees and not organisations (Grant & Ashford, 2008); for example, training or advancement opportunities (Grant & Parker, 2009; Segers & Inceoglu, 2012). In addition, advances in technology expose employees to new work interfaces such as teleworking where employees work from home with less face-to-face interactions (Golden, Veiga, & Dino, 2008; Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2013), which result in lower social interactions and lower social resources (Tims et al., 2013).

Moreover, in the new world of work employees are globally more mobile (Cappellen & Janssens, 2005; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). A new boundaryless career concept exists between employers and employees where the emphasis of individual career paths has changed to knowledge development and employability (Becker & Haunschild, 2003; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Employees are increasingly searching for new opportunities and may prefer working for various organisations as opposed to one single employer (Verbruggen, 2012).

Hence, shorter work relationships exist between employees and organisations, because individuals are no longer loyal to stay with a single organisation through their life span (Baruch, 2004; Lyons et al., 2015). A new psychological contract exists between companies and employees, which entails different expectations (Lent, 2013). In the past, employees offered loyalty to gain a sense of job security. However, individuals currently seem to favour growth and development opportunities by offering work performance in return (Baruch, 2006; Clarke, 2008; Verbruggen, 2012).

Knowledge workers require ambiguity, teamwork and relationship-building as opposed to the traditional commanding and controlling leadership styles (D'Art & Turner 2006). The traditional work environment is represented by job security and vertical career advancements whereas the new world of work is represented by employability and horisontal career movement (Lamb & Sutherland, 2010). Conversely, Lyons et al. (2015) found that most employees continue to move upwards as opposed to lateral or downwards. However, younger generations tend to make career moves in all directions (upward, lateral, downwards) as opposed to older individuals, although the upward career path pattern continues to remain the norm (Lyons et al., 2015). Employees can accomplish employability by increasing their variety of skills, knowledge and qualities to assist them in obtaining better jobs and ensure career advancements (Akkermans, Schaufeli, Brenninkmeijer & Blonk, 2013). Thus, individuals can become more employable by obtaining various competencies, which can further result in continuous career progression (Chudzikowski, 2012; Pool & Sewell, 2007).

Talent shortages may get worse which can limit organisational growth and the ultimate survival of companies (Gordon, 2009). Organisations are progressively forced to compete in a global diverse market (DeSimone & Werner, 2012). Furthermore, the workforce may decline since the Baby Boomer generation is retiring and the birth rate is declining due to infertility (Athey, 2008; World Health Organisation, 2014). These two factors may further result in a global decline of younger employees (Majeed, Forder, Mishra, Kendig, & Byles, 2015). Similarly, Hayutin (2010) argues that many developed countries may experience a workforce reduction and that the European working population will decrease by 50 million. On the other hand, older employees are often required to remain with the organisation well beyond their retirement age to offer their expertise and valuable skills (De Lange, Bal, Van der Heijden, De Jong, & Schaufeli, 2011; Majeed et al., 2015).

South Africa suffers from a high unemployment rate (Statistics South Africa, 2015) and over recent years have lost critical skills in various industries, for instance in the financial,

telecommunications and technology sectors (DHET, 2014; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2010). This has had a negative influence on the availability of proficient employees in the country (Van Schalkwyk et al., 2010). In addition, there is a scarcity of talented employees among the previously disadvantaged groups, especially within the chemical industry (Peralta & Stark, 2006; Van Schalkwyk et al., 2010).

Furthermore, changes in the workforce are increasing; for example, economic and labour market changes, diversity and generational differences (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, Perryer, & Pick, 2010). Individuals within a specific generation share certain life experiences (Smith & Clurman, 1998), which can include natural disasters, cultural events, and economic and technology changes (Schullery, 2013). Tapscott (2009) argues that Generation X individuals cannot occupy all available jobs, since they are 15% less than the Baby Boomer generation. On the other hand, Generation Y is the fastest growing fragment of the workforce that seems to exceed the Baby Boomer generation (Spiro, 2006; Tapscott, 2009), and occasionally they are inaccurately perceived as less hard-working and not highly committed to their organisations (Jovic, Wallace, & Lemaire, 2006). Since Generation Y individuals tend to look for new challenges when they are not satisfied with their employers (Alsop, 2008; Hartman & McCambridge, 2011). Generation Y employees seem to have different work expectations; anticipates a balance between career and family (Bu & McKeen, 2000), prefer a life with meaning, independence, and a job where they can use their own judgement (Budhwar & Varma, 2011).

Research studies also indicate significant differences in career values across generations (Schullery, 2013; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). In addition, the Baby Boomer generation is starting to leave (retire) organisations, while the generation Y'ers are growing in the workplace. Therefore, it is imperative that organisations develop and adjust their engagement and talent retention strategies to take generational differences into consideration (Gilbert, 2011).

Scott-Ladd et al. (2010) argue there is also a concern for employees' psychological wellbeing, since activities and situations in the workplace tend to cause physical and mental exhaustion, which can result in stress and burnout over the long-term. Employees who are exposed to technology in the workplace can be more vulnerable to stress, emotional fatigue and may experience lower psychological wellbeing (Knani, 2013). The reason can be that employees experience anxiety when they view technology as a threat, challenging to use or as something they have less control over. Therefore, individuals may experience feelings of fear due to an inability to cope with technology (Knani, 2013; Wang, Shu, & Tu, 2008).

Thus, there seems to be various factors that may influence talent retention in the new world of work. Below a summary is provided in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1

Summary of Talent Retention Challenges in the 21st Century Workplace

Level of influence	Talent retention challenge	Effect / Consequence
Organisational level	Various employers opposed to one employer	Loss of skills and competencies
	Individual expectations have changed. Generational differences	Various strategies need to be employed.
	Work environment is more complex	More challenging to recruit and retain employees
	Global financial crisis	Restructuring; downsizing; loss of workforce High unemployment rate
	Global competition	Organisations compete for talented employees.
	High voluntary turnover	Loss of critical scarce skills Increased recruitment and training expenses
	Workforce declining	Talent shortages
Individual level	Individuals' needs differ	Take individual differences into account when compiling talent retention strategies
	Employees are more adaptable, dynamic, and knowledgeable.	Employees have greater mobility and are more employable.
	Advancement in technology	Increased vulnerability to stress, emotional fatigue and lower psychological wellbeing Regularly working from home
	Employees have new expectations.	Less tenure at one employer Seek growth and development opportunities Need more challenges Less loyalty Variety, autonomy, work/life balance more important Career movements in multiple directions
	Stressful work environment and increased work demands	Greater concern for employee wellness

In summary, employees may choose to work for various employers as opposed to one employer (Verbruggen, 2012). This can result in the loss of skills and competencies when talented employees decide to leave their current employing organisation (Gurumani, 2010;

James & Mathew, 2012). In addition, the work environment appears more complex where change is constant (Scott-Ladd et al., 2010), and career paths appear more vague and ambiguous (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Moreover, the economic and labour market changes (Scott-Ladd et al., 2010) contribute to a more challenging recruitment and talent retention process (DHET, 2014; Frase, 2007). The global financial crisis has also caused many companies to go through massive restructuring and downsizing, which resulted in the loss of various skilled employees (McDonnell, 2011).

The recruitment challenge consequently caused employers to compete globally in the attraction and retention of talented employees (DeSimone & Werner, 2012). In addition, high voluntary turnover increased recruitment and training expenses; thus, efficient recruitment processes are even more essential in order to achieve best job fit (Kumar & Dhamodaran, 2013). Furthermore, younger employees are decreasing due to increased infertility and the retirement of older employees, which consequently contributes to talent shortages (Majeed et al., 2015; WHO, 2014).

In the contemporary world of work, individuals need to become more flexible, adapt to the turbulent work environment successfully, obtain and utilise relevant competencies and skills to become more employable, and be able to create their own job opportunities (Baruch, 2006; Chan et al., 2015; Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Since the high unemployment problem (Statistics South Africa, 2015) contributes to an uncertain work environment and feelings of job insecurity (Lamb & Sutherland, 2010), employees who are more knowledgeable tend to experience greater mobility between jobs and employers (Akkermans et al., 2013; Chudzikowski, 2012; Pool & Sewell, 2007), which may further increase the challenge for employers to retain talented employees.

In addition, employees have different needs and expectations (Gurumani, 2010; James & Mathew, 2012), may not remain with one employer throughout their careers (Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; João & Coetzee, 2012), and may display lower levels of loyalty (Baruch, 2006; Clarke, 2008). In the modern era, employees seem to seek more variety, autonomy and work/life balance (Coetzee & Stoltz, 2015; Du Toit & Coetzee, 2012; João & Coetzee, 2012), display career movements in multiple directions (upward, lateral, downwards) (Lamb & Sutherland, 2010; Lyons et al., 2015), and enjoy growth and development opportunities (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo 2011; Van Dyk, Coetzee, & Takawira), which seem to act as talent retention factors. Organisations need to employ various talent retention strategies as opposed to one single strategy (Sandhya & Kumar, 2011; Sinha & Sinha, 2012) because employees may differ in their future and social expectations, and may also display

generational differences (Scott-Ladd et al., 2010).

Moreover, technology advancements (Knani, 2013), stressful work environments and high work demands (Gayathiri & Ramakrishnan, 2013; Scott-Ladd et al., 2010) may increase physical and emotional exhaustion, which may consequently lower employees' psychological wellbeing (Knani, 2013; Scott-Ladd et al., 2010). Thus, employee wellness needs to receive priority in organisations.

Next, the psychological factors and variables impacting individuals' turnover intention will be discussed.

2.2 PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AND BULLYING AS ANTECEDENTS OF TURNOVER INTENTION

Research indicates various factors influence employees' turnover intentions, such as psychological factors (commitment, job satisfaction, emotional intelligence) (Balogun & Olowodunoye; 2012), organisational factors (monetary and fringe benefits, location, organisational policies, and stability of the organisation) (Chena, Ford, Kalyanaramb, & Bhagat, 2012), social relationships at work; job characteristics (challenging work, variety, autonomy) (Amin & Akbar, 2013; Chang, Wang, & Huang, 2013; McKnight et al., 2009), and external factors (economy, labour market) (Chang et al., 2013; Sahin, 2011).

Psychological wellbeing concerns are extensively influencing numerous individuals across the world (Collins, Patel, March, Insel, & Daar, 2011). Employees who experience challenges at work can experience a decline in their general mental wellbeing (Price & Kompier, 2006). Thus, it appears that challenges at work can act as significant sources of stress. Research indicates that job stress has a direct negative influence on employees' turnover intentions. Employees who experience high levels of stress may therefore be more likely to leave the organisation (Gill et al., 2013).

A significant relationship has been established between personality traits and bullying behaviour (Bowling, Beehr, Bennett, & Watson, 2010; Zapf, & Einarsen, 2010). Individuals with higher levels of neuroticism, more specifically the emotional instability characteristic, reported more frequent exposure to bullying behaviour (Balducci, Fraccaroli, & Schaufeli, 2011; Warr, 2007). In stressful work situations neurotic employees may act in a certain manner, which may result in interpersonal conflict, causing them to be harassed by perpetrators (Zapf & Einarsen, 2010). In contrast, Glasø, Matthiesen, Nielsen, and Einarsen

(2007) argue that differences in personality between victims and bullies may be a consequence as opposed to an antecedent of negative behaviour, since they have found no evidence for a general victim personality profile. In addition, Balducci et al. (2011) have found that personality characteristics are not adequate to understand hostile behaviour at work.

Various research studies indicate that a negative organisational view can have detrimental effects on employees' attitudes, health and behaviours (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008) whereas individuals who perceive their organisation as fair are satisfied with their compensation, and experience positive social interactions, leading to a lower turnover intention (Chang et al., 2013). Thus, unfair human resource practices, poor compensation and negative behaviour may increase employees' intentions to leave. Moreover, when the employees' values and characteristics are similar to those of the organisation, it is more enjoyable for a person to be employed there and that can result in a lower intention to leave. On the other hand, when there is conflict between individual and organisational values, it may contribute to higher stress levels (Gill et al., 2013).

Similarly, Bedi and Schat (2013) have found that a politicised work environment can also act as a stressor for employees, which may have a negative impact on their psychological wellbeing and can result in burnout. Malik, Zaheer, Khan, and Ahmed (2010) argue that burnout is one of the major reasons for an increase in employees' intention to leave. Agboola and Jeremiah (2011) view burnout as a result of hard work on a continuous basis with little benefit. Therefore, it seems individuals who provide all their energy and expertise but don't feel rewarded and enjoy little leisure time can suffer from lower psychological wellbeing due to burnout. Research also indicates that various biographical and personality factors may be contributing factors that cause employees to experience burnout such as age, gender, type of work and intention to leave (Agboola & Jeremial, 2011; Dotun, Nneka, & Akinlolu, 2013).

Likewise, Gayathiri and Ramakrishnan (2013) argue that employees are faced with increased workloads, demanding deadlines, more direct supervision and less job stability these days. Therefore, individuals tend to work longer hours in order to meet these vigorous deadlines and demands, which may affect physical and mental wellbeing negatively (Ajala, 2013). On the other hand, employees who are content and have a balanced work life appear to experience more job satisfaction and a positive attitude (Ajala, 2013). They are more productive and more engaged at work (Ajala, 2013; Lueneburger, 2009; Spreitzer, Gretchen, & Porath, 2012), display lower absenteeism and have a lower intention to leave (Ajala, 2013). Highly satisfied employees also tend to have lower turnover intentions (Balogun &

Olowodunoye; 2012, Ojedokun, 2008). Thus, it seems that individuals who are more content at work tend to be more productive and may be less inclined to leave their organisations.

In addition, research indicates the way in which employees perceive events, while circumstances influence their turnover intentions. More specifically, employees' work experiences seem to affect their attitudes and behaviour at work (Sahin, 2011). Thus, it seems that when individuals view their work experiences as negative, their intentions to leave the organisations may increase. Negative behaviour at work can result in employees avoiding meetings, certain situations or leaving the organisation in order to avoid exposure to bullying behaviour (Lewis, Sheehan, & Davies, 2008). Moreover, research indicates that workplace bullying can cause poor work performance, decrease psychological wellbeing and create a strong intention to leave the organisation (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper, 2003; O'Connell, Calvert, & Watson, 2007).

Possible antecedents of bullying at work can include unhappiness, frustration, internal competition, and poor reward systems. Certain circumstances may also act as triggers to create a platform for bullying behaviour such as retrenchments and change management (Salin, 2003). The pattern and persistency of the negative behaviour affect individuals more than the type of acts associated with bullying (Einarsen & Hoel, 2008). Bullying is not once-off happenings; instead they are repeated and persistent negative acts focused on a specific individual. Exclusion by management or by co-workers may occur occasionally and be perceived as relatively harmless acts, but if persisted over a period of time such behaviour can be viewed as bullying (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012).

Research findings suggest that employees who are subjected to verbal abuse, experience hindrances to perform their work or are emotionally tormented due to bullying behaviour may experience increased thoughts of leaving the organisation (Harlos & Axelrod, 2008). Sias, Heath, Perry, Silva, and Fix (2004) have found that antecedents of negative work behaviour consist of five specific contributing factors, namely personality differences, disturbing life happenings, conflicting anticipations, advancements and betrayal.

Perpetrators are normally not at ease with their interpersonal skills and personal boundaries; therefore, they tend to greatly count on the involvement from other employees to maintain their self-esteem (Einarsen et al., 2009). In addition, bullies normally target susceptible individuals through their negative acts (Randle, 2003).

Herewith an overview of bullying behaviour in relation to the psychological wellbeing

attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, as well as turnover intention.

Self-esteem

Moreover, individuals' self-confidence may suffer from being exposed to bullying behaviour, which may lead to less positive feelings experienced by the victim (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010; Glasø & Notelaers, 2012). Thus, being a target of negative behaviour at work may cause the victim's self-esteem to deteriorate. On the other hand, high self-esteem individuals may be more capable to cope with stressors (Wu, Li, & Johnson, 2011). Therefore, it appears that high self-esteem individuals tend to experience lower levels of stress. Conversely, individuals can also experience lower levels of self-esteem and feel overwhelmed due to emotional fatigue caused by burnout (Moore, 2000). Therefore, it appears that burnout can impact an individual's self-esteem negatively, and low self-esteem individuals may perceive difficult events as more stressful. In addition, persistent exposure to stressors is related to increased turnover intentions (Paillé, 2011). Thus, high self-esteem may cause a person to experience lower levels of stress and consequently lower the probability of his or her intention to leave the organisation.

Emotional intelligence

Psychological factors, such as emotional intelligence, affect employees' intentions to leave their organisations (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012). Emotionally intelligent individuals tend to read, handle and utilise feelings in order to manage difficult situations, develop new skills, obtain qualifications, personally grow and develop better than others (Trivellasa, Gerogiannisb, & Svarnab, 2013). Individuals who are highly emotionally intelligent may also experience fewer thoughts of leaving and have fewer intentions to search for alternative job opportunities (Adeyemo & Afolabi, 2007; Ajay, 2009). Balogun and Olowodunoye (2012) argue that individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence may be more confident about their coping abilities; thus, they may be more certain that they can influence situations that could otherwise have instigated thoughts of leaving the workplace. Since emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to perceive events at work as positive and may be more in control of their emotions (Jeswani & Dave, 2012). Moreover, emotionally intelligent individuals tend to handle stress triggered by complex and demanding work events better, and also prevent negative impacts on their career paths (Trivellasa et al., 2013).

Hardiness

Glasø and Notelaers (2012) argue that positive feelings may have significant effects on the bullied individual's coping strategies, since negative behaviour can weaken the intensity of positive feelings and it decreases targets' coping abilities. Therefore, targeted employees may choose to withdraw by leaving the organisation in an attempt to avoid further emotional pain or may leave in despair or as a result of physical illness due to the prolonged stress caused by the bullying behaviour (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012). Thus, it appears that individuals who are less resilient may be more affected emotionally and physically by the prolonged negative acts. Therefore, they may encompass fewer coping skills, and may experience higher turnover intentions.

Work engagement

Wollard (2011) argues that engagement is a thought process displayed during decision-making where one chooses not to be engaged on a cognitive or emotional level. Furthermore, the decision of engagement normally happens before the employee decides to leave the organisation (Wollard, 2011). Empowering work environments where management provides employees with the relevant support and resources to do their work seem to reduce the likelihood of bullying behaviour (Laschinger et al., 2010; Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2012). Research findings also indicate that employees who experience social support from their supervisors and colleagues reflect a lower tendency to leave their organisations (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012). In addition, these employees may be more committed to and engaged in the organisation (Eisenberger, Stinglahamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002).

On the other hand, prolonged stress experienced in the workplace can affect individuals negatively; employees may start to experience exhaustion, aggression, irritability and frustration with the situation, which can further result in lower levels of motivation, engagement and productivity (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, it seems that employees who experience work stress for long periods may be less committed to the organisation.

Flourishing

Employees who are exposed to bullying behaviour may generate more negative feelings and also experience less positive feelings (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012). Thus, employees may experience lower levels of psychosocial flourishing due to the increase of negative feelings.

Significant consequences of negative emotions may include lower job satisfaction, less commitment to the organisation and an increase in turnover intention (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012; Rayner et al., 2002).

In summary, difficult situations, such as conflict at work, may cause employees to experience increased levels of stress, which can lower employees' psychological wellbeing further (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Price & Kompier, 2006). Subsequently, employees may be more inclined to leave their employing companies (Gill et al., 2013). On the other hand, employees who are content with their salary, experience less conflict at work and are treated fairly by their employers tend to display lower turnover intentions (Chang et al., 2013). Thus, it seems that when employees are rewarded for their efforts and work in a fair and low conflict environment it may contribute to greater mental health and lower voluntary turnover behaviour. Similarly, when individuals' values are congruent with their employing organisations they may have a higher probability to experience job satisfaction and lower intention to leave (Gill et al., 2013). Moreover, workplace bullying seems to lower job satisfaction, productivity, and cause employees to experience lower mental wellbeing and consequently have more thoughts about leaving their employers (Einarsen, et al., 2003; Harlos & Axelrod, 2008; Lewis et al., 2008; O'Connell et al., 2007).

Finally, from the foregoing literature it seems that individuals with high self-esteem (Wu et al., 2011), emotional intelligence (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012) or hardiness (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012) may cope more effectively with workplace stressors (such as bullying events) and may consequently display lower turnover intentions. Prolonged exposure to workplace stressors may deteriorate employees' self-esteem (Wu et al., 2011), emotional intelligence (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012), engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and psychosocial flourishing (Glasø & Notelaers, 2012) levels, which may subsequently create increased intentions to leave.

In the following section a discussion of the antecedents and consequences of turnover intention will be provided.

2.3   ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF TURNOVER INTENTION

In the workplace, employees have many daily challenges, which can have an impact on their general psychological wellbeing (Szeto & Dobson, 2013). Research indicates self-esteem is significantly related to psychological wellbeing, which suggests employees with lower self-

efficacy (a core component of self-esteem) have poorer psychological wellbeing. They tend to be more pessimistic and not feel good about themselves (Adejuwon & Lawal, 2013). Self-efficacy can be seen as a component of self-esteem.

These results are in agreement with Bandura's social learning theory (Bandura, 1997b). This theory suggests that lower self-efficacy levels can hamper drive (motivation), whereas higher self-efficacy individuals tend to be more focused, goal-oriented and prefer challenging work (Adejuwon & Lawal, 2013). Individuals who are successful in life tend to experience positive emotions, display self-control, are more self-accepting, have meaningful relationships and autonomy, and they cope better in their environment. These aspects appear to be antecedents of psychological wellbeing (Adejuwon & Lawal, 2013; Ryff 1989a, 1989b). Thus, it seems that people who have a higher psychological wellbeing tend to be more successful, have better relationships and may possess more effective coping strategies, whereas people with a lower psychological wellbeing may not cope as effectively with their daily challenges.

Employees who have high work demands and experience less control over their work situations tend to report lower physical (Molarius et al., 2007) and psychological wellbeing. The reason is that less control over one's work may cause feelings of anxiety that may result in lower mental wellbeing (Hakanen, Schaufeli, & Ahola, 2008). The availability of only a few resources may also cause employees to experience frustration and lower motivation levels. This may instigate withdrawal behaviour (Hakanen et al., 2008). Thus, it seems that employees may display withdrawal behaviour (taking leave days or exit the organisation) to cope with work frustration that has been caused by the absence of job resources.

Conversely, research indicates that numerous available job resources can protect individuals from experiencing exhaustion (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Nahrgang, Morgeson, & Hofmann, 2011; Tims et al., 2013). Exhaustion is the reduction of a person's internal energy due to the loss of strength. Exhausted individuals' battle to exert additional effort, which affects their optimal functioning (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). In situations where employees suffer from burnout it can indicate that they do not have the necessary resources to cope with the specific job requirements and consequently, display poor job performance (Demerouti, Bakker, & Leiter 2014; Taris, 2006). Moreover, when employees have the necessary resources they tend to be more flexible to change and perform better at work (Demerouti et al., 2014).

Similarly, Tims et al. (2013) argue that the availability of many resources permits individuals to meet job demands; therefore, it can safeguard employees against work pressures. Thus, it appears that job resources can act as buffers and may lower the risk of employee burnout. Research findings indicate changes in job resources can affect psychological wellbeing (Schaufeli, Bakker & Van Rhenen, 2009b; Tims et al., 2013). More job resources can improve work satisfaction, work engagement and intrinsic work motivation (Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Tims et al., 2013). Therefore, it seems that adequate resources may increase feelings of control. This may result in lower levels of anxiety and frustration, while employees may be more motivated and experience higher levels of wellbeing.

A lack of social support at work can have a damaging effect on employees' wellbeing (Balducci et al., 2011; Hasson, Arnetz, Theorell, & Anderberg, 2006). Likewise, research findings indicate that a combination of low job control, high psychological demands and low social support can cause individuals to experience major depressive episodes (Bonde, 2008). Consequently, this may increase the potential of leaving the organisation (Rugulies et al., 2012).

Moreover, employees who perceive their efforts not being fairly rewarded over an extended period of time tend to report more psychological (Stansfeld & Candy, 2006) and physical health problems (Balducci et al., 2011; Krause, Rugulies, & Maslach, 2010; Stansfeld & Candy, 2006). Dissatisfaction with monetary and non-monetary rewards is significantly associated with turnover intention (Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008). Thus, it seems that perceptions of unfair reward systems may increase poor wellbeing and strengthen employees' intentions to leave the organisations.

Compensation was found to be the most effective approach to lower negative consequences of burnout on work performance and increase adaptability to variation in the workplace (Demerouti et al., 2014). Thus, it indicates that when employees are satisfied with their compensation, they tend to have lower levels of burnout, and as a result, perform better at work and cope more effectively with change.

Individuals who experience job insecurity tend to have lower psychological wellbeing. Anxiety and uncertainty of losing one's job can also reduce psychological wellbeing (Adejuwon & Lawal, 2013), and increase turnover intention (Direnzo & Greenhaus, 2011). In addition, Szeto and Dobson (2013) found that individuals who perceived their work as extremely stressful were about three times more likely to receive treatment for emotional or psychological problems and 2.4 times more likely to be diagnosed with a mood or anxiety

disorder, as opposed to individuals who did not perceive their work as stressful. Furthermore, decreased stress is not associated with mental disorders. However, when the amount of stress intensifies, the risk of occurrence of psychological conditions heightens (also referred to as "the dose-response pattern") (Szeto & Dobson, 2013). Hinduja (2007) posits that stressful events at work may cause individuals to display bullying behaviour as a coping strategy to deal with their frustration and desire to regain control.

Bullying behaviour in the workplace is escalating internationally and is viewed as a significant risk to individuals' health and wellbeing. Therefore, workplace bullying is recognised as a substantial important factor that needs to be eliminated (World Health Organization, 2010). Laschinger et al. (2012) argue that, although a reasonably small number of individuals' battle with workplace bullying, the consequences seem severe on a personal and organisational level. Research findings indicate that employees who experience bullying at work display higher levels of burnout (Laschinger et al., 2009; Laschinger et al., 2012; Sa´ & Fleming, 2008), consequently lower levels of job satisfaction and higher turnover intentions (Laschinger et al., 2012). Therefore, it appears that bullying behaviour has a negative emotional influence on victims, lowers their work fulfilment and increases their intention to leave the organisation.

Negative behaviour in the workplace can lower individuals' psychological wellbeing and cause mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, lower self-esteem and even post-traumatic stress disorder (Hogh, Mikkelsen, & Hansen, 2011). Research indicates psychosomatic health complaints such as chronic fatigue, loss of sleep, difficulty to focus and indigestion problems may also occur (Einarsen et al., 2009; Lee & Brotheridge, 2006; Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy, & Alberts, 2007). In severe situations, even behaviour and thoughts of suicide are related with exposure to bullying (Balducci, Alfano, & Fraccaroli, 2009; Leymann, 1996).

Hostile behaviour at work may induce feelings of powerlessness and vulnerability (Rugulies et al., 2012), which is a significant psychological causative factor of depression (Seligman, 1975). In addition, severe conflict at work and social exclusion by management or colleagues may be antecedents of depression (Stoetzer et al., 2009). Depression affects employees' quality of work performance, and increases absenteeism and turnover intention. Therapy expenses are incurred, consequently influencing organisational productivity negatively (Sanderson, Tilse, Nicholson, Oldenburg, & Graves, 2007).

Bullying behaviour is associated with psychological distress. Consequently, workplace violence can be viewed as an antecedent of poor mental health (Nielsen, Hetland, Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2012). Therefore, it appears that employees who are exposed to bullying behaviour may experience lower levels of psychological wellbeing. In contrast, psychological difficulties such as anxiety, depression and exhaustion may respectively heighten the possibility to be exposed to negative behaviour in the workplace (Reknes et al., 2014; Nielsen et al., 2012). Thus, it seems employees who have symptoms of either anxiety, depression or exhaustion may be more vulnerable and become victims of bullying behaviour. One reason may be that individuals with poor psychological wellbeing have less effective stress-coping capabilities, which may cause them to view certain behaviour as antagonistic and negative. Consequently, these employees experience even more bullying incidents (De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2005).

Moreover, high turnover can cause employees who are left behind to experience psychological discomfort, lower productivity, poor quality of work (Mustapha & Mourad, 2007), work-overload, loss of trust, disruption in work processes (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012) and an increase in turnover intention (Balogun & Olowodunoye, 2012; Hogh et al., 2011). It seems that psychological wellbeing may influence employee behaviour and turnover intention, while workplace bullying appears to affect psychological wellbeing and turnover intention, respectively. Thus, as seen in figure 2.1, turnover intention appears to be a consequence of psychological wellbeing and workplace bullying, while psychological wellbeing and workplace bullying may act as antecedents to turnover intention.
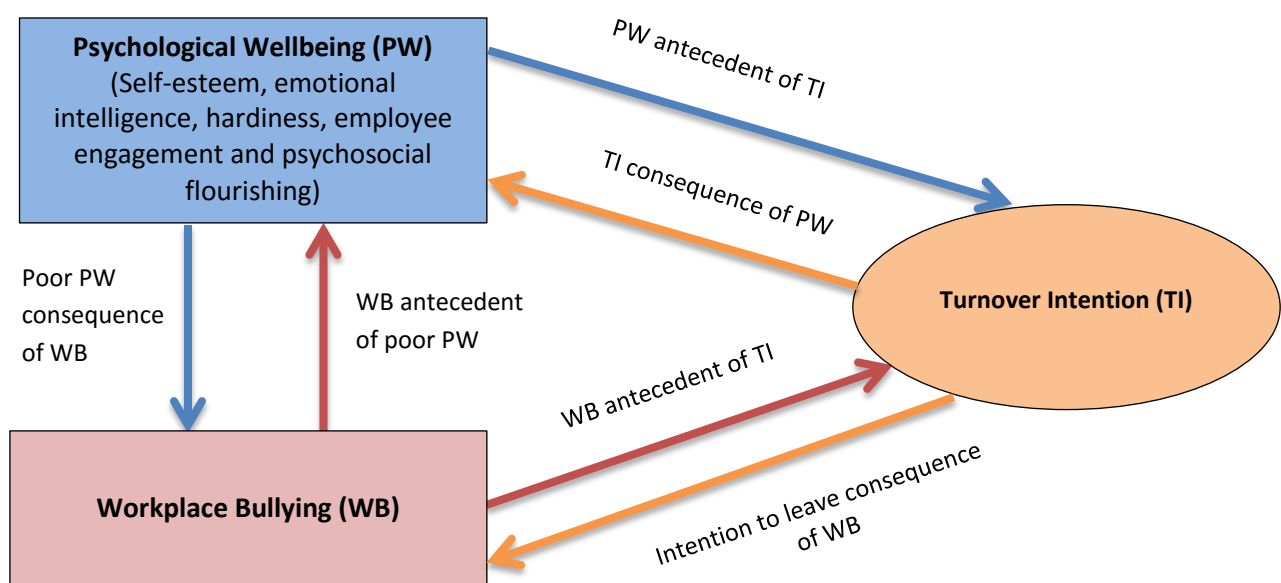
Figure 2.1: Antecedents and consequences of turnover intention

In summary, individuals who display high psychological wellbeing tend to have more career success, better interpersonal relationships, and more efficient coping strategies (Adejuwon & Lawal, 2013; Ryff, 1989a, 1989b). On the contrary, individuals who display low psychological wellbeing may be more inclined to become targets to acts of bullying (Reknes et al., 2014; Nielsen et al., 2012), have fewer effective stress coping abilities (De Lange et al., 2005) or end up being bullies in an attempt to gain control, and cope with frustration and stressors at work (Hinduja, 2007).

Moreover, as seen in Table 2.2, bullying behaviour appears to have a detrimental effect on psychological wellbeing which may increase turnover intentions further. In addition, employees' psychological wellbeing may act as antecedents of their intention to leave.

Table 2.2

Summary of the Antecedents and Consequences of Turnover Intention

Antecedents and consequences of turnover intentions		
Antecedents	**Consequences**	**Turnover intention**
High psychological wellbeing	Tend to be more successful	
	Better relationships	
	More effective coping strategies	Decreased
Relevant resources	Perform better at work	
	Resources may act as buffer against work stressors.	Decreased
	Lower risk of burnout	Decreased
	Protect against exhaustion	Decreased
	Lower frustration	Decreased
	Less anxiety	
	Increased mental health	Decreased
Low psychological wellbeing	Increased risk to become target of bullying behaviour	Increased
	May experience more conflict	
	Fewer effective coping strategies	Increased
Low/absence of resources	Experience more frustration at work	Increased
	Burnout	
	Poor work performance	
Combination of lack of support, feelings of low control and high work demands	Result in depression	Increased
Dissatisfaction with compensation	Lower psychological wellbeing	Increased

Antecedents and consequences of turnover intentions		
Antecedents	**Consequences**	**Turnover intention**
Job insecurity	Reduced psychological wellbeing	Increased
Exposure to workplace bullying	Increased burnout levels	Increased
	Lower job satisfaction	Increased
	Lower psychological wellbeing	Increased
	Increased anxiety, depression and lower self-esteem	Increased
	Thoughts and actions of suicide	Increased
	Cause emotions of powerlessness and vulnerability, which cause depression	Increased
	Lower work performance	
	Increased absenteeism	
	Lower job satisfaction	Increased

2.4   CONCLUSION

The foregoing literature indicates that employees experience various challenges at work (Szeto & Dobson, 2013), which have the potential to create and increase job stress (Sahin, 2011). In addition, research indicates work stress is associated with increased voluntary turnover (Gill et al., 2013). Conflict in work relationships can also be a source of stress that may lower psychological wellbeing (Schat & Frone, 2011; Spector & Bruk-lee, 2008) and may also increase turnover intention (Schat & Frone, 2011). Furthermore, it seems that people may avoid conflict situations by taking more leave. Alternatively, they may choose to leave the organisation in an attempt to cope with the conflict situations (Lewis et al., 2008). Research indicates various factors and variables that may influence turnover intention such as organisational practices, rewards offered and the employees' perception of the organisation (Chang et al., 2013).

Continued exposure to stressful situations at work may result in burnout (Agboola & Jeremiah, 2011) and subsequently, these influence turnover intention (Malik et al., 2010). More specifically, individuals who are exposed to negative events such as workplace bullying may continuously experience exhaustion, which can strengthen the persons' intentions to leave the organisations. Personality and biographical factors may possibly influence the level of burnout experienced by employees, and also have the potential to affect turnover intention

(Agboola & Jeremiah, 2011; Dotun et al., 2013). In addition, circumstances at work such as workloads, supervision and organisational benefits have the possibility to influence psychological wellbeing and turnover intention (Ajala, 2013).

Moreover, the literature indicates that poor wellbeing may lower employee performance, have a detrimental effect on organisational productivity, and increase absenteeism and the intention to leave the organisation (Einarsen et al., 2003; O'Connell et al., 2007). Workplace bullying seems to influence psychological wellbeing negatively (Nielsen et al., 2010) and consequently, increase turnover intention (Laschinger et al., 2012). On the contrary, some evidence suggests that poor mental health may be the reason for being the victim of negative acts, since one may be viewed as vulnerable by the perpetrator (Randle, 2003). In addition, bullying behaviour has the potential of lowering quality of work, productivity, job satisfaction and engagement levels of employees (Sanderson et al., 2007).

Employees with poor psychological wellbeing seem to experience more interpersonal conflict during stressful situations (Zapf & Einarsen, 2010) and may also struggle to cope with challenges at work (Price & Kompier, 2006). However, adequate resources seem to increase the coping capabilities of individuals and let them feel more in control of their circumstances. These resources appear to enhance mental health, and subsequently, employees are more driven and successful in their work (Demerouti et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Tims et al., 2013). Resources appear to assist individuals to adjust more effectively to various changes in the workplace (Demerouti et al., 2014). Thus, psychological variables such as self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing may act as resources to increase psychological wellbeing. Resources may, therefore, act as buffers against the stressful events employees tend to experience at work.

Although an increased effort is made by management to improve the psychological wellbeing of employees (MHCC, 2012), much research is still needed to assist in the understanding, prevention, management and interventions needed to improve psychological wellbeing such as extreme stress, burnout, depression, anxiety and substance abuse problems (Dimoff & Kelloway, 2013).

In addition, research on the antecedents and consequences of bullying in the workplace is still in its infancy (Balducci et al., 2011). While research indicates that negative workplace behaviour has damaging effects on employees, there is a scarcity in literature explaining why and in what way bullying exposure may cause individuals to experience lower mental health and how it acts as an instigator of certain behaviour in employees such as absenteeism

(Glasø & Notelaers, 2012). Hence, an understanding of negative behaviour may lower the physical and mental strain for employees exposed to bullying (Linton & Power, 2013).

Herewith research aim 1 (to conceptualise coping behaviour and employee wellness within a bullying environment and talent retention context in the 21st century world of work) has been achieved.

2.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 delineated the meta-theoretical context that formed the definitive boundary of the research. The core research constructs will be explained in depth in the next chapters. It is clear from the literature that organisations are faced with many challenges to attract and retain talented employees in the 21st century. Employees find themselves in a workplace where the pace is faster, expectancies are higher, changes have increased, technology has made huge advancements and more deadlines loom. All of these factors may cause employees to experience more stress and consequently burnout. The identification of psychological wellbeing and bullying variables as antecedents of turnover intention may assist organisations to advance and develop relevant interventions for employee wellness improvement, regain a competitive advantage and prevent unnecessary costs (Chang et al., 2013).

The present study focuses on a composite set of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention. The research also aims to investigate and determine the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Furthermore, the research aims to investigate whether individuals from various biographical characteristics (gender, age, race, tenure, and job level groups) differ significantly regarding these variables.

It is suggested that a psychological wellbeing model that can assist industrial and organisational psychologists, and human resource professionals with more effective employee wellness and retention strategies, which can increase employee wellbeing and talent retention in organisations. The model may be used to deepen the understanding of how employee's wellbeing profiles influence their turnover intentions in often stressful work environments.

Chapter 3 discusses the questions pertaining to the conceptualisation of the psychological wellbeing-related attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

CHAPTER 3: PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING

Chapter 3 addresses the second literature research aim pertaining to the conceptualisation of the psychological wellbeing-related constructs, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing that may influence individuals' perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intention. The aim is to determine whether certain aspects of psychological wellbeing allow some individuals to cope better with negative behaviour at work and influence certain individuals' intentions to leave their organisations more so than others. This is congruent with step 2 of phase 1 of the research method, as identified in chapter 1 of this study.

In this chapter, the constructs of psychological wellbeing and the related theoretical models will be explored. The variables influencing self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing and the implications for talent retention and employee wellness will also be discussed. This will enable the researcher to develop a conceptual framework for exploring the relationship between the variables of psychological wellbeing, workplace bullying and turnover intention from various theoretical perspectives, which form the basis of the proposed integrated theoretical model.

3.1   CONCEPTUALISATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING ATTRIBUTES

The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) that form part of this study will be explained in the subsections that follow. Firstly, self-esteem will be conceptualised, followed by relevant theoretical models and variables, which may influence self-esteem. Then the conceptualisation, discussion of theoretical models and variables relevant to emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing will follow.

3.1.1   Self-esteem

Self-esteem is regarded as an essential concept of psychological wellbeing (Takagishi, Sakata, & Kitamura, 2011). The concept of self-esteem will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing self-esteem discussed.

3.1.1.1   Conceptualisation of self-esteem

Self-esteem may be viewed as an overall assessment of an individual's worth or value (Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995). Brown and Marshall (2006) regard self-esteem as the evaluative aspect of self-awareness that mirrors the degree to which individuals like themselves. Similarly, Battle (2002) describes self-esteem as the awareness that individuals have of their own value. Self-esteem develops gradually and becomes more differentiated through adulthood due to the interaction with people. Rosenberg (1965) views self-esteem as positive or negative thoughts (attitudes) that individuals have about themselves.

In addition, Korman (1970) argues that individuals may have different self-perceptions of their worth and competence across different roles. Individuals view themselves either as valuable or worthless; have good or bad beliefs of themselves depending on their positive or negative opinions of events and the way they respond to these life occurrences (Dolan, 2007). Similarly, Brown (1993) argues that self-esteem consists not only of negative or positive thoughts but also includes positive and negative emotions about the self.

Accordingly, Briggs (1975) views self-esteem as a person's own self-judgement based on how one feels or what one believes about oneself, which also entails respect for oneself and how much one values oneself. Furthermore, these feelings are based on the assessment that one is likeable and worthy (Briggs, 1975). This may indicate that people with positive self-judgements believe that they are valuable, worth of respect, and can offer something to society and their environment.

However, Maslow (1970) posits that self-esteem is a need for accomplishment, mastery, competence, and confidence to face the external world, which entails independence and freedom. Furthermore, Maslow (1970) separates self-esteem from a person's reputation and suggests that self-esteem is based on one's own emotions of value and self-confidence, where reputation is the assessments made by others about oneself (Maslow, 1970). Conversely, self-esteem is seen as how one perceives oneself and that self-esteem needs encouragement by oneself and significant individuals (Bolus & Shavelson, 1983). More specifically, a person's self-esteem is based on self-views that need regular reinforcement from oneself and other people.

Self-esteem can be described as an introspective feeling that develops over time during social relations where people learn to experience and communicate in predictable situations that are reliant on social control (Hewitt, 2002). Similarly, Battle (1992) describes self-esteem as a combination of a person's feelings, hopes, fears, thoughts, viewpoints of who he or she is currently, who the person was in the past and what he or she may become in the future.

In this study, self-esteem is viewed as a combination of an individual's emotions, aspirations and perceptions which is based on self-knowledge; and insight of your own potential (Battle, 1992). Research indicates that self-esteem is a fairly constant attribute, which may present short-term fluctuations across a person's life span (Sowislo & Orth, 2013; Trzesniewski, Donnellan, & Robins, 2003). The following concepts relating to the construct of self-esteem will now be discussed in more detail.

(a) *Self-concept*

The self-concept can be described as a person's overall opinion, perception and emotions that he or she holds about him- or herself (Brodsky, 1988). Furthermore, the self-concept provides an explanation of who a person is currently, has been in the past and his or her perception of who he or she will grow to be in the future (Brodsky, 1988). Similarly, the self-concept can be seen as a person's total thoughts, attitudes, and the information that he/she has about his/her personal abilities and characteristics (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 1983).

Swann Jr., Chang-Schneider and McClarty (2007) argue that self-esteem and self-concept both refer to a person's opinions and emotions about him- or herself; thus, indicating that both constructs have cognitive and emotional components. Furthermore, an individual's self-assessment provides purpose to his or her life happenings and thereby facilitates meaning-making and acting appropriately according to these encounters (Swann Jr. et al., 2007).

Moreover, research indicates that an unclear self-concept may play a significant role in the development of various psychological disorders and social problems like anxiety, anorexia, substance abuse and high-risk behaviour. Consequently, it may cause severe personal suffering, which may also result in a substantial burden on society (Mann, Hosman, Schaalma, & De Vries, 2004). Research done by Lee-Flynn, Pomaki, DeLongis, Biesanz, and Puterman (2011) indicates that individuals with better defined self-concepts but low levels of self-esteem tend to experience fewer symptoms of depression as opposed to ambiguously defined self-concept individuals. In contrast, a clear self-concept may increase positive functioning in various life domains and subsequently one may experience

satisfaction, triumphs and the capability to cope with diseases like cancer (Mann et al., 2004).

(b)   Levels of self-esteem

Lee-Flynn et al. (2011) have found that people with high levels of self-esteem tend to be affected less by negative thought processes. The authors argue that self-esteem may be viewed as a significant resource, particularly for individuals who need to cope continuously with substantial amounts of stress. Furthermore, individuals with lower levels of self-esteem seem to experience more negative emotions when uncontrollable stressors occur as opposed to individuals with high levels of self-esteem. Thus, people with low self-esteem appear to be more vulnerable during challenging circumstances (Lee-Flynn et al., 2011).

Moreover, individuals who have high self-esteem tend to experience higher levels of self-efficacy (Potgieter, 2012), and are therefore, more likely to take proactive ways to grow and organise their own careers (Marock, 2008; Potgieter, 2012). Self-efficacy is regarded as a person's expectation to be successful when applying creativity, abilities and expertise (Zunker, 2008). Thus, people with high self-esteem may be able to manage their careers more effectively and experience higher levels of employability (Potgieter, 2012). In addition, research indicates that people with high self-esteem are culturally competent; therefore, they are able to understand, behave, interact and maintain relationships with people from various cultures more effectively (Baumeister, 2005; Bezuidenhout, 2010; Potgieter, 2012). Individuals with high levels of self-esteem appear to have a lower need for material things in order to get affirmation from others or themselves. In addition, higher self-esteem individuals have a lower probability to experience stress when confronted with stressors and as a result, may encounter fewer health problems (Dolan, 2007).

On the other hand, people with low self-esteem tend to diminish their positive emotions since they do not feel worthy enough to experience positive life outcomes, which may influence their psychological wellbeing negatively (Wood, Heimpel, Manwell, & Whittington, 2009). Low self-esteem individuals also tend to resist efforts to encourage their self-esteem vigorously; for example, they fail to acknowledge constructive feedback. Moreover, it seems low self-esteem can be associated with emotions of shame and a lack of self-worth (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012). In addition, Orth and Robins (2013) have found that individuals with low self-esteem may have fewer coping resources and, therefore, be more inclined to develop depression during demanding circumstances. Similarly, research indicates when individuals with low levels of self-esteem perceive stressors as more manageable, they tend to display

fewer negative emotions. This may indicate that the perception of stressor controllability may be advantageous for individuals with low self-esteem (Lee-Flynn et al., 2011).

(c)   Self-esteem stability

Self-esteem seems to be a heterogeneous construct that differentiates between secure (stable) and fragile (unstable) self-esteem concepts (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Kernis, 2003). The psychosocial development theory of Erikson (1965, 1968) posits that a person who experiences constant perplexity about their own identity, may consequently experience a lack of self-reassurance, and may result in lower levels of self-esteem or unstable self-esteem due to feelings of self-doubt (Mann et al., 2004). Furthermore, self-esteem instability represents daily momentary variations in a person's feelings of self-value across time (Kernis, 2005; Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993). Individuals with unstable high self-esteem levels have positive emotions of the self and they appear to be defenceless against challenging encounters, which may lead to defensive behaviour in order to protect the self constantly (Kernis et al., 1993; Kernis, Brown, & Brody, 2000; Zeigler-Hill, Chadha & Osterman, 2008).

On the other hand, people with stable high self-esteem tend to have a concrete foundation for their positive emotions of self-value and thus, they are somewhat untouched by life happenings that may otherwise have affected them during everyday adversities (Kernis, 2005; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2008). In addition, individuals with secure high levels of self-esteem appear to have more positive attitudes to the self, are more objective, seem more resilient to danger, and appear not to require frequent validation of their self-worth (Kernis, 2003). The positive emotions of self-worth allow individuals to acknowledge and accept their limitations without feeling unsettled by their own imperfections. Thus, they appear content with who they are and perceive themselves as equal without the desire to be seen as superior to others in their community (Kernis, 2003; Zeigler-Hill, Clark, & Beckman, 2011b). Conversely, unstable high self-esteem individuals rely upon some level of self-deception and are using various strategies to determine a feeling of superiority over other people in order to increase their feelings of self-worth (Kernis, 2003; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011b).

Zeigler-Hill et al. (2011b) argue that men with unstable high self-esteem may expect rejection more as opposed to stable high self-esteem individuals. Furthermore, men with unstable high self-esteem levels tend to interact with others in a hostile manner, which can have negative outcomes for their relationships, since people tend to counteract with hostility (Markey, Funder, & Ozer, 2003). Over the long-term, these reactions from others can further reduce feelings of a person's self-worth (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011b).

(d)   Self-efficacy and self-respect

Self-esteem entails two core components, namely self-efficacy and self-respect (Branden, 1994; Reece, 2012). Self-efficacy can be viewed as a person's emotional assessment of the influence he or she has over certain behaviours (Mann et al., 2004). According to Reece (2012), self-efficacy is an individual's belief of the likelihood to be successful at a specific job or problem. Thus, self-efficacy is the expectancy level that one has to complete a task or solve a complex problem successfully. On the other hand, self-respect signifies a person's own thoughts and emotions of the self, and is seen as a contributing factor to accomplish personal and occupational success (Reece, 2012). People who possess low levels of self-respect may feel unworthy of compliments and feel they deserve being exposed to abusive behaviour such as verbal and physical abuse. In addition, individuals with higher levels of self-respect tend to treat others with respect, since they have a lower tendency to view others as intimidating or as a threat (Reece, 2012).

In addition, individuals can experience high self-efficacy for certain activities or actions and simultaneously experience negative self-value judgements. People often attempt to improve self-efficacy through tasks that provide them with a higher self-worth (Mann et al., 2004; Strecher, DeVillis, Becker, & Rosenstock, 1986). Self-esteem is considered a more general stance regarding the self, which is related to self-efficacy. Furthermore, the development of self-efficacy in certain activities can increase the level of a person's self-esteem and in turn, the level of self-confidence and self-esteem can affect a person's level of self-efficacy (Mann et al., 2004).

Xanthopoulou, Bakker, and Fischbach (2013) have found that self-efficacy promotes engagement, especially when individuals experience high emotional demands and emotion-rule dissonance. Emotion-rule dissonance is viewed as the conflict between sincerely felt feelings and feelings that are expected to be displayed from individuals during interactions in the work context (Holman, Martinez-Iñigo, & Totterdell, 2008). Individuals who have high self-efficacy may, therefore, cope better in stressful situations and display feelings that are more

relevant to the work context. For example, in a highly stressed situation a person will display a calm and professional demeanour as opposed to an emotional outburst. Research also indicates that employees become disengaged when they experience high emotional demands and dissonance for extended periods of time, and lack the capability to cope effectively with the threatening work conditions (Xanthopoulou et al., 2013). Thus, it seems that psychological resources may equip individuals to handle difficult situations more efficiently and possibly improve work engagement in the process.

(g) Development of self-esteem

Orth, Robins, and Widaman (2012) have found that self-esteem increases from adolescence to middle adulthood and reaches a climax at around age 50 whereafter self-esteem starts to decline again. Furthermore, the authors have found that self-esteem may cause life outcomes as opposed to be a consequence of life happenings. Moreover, the results indicate that self-esteem is not a mere derivative in failure and success during significant life events (Orth et al., 2012). Therefore, self-esteem appears to rather influence a person's results in life as opposed to be the result of one's life experiences.

Self-esteem development during childhood and adolescence is especially influenced by parents and peers through their praise and support, as well as the self-view that one has regarding one's capability in significant areas of life (Harter, 1999). Furthermore, it is imperative that an individual experiences attachment and unconditional support during the development of the self. On the other hand, research indicates that negative self-worth may develop due to a maternal history of depression, mistreatment during the initial childhood years, and negative reactions. When children do not feel accepted by their parents it can cause them to evaluate their own acts and capabilities in a negative manner (Garber & Flynn, 2001).

(h) Self-esteem and psychological wellbeing

Research indicates that self-esteem may influence a person's happiness significantly (Furnham & Cheng, 2000). High self-esteem is related to psychological wellbeing, adaptability, contentment, achievement, fulfilment, and also linked to the recuperation of a person after serious illnesses (Mann et al., 2004). In addition, people with low levels of self-esteem tend to focus more on negative aspects of the self, which consequently increases depression (Sowislo & Orth, 2013; Spasojevic & Alloy, 2001). Thus, low self-esteem may cause a person to experience lower levels of psychological wellbeing. In addition, individuals

with low self-esteem may obtain negative feedback in their close relationships in order to validate their negative self-concepts (Sowislo & Orth, 2013). Negative responses received from others can cause rejection and may lead to less social support, which may consequently heighten the risk for depression (Joiner, Katz, & Lew, 1999; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

High self-esteem appears to contribute to individual psychological wellbeing and success, whereas low self-esteem seems to increase the risk for negative outcomes (Sowislo & Orth, 2013). However, research also indicates a dark side to higher levels of self-esteem with various negative outcomes such as prejudice (Crocker, Thompson, McGraw, & Ingerman, 1987), antagonism and aggression (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996).

(i)   Self-esteem and stress (bullying)

Research indicates that self-esteem may assist individuals in managing stress, since it is considered a resource to cope with difficult situations (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wu et al., 2011). People with high self-esteem may be less likely to view situations as stressful and may, therefore, experience a lower need for counteractive behaviour to reduce anxiety (Brockner, 1984). On the other hand, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) suggest that self-esteem may play a mediating role during challenging circumstances. When people view situations as stressful, they accordingly sense that their self-image is defenceless. In addition, individuals with low self-esteem can be more sensitive and reactive, since they are more easily affected by external factors such as, other people's opinions and expectations (Brockner, 1984)

According to Brockner (1984), people with high self-esteem may be more flexible in their behaviour. More specifically, these individuals may be less affected by external triggers such as stress and less concerned with factors that are out of their control (Baumeister, 1982). In comparison, individuals with low self-esteem may be more susceptible to stress, and work harder to manage and cope with the pressure (Wu et al., 2011). Furthermore, an unstable self-esteem may cause interpersonal problems such as hostility and violence, since individuals with an excessively high self-esteem may be more inclined to feel threatened and as such, may be more committed to protect their self-esteem by attacking individuals who are perceived as intimidating to their magnified self-images (Crocker & Park, 2004; Kernis, Grannemann, & Barclay, 1989).

On the other hand, various research studies have indicated that low self-esteem, as opposed to high self-esteem, may be a contributing factor to antisocial behaviour and interpersonal hostility, especially in individuals who possess the narcissism trait (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, & Caspi, 2005; Paulhus, Robins, Trzesniewski, & Tracy, 2004).

Self-esteem may act as a resource to manage stressful situations (Wu et al., 2011) and act as a buffer against anxiety (Crocker & Park, 2004). During the coping process, self-esteem levels may become depleted and individuals may therefore attempt to protect, repair or increase their self-images (Wu et al., 2011). Similarly, the terror management theory suggests that a person's self-esteem may influence and predict lower anxiety levels, since self-esteem can protect and shield a person against anxiety. Intense continuous stress may leave scars in the self-concept and play a role in reducing a person's self-esteem (Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986; Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004).

Therefore, it seems that self-esteem may influence people's reactions to stressful situations such as bullying at work, either positively or negatively depending on their level of self-esteem. Table 3.1 below provides a summary of the above discussion on the construct of self-esteem.

Table 3.1

Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Self-esteem

Self-esteem concepts	Core conclusion
Self-concept	Self-concept represents the general certainty, perception and emotions one has about oneself (Brodsky, 1988). A definite self-concept may contribute to effective behaviour in all spheres of life (Swann Jr. et al., 2007).
Levels of self-esteem	Individuals with lower levels of self-esteem may have a higher likelihood to possess negative feelings when faced with demanding stressors in the workplace. High self-esteem employees may be more inclined to manage work stressors effectively (Lee-Flynn et al., 2011). Thus, low self-esteem employees may be more vulnerable to experience adverse effects when exposed to workplace bullying as opposed to individuals with higher levels of self-esteem.

Self-esteem concepts	Core conclusion
Self-esteem stability	Individuals with unstable high self-esteem may be more vulnerable during challenging encounters, which may cause the individuals to display defensive behaviour in an attempt to protect the self (Kernis et al., 1993; Kernis et al., 2000; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2008). On the other hand, secure high self-esteem individuals tend to have more positive attitudes, are more objective, appear more capable to cope with difficult situations and seem not to require frequent validation of their own self-worth (Kernis, 2003).
Self-efficacy and self-respect	Self-esteem consists of two main components namely self-efficacy and self-respect (Branden, 1994; Reece, 2012). Individuals who have high self-esteem tend to experience higher levels of self-efficacy (Potgieter, 2012), tend to follow proactive ways to manage their professions (Marock, 2008; Potgieter, 2012) and have a higher expectancy of success when they apply their creativity, abilities and expertise (Zunker, 2008). In addition, self-respect can act as a contributing factor in achieving personal and occupational accomplishment when individuals have high levels of self-respect for their own thoughts and emotions (Reece, 2012).
Development of self-esteem	Self-esteem increases from adolescence to middle adulthood and then reaches a climax at around age 50 where after self-esteem starts to decline (Orth et al., 2012). Thus, it seems that there is a tendency for individuals to possess higher self-esteem levels during adulthood up until the age of 50.
Self-esteem and psychological wellbeing	High self-esteem seems to be linked to increased psychological wellbeing, adaptability, contentment, achievement and fulfilment. These individuals may also have a higher likelihood to recuperate after serious illnesses (Mann et al., 2004). In contrast, low self-esteem individuals tend to focus more on negative aspects of the self, and therefore tend to have a higher probability of experiencing symptoms of depression (Sowislo & Orth, 2013; Spasojevic & Alloy, 2001).

Self-esteem concepts	Core conclusion
Self-esteem and stress (bullying)	Self-esteem may act as a resource to assist individuals to cope more effectively with stressors at work (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wu et al., 2011), such as bullying.

In summary, based on the foregoing literature review, the construct of self-esteem relates to a person's self-concept, self-efficacy and self-respect (Branden, 1994; Reece, 2012). More specifically, a well-defined self-concept may promote effective behaviour in various life roles (Swann Jr. et al., 2007). On the other hand, self-efficacy entails proactive ways to manage a person's career (Marock, 2008; Potgieter, 2012), a high expectancy for accomplishment, and the ability to apply creativity, skills and expertise to goal attainment (Zunker, 2008). Someone who has self-respect for his or her own thoughts and feelings may increase personal and occupational success (Reece, 2012). Thus, it seems that self-esteem significantly influences individual success.

Moreover, self-esteem may act as a buffer to shield a person against stressors in the workplace and consequently, reduces the likelihood of developing depression (Sowislo & Orth, 2013; Spasojevic & Alloy, 2001). Thus, self-esteem may contribute to increased levels of psychological wellbeing and act as a personal resource during difficult times. Self-esteem also appears to be influenced by life happenings and develop over time (Orth et al., 2012).

Moreover, various definitions for the concept of self-esteem exist in the literature. Although they differ there appears to be similar core themes among the various conceptualisations of self-esteem, implying that individuals with high self-esteem may have more positive thoughts, beliefs (Briggs, 1975; Brown, 1993; Dolan, 2007; Lee-Flynn et al., 2011; Rosenberg, 1965), views and opinions about themselves (Battle, 1992, 2002; Bolus & Shavelson, 1983; Dolan, 2007; Korman, 1970; Swann Jr. et al., 2007), more positive feelings about their own worth (Brown & Marshall, 2006; Garber & Flynn, 2001; Rosenberg et al., 1995), and are aware of their own value (Battle, 2002; Brown & Marshall, 2006); therefore, they experience increased confidence in their own ability to handle life challenges successfully (Battle, 1992; Briggs, 1975; Brown, 1993; Garber & Flynn, 2001; Maslow 1970).

In respect of this study, the construct of self-esteem can be viewed as a blend of individuals' emotions, aspirations, uncertainties, reservations, and opinions of the current, past and future self, which is grounded on self-insight and information of one's own capabilities and an awareness of one's self-worth. One's self-esteem may also develop across time through interactions with others (Battle, 1992). Thus, individuals with high self-esteem have more

insight into their strengths and limitations, and are more aware of their own worth and social interactions with others. The proposed definition of self-esteem seems to include a person's effective functioning in all spheres of life such as affective, cognitive, conative, and interpersonal facets, which are necessary for individual flourishing within a social work context.

This study attempts to contribute to the research of the construct of self-esteem and measures employees' core self-assessments of their psychological wellbeing in relation to their experiences of bullying and intentions to leave their employing organisations. Based on the explanation of self-esteem, it can be hypothesised that individuals with high levels of self-esteem may possess a personal resource that will assist them to manage difficult social interactions, such as workplace bullying, more effectively. Thus, self-esteem may protect employees against the adverse effects of bullying behaviour, decreasing their intentions to leave their organisations. Finally, the focus of this study is on self-esteem as one of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes within an organisational context.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of self-esteem will be discussed.

3.1.1.2   Theoretical models

Various theories regarding self-esteem are identified in literature but only a few will be included and discussed in this section: namely, the attribution theory, the self-verification theory, the vulnerability model, the affective model, the sociometer theory and Battle's self-esteem model.

(a)   Attribution theory

Weiner's (1986) classical attribution theory suggests that self-esteem relates greatly to the locus of causality that is fundamental to the motivational dynamics of behaviour. Furthermore, the attribution theory suggests that achievement ascribed to internal triggers can cause emotions of pride, dignity and positive self-esteem. The internal triggers can be viewed as capabilities or attempts of a person to be successful in life (Janeiro 2010; Weiner 1986; Weiner & Graham 1999). Thus, a positive self-esteem may affect and influence a person's behaviour positively.

Research done by Janeiro (2010) indicates that internal attribution beliefs, future time orientation and self-esteem influence one another. This substantiates the significance of a cognitive-motivational dynamic at the foundation of career attitudes (career planning and exploration), which is similar to Super's (1990) career development theory. Super's (1990) theory views career development as a person's "readiness" to handle the developmental tasks of his or her specific life stage, which involves emotional and thinking elements where the self-concept changes and develops over time through the person's career experiences.

Furthermore, Janeiro's (2010) research results indicate a hierarchical structure of relations among various psychological aspects, namely the belief to have self-control over one's career choice results, which influence emotions of self-esteem and self-value. In turn, the relation supports a positive and hopeful viewpoint of the future, and establishes short- and long-term career objectives, which are prerequisites to start the process of career planning (Janeiro, 2010).

The attribution theory (Weiner, 1986) is categorised into locus of control, stability and controllability and can also be linked to an individual's internal drive (Weiner, 1986). Weiner (1986) argues that a person's underlying characteristics determine his or her emotional responses to achievement and disappointment. Research indicates a significant link between self-esteem and locus of control (Nwankwo, Balogun, Chukwudi, & Ibeme, 2012). Moreover, relationships seem to exist between internal locus of control and high self-esteem levels, and between external locus of control and low self-esteem levels (Nwankwo et al., 2012). More specifically, it is based on how individuals interpret their life happenings and how these relate to their cognitive belief in their own abilities to handle these situations. It seems that individuals with high self-esteem may attribute the reason of their successes and failures to their own behaviour (Nwankwo et al., 2012). Since they believe they are in control of their own circumstances as opposed to individuals with low self-esteem who may attribute the cause of their behaviour to other people or events (Weiner, 1986). Self-efficiacy seems to be relatively related to internal locus of control. Self-efficacy occurs when an individual's belief in his or her ability to manage his or her life happenings may bring about a preferred result (Bandura, 1989).

(b)   Self-verification theory

The self-verification theory (Swann, 1983) posits that people develop their identities through the observation of behaviour from other individuals towards themselves. A conclusion is then made that they deserve the treatment they receive from others. The formed identity provides

a framework for interpersonal relations, and it functions as a predictor of what to expect, how to interact and how to explain the incidents they experience (Brooks, Swann, Jr., & Mehta, 2011; Wood, Heimpel, Newby-Clark, & Ross, 2005).

The theory further suggests that people enjoy the consistent emotions and certainty which the formed identities provide them and subsequently exert themselves to sustain these self-views. Individuals also attempt to prevent contrasting judgements since conflicting judgements of their self-view can be experienced as unnerving, worrying and disturbing (Brooks, et al., 2011; Wood et al., 2005). Moreover, the self-verification theory postulates that individuals tend to prefer others to view them according to their own self-views even if these are negative (Chen, Chen & Shaw, 2004; Swann, Jr., 2012). In addition, the theory suggests that people do not pursue complimentary or factually correct evaluations of themselves; instead they favour appraisals that are consistent with their own self-evaluations (Chen et al, 2004; Swann, Rentrow, & Guinn, 2003). For example, when you view yourself as unlikable or likable you may prefer that others view you accordingly (Chen et al., 2004; Swann, Jr., 2012).

Self-verifying assessments, therefore provide people with the perception that they live in a consistent and predictable world. During social interactions the self-verifying judgements may direct individual behaviour and provide information regarding the type of behaviour that can be expected in a particular situation. People may therefore attempt to interact with individuals who appear to offer self-confirming assessments (Swann, Jr., 2012). Thus, one may prefer the company of people who provide evaluations that are similar to your own self-evaluations.

In addition, the self-verification theory posits that individuals strive to increase prediction and manageability through self-verification out of epistemic and pragmatic desires (Swann, 1990). The epistemic viewpoint on self-verification indicates people's desire to understand their own principles and to know that their beliefs are rational whereas, the pragmatically viewpoint on self-verification suggests that social relations may be effortlessly and exempt of disagreements and disputes (Chen et al., 2004). More specifically, when people view that others have relevant expectations of the self, it affords them the confidence that the specific interactions may proceed effortlessly (Chen et al., 2004).

Individuals who are involved in relationships may actively seek to process responses about themselves in a manner that continuously increases the existence of their self views (Swann, Jr., 2012). When people are strongly convinced and certain about their self views it may increase their motivation to receive validation from others regarding their self views (Chen et al., 2004; Pelham & Swann, 1994; Swann, Pelham, & Chidester, 1988). Moreover, self-views

tend to be flexible and practical, promote emotions of consistency, reduce fear and social stereotypes, and increase group performance (Swann, Jr., 2012). However, relevant negative self-views may cause self-verification that prevents constructive change and, therefore makes life circumstances more difficult than it would have been otherwise (Swann, Jr., 2012).

(c)   Vulnerability model of self-esteem

The vulnerability model (Beck, 1967) suggests that low self-esteem negatively influences the development of psychopathology. Zeigler-Hill, Besser and King (2011a) indicate that a significant component of the vulnerability model includes the possibility that lower levels of self-esteem may heighten the possibility of poor psychological adjustment during stressful events since individuals with lower levels of self-esteem may not have positive emotions regarding their self-value to protect them against harmful outcomes of negative occurrences, for example during setbacks, rejections or disappointments (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a). As mentioned earlier, research findings indicate a link between self-esteem and psychopathology, specifically depression. However, the connection between self-esteem and individual adjustment to difficult situations is still uncertain (Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012).

Nonetheless, certain forms of high self-esteem may be related to individual psychological adjustment during challenging circumstances (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a). The forms of high self-esteem are normally indicated as secure high self-esteem, and fragile or insecure high self-esteem (Kernis, 2003; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a). People with secure high self-esteem tend to have positive emotions regarding their self-value. They possess a secure and representative foundation for these emotions, which do not require frequent validation. On the other hand, individuals with fragile or insecure high self-esteem may rely on a reasonable level of self-deception and their emotions may appear more exposed during transformation (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a). Therefore, people with insecure high self-esteem seem to be more concerned with guarding and increasing their vulnerable feelings of self-value (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a).

Congruently, research done by Zeigler-Hill and Wallace (2012) indicates that individuals with stable high self-esteem experience lower levels of distress as opposed to individuals with unstable high self-esteem levels. Thus, it seems that individuals' secure emotions of self-value provide them with sufficient resources to protect them during challenging situations (Arndt & Goldenberg, 2002; Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012).

The vulnerability model posits that negative self-assessments can increase the risk for depression (Beck, 1967; Butler, Hokanson, & Flynn, 1994; Metalsky, Joiner, Hardin, & Abramson, 1993). In addition, research done by Sowislo and Orth (2013) indicates that the vulnerability effect of low self-esteem on depression may be influenced by interpersonal and intrapersonal psychological pathways. Furthermore, individuals with lower levels of self-esteem may increasingly look for encouragement from friends and significant others, which may consequently result in social disruptions (Sowislo & Orth, 2013), and increase depression symptoms (Potthoff, Holahan, & Joiner, 1995; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

(d)   Cognitive model of self-esteem

The information-processing approach or the cognitive perspective is another significant theory of self-esteem (Mruk, 2006). The cognitive-experiential self-theory (Epstein, 1980) views self-esteem as an individual's need to be valued and it also plays a significant part in a person's life (Mruk, 2006). Epstein (1980) argues that self-esteem may act as an internal drive that directs a person's behaviour. People process the information received through their own competencies, life happenings, family, friends, and so on. The information then provides a structure in order to view and analyse their ideas and beliefs of past, present and future happenings (Mruk, 2006).

To manage a reasonable level of self-esteem the theory further postulates that individuals attempt to maintain a positive balance of information or reality in order to manage favourable relationships (Epstein, 1985). Conversely, Mruk (2006) suggests that Epstein's (1980) theory is more concerned with personality development than the construct of self-esteem.

(e)   Affective model of self-esteem

Self-esteem is viewed in terms of emotions and affection that one has for oneself (Brown, 1993, 1998; Brown & Dutton, 1995). Higher levels of self-esteem may indicate that people love themselves in general, whereas lower levels of self-esteem signify that people like themselves to some extent and they may feel indecisive towards themselves. Individuals with exceptionally low self-esteem may even experience feelings of hate towards themselves, although this is extremely rare (Baumeister, Tice, & Hutton, 1989).

On the other hand, research indicates that people with high self-esteem levels may indicate that they have certain abilities when they consider that a specific ability is significant to possess (Brown, Dutton, & Cook, 2001). Also, individuals with high self-esteem may adjust

their self views to increase positive emotions of self-value by reducing their own illustration of their unfavourable characteristics. More specifically, individuals with high self-esteem may use their self-evaluations to increase and restore high feelings of self-value. Furthermore, high self-esteem individuals may focus more on protecting themselves as opposed to self-promotion (Brown et al., 2001).

(f)   Sociometer theory

The sociometer theory (Leary, 1999) posits that people have a basic need to belong somewhere and that individuals are motivated to maintain their self-esteem in order to protect themselves against interpersonal rejection and exclusion (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995). Therefore, it seems that self-esteem may act as a buffer to protect individuals from feeling excluded, and that it may enhance feelings of inclusion and belonging during social interaction.

Furthermore, the sociometer theory suggests that self-esteem is an indicator of how people perceive their own overall relational value (past, present and future) (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary et al., 1995). Congruently, research indicates that individuals who have lower sociometers may direct their behaviour during social interactions according to the acceptance that they expect to receive from others (Anthony, Wood, & Holmes, 2007). Therefore, individuals with higher levels of self-esteem may feel that they are valued and will be valued in future by people during social interaction (Anthony et al., 2007; Leary et al., 1995). Similarly, Sowislo and Orth (2013) argue that, when someone experiences social inclusion, it provides various advantages for adjustment, such as social support during stressful happenings. On the other hand, individuals who experience social exclusion may suffer from loneliness and receive lower social support, which may heighten the probability of psychological distress such as depression (Nolan, Flynn, & Garber, 2003; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

(g)   Battle's model of self-esteem

Battle's (1992) model suggests that self-esteem consists of various dimensions, namely for children there is a differentiation between general, social, academic, and parent-related self-esteem; and for adults, self-esteem is categorised into general, social and personal self-esteem. General self-esteem indicates how individuals view and feel about their overall significance or worth (Battle, 1992).

Global self-esteem can be viewed as a personality variable that signifies how one generally feels about oneself. Furthermore, global self-esteem is sometimes referred to as trait self-esteem, which seems to be stable over adulthood and various incidents (Brown & Marshall, 2006). In contrast, Battle (1992) suggests that self-esteem is an indication of wellbeing rather than a psychological trait. Global self-esteem is likely to have a genetic component that can be related to temperament and neuroticism (Neiss, Sedikides, & Stevenson, 2002). Social self-esteem refers to a person's view and emotions regarding his or her relationship quality with friends, associates and partners. Socially structured feelings may increase or lower self-esteem, which can happen at projected intervals and locations depending on a person's specific role obligations (Battle, 1992). Similarly, Hewitt (2002) suggests that individuals socially structured feelings are set in the Western social culture with regards to one's relationship status, achievement of socially set objectives and the concrete or perceived assessed judgements of society. Therefore, social self-esteem seems to be reliant on how people control their feelings during life happenings.

On the other hand, personal self-esteem is the component that indicates a person's most inherent perceptions and emotions of his or her self-worth. The three sub-components of self-esteem equally represent an individual's overall self-esteem (Battle, 1992). In addition, Battle (1982) highlights that each dimension of self-esteem consists of various aspects. More specifically, cognitive (thoughts regarding self-evaluation), affective (emotions) and interpersonal (social acceptance) needs are relevant to self-esteem, as indicated below in figure 3.1.
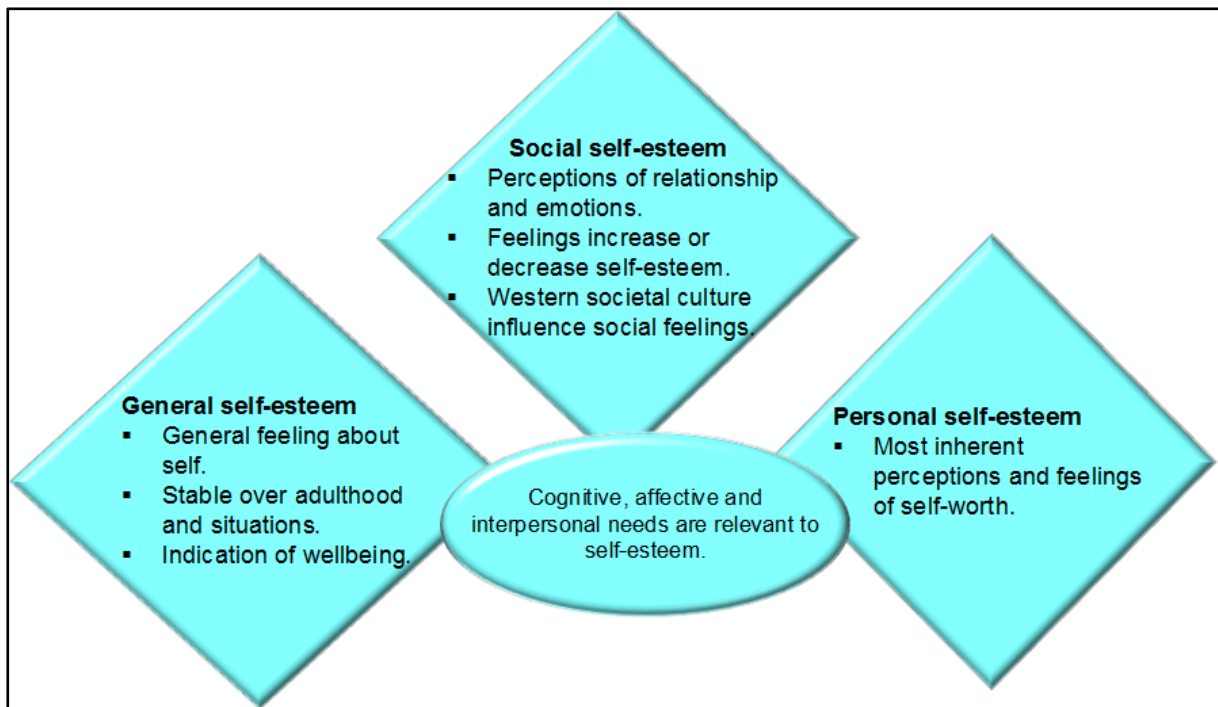
Figure 3.1: Types of self-esteem during adulthood

Research indicates that people may feel it is necessary to improve evaluations of themselves in order to increase their self-value (Jones, 1973). Therefore, individuals with higher levels of self-esteem may experience a lower need to improve the self, since they view themselves in a positive way. In contrast, individuals who view themselves negatively may work vigorously to improve their self-worth (Wu et al., 2011). Furthermore, self-esteem is linked to emotional experiences that a person encounters during his or her daily activities (Hewitt, 2002). The feelings can be triggered by an individual's thoughts and behaviour or by the external world and actions of others. People with higher levels of self-esteem may prefer to talk about themselves in a prideful manner, express fulfilment and view themselves as confident (Hewitt, 2002).

Individuals with higher self-esteem tend to have a positive social identity and, therefore they may feel more secure during interpersonal situations, since they believe that they have the ability to manage and balance social challenges and personal needs (Battle, 1992; Hewitt, 2002). A person's capability to identify with another person's opinion is needed to be able to empathsise with others (Hewitt, 2002).

Self-esteem in organisations can be experienced as an emotional connection between the self and other individuals. This connection motivates people to discover the nature and significance of the interpersonal links and emotional bonds that exist among employees (Hewitt, 2002).

Below, Figure 3.2 illustrates the core dimensions and underlying principles of Battle's (1992) model.
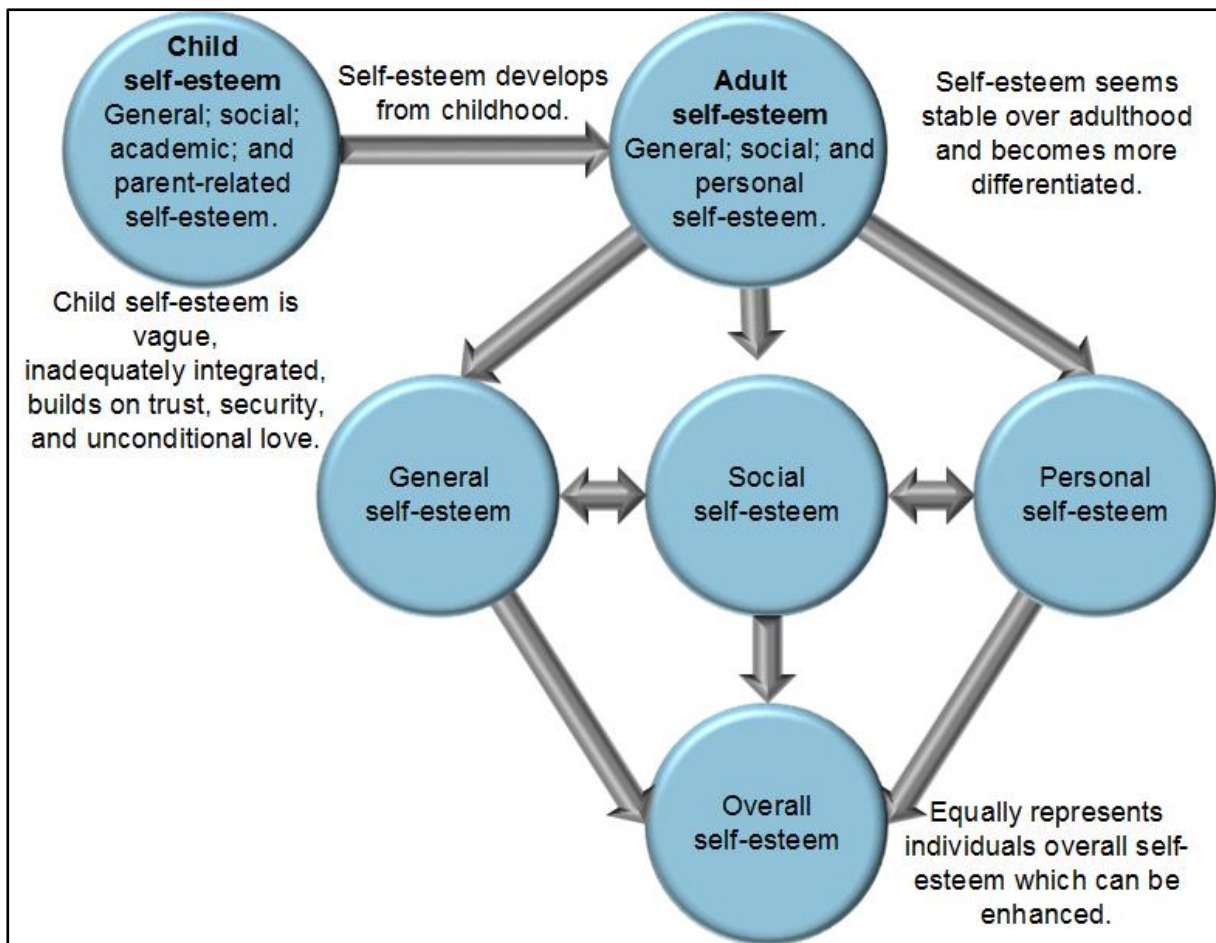
Figure 3.2: Battle's (1992) model of self-esteem

The psychological interpretation of self-esteem is embedded in four notions, namely acceptance, evaluation, comparison and efficacy (Battle, 1992). During childhood, one's self-esteem emerges and develops as one grows older. Primarily the self is vague and inadequately integrated but as the child matures and interacts with significant individuals the self becomes progressively more differentiated (Battle, 1992). According to Battle (1992), the self is, therefore a combination of an individual's essential composition and life encounters. Furthermore, the breadth of self-esteem attempts to encapsulate the certainty of life

happenings of the self from the person's viewpoint within a specific situation (Battle, 1992).

Self-esteem is built early in life on the basis of security, trust and unconditional love (Battle, 1990; Hewitt, 2002; Mruk, 2006). Individual self-esteem can be enhanced in both children and adults (Battle, 1992; Mruk, 2006; Reasoner & Gilberts, 1991). Self-esteem can be enhanced by increasing a person's competence and emotions of self-value (Mruk, 2006), through positive self-reinforcement; behaviour modelling (Reasoner & Gilberts, 1991) and during individual or group settings (Mruk, 2006). However, Mruk (2006) has found that group sessions tend to be more successful to enhance a person's self-esteem.

In summary, the attribution theory (Weiner, 1986) posits that a person's success is assigned to his or her internal stimuli, which can create positive feelings and increase his or her levels of self-esteem (Janeiro 2010; Weiner, 1986; Weiner & Graham, 1999). Therefore, having a positive self-esteem may enhance one's experiences of life happenings and as such, the probability may be lower that negative behaviour in the workplace will be viewed as acts of bullying.

On the other hand, the self-verification theory (Swann, 1983) suggests that individuals observe how others behave around them, and they make assessments whether they deserve these treatments from others. An identity is then formed, which provides a structure for social interaction and information on what to expect, how to behave and how to clarify life events (Brooks et al., 2011; Wood et al., 2005). Thus, employees observe how they are treated in the workplace and may evaluate that they deserve to be treated negatively or positively by management and their colleagues. High self-esteem individuals may therefore conclude that they deserve not to be treated in a destructive manner and they may thus act more assertively towards workplace bullies.

The vulnerability model of self-esteem (Beck, 1967) postulates that individuals with low self-esteem may not possess enough positive emotions regarding their self-worth to protect them against the adverse effects of negative events and defeats (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011a). Thus, constructive feelings of one's self-value may act as a resource to safeguard one during difficult situations (Arndt & Goldenberg, 2002; Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012), such as bullying behaviour in the workplace.

The cognitive model of self-esteem (Epstein, 1980) indicates that self-esteem is a person's internal desire to be appreciated. The model further posits that individuals' self-esteem internally motivates their actions (Mruk, 2006). Thus, employees may strive to be valued and

respected by their managers and colleagues, and they may then act in a certain manner to achieve good interpersonal relationships at work.

On the other hand, the affective model links self-esteem to a person's emotions and affection for him- or herself (Brown, 1993, 1998; Brown & Dutton, 1995). The model posits that employees with high levels of self-esteem may change the perceptions they have of themselves to heighten positive feelings of their own worth through lowering their view of inauspicious self-qualities in order to improve feelings of their own self-value (Brown et al., 2001).

The sociometer theory (Leary, 1999) suggests that individuals inherently want to belong somewhere. They are driven to manage and protect their self-esteem in order to protect themselves against social exclusion (Leary et al., 1995). Thus, an individual with high self-esteem may protect him or her from feeling isolated during interpersonal relations in the workplace.

Finally, Battle's model (Battle 1992) stipulates that self-esteem consists of three dimensions, namely general, social and personal self-esteem, which equally represent overall self-esteem. Moreover, a person with high self-esteem possesses a positive social identity and may therefore feel more confident during social interactions with managers and colleagues. These individuals may also feel that they have the ability to handle difficult interpersonal events (Battle, 1992; Hewitt, 2002), such as workplace bullying. They may also have the ability to form emotional bonds with colleagues and be able to empathsise (Hewitt, 2002) with victims of bullying.

Battle's model (1992) is applicable to this research study, since the model provides a comprehensive framework of self-esteem in a social work environment.

In the following section, the influencing variables of self-esteem will be discussed.

3.1.1.3   Variables influencing self-esteem

Several variables appear to influence individuals' experiences of self-esteem. The variables of age, gender, race, and socio-economic factors will now be discussed in more detail.

(a)   Age

Middle-aged individuals have slightly higher levels of self-esteem than older people (Orth et al., 2010). On the other hand, research indicates there is an increase in self-esteem across generations (Gentile, Twenge, & Campbell, 2010; Twenge & Campbell, 2001). In contrast, other research studies indicate that self-esteem does not change across generations (Erol & Orth, 2011; Orth et al., 2010, 2012). Therefore, the evidence regarding self-esteem across generations appears to be inconsistent (Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

(b)   Gender

According to Ferreira and Coetzee (2010), females have higher levels of self-esteem than men. On the contrary, other research studies indicate that males may have slightly higher levels of self-esteem than females (Bachman, O'Malley, Freedman-Doan, Trzesniewski, & Donnellan, 2011; Coetzee, 2008).

Interestingly enough, research done by Zeigler-Hill and Wallace (2012) indicated that gender might moderate some observed behaviour outcomes. More specifically, males and females with the same form of self-esteem seemed to experience different adjustment levels. For instance, men with lower levels of self-esteem displayed greater physical aggression than the women.

On the other hand, research indicates that the interpersonal styles of women with unstable high self-esteem levels tend to portray nurturance as opposed to men who tend to be more antagonistic (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2011b). Accordingly, the self-advancement of men with unstable high levels of self-esteem appears to be strongly linked to dominance and aggressive behaviour (Colvin, Block, & Funder, 1995).

(c)   Race

Richman, Clark and Brown (1985) found that white females were significantly lower in general self-esteem as opposed to white males, black males and black females. However, research done by Coetzee (2008) and by Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) indicates white individuals have significantly lower levels of self-esteem than their African counterparts, while Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, and Alarcon (2010) have found no relationship between self-esteem, age, gender, tenure and education.

(d)   Socio-economic factors

Research indicates that a person's socio-economic status can influence his or her self-esteem, since individuals with higher educational levels, salaries and occupational positions tend to display higher levels of self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Orth et al., 2010). Orth et al. (2012) have found that self-esteem may also predict employees' job satisfaction, job level and income, although these job results do not appear to predict self-esteem. Similarly, research done by Kuster, Orth, and Meier (2013) suggests that self-esteem influences changes in significant employment circumstances and job results. More specifically, self-esteem appears to affect individuals' psychological well-being and job success over time. For instance, individuals with low self-esteem may be more susceptible to receiving negative feedback during their work performance reviews, and have poorer relationships with colleagues and management (Salmela-Aro & Nurmi, 2007). Consequently, they may experience less job satisfaction and occupational achievement (Kuster et al., 2013).

In summary, research regarding self-esteem across generations seems to be inconclusive (Sowislo & Orth, 2013), while gender appears to moderate some behavioural outcomes of self-esteem (Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012). In addition, white individuals tend to have lower levels of self-esteem (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Finally, individuals' socio-economic status appears to increase self-esteem when they have higher levels of education, income and positions at work (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Orth et al., 2010). Thus, it appears that gender, race and socio-economic factors may influence the development of self-esteem.

Next, the emotional intelligence construct will be discussed.

3.1.2   Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence appears to influence psychological wellbeing (Salami, 2010). The concept of emotional intelligence will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing emotional intelligence discussed.

3.1.2.1   Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence

Thorndike and Stein (1937) have identified the existence of non-cognitive skills. They suggest that social intelligence is the capability to recognize and manage emotions of other individuals. Later, Gardner (1983) has posited a theory of multiple intelligences and indicates

that people may possess personal intelligence, which consists of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Interpersonal intelligence refers to a person's capability to manage other people's emotions, and to identify and distinguish other individuals' feelings, drives and intentions whereas intrapersonal intelligence indicate an individual's ability to manage his or her emotions, and to handle difficult and complex differentiated clusters of feelings (Gardner, 1993).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence may be regarded as the ability to comprehend one's own feelings and those of other individuals, the ability to reflect emotions in a manner that is suitable for the situation, and to restrain and control the expression of emotions when needed in order to reach objectives in a satisfactory manner (Eisenber, Cumberland & Spinrad, 1998). Similarly, Cooper and Sawaf (2000) suggest that emotional intelligence is demonstrated when one has the capability to perceive and comprehend emotions, and to utilise emotional insight and skills competently, which may act as resources to inform, motivate and persuade. In addition, emotions are considered the realm of primary feelings, basic intuition and emotional sensations, which can contribute to a more profound understanding of the self and other individuals (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000).

On the other hand, Martinez (1997) regards emotional intelligence as a combination of non-cognitive talents, proficiencies and abilities, which relate to an individual's capability to handle external challenges and difficulties. Similarly, Baron (1997) regards emotional intelligence as a collection of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that affect a person's ability to cope with external stressors and strains. Thus, indicating that an individual needs high emotional intelligence (a set of skills and abilities) in order to cope with life stressors and to be successful in life.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) who have coined the term emotional intelligence, describe it as a sub-group of social intelligence that encompasses the ability to observe a person's feelings and emotions and those of others, to differentiate emotions and to apply this knowledge to direct his or her reasoning and behaviour. Thus, individuals who have a high level of emotional intelligence are aware of their emotions, and they are able to read and recognise the emotions of people with whom they interact. They can also use this information to act accordingly.

Later, Mayer and Salovey (1997) refined their view and referred to emotional intelligence as the ability to observe, read and generate emotions in order to support reasoning, to comprehend emotions and emotional information, and to thoughtfully control emotions to

encourage emotional and intellectual development. Therefore, highly emotionally intelligent individuals are not only able to recognise emotions of themselves and others, but they are also able to understand these emotions, and adjust their thoughts and behaviour accordingly. According to their definition, individuals are also able to reflect and develop emotionally and intellectually in the process, which may result in higher emotional intelligence over time (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In addition, emotional intelligence consists of a set of interpersonal (social) competencies and abilities that is distinct from cognitive intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Furthermore, emotional intelligence involves four competencies, namely: (a) verbal and nonverbal communication of emotions; (b) the use of emotions to assist during decision-making; (c) the acquisition of emotional knowledge to improve intellectual and emotional advancement; and (d) regulation of emotion in the self and other individuals. Each competency assists in the development of other abilities thus, the competencies are linear rather than sequential (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Research indicates that people can enhance their emotional intelligence effectively through training (Fletcher, Leadbetter, Curran, & O'Sullivan, 2009; Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009), even through the use of brief training sessions (Nelis et al., 2011). Other research studies indicate that emotional intelligence enrichment is not merely happening on a cognitive level but it can also be enhanced through active commitment in order to change habits and to alter entrenched patterns of behaviour (Fernandez-Berrocal & Ruiz, 2008; Goroshit & Hen, 2012; Walter & Hen, 2009).

According to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) intelligence and emotions are interconnected and need to be explained separately in order to better understand emotional intelligence. Herewith, an overview of the concept of intelligence and then a discussion of emotions.

(a)   Intelligence

Wechsler (1958) regards intelligence as a communal or universal capability of individuals to act with determination, have sensible thoughts and to manage their surroundings effectively. Intelligence normally indicates cognitive ability that is necessary to accomplish problem-solving, thinking and reasoning (Trehan & Shrivastav 2012).

Initially, a single general ability (*g*) has been posited by Spearman (1904), and later Cattell (1941) has suggested two types of cognitive abilities, namely fluid and crystallised intelligence. The Cattell-Horn theory (*Gf-Gc* theory) (Horn & Cattell, 1966) indicates that intelligence consists of various abilities, which interactively works together (Horn & Cattell, 1967). Fluid intelligence (*Gf*) is viewed as the ability to solve problems and to reason abstractly without prior learning or experience such as ideas to solve difficult challenges or puzzles. On the other hand, crystallised intelligence (*Gc*) is fundamentally based on facts, past learning and prior education. For example, crystallised intelligence is needed in situations such as reading comprehension and vocabulary examinations. New information can be obtained through a person's lifetime, and therefore crystallized intelligence levels can increase as one grows older (Cattell, 1943).

Previous research has indicated that general intelligence (*g*) can be an effective predictor of occupational success (Schmidt & Hunter, 1998), since there appears to be a direct influence of general intelligence on the accumulation of work-related information (Schmidt, Hunter, & Outerbridge, 1986). On the other hand, Sternberg and Detterman (1986) argue that intelligence is multidimensional and mainly represents the capability to achieve abstract thinking, to have the ability to retain information, and to be able to adjust during changing circumstances.

Sternberg (1997) posits that the term successful intelligence represents a set of analytical, creative and practical abilities to achieve objectives, utilise strengths and overcome weaknesses, which further enable one to adjust and survive the external environment. According to Sternberg (1999), an analytical ability represents critical investigations and evaluation; a creative ability suggests innovation and creation, whereas a practical ability indicates implementation and application.

Gardner (1983) views intelligence as the capability to solve challenges or provide inventions that may be beneficial across cultural boundaries. The multiple intelligence model (Gardner, 1983) consists of seven intelligences, namely cognitive abilities, such as logical-mathematical intelligence and verbal/linguistic intelligence as well as spatial, kinaesthetic, musical, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences.

Logical-mathematical intelligence suggests that one has the ability to handle numerical patterns and complex reasoning, while verbal/linguistic intelligence indicates capacity for word formulation, and the ability to comprehend and learn foreign languages. Spatial intelligence suggests the ability to view the external environment, and to create and make

adjustments to your original mental pictures. Kinaesthetic intelligence is when one has the ability to control bodily movements and to operate with objects effectively (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

In addition, musical intelligence represents the ability to create and enjoy musical instrumental sounds, thus playing, conducting or composing music (Gardner & Hatch, 1989), while social intelligence entails intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Intrapersonal intelligence indicates the ability to be in touch with one's emotions, to differentiate between the various feelings in order to manage one's behaviour, and to have self-insight into one's needs, challenges and strengths. On the other hand, interpersonal intelligence suggests the capability to distinguish and react properly to the emotional states, drive and feelings of other individuals (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). Later, naturalistic intelligence has been added, which involves the ability to perceive and identify various plants and animals (Gardner, 1999).

Gardner's multiple intelligence theory (1983) suggests that each intelligence is measured independently, which may provide a summary of skills, and offer a wider range of information instead of only measuring logical-mathematical and verbal intelligence. The model further posits that one can use the information obtained from the multiple intelligences on which one can base career and educational decisions (Gardner & Hatch, 1989).

Other researchers are of the opinion that individuals may have various abilities and intelligences, and argue that all of these abilities fall within the category of general intelligence (Spearman, 1923; Wechsler, 1939). Conversely, Mayer, DiPaolo and Salovey (1990) indicate that emotional intelligence forms part of social intelligence, since it represents the capability to manage feelings of the self and those of others, the ability to distinguish between various emotions, and the ability to apply these emotions to direct one's thoughts and actions.

(b)   Emotions

Emotions supply valuable information to guide individuals. Together with intelligence, emotions can assist people to find meaning during social interactions (Weis & Arnesen, 2007). Everyday emotions can be moderately slow with intricate reactions that comprise conscious changes with regard to occurrences, behaviour and physical functioning (Mauss, Levenson, McCarter, Wilhelm, & Gross, 2005). On the other hand, one can experience fleeting emotions during occurrences that are perceived as a shock or intensely stressful; for

example, feeling anxious when coming in contact with a spider. These feelings tend to be preconscious (Zajonic, 1980). Perceiving emotions may signify the ability to identify and interpret various feelings in pictures, tone of voice, people's facial expressions, and to sense and determine one's own feelings. Furthermore, perceiving emotions is fundamental to emotional intelligence and allows the processing of emotional information (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

Emotions can be used in various areas in life and play a significant role in organisations (Carblis, 2008). Therefore, Carblis (2008) suggests that emotion is heterogeneous and differentiates between affect programmes, higher cognition and social constructs, as illustrated in figure 3.3 below. According to the concepts incorporated in the affect programme, individuals' emotional responses are viewed as a composite of reactions that automatically start in the fundamental emotional circuits within the brain (Panksepp, 2000). Affect programmes can be viewed as reactions that contain behavioural responses such as changes in facial expressions and tone of voice (Carblis, 2008; Griffiths, 1997). On the other hand, there are some emotions that do not fit within the affect programme approach, since people do not display stereotypical patterns of physiological effects in many instances. Various emotions appear to be more integrated with mental activity directing towards calculated, enduring responses as opposed to the instant responses of the affect programme approach. Feelings of jealousy or guilt may therefore be categorised within the higher cognitive approach (Carblis, 2008).

The commitment model of emotion (Frank, 1988) seems to somewhat support the theory of higher cognitive emotions, since it is based on the opinion that feelings usually influence individuals to act in a manner that may be in conflict with their calculative rationale. Furthermore, feelings associated with love, sentiment and human courtesy often influence people to make decisions and behave in ways that are in contrast to personal improvement. Furthermore, the composition of emotions entails biological, cultural and other factors (Carblis, 2008).

Intelligence and capabilities may be linked to emotion since both involve cognitive abilities and determination. However, a person's determination may be deterred or increased by irruptive motivation. When individuals experience irruptive motivation they can have feelings of disgust, shame and envy. Moreover, the social concept approach can be linked to emotions in the workplace since individuals tend to make judgements about the workplace and one can also gain insight from the organisation's culture.

As illustrated in figure 3.3, the heterogeneous conceptualisation of emotion indicates disclaimed actions in the workplace, which represent behaviour that is associated with anger, such as antagonism and resentment towards management, colleagues or clients as well as behaviour related to happiness, for example camaraderie among employees (Carblis, 2008).

Affect programmes
Reflex-like responses related to basic emotions

Higher cognitive
Emotions such as those explained by commitment theory as irruptive motivations

Social constructs
Social concepts and disclaimed actions
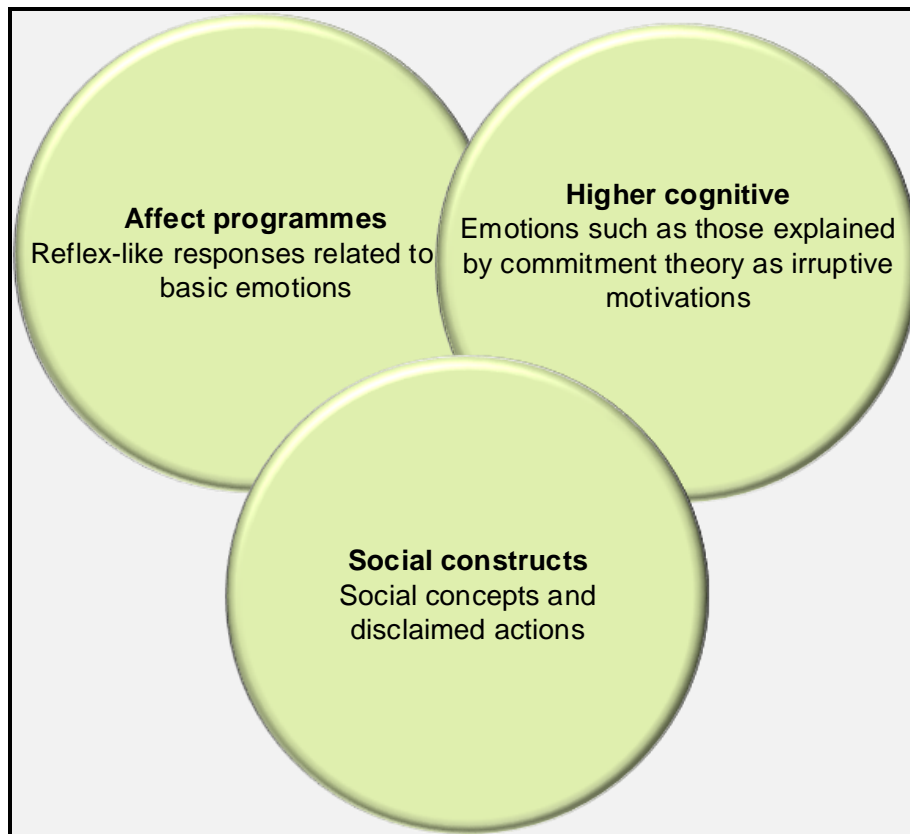
Figure 3.3: Heterogeneous conceptualisation of emotion (Carblis, 2008, p. 153)

More specifically, emotions associated with anger (rage) and happiness (laughter) are relevant to the affect programme with various neurophysiological systems and actions. Irruptive motivation appears to be relevant to the higher cognition level and disclaimed behaviour such as revenge or screaming of pleasure may be linked to the social construct component. Other feelings may be experienced without ever activating the affect programme such as loyalty, which seems to be relevant to the higher cognitive and social construction components (Carblis, 2008).

Furthermore, research indicates that negative affectivity can decrease mental health. Negative affectivity represents a wide spectrum of emotions such as fear, anxiety, blame, shame, grief, unhappiness, loneliness and mental distress (Salami, 2010). According to Salami (2010), negative affectivity can influence the manner in which individuals perceive

challenging situations at work. Therefore, it seems that negative emotions may influence employees' mental health.

Research studies indicate that higher levels of emotional intelligence tend to have a stronger relationship with positive affect as opposed to negative affect (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Kong et al., 2012). Therefore, it seems that individuals with high emotional intelligence tend to experience more positive emotions. Likewise, research indicates that people with high emotional intelligence may experience positive affect more often and less negative affect, which can lower mental distress (Kong et al., 2012). Individuals who demonstrate high emotional intelligence appear to be loving, optimistic, enthusiastic and well-adjusted to their environment (Ivcevic, Brackett, & Mayer, 2007) and they also seem to be better with social interaction, able to display empathy towards others, and experience more life satisfaction (Schutte et al., 2001). Therefore, it seems that positive feelings may increase individuals' psychological wellbeing.

In addition, Salovey and Grewal (2005) indicate that emotionally intelligent people tend to use their emotions to enable reasoning and problem-solving, and they can take advantage of their own feelings to best suit a specific situation. Furthermore, individuals who are emotionally intelligent may understand emotions better, since they have the capability to grasp emotions better, to identify emotions and are able to explain how emotions develop over time: for example, how devastation can change into grief (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

On the other hand, Kong et al. (2012) found that positive and negative affect equivalently act as predictors of mental distress when they measure trait emotional intelligence. Correspondingly, individuals who experience more negative emotions are more likely to be unhappy with themselves and their circumstances, focus more on past failures, view themselves more negatively and tend to feel discontent (Burke, Brief, & George, 1993).

Next, the concept of emotional regulation will be described, since it relates to the construct of emotional intelligence.

(c)   *Emotional regulation*

Emotional regulation is directly associated with emotional behaviour in the work context (Weiss, 2002). Salovey and Grewal (2005) posit that emotional management represents the capability to regulate feelings within ourselves and also to be able to cope with the emotions of other individuals.

Emotional regulation consists of variations in the latency, upsurge period, degree, duration and reactions in various fields such as behavioural, experiential or physiological (Gross & Thompson, 2007). During emotional regulation the intensity of positive and negative feelings may heighten or lower over a period of time (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007). The process model of emotional regulation (Gross, 1998) categorises the processes of regulation into five components, namely situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation (Gross, 1998; Gross & Thompson, 2007).

Furthermore, a person may experience emotional exhaustion (burnout) due to increased levels of emotional labour (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002). The capability to regulate one's emotions may assist one to handle difficult and stressful circumstances better (O'Boyle Jr., Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011). Emotional intelligence could therefore assist in managing emotional situations (Van Dusseldorp, Van Meijel, & Derksen, 2011). Research findings indicate that, when employees are in positions that require emotional labour, emotional intelligence may influence job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010). On the other hand, poor emotional regulation can act as a contributing factor to emotional exhaustion, and decrease physical and mental wellbeing (Bono & Vey, 2005).

Görgens-Ekermans and Brand (2012) have found that nurses with high levels of stress who had the ability to regulate their emotions and manage intense emotions such as frustration effectively, experience better health. Moreover, effective handling of emotions during difficult situations can increase constructive self-evaluations, which may further result in increased positive emotions of competence, achievement and confidence to perform well. Thus, higher emotional intelligence may hamper the onset of emotional exhaustion during situations when stress is continuously experienced (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012). Görgens-Ekermans and Brand (2012) argue that effective emotional regulation has many benefits for organisations since it may increase client service, lower absenteeism and increase job satisfaction due to better relationships, enhanced coping resources, and increased social support at home and work.

(d)   Emotional self-awareness

Self-awareness is highlighted as a significant emotional and interpersonal skill (Cherniss & Goleman, 1998). In addition, Sosik and Megerian (1999) posit that self-awareness may be a fundamental part of emotional intelligence. For example, a person can have either high or low emotional intelligence levels and still be able to have accurate emotional self-awareness

(Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006). Research done by Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) indicates that high emotional self-awareness influences group performance. More specifically, individuals who are highly aware of their emotions tend to work more effectively during team work.

(e)   Emotional intelligence and psychological wellbeing

Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, and Hollander (2002) have found that higher emotionally intelligent individuals tend to experience positive moods and higher self-esteem. This indicates that individuals with higher emotional intelligence may experience higher levels of psychological wellbeing. People with high emotional intelligence tend to know and understand the emotions that they experience, and they can manage feelings in a manner that increases psychological wellbeing (Bar-On, 2005). Therefore, high emotionally intelligent individuals may experience more contentment as opposed to lower emotionally intelligent individuals (Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Salami, 2010). Thus, emotional intelligence appears to influence psychological wellbeing.

Research indicates that stress may lower a person's cognitive abilities and emotional intelligence (Yang & Gu, 2007). Furthermore, emotional intelligence may act as a buffer to protect one against stressful events, and therefore it increases mental health, especially when a person can control and regulate his or her emotions (Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002).

On the other hand, Ramesar, Koortzen, and Oosthuizen (2009) argue that individuals who are emotionally upset may have difficulty in identifying emotions accurately, which may lower their interpersonal skills. Reasonable levels of stress can increase performance, whereas extreme emotional stress can cause an individual to experience physical and psychological problems (Soylu, 2007). Therefore, it seems that higher emotional intelligence may act as a buffer to protect one against emotional stress and thus, increase psychological wellbeing and individual performance.

(f)   Emotional intelligence and relationships

Various research studies have indicated that there is a link between emotional intelligence and interpersonal relationships (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2001; Bar-On, 2003). Adeoye and Torubelli (2011) have found that civil servants with higher levels of emotional intelligence also possess higher levels of human relations and as a result, they are more committed to their organisation. Human relations indicate the ability to interact with

people efficiently (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011). Thus, emotionally intelligent individuals may demonstrate the ability to have positive relationships with others, which can further increase organisational commitment. Adeoye and Torubelli (2011) also argue that organisational success is reliant on employee collaboration, team work and good relations, which highlight the significance of emotional intelligence in the workplace. Furthermore, research indicates that people who have the capability to manage the emotions of others may assist other employees to regulate their moods positively, which can increase intimacy with them (Schutte et al., 1998). Employees may then experience organisational support, which can contribute to increased psychological wellbeing (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

Based on the foregoing literature review, the construct of emotional intelligence relates to intelligence, emotions, emotional regulation and emotional self-awareness. Intelligence and emotions appear to supply relevant data, which can be utilised to solve problems (Gardner, 1983) and allow one to find meaning during social interactions (Weis & Arnesen, 2007).

Emotional regulation can be seen as the ability to control emotions within oneself and others (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Employees who are able to regulate their emotions may have increased mental health, especially during strenuous life circumstances (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012). Moreover, individuals who are aware of their emotions are more inclined to display increased performance, mainly during projects which involve team work (Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006).

Emotional self-awareness entails the ability to identify feelings in oneself and others accurately during social interactions (Jordan & Ashkanasy, 2006). Thus, emotionally intelligent individuals tend to be more socially skilled and are more aware of the relevant emotions that are experienced during interpersonal relations. Furthermore, emotionally intelligent individuals seem to manage emotions efficiently during challenging events more so than others, and as a result, experience increased mental health (Bar-On, 2005). Thus, employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence may cope more effectively with stressors in the workplace, such as bullying, and may also experience more meaningful relationships.

Similar definitions of emotional intelligence seem to exist in the literature and there appears to be various core themes among the conceptualisations of emotional intelligence. The defined conceptualisation of emotional intelligence implies that emotionally intelligent individuals have the ability to manage their own and other people's feelings (Gardner, 1993; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Thorndike & Stein, 1937), to differentiate

between various emotions (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Thorndike & Stein, 1937), and to comprehend what the various emotions entail (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Eisenber et al., 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Moreover, employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence may find it easier to vocalise their emotions (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000 Eisenber et al., 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), and are able to adjust their thoughts and actions to fit the relevant situation when needed (Ivcevic et al., 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Furthermore, emotionally intelligent individuals may be more inclined to cope with work stressors and challenges effectively (Baron, 1997; Martinez, 1997; O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011; Van Dusseldorp et al., 2011), such as workplace bullying.

In respect of this study, the construct of emotional intelligence can be viewed as the ability to recognise and assess one's own emotions and those of others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). One is also able to thoughtfully control (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey and Grewal; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), interpret and understand emotions (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Eisenber et al., 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Then one has the capacity to change one's thinking and actions according to the relevant emotional information (Ivcevic et al., 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1997), which can foster emotional and cognitive growth and development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Thus, individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence are more capable to observe and understand various emotions, are more in touch with their own and others' feelings, can control and adjust their feelings mentally, and may have a higher capacity to handle emotional situations more successfully, especially during difficult social events. The relevant emotional intelligence definition seems to include a person's effective functioning in various areas such as affective, cognitive, behavioural and interpersonal facets, which are necessary for individuals to function effectively within a social work context.

This study attempts to contribute to the research of emotional intelligence and measures employees' core self-assessments of their psychological wellbeing in relation to experiences of bullying and intentions to leave their employing organisations. Based on the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence, it is hypothesised that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence may possess a personal resource that will allow them to manage difficult social interactions, such as workplace bullying, more effectively. Emotional intelligence may protect employees against the negative consequences of bullying

behaviour, which may lower employees' intentions to exit the organisation. Finally, the focus of this study is on emotional intelligence as one of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes within an organisational context.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of emotional intelligence will be explained.

3.1.2.2   Theoretical models

In the next section the ability model, mixed models and tripartite model of emotional intelligence will be discussed.

(a)   Ability model

The ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1990) of emotional intelligence indicates various cognitive processes, namely (a) appraisal and expression of emotions in oneself and others; (b) monitoring/regulation of emotions in oneself and others; and (c) using emotions in flexible manners to solve problems. Verbal and non-verbal appraisals and expression of feelings, as well as the use of emotions are all included in the mentioned cognitive processes (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). People understand individuals better who can appraise and express their feelings accurately and they are more capable of influencing others, since they have the ability to perceive others' feelings during social interactions. According to the ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1990), high emotionally intelligent individuals may therefore be more capable to put themselves in someone else's shoes (empathy) and relate better to other people's feelings. Emotionally intelligent people can control their feelings by placing themselves in a positive mood or experience negative emotional situations without resulting into destructive outcomes (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). Herewith an overview of the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence in figure 3.4.
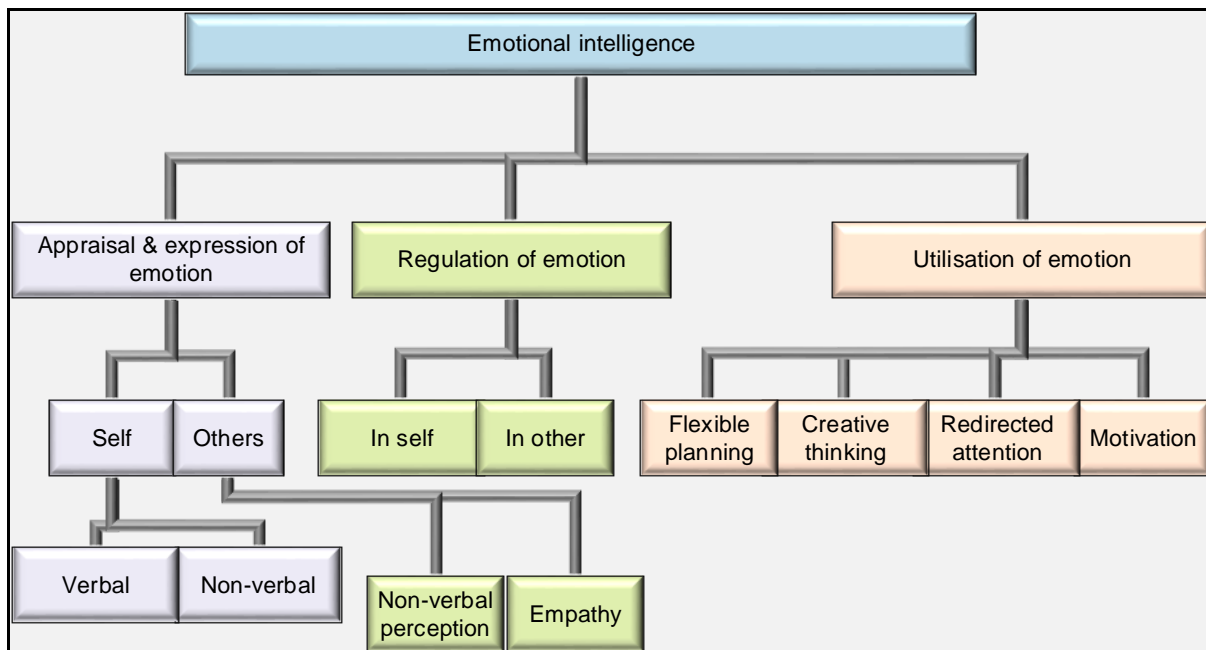
Figure 3.4: Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 190)

Mayer & Salovey (1997) have adjusted the framework of the ability model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), as indicated in figure 3.5 below. The authors suggest that emotional intelligence should be divided into four sections, namely: (a) perception of emotions, (b) utilisation of emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding of emotions, and (d) managing emotions. Firstly, the perception of emotions is considered an ability to determine and interpret emotions on individuals' faces, to recognise meaning in a person's tone of voice and to distinguish cultural emotional differences. One needs to perceive others' emotions in order to gather and process emotional data (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005), as illustrated in figure 3.5 below.

Secondly, the utilisation of emotions is considered an ability to control emotions to enable mental activities such as reasoning and problem-solving. An emotionally intelligent individual has the capability to utilise change in emotions in order to fit the activity that needs to be completed (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005). For example, the mood of a somewhat unhappy person may facilitate meticulous and methodical work, whereas a more cheerful mood may encourage creativity (Isen, Johnson, Mertz, & Robinson, 1985). Thirdly, to understand emotions one has the capability to grasp the emotional language and value complex associations among different feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). For example, an emotionally intelligent individual has the ability to sense slight variations between feelings such as the difference from being happy to overjoyed, or the change in feelings over time such as from being shocked to intense sadness (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

Lastly, to manage emotions entails the capability to control feelings in others and ourselves. High emotionally intelligent individuals can use positive and negative emotions to control situations and reach their planned objectives (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). In addition, it is important to take note that these emotional competencies exist within the context of the social environment. One needs to have knowledge of appropriate interpersonal behaviour (Salovey & Grewal, 2005) in order to act according to the relevant emotional information obtained from a specific event or situation (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). Herewith an overview of the framework of emotional intelligence in figure 3.5.

Perception of emotions.	Utilisation of emotions to facilitate thought.	Understanding of emotions.	Manage emotions.
An ability to determine and interpret emotions on individual's faces. Recognise meaning in a person's tone of voice and to distinguish cultural Oemotional differences. One needs to perceive others emotions in order to gather and process emotional data (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005).	An ability to control emotions to enable mental activities such as reasoning and problem solving. The capability to utilize change in emotions in order to fit the activity that needs to be completed (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005).	To understand emotions one needs to have the capability to grasp emotional language and to value complex associations between different feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).	To manage emotions entails the capability to control feelings in others and in oneself. High emotionally intelligent individuals can use positive and negative emotions to control situations and reach their planned objectives accordingly (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

Figure 3.5: Mayer & Salovey's (1997) framework of emotional intelligence

Mayer et al. (2004) suggest that emotional intelligence is part of a group of various intelligences such as social, practical and personal intelligence. In addition, Salovey and Grewal (2005) view emotional intelligence as a composite of talents or competencies as opposed to personality traits.

The ability model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) of emotional intelligence is relevant to the current research study.

(b)   *Mixed models*

Mixed models of emotional intelligence, namely the competency model of Goleman (2001)

and the non-cognitive model of Baron (1997) will be discussed next.

(i)   Competency model

Emotional intelligence is viewed by Goleman (1998) as the capability to identify our own and other people's feelings, to motivate and to manage feelings within ourselves and in our interpersonal interactions. Four broad abilities are identified as part of emotional intelligence, which encompass twenty skills to distinguish between variations in individual performance, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and interpersonal (social) skills (Goleman, 1995).

Self-awareness signifies a person's ability to be in touch with his or her current feelings and mood, to have knowledge of his or her own preferences, to be aware of personal resources and to be sensitive to his or her intuitions (Goleman, 1995). Self-awareness is imperative in understanding oneself and may act as a source of significant personal insights (Goleman, 2001). Self-management refers to the ability to control one's own feelings, moods, desires and resources in order to facilitate the attainment of one's objectives (Goleman, 1995). Also, the self-management of emotions includes the capability to adjust, utilisation of feelings, motivation, innovation, commitment and achievement (Goleman, 2001).

Social awareness is the skill to be attentive to other's emotions, moods, troubles and needs (Goleman, 1995). In addition, social awareness entails the capability to have empathy with other people's circumstances, to influence and understand diversity, to have a political attentiveness and to satisfy customer needs (Goleman, 2001). Interpersonal skills indicate the proficiency to encourage preferred reactions from people, to effectively manage relationships (Goleman, 1995), such as persuasion, conflict management, cooperation skills, effective group collaboration, manage change and effective communication skills, as reflected in figure 3.6 (Goleman, 2001).

General emotional intelligence abilities			
Self-awareness	**Self-management**	**Social awareness**	**Interpersonal skills**
Represents the imperative understanding of oneself and may act as a source of significant personal insights.	The ability to control one's own feelings, mood, desires and resources in order to facilitate the attainment of personal objectives.	The skill to be attentive to other's emotions, moods, troubles and needs.	The proficiency to encourage preferred reactions from people, to effectively manage relationships.
Skills: Emotionally self-aware. Accurate self evaluation. Confidence in own emotional skills.	*Skills:* Capability to adjust. Utilisation of feelings. Motivation to complete tasks. Apply new emotional information. Committed to maintain standards of honesty and integrity. Able to persist and obtain goals.	*Skills:* The capability to have empathy with other people's circumstances. To influence and understand diversity. To have a political attentiveness. To attend to customer needs.	*Skills:* In touch with other people's emotions. The ability to be persuasive. Manage conflict during social interactions. Being co-operative. Able to effectively participate during teamwork and group interactions. Instigating change. Communicate clear and openly to others.

Figure 3.6: Goleman (2001)'s model of emotional intelligence

(ii)   Non-cognitive model

Emotional intelligence is a set of various non-cognitive abilities, skills and proficiencies that has an impact on a person's capacity to handle external difficulties and tension effectively (Bar-On, 1997). The non-cognitive model (Bar-On, 1997) comprises emotional and social skills, and behaviour that influence the way in which people comprehend and vocalise emotions, interact and relate with others, and manage stress and difficulties (Bar-On, 1997, 2006).

The non-cognitive model (Bar-On, 1997) consists of five elements, namely interpersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management, adaptability and general mood (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Interpersonal skills represent the awareness, comprehension, and expression of emotions and concepts, as well as empathy and social responsibility during social interactions. Social responsibility is the capability to represent oneself in a social group

in a collaborative, contributing and productive manner. Intrapersonal skills indicate a person's emotional self-awareness, independence and assertiveness. Moreover, the interpersonal and intrapersonal elements signify a person's ability to initiate and continue mutually rewarding relationships with others, and being able to provide and receive affection (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Stress management involves strategies that assist a person to better handle difficult situations and to regulate intense feelings more effectively. The stress management element consists of stress tolerance and impulse control. Stress tolerance is when someone can handle difficult circumstances through actions of confidence to handle the emotional strain, whereas impulse control indicates a skill to resist action or the drive to react (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Adaptability is the ability to change one's emotions and reasoning to adjust to a specific situation and to resolve interpersonal problems. The adaptability element consists of reality testing, flexibility and problem-solving. Reality testing is the capability to evaluate the relationship between the subjective and objective world. Subjective world indicates what is currently experienced through the emotional lens of the individual, and objective world suggests the reality of what currently exists (facts). In addition, flexibility is the ability of a person to change their feelings, reasoning and behaviour during change. Problem-solving indicates the identification of problems as well as finding and executing possible solutions (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Finally, general mood indicates the ability to appreciate and express constructive emotions and to possess optimistic thoughts. The general mood element consists of optimism and happiness. Optimism occurs when people view their lives in a positive way, they are hopeful even when the situation seems daunting. Happiness indicates the capability to feel satisfied and delighted with life, and to enjoy being with others (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence may equivalently influence individuals' overall intelligence, which may further predict a person's potential to be successful in all spheres of life (Bar-On, 2002).

(c)   Tripartite model

Trait emotional intelligence consists of personality dimensions that explicitly relate to emotions (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012). Likewise, Kong et al. (2012) view trait emotional intelligence as a trait that is similar to personality characteristics such as extraversion or optimism. Trait emotional intelligence is a multi-layered construct that involves perceptions of the self and emotion-related behavioural temperaments (Petrides,

Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). There seems to be a relationship between trait emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and wellbeing. Higher levels of trait emotional intelligence appear to relate with increased job satisfaction and lower levels of stress (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Also, high trait emotional intelligent individuals tend to experience fewer negative moods during day to day difficulties, which may act as a buffer to protect their psychological wellbeing. Whereas, lower trait emotionally intelligent individuals may be more inclined to develop mood disorders such as depression due to the accrual of negative moods (Mikolajczak, Petrides, Coumans, & Luminet, 2009). The research debate between the concept of emotional intelligence as an ability or a trait has resulted in the tripartite model (Mikolajczak et al., 2009) of emotional intelligence (Nelis et al., 2009).

As illustrated in figure 3.7 below, the three-level model differentiates between emotion-related knowledge, abilities and dispositions to encapsulate individual differences (Mikolajczak et al., 2009). Firstly, knowledge represents people's insight and understanding of their own emotions and how to manage emotionally intense happenings. The knowledge component entails the knowledge that people have about the efficiency of emotional regulation techniques (Mikolajczak et al., 2009).
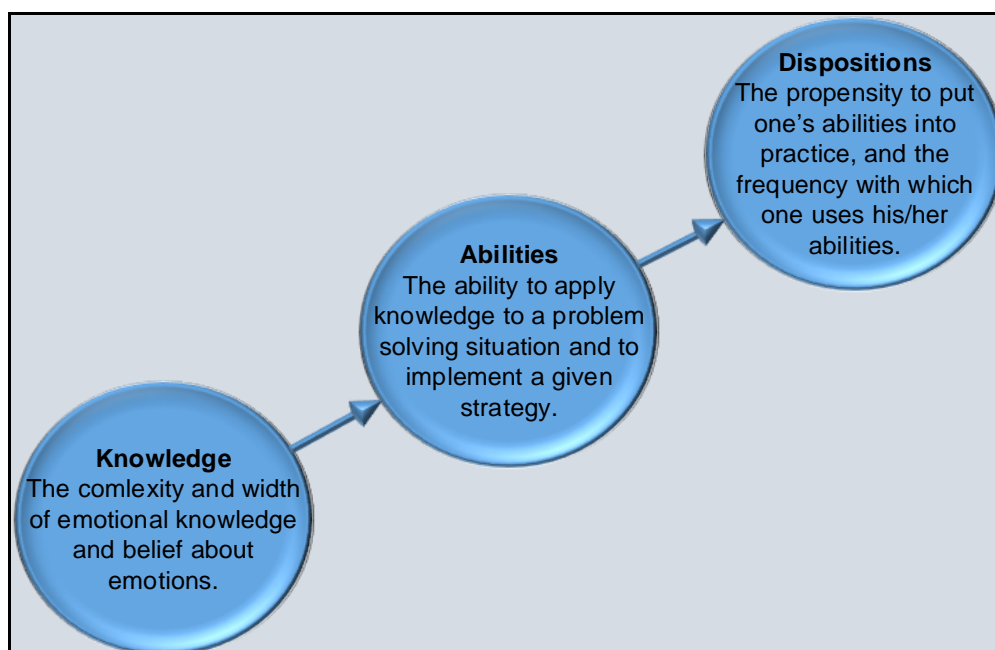
Figure 3.7: The three-level model of emotional intelligence (Mikolajczak, 2009)

Furthermore, it incorporates semantic and episodic knowledge. Semantic knowledge signifies the specific behaviour expected from individuals in a specific emotional situation, whereas episodic knowledge embodies memories from past encounters (Mikolajczak et al.,

2009). Then, abilities refer to the capability to apply a specific emotional strategy relevant to the circumstances. According to Mikolajczak et al. (2009), the emphasis is not on knowledge but rather on what people can do in emotionally loaded situations. Dispositions represent the inclination to act in a specific manner during emotional occurrences and the dispositions involve every trait related to emotion such as neuroticism facets (Mikolajczak et al., 2009).

During the third level of the tripartite model the emphasis is on what people actually accomplish (do). For example, an angry person may be able to withdraw from a situation that is upsetting him or her when he or she is requested to do so, but will not manage to withdraw based on his or her own initiative. Also, a person may not withdraw from the situation since he or she does not have the ability or knowledge that may provide the insight to withdraw from the emotionally laden situation (Mikolajczak et al., 2009).

The three different levels of the model are somewhat connected. More specifically, knowledge does not always transform into abilities, and similarly, knowledge and abilities do not always translate into practice. The structure of the model suggests that knowledge causes skill, which further causes dispositions (behaviour). Mikolajczak et al. (2009) argue that this knowledge may not always be at a conscious level but may exist on an implicit level. The tendency to stay calm during emotionally laden circumstances indicates an ability to apply effective regulation techniques, which may further suggest that the knowledge of some techniques are more effective in certain situations as opposed to other strategies (Mikolajczak et al., 2009).

Table 3.2 below provides a summary of the above discussion regarding the theoretical models of emotional intelligence. In summary, the ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) is applicable to this study, since it provides a comprehensive framework of emotional intelligence in a social work environment. The ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) also views emotional intelligence as a combination of emotional skills, abilities and competencies, which seem critical to establish and maintain significant interpersonal relationships, and to handle incidents of bullying in the workplace effectively and consequently enhance one's psychological wellbeing.

Table 3.2

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Emotional Intelligence

Theoretical models	The ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	Mixed models		
		Competency model (Goleman, 2001)	The non-cognitive model (Bar-On, 1997)	Tripartite model (Petrides & Furnham, 2006)
Conceptualisation	Emotional intelligence is viewed as the ability to observe emotions, to read and generate emotions in order to support reasoning, to comprehend emotions and emotional information, and to control emotions thoughtfully to encourage emotional and intellectual development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).	Emotional intelligence is viewed as the capability to identify one's own and other people's feelings, to motivate, and to manage feelings within ourselves and in our interpersonal interactions (Goleman, 1998).	Emotional intelligence is seen as a set of various non-cognitive abilities, skills and proficiencies that have an impact on a person's capacity to handle external difficulties and tension effectively (Bar-On, 1997).	Trait emotional intelligence is a multi-layered construct that involves perceptions of the self and emotion-related behavioural temperaments (Petrides et al., 2007).
Elements	Perception of emotions Utilisation of emotions to facilitate thought Understanding of emotions Management of emotions	Self-awareness Self-management Social awareness Interpersonal (social) skills	Intrapersonal skills Interpersonal skills Stress management Adaptability General mood	Knowledge Abilities Dispositions

Theoretical models	The ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	Mixed models		
		Competency model (Goleman, 2001)	The non-cognitive model (Bar-On, 1997)	Tripartite model (Petrides & Furnham, 2006)
Core conclusions	High emotionally intelligent employees seem able to interpret emotions according to the relevant work situation. They have the ability to control emotions to enhance work performance such as reasoning and problem solving during difficult interactions in the workplace. They can also make complex associations between various feelings.	High emotionally intelligent individuals have the ability to be in touch with their current feelings, have knowledge of their own preferences, seem aware of their available emotional resources and are sensitive to their own intuition. These individuals also have the ability to regulate emotions, moods, desires and resources in order to facilitate the attainment of their goals.	High emotionally intelligent employees are aware, understand emotions and are also able to vocalise their emotions (interpersonal skills). They have the ability to display empathy, for example towards victims of bullying behaviour and have social responsibility. These individuals may therefore defend targets of bullying or report bullying incidents to management	High trait emotionally intelligent individuals tend to experience fewer negative moods during daily challenges, which may protect their psychological wellbeing during incidents of workplace bullying as opposed to lower trait emotionally intelligent individuals.

Theoretical models	The ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)	Mixed models		
		Competency model (Goleman, 2001)	The non-cognitive model (Bar-On, 1997)	Tripartite model (Petrides &Furnham, 2006)
Core conclusions *(continue)*	Highly emotionally intelligent employees have the capability to manage and control feelings in others and themselves, which will be helpful during conflict situations in the workplace.	Highly emotionally intelligent individuals can observe others' emotions, moods, concerns and needs. Have the ability to display empathy to others such as targets of bullying and seem to understand diversity in the workplace better. Also, they seem to have the ability to handle conflict situations better and appear more successful during team work.	High emotionally intelligent individuals are in touch with their own feelings, are independent and can act assertively (intrapersonal skills). These individuals are more capable of handling work stressors and control extreme emotions, for example during interpersonal conflict such as workplace bullying incidents. They are able to adjust their emotions to the relevant situation to resolve conflict. They are also able to see the reality of what currently exists (objective) as well as the emotions involved (subjective).	Lower trait emotionally intelligent individuals may experience decreased psychological wellbeing when exposed to acts of bullying in the workplace.

Next, the variables influencing emotional intelligence will be discussed.

3.1.2.3   *Variables influencing emotional intelligence*

People seem to display different emotional reactions due to variables that influence the manner in which individuals respond to stressors during difficult events. The variables of significance to this research include age, gender, race, childhood, socio-culture and training, which will be explained in more detail.

(a)   Age

Individuals either proactively avoid stressors or effectively utilise cognitive-behavioural techniques to lower the chance of coming in contact with damaging circumstances caused by both internal and external factors (Charles & Luong, 2013). People who are older tend to display fewer negative emotional reactions when they avoid conflict as opposed to younger individuals (Charles & Luong, 2013; Charles, Piazza, Luong, & Almeida, 2009). This is confirmed by a brain activation study that indicates emotional provocations may trigger emotional control more in older individuals, whereas the perceptual processing and memory areas in the brain of younger adults tend to be more active (St. Jacques, Bessette-Symons, & Cabeza, 2009). In addition, when the stressor cannot be avoided, older individuals tend to react more effectively during interpersonal conflict (Charles & Luong, 2013).

(b)   Gender

Overall, men and women appear to have similar emotional intelligence results. However, when it came to the 15 component scales of emotional intelligence, women appeared to have slightly higher empathy and social responsibility than men. In addition, men appeared to have higher stress tolerance (Stein & Book, 2011). A research study among children indicated that depressed females displayed lower levels of emotional intelligence as opposed to males. However, there was no significant difference in interpersonal, intrapersonal and adaptability components of emotional intelligence (Tannousa & Matarb, 2010).

On the contrary Stein and Book (2011) have found that women seem to score slightly higher on interpersonal relationships, whereas men seem to have higher levels of self-regard. Moreover, women tend to have higher levels of emotional literacy and also tend to be more self-aware than men (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010).

Bennie and Huang (2010) have found in the work environment, men tend to manage their emotions better than women, although the significant difference is fairly small. Women seem to show lower levels of stress management and emotional management (Bennie & Huang, 2010). In contrast, women show a greater ability to display emotional expression (Bennie & Huang, 2010; Kring, 1998), while age group, marital status and individuals' home language have little to no influence on emotional expression (Bennie & Huang, 2010).

(c)   Race

According to Mayer and Salovey (1997), people from different cultures differ in the manner in which they manage emotions. There appears to be a significant connection between emotional intelligence and race, since minority groups seem to have higher levels of general emotional intelligence (Van Rooy, Alonso & Viswesvaran, 2005). On the other hand, Bar-On (2006) has found no significant variance among different cultural levels of emotional intelligence.

(d)   Childhood

Research indicates that children may develop ineffective emotional regulation strategies due to an indirect influence from parents who suffer from depression in comparison to parents who do not have depression. For example, depressed women may be more judgemental, antagonistic, negative, and may be emotionally less expressive during interactions with their children and other people. In addition, children may learn through their parents' actions how to behave and regulate emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

(e)   Socio-cultural influence

Cultural differences seem to be evident in how individuals perceive, express and regulate various emotions (Gross, Richards, & John, 2006). Many aspects of people's emotional experiences are formed by values that are embedded within their specific culture (Cross & Madson, 1997). Therefore, individuals may act accordingly in order to be accepted by their culture, which further reinforces the specific cultural behaviour (Gross et al., 2006; Koydemir, Simsek, Schütz & Tipandjan, 2013). Research indicates that different cultures may have different levels of wellbeing and emotional intelligence. High emotional intelligence seems to be linked to increased life satisfaction in varying degrees, depending on the culture (Koydemir et al., 2013).

(g)   Emotional intelligence training

People who could not develop their emotional intelligence during childhood can increase their emotional intelligence during adulthood through drive, persistence and support. Emotional intelligence may increase one's ability to adjust in many areas of life, and therefore may increase one's psychological wellbeing and life satisfaction (Nelis et al., 2011).

Research studies indicate that effective emotional strategies, particularly emotional regulation, are critical to improve physical health and mental wellbeing (Nelis et al., 2011). Also, emotional intelligence training can improve interpersonal relationships, since it enables individuals to identify, express and regulate emotions, which in turn, can result in improved marital relations and fewer conflict situations (Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers, 2005; Nelis et al., 2011). Enhancement of emotional intelligence can increase employees' employability (Nelis et al., 2011; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

In summary, age seems to influence the manner in which people react to emotions, since older individuals display a higher tendency to regulate emotional responses more efficiently as opposed to younger individuals (Charles & Luong, 2013; Charles et al., 2009). On the other hand, there are various small differences in the way in which males and females recognise, evaluate and deal with emotions (Bennie & Huang, 2010). The minority groups in South Africa seem to display lower levels of emotional intelligence (Van Rooy et al., 2005). Furthermore, parents seem to have an influence on the development of emotional intelligence during childhood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In addition, various cultures appear to view, express and react differently to emotions (Gross et al., 2006; Koydemir et al., 2013). Finally, one can enhance emotional intelligence during adulthood by learning effective emotional strategies, which may consequently increase one's psychological wellbeing and general satisfaction (Nelis et al., 2011). Thus, it appears that age, gender, race, childhood, socio-cultural factors and training may influence the development of emotional intelligence.

In the following section the hardiness construct will be explained.

3.1.3 Hardiness

Hardiness appears to be positively related to psychological wellbeing (Maddi, 2008) and seems to safeguard one against the onset of mental health problems such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Escolas et al., 2013) and anxiety (Hanton et al., 2013). The concept of hardiness will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing hardiness discussed.

3.1.3.1   *Conceptualisation of hardiness*

Kobasa (1982) regards hardiness as an ability to view stressful life situations as challenges and treat them as opportunities for personal development. Individuals are able to handle external stressors confidently (Kobasa, 1982). Hardiness is also viewed as a trait that differentiates between individuals who manage stress effectively as opposed to others who are less effective during challenging circumstances (Cash & Gardner, 2011). Kobasa, Maddi, and Kahn (1982) have found that the dimensions of hardiness, namely control, commitment and challenge may function as a 'resistance resource' and that hardiness achieves the utmost 'health-protection' during stressful life occurrences**.** Thus, individuals with higher levels of hardiness may handle difficult situations easier and with less strain on their wellbeing due to this internal resource.

Moreover, hardiness is viewed as a person's attitude towards his circumstances (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Maddi, 2002). Hardiness is regarded as a personal resource that can be learned (Bartone & Hystad, 2010), may assist individuals to view mental stressors more positively, and may also reduce the effects of stress on one's health (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Maddi, 2007). Similarly, hardiness is described as an attitude that offers bravery (courage) and drive to change challenging events into opportunities of advancement, and when one has the ability to stay healthy regardless of increased stress (Kobasa, 1979; Maddi, 2004, 2006). Psychological hardiness is regarded as a group of personality characteristics to differentiate between individuals who stay healthy and maintain productivity during various difficult circumstances (Kobasa et al., 1982). Likewise, psychological hardiness signifies resilient individuals' who manage their health and performance, even during stressful events (Bartone, Kelly and Matthews, 2013; Maddi, Khoshaba, Harvey, Fazel, & Resurreccion, 2010). Hardiness may allow individuals to recognise stressors, and thus protect them from negative emotions that may subsequently follow after a stressful event, instead one may experience a feeling of accomplishment (Maddi et al., 2010).

Individuals with high levels of hardiness tend to display higher levels of commitment to their jobs and life, and they are continuously enthusiastically involved with people and happenings instead of isolating themselves. People with high levels of hardiness also have a high awareness of control that motivates them to influence situations and results instead of feeling helpless. In addition, individuals with high levels of hardiness view stressful events as challenges to develop. Subsequently, they possess an increased openness to diversity and transformation through which they learn and grow as opposed to viewing the situation as perilous that needs to be circumvented (Maddi, Matthews, Kelly, Villarreal, & White, 2012).

Similarly, Maddi and Kobasa (1984) argue that hardiness can influence the manner in which individuals interact with their external world, and promote efficient methods to cope better with difficult situations. In addition, hardiness individuals appreciate their own worth; view their activities as significant; trust that they have the power to influence their life happenings moderately (Kobasa & Maddi, 1977), and have a feeling of meaning and purpose, even when faced with painful and disappointing circumstances (Bartone, Kelly and Matthews, 2013; Kobasa & Maddi, 1977).

The research literature indicates various constructs similar to hardiness, for example psychological resilience, mental toughness (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012) and mindfulness (Vinothkumar, Vinu, & Anshya, 2013). Resiliency is seen as a predisposition to stay strong, even in the face of adversity (Kauten, Barry, & Leachman, 2013). Psychological resilience is seen as psychological processes and individual actions that appear to increase a person's resources, which in turn, can protect one from the effects of stress (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013).

On the other hand, mental toughness refers to a person's capability to manage pressure and distractions that involve intense focus, discipline, confidence, and determination. More specifically, individuals may display high levels of mental toughness when they take responsibility and accountability without justification, and tolerate mental and physical discomfort. Mental toughness is also seen as a positive approach (Brennan, 1998), and is normally used within sport environments, although the term has gained popularity in occupational contexts (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012). Athletes normally possess mental toughness to be psychologically more competitive and to be able to handle various challenges better than their opponents (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012; Jones, Hanton, & Connaughton, 2002). In addition, mental toughness is where individuals have the capability to use their skills and talent continuously to accomplish success regardless of the situation or conditions (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012; Loehr, 1982).

Additionally, mindfulness fundamentally consists of conscious attention and awareness, which happen within a person's present state or reality. Furthermore, the concept of mindfulness is based on Buddhist and other meditative traditions (Brown & Ryan, 2003). Research indicates that mindfulness can influence a person's wellbeing positively (Siegel, 2007), since it can be a critical factor during attempts to discontinue unhealthy actions, habits and automatic thought patterns (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Brown and Ryan (2003) have found that mindfulness may be associated with increased self-knowledge, which is an important component of self-regulation. Therefore, it seems that individuals who possess mindfulness may have the insight and understanding to discontinue old self-harming habits through the regulation of their thoughts and actions. Maddi (2006) argues that hardiness can facilitate the transformation of stressful events or stressors to a person's advantage, and therefore be included in the field of positive psychology.

Next, various concepts relating to the construct of hardiness will be discussed in more detail.

(a)   Hardiness and positive psychology

According to Maddi (2006), the field of positive psychology has made progress but nevertheless continues to develop. Maddi (2006) argues that for many years' optimism has been seen as one of the corner stones of positive psychology and a significant factor of happiness, but posits that hardiness attitudes (courage) should be included to improve the comprehensiveness of positive psychology. Furthermore, Maddi (2006) stipulates that extended research is needed to explain the roles of optimism and hardiness in individual health, performance and behaviour.

Similarly, hardiness appears to signify resiliency through a mixture of mental, physiological and behavioural practices (Hystad et al., 2011a). Hardiness is evolving as a blend of interrelated mental and emotional attitudes, interaction techniques and behavioural patterns, which together can offer one with bravery, drive and strategies to transform possible tragedies into advancement opportunities (Maddi, 2006).

Psychological hardiness, a sense of coherence and intrinsic motivation signify a sense of meaning originating from one's interactions with the environment. A sense of coherence (Antonovsky, 1987) embodies commitment and engagement with others, and may act as a buffer to safeguard a person against the negative outcomes of stress, which is similar to the commitment component of hardiness (Bartone et al., 2013). Furthermore, self-confidence that forms part of optimism is also seen as a component of hardiness (Maddi, 1999).

There are various differences between hardiness, a sense of coherence, intrinsic motivation and optimism. The awareness of meaning in the hardiness construct is viewed as a function of predisposition; in a sense of coherence it embodies social entrenchment, and in intrinsic motivation it represents the essential qualities of activities. The overall mental importance in the optimism construct is increased in hardiness through highlighting participation, influence, and behaviour of growth and development (Maddi, 1999). Finally, Delahaij, Gaillard, and Van Damb (2010) have found that hardiness enhances self-efficacy, which can subsequently result in increased constructive and healthy actions (Bartone et al., 2013).

(b)   Hardiness and stress

Individuals with high levels of hardiness appear to have more confidence during challenging events, since they tend to perceive the event as less threatening and believe that they are able to manage the stressors (Delahaij et al., 2010). In addition, people with higher levels of hardiness seem to approach life pressures energetically, and view them as meaningful and significant. This may subsequently result in reduced stress levels (Maddi, 1990). These individuals appear to have confidence in their stress-coping abilities and they have the capability to apply applicable solutions in order to manage life difficulties (Bartone, 2000). On the contrary, individuals with low levels of hardiness may experience higher levels of burnout (Alarcon, Eschleman, & Bowling, 2009). Shirom (2010) argues that one's internal resources may steadily diminish owing to prolonged exposure to stress.

Research indicates that hardiness is significantly related to social support (Eschleman, Bowling, & Alarcon, 2010). Eschleman et al. (2010) posit that high hardiness individuals may have more supportive relationships, since people who are committed in various areas in life tend to be more socially appealing or may have a larger friendship group. In addition, these individuals tend to have a more proactive problem-solving approach as opposed to a regressive approach (Bartone et al., 2009; Eschleman et al., 2010; Hanton et al., 2013; Maddi, 1999). More specifically, hardy individuals may have a greater awareness of control and commitment to their surroundings therefore they may choose to engage and interact with others rather than to avoid stressful situations (Eschleman et al., 2010).

Furthermore, Maddi (2008) argues that a person's hardiness may increase when he or she receives support and encouragement from others to employ stress as an instrument to growth and resilience. Interpersonal conflicts may decrease when a person receives more encouragement and assistance through the social support from others during social interactions (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999). On the other hand, Hanton et al. (2013) posit that

coping strategies may only be effective during demanding competitive circumstances when people possess higher levels of hardiness and view the stressor as advantageous to their performance. Hardiness may mediate the response to a demanding event by contextual individual qualities such as a person's coping style or self-efficacy (Delahaij et al., 2010). Thus, hardiness may influence the way people respond to stressors or challenging events.

Moreover, research studies indicate that people with high levels of hardiness may also experience lower levels of stress and increased psychological wellbeing (Hanton et al., 2013; Maddi, 2008). In a sample of sport performers, Hanton et al. (2013) found that high hardiness individuals generally encountered lower levels of concern and somatic anxiety, as well as higher self-confidence as opposed to individuals with low levels of hardiness.

(c)   Hardiness and psychological wellbeing

Eschleman et al. (2010) argue that if one compared the hardiness construct to other health-oriented concepts such as locus of control, then hardiness can be seen as one of the greatest predictors of individual wellbeing. Hardiness appears to influence individuals' psychological and physical wellbeing when they encounter stressors, even during military and combat situations (Bartone, 2012; Escolas et al., 2013).

Research indicates that individuals with average or below average hardiness within the military may have an increased propensity to develop PTSD over time. Continuous exposure to military service stressors may enhance the disposition of a person with high levels of hardiness to develop PTSD as opposed to an individual with high levels of hardiness who may be moderately unharmed by the prolonged stress (Escolas et al., 2013). Thus, Escolas et al. (2013) argue that hardiness is a psychological resource that may safeguard individuals who work in highly stressful environments from developing PTSD. However, when people encounter multiple deployments in the military service it may be beneficial for them to receive hardiness training, since in these circumstances, hardiness alone may not be sufficient to ensure their resilience (Escolas et al., 2013).

(d)   Development of hardiness

The tendency of individuals with high levels of hardiness to view difficult situations as opportunities for personal development and their active attempts to pursue such opportunities may also indicate that these people have greater openness to learn and develop through training and that hardiness training may increase their ability to cope with

stressful situations (Hystad et al., 2011b).

Hardiness is generally seen as a personal disposition that is moderately constant and develops early in one's life (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984). However, research studies indicate that hardiness can be improved and learned (Maddi, 2007; Maddi et al., 2009a), although it may be time consuming and difficult (Bartone & Hystad, 2010). Eschleman et al. (2010) suggest that hardiness training should be designed to consider the unique outcomes of each hardiness component. According to Eschleman et al. (2010), the focus needs to be on the commitment component of hardiness, since it normally describes the most distinctive difference in criteria.

However, it should be noted that control and challenge must not be excluded from the training sessions (Eschleman et al., 2010). One way to increase individual hardiness is to teach people how to change their attitudes by learning more efficient coping and self-regulation strategies (Maddi et al., 2009a). One can gain more experience through confronting and controlling difficult events, which can enhance a person's coping skills and subsequently improve hardiness levels (Hanton et al., 2013; Maddi, 2008; Maddi et al., 2009a).

Another way to improve psychological hardiness is to arrange the organisation's environment in a manner that fosters hardiness reactions (Hystad et al., 2011b). For example, Hystad et al. (2011b) suggest leaders in the military context who possess high hardiness can take on dual roles, leading by example and act as mentors to assist employees. Another option is to adjust the training programmes to incorporate knowledge from the hardiness framework and to highlight the characteristics of psychological hardiness (Hystad et al., 2011b).

Finally, Maddi (2008) suggests training that entails a practical workbook (Khoshaba & Maddi, 1999), which provides individuals with concrete examples and exercises as well as regular evaluation that can motivate trainees to manage life stressors through coping, social support and self-care. In addition, trainees are encouraged to utilise others' feedback on the progress they make with their hardiness skills. This may result in improved individual performance and wellbeing, especially during extremely difficult circumstances (Maddi, 2002; Maddi, 2008). The hardiness training programme is applicable and useful to military veterans, firefighters, athletes and anyone who is exposed to exceptional events of stress (Maddi, 2008).

In summary, based on the foregoing literature review, the construct of hardiness seems to form part of the field of positive psychology, since hardiness appears to assist individuals in

approaching stressful happenings with a positive outlook rather than being pessimistic and feeling overwhelmed (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2004, 2006). Thus, hardy people seem to have the necessary confidence and self-belief in their own abilities to overcome obstacles in life. Furthermore, hardiness is linked with decreased stress (Delahaij et al., 2010) and better mental health (Bartone, 2012; Eschleman et al., 2010; Escolas et al., 2013). Research also indicates that hardiness is viewed as similar to constructs such as resilience, mental toughness (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012) and mindfulness (Vinothkumar, Vinu, & Anshya, 2013), since these concepts are also viewed as personal resources that may protect one against the harmful effects of stressors (Clough & Strycharczyk, 2012; Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013; Loehr, 1982; Kauten, Barry, & Leachman, 2013; Siegel, 2007). Thus, hardiness may promote psychological wellbeing and act as a personal resource during challenging times.

Similar definitions of hardiness seem to exist in the literature and there appears to be various core themes among the conceptualisations of hardiness. The defined conceptualisation of hardiness implies that individuals with high levels of hardiness view stressful events as opportunities to grow and develop (Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2004, 2006). This empowers them to manage stressors more effectively (Cash & Gardner, 2011), and to experience fewer effects of mental and physical strain (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa et al., 1982; Maddi, 2004, 2006, 2007).

Hardiness is also seen as an internal resource that can be acquired through life (Bartone & Hystad, 2010), and it can act as a buffer against adverse effects during strenuous situations and traumatic life events (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Maddi, 2007), which are associated with increased performance (Bartone et al., 2013; Maddi et al., 2010) and psychological wellbeing (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Bartone et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1979; Kobasa et al., 1982; Maddi, 2004, 2006, 2007; Maddi et al., 2010). In addition, hardy people have the courage and motivation to transform difficult events into occasions of discovery and development (Kobasa, 1979; Maddi, 2004, 2006) rather than feeling helpless and out of control (Kobasa & Maddi, 1977; Maddi, et al., 2012).

In respect of this study, hardiness can be viewed as a positive approach towards stressful happenings (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Maddi, 2002), which may act as a personal resource and assist individuals in managing stressors effectively, decreasing psychological strain (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa et al., 1982); and contributing to personal development (Hystad et al., 2011b; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 1999; Maddi, 2006). Thus, individuals with high levels of hardiness approach difficult life situations in a more

constructive manner, have the ability to handle work stressors more effectively, thereby promoting personal growth and enhancing psychological wellbeing. The relevant definition of hardiness seems to include a person's effective functioning in different areas such as affective, cognitive and conative facets, which are necessary for individual coping within a social work context.

This study attempts to contribute to the research of hardiness and it measures employees' core self-assessments of their psychological wellbeing in relation to experiences of bullying and intentions to leave their employing organisations. Based on the explanation of hardiness, it can be hypothesised that individuals with high levels of hardiness may possess a personal resource that will assist them to handle challenging work circumstances, such as workplace bullying, more successfully. Thus, hardiness may protect employees against the adverse effects of bullying behaviour, which may decrease their intentions to leave the organisation. Finally, the focus of this study is on hardiness as one of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes within an organisational context.

In the following section, theoretical models relevant to the construct of hardiness will be explained.

3.1.3.2   Theoretical models

The following models of hardiness will be explained in more detail, namely the hardiness model of Kobasa (1979), and the transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

(a)   Hardiness model

Kobasa (1979) has initially suggested the model of hardiness that outlines an effective structure to provide insight into and awareness of individuals' resilient reaction patterns to stressors. As mentioned earlier, hardiness is often viewed as a personality characteristic (Maddi, 1998, 2002; Maddi & Kobasa, 1984).

According to Maddi (1999), hardiness can be viewed as an inclination to utilise transformational rather than regressive coping strategies when individuals interacts with the external environment during stressful circumstances. Consequently, individuals who have effective coping mechanisms tend to display lower levels of exertion due to stress and therefore have better mental and physical health as reflected in figure 3.8 below.
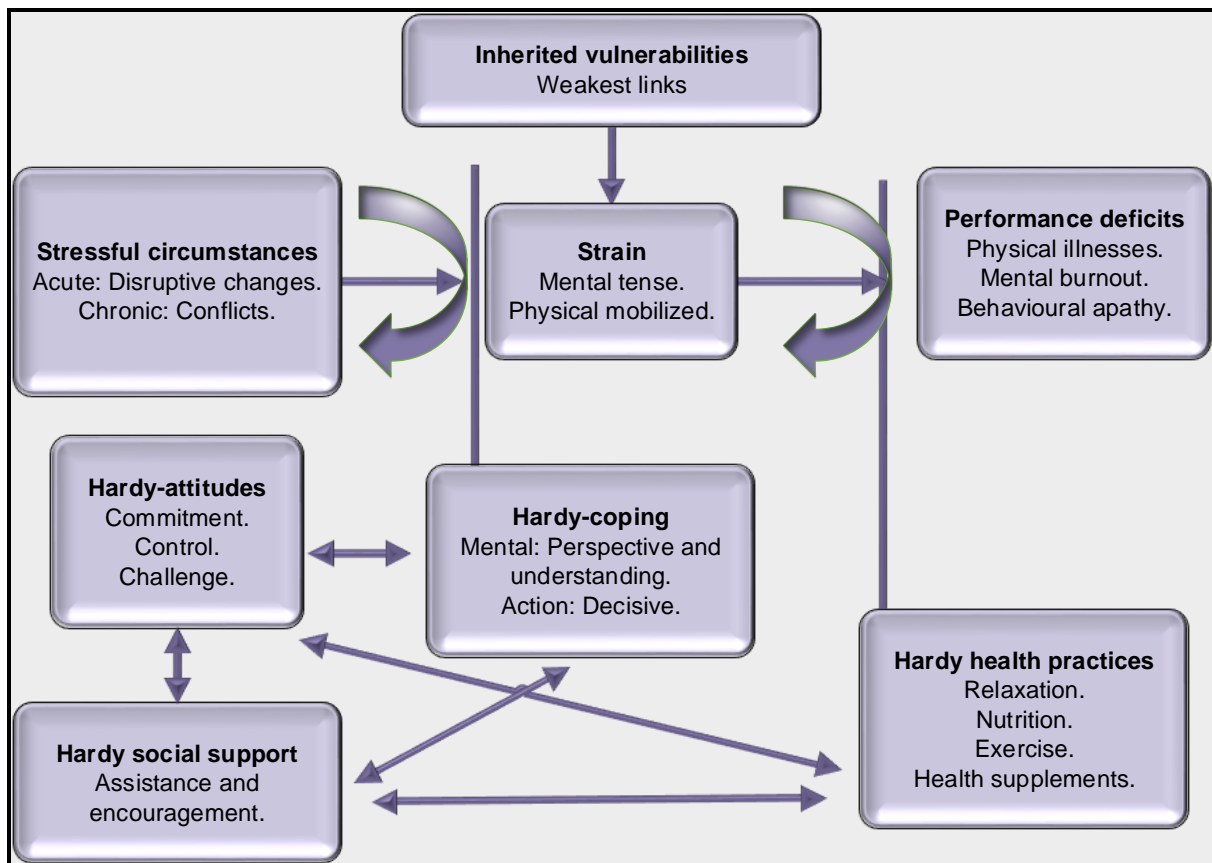
Figure 3.8: Hardiness model (Maddi, 2004, p. 288)

The model of hardiness (Kobasa, 1979) implies that hardiness is a multidimensional concept that consists of three attitudes, namely commitment, control and challenge (Maddi et al., 2009b). Each attitude is necessary to provide a person with the necessary internal strength and drive to transform a stressful situation into a benefit (Maddi, 2002; 2004). In order to endure and resolve stressors, people need to view the stressful events as ordinary advancement demands instead of disastrous obstacles (challenges). They should view the stressors as solvable as opposed to things that are impossible to handle (control) and foster a belief that it is meaningful to participate in the situation instead of avoiding it (commitment) (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Maddi, 2004).

Although the sub-components of hardiness are conceptually linked (Kobasa, 1979), research indicates that each component is also distinctive (Eschleman et al., 2010).

(i) *Commitment*

Highly committed individuals tend to be personally engaged with their environment, and they view their experiences as purposeful and significant in general. Also, they may display an

increased interest in what is happening around them, are more observant and therefore more prone to see various possibilities and aspects of situations. In addition, individuals with higher levels of commitment may have the capability to predict numerous ways of responding to situations (Bartone et al., 2013).

According to Maddi (2006), when one is vigorous it appears to be less productive to withdraw and alienate oneself from stressful circumstances. Instead, a strong person may rather choose to influence life outcomes even when it appears to be strenuous in some cases. Thus, individuals who are highly committed are more involved in various spheres of life; for example, their family, work and social life (Maddi, 2004). The commitment component of hardiness may be advantageous, since it can provide one with a feeling of worth. This may result in the establishment and growth of social interactions that may be beneficial during demanding times. Commitment appears to be the most significant component of hardiness (Kobasa, 1979). On the contray, Eschleman et al. (2010) have found that challenge is the most distinctive component of hardiness, although their results have confirmed that the commitment component is the most valuable in predicting criteria.

(ii)   Control

High levels of control seem to indicate a predisposition to behave in a manner that may influence life outcomes. Also, high levels of control indicate a predisposition to trust that one has the insight, knowledge, competencies and abilities to make decisions that are necessary to affect one's circumstances as opposed to having a sense of hopelessness and not feeling capable to change one's circumstances (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2008). Research indicates that individuals inherently require to feel in control and that a perception of control can be fundamentally advantageous (Eschleman et al., 2010; Wang, Bowling & Eschleman, 2010). On the other hand, Maddi (2006) argues that is seems unwise to allow oneself to slide into a mindset of powerlessness and passivity.

The control component of hardiness may result in increased adaptability, since individuals who possess higher levels of control tend to believe that they can react efficiently and manage the outcomes of life happenings. In addition, individuals who demonstrate high levels of control tend to believe that they can manipulate situations successfully, irrespective of the circumstances (Bartone et al., 2013).

(iii)   Challenge

Increased levels of challenge indicate a predisposition of transformation as the norm instead of constancy, and change is associated with prospects and advancement instead of detriment (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2008). Maddi (2006) argues that people with high levels of challenge do not believe that effortless luxury and security are their birth right. On the other hand, individuals with lower levels of hardiness have a greater tendency to withdraw from events, view situations as increasingly terrifying (Maddi, 1999), and also appear more discouraged and passive (Maddi, 2008). Moreover, individuals with high levels of challenge appear to put the stressful situation into perspective by looking at different alternatives to solving the problem. They attempt to deepen their understanding by analysing the details and focusing on actions necessary to change it into an advantage instead of denying that the stressors exist or exaggerating the situation (Maddi, 2008).

Research indicates that psychological hardiness and its components appear to be related positively to tendencies that provide buffering effects against stressors such as optimism, and related negatively to dispositions that seem to increase the negative effects of stressors such as neuroticism (Eschleman et al., 2010). Thus, it seems that hardiness may protect a person against the harmful impacts of stressors. In addition, the research findings of Eschleman et al. (2010) suggest that hardiness and its components are normally associated with stressors and strains. More specifically, people with high levels of hardiness view stressors as less intense and they tend to deal with negative situations proactively. Therefore, when they perceive fewer stressors, it may result in fewer symptoms of exertion.

The hardiness model of Kobasa (1979) is relevant to the present research study, since it provides a comprehensive framework of hardiness in a social work environment.

(b)   Transactional model of stress

The transactional model of stress highlights interactions between individuals and their external environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), as opposed to the hardiness model that highlights individual differences with regard to coping efficiency.

Individuals experience stress when the event is assessed as strenuous or exceeds their personal resources, and appears harmful to their wellbeing. Personal resources are viewed as an individual's knowledge, competencies and capabilities to control the relevant stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to Lazarus (1999), people assess their environment

through a cognitive appraisal process in order to identify the significance of demands and to decide whether a stressor may have positive or negative consequences.

There are three ways in which people can assess or appraise stressful events, namely primary appraisal, secondary appraisal or re-appraisal, as indicated in figure 3.9 below.
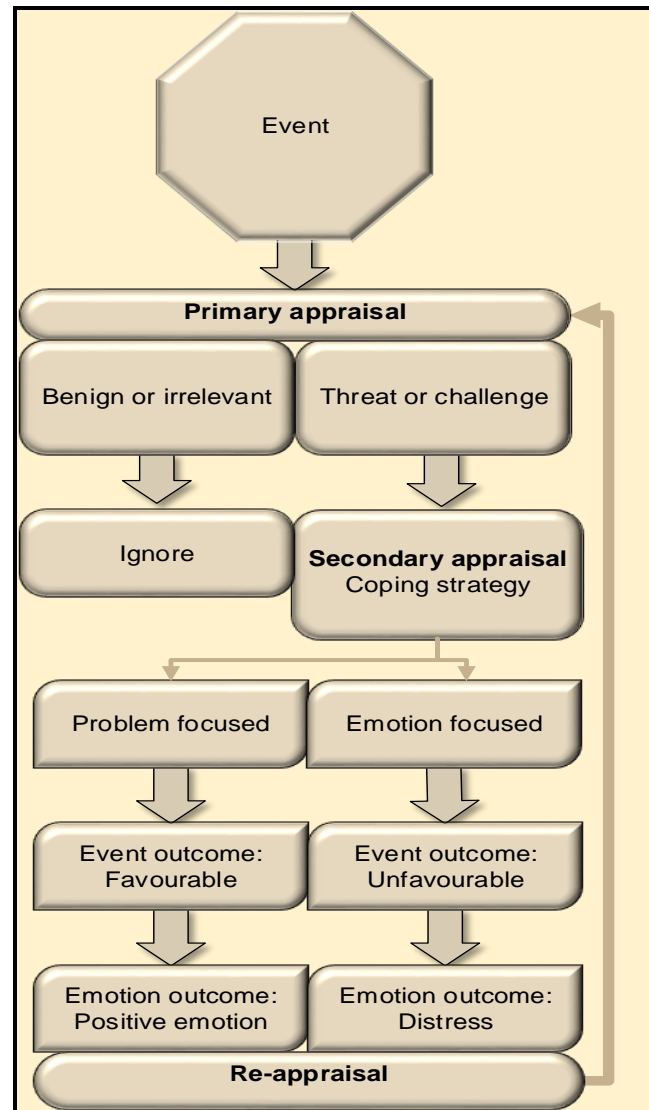
Figure 3.9: Lazarus and Folkman (1984) model of transactional stress

Primary appraisal represents individuals' assessments of stressful situations as either (a) irrelevant, which may have no influence on emotions; (b) benign-positive, where the situation is perceived to cause potentially constructive effects, or (c) stressful. Individuals perceive that a specific demand is exceeding their personal resources and consequently, they view the interaction as a threat, detrimental to their wellbeing, or as a challenge (Folkman & Lazarus,

1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Thereafter, individuals make a secondary appraisal to determine how well they can manage the difficult event. Finally, individuals make a re-appraisal of their reactions and the latest information of the event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Threat appraisals can cause people to experience negative emotions such as hesitation and anxiety, whereas challenge appraisals can trigger positive emotions such as enthusiasm and exhilaration (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) view coping as a process whereby people choose ways to cope through continuously changing their thoughts and actions to control the relevant internal and external difficulties that are viewed as straining or exceeding their personal resources. In addition, two coping styles are identified, namely problem-focused coping, which entails handling the nature of the stressful event, and emotion-based coping that signifies managing one's feelings relevant to the event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, individuals may choose emotion-focused coping such as withdrawal or self-blaming (Bartone et al., 2009).

Hystad et al. (2011a) argue that not all people surrender to potential stressors. They will not necessarily develop diseases and ailments as a result of stress. However, the negative consequences of stress depend on how they react to the stressful happenings (Hystad et al., 2011a; Lazarus, 1999).

The transactional model (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) posits that individuals' interpretation of difficult situations is more significant than the actual situation, since the focus is rather on how confident they are to manage the stressors. This will determine their capability to cope with the demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Table 3.3 below provides a summary of the foregoing discussion with regard to the theoretical models of hardiness.

Table 3.3

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Hardiness

Theoretical model	Hardiness model (Kobasa, 1979)	Transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)
Conceptualisation	The model of hardiness (Kobasa, 1979) implies that hardiness is a multidimensional concept that consists of three attitudes, namely commitment, control and challenge (Maddi et al., 2009b). Each attitude is necessary to provide a person with the necessary internal strength and drive to transform a stressful situation into a benefit (Maddi, 2002; 2004).	Individuals assess their environment through a cognitive appraisal process in order to identify the significance of demands and to decide whether a stressor may have positive or negative consequences (Lazarus, 1999).
Elements	Commitment Control Challenge	Primary appraisal Secondary appraisal Re-appraisal
Core conclusions	In order to endure and resolve stressors people need to view the stressful events as ordinary advancement demands instead of disastrous obstacles (challenges). They should view the stressors as solvable as opposed to things that are impossible to handle (control) and they must believe that it is meaningful to participate in the situation instead of avoiding it (commitment) (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Maddi, 2004). Hardiness model that highlights individual differences with regards to coping efficiency.	The transactional model posits that individuals' interpretation of difficult situations are more significant than the actual situation, since the focus is rather on how confident they are to manage the stressors. This will determine their capability to cope with the demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The transactional model of stress highlights interactions between individuals and their external environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

In summary, the hardiness model of Kobasa (1979) is applicable to this study, since it provides a comprehensive framework of hardiness in a social work environment. The model posits that hardiness provides a positive mental approach, which consists of three attitudes (commitment, control and challenge). These attitudes are needed to provide an employee with the necessary inner courage and motivation to manage and control difficult incidents in the workplace such as bullying, and to handle perpetrators of bullying successfully.

In the following section, variables that influence hardiness will be discussed.

3.1.3.3   Variables influencing the development of hardiness

Individuals appear to differ in the way they handle stressful life circumstances as a result of variables that seem to influence individual hardiness. The variables of importance to this research include age, race, gender and organisations, which will be discussed next.

(a)   Age

Schmied and Lawler (1986) have found that the level of hardiness in females differs with age. In addition, research indicates that individuals in the late life or retirement stage (56 years and older) of their careers seem to have a higher need to explore new career opportunities (challenge component of hardiness) (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Also, individuals in the establishment phase of their careers (26-40 years) appear to have a stronger preference for occupations that expose them to various opportunities where they can utilise their talents and abilities innovatively (challenge component of hardiness) (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010).

Highly stressful occupations appear to cause individuals to revert to avoidance coping strategies such as alcohol abuse. Research findings indicate that older defense workers with greater tenure tend to be more susceptible to alcohol abuse due to their increased levels of accumulative stress (Bartone & Hystad, 2012). Thus, it seems that older individuals who are exposed to occupational stress over a longer period of time may abuse alcohol as a coping strategy in an attempt to manage work stress.

(b)   Race

Various research studies indicate there is no difference between organisational commitment levels (commitment component of hardiness) and various ethnic groups (Coetzee,

Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2007; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Lumley, 2010). Similarly, research indicates that there appears to be no variation in hardiness levels across cultures or demographic differences (Maddi & Harvey, 2005). However, hardiness seems to play a significant role during stressful situations across cultures (Maddi & Harvey, 2006).

(c)   *Gender*

The classical work of Schmied and Lawler (1986) suggests that hardiness may be related to health outcomes only among men. However, other research studies indicate that hardiness do in fact predict health outcomes among women (Ganellen & Blaney, 1984; Rhodewalt & Zone, 1989).

Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) have found that females tend to have a stronger need to experiment with new career opportunities (challenge component of hardiness) whereas, Coetzee and Schreuder (2009) have found that women have a stronger preference for steady and stable work opportunities.

Research indicates that hardiness can lower the impact of life stressors for men but not for women (Benishek & Lopez, 1997). On the other hand, Rhodewalt and Agustsdottir (1984) have found no gender difference in the relationship between hardiness and psychological distress. Similarly, Shepperd & Kashani (1991) have also found no gender differences in hardiness overall but there was a small significant exception between gender and the hardiness component of commitment where women scored higher on the commitment component of hardiness.

(d)   *Organisations*

Bartone (2012) argues that leadership management in organisations is essential to enhance employees' psychological hardiness, especially in the military and security industries where individuals are frequently exposed to various threats and stressors. Managers can lead employees by displaying hardiness behaviour, and show them how to find meaning and insight when they experience stressful events. Furthermore, the manager can express and establish guidelines and procedures to enhance positive interpretation of shared stressful happenings to provide a constructive influence to the organisation as a whole, and subsequently increase individual resiliency, commitment, control and challenge dispositions (Bartone, 2012).

In summary, it seems that age may influence hardiness levels, especially the challenge component of hardiness (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). There appears to be no significant influence of the commitment component of hardiness among different culture groups (Coetzee, Schreuder, & Tladinyane, 2007; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Lumley, 2010). However, the hardiness construct seems to influence individuals of diverse culture groups differently when they are exposed to stressors (Maddi & Harvey, 2006). In addition, there seems to be differences in the levels of hardiness between the genders (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010). Managers seem to be able increase employees' hardiness when they display hardiness behaviour themselves, and show subordinates how to find meaning and insight when they are exposed to stressful happenings (Bartone, 2012). Thus, it appears that age, gender, race and leadership may influence the development of hardiness.

Next, the work engagement construct will be explained.

3.1.4   Work engagement

Work engagement is positively associated with psychological wellbeing (Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Schaufeli et al., 2008) and appears to promote and encourage individuals' work productivity and organisational performance (Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). The work engagement construct will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing employee engagement will be discussed.

3.1.4.1   Conceptualisation of work engagement

Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, and Bakker (2002) argue that engagement is an emotional-intellectual condition that includes determination and persistence, which is not focused on a particular situation, person or activity. On the other hand, according to Shuck and Wollard (2010), work engagement occurs when individuals direct their reasoning, feelings and behaviour in order to help reach the desired organisational objectives. Similarly, Kahn (1990) views work engagement as individuals concurrently employing and demonstrating their favoured self in work actions, which promote attachment with their jobs and others. Kahn (1990) posits highly engaged individuals to be physically (actively involved), cognitively (mentally involved) and emotionally (bonding with self and others) engaged. Thus, in order for individuals to experience wellbeing at work, they must be able to engage on a cognitive, emotional and physical level (Kahn, 1990).

Work engagement is seen as an expansion of the self through which people can utilise and communicate physically, emotionally and mentally to perform a certain role. More specifically, engagement entails feelings of involvement and having a physical, emotional and cognitive bond with a particular job (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004).

Schaufeli et al. (2002) regard engagement as a satisfying, optimistic and constructive condition that is described by motivation, drive (vigour), commitment (dedication) and focused attention (absorption). Thus, highly engaged individuals are likely to display more satisfactory and less counterproductive behaviour in the workplace (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). Similarly, Shuck, Reio, and Rocco (2011a) have found that individuals who feel that they have a meaningful impact on their workplace may display more discretionary efforts (vigour). It seems that these employees may contribute more to work performance when they have opportunities to provide some input. These contributions are perceived as valued, which may result in higher work engagement. In addition, when individuals perceive management to be supportive, they are more likely to be involved in their work (Shuck, Rocco, and Albornoz 2011b). On the other hand, work that is not experienced as challenging over a period of time, may cause employees to become disengaged (Shuck et al., 2011a).

Work engagement appears to be steady over a period of time (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). However, research indicates that individuals' day-to-day engagement may vary extensively from their average degree of engagement (Sonnentag, Dormann, & Demerouti, 2010; Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2012).

Sonnentag et al. (2012) have found that individuals' morning recovery level influences work engagement on a day-to-day basis; subsequently, their engagement levels appear to predict their recovery level at the end of a work day. A person's morning recovery level indicates when he or she is feeling re-energised and revitalised. More specifically, individuals restore their physiological and mental states during rest intervals (tea breaks, evenings) to recuperate from the day's tension and pressure in order to feel more relaxed and rested (Sonnentag et al., 2012). The more restored people are in the morning, the more engaged they may be at work, which may assist them to lessen the degree of energy loss during the day. Thus, employees may recover faster from their work strain when they are feeling more engaged in their workplace. In addition, situational constraints may act as barriers to recover and may hinder work engagement.

Situational constraints, for example may include lack of knowledge or tools, or when extra attempts are necessary to complete tasks. As a result, employees may find it more challenging to develop engagement or to remain engaged and keep their recovery levels high (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Sonnentag et al. (2012) argue that individual recovery levels may be viewed as a resource and further posit that resources may act as a shield to maintain high levels of work engagement. Assisting individuals to keep their resource levels high as opposed to when work engagement is low (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Conversely, lower levels of work engagement may decrease a person's day-to-day recovery level. It seems from the research that resources may protect individuals against situational constraints, preserve employee resources and sustain work engagement.

Work engagement can be viewed as a behavioural (Harrison et al., 2006) or attitudinal approach (Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) to engagement. Behavioural work engagement signifies when individuals have the propensity to add value to their jobs instead of holding back (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006). Additionally, work engagement is seen as a motivational behavioural aspect, which involves physical exertion, mental vitality and an emotional bond with one's work (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010) as opposed to a constructive and committed attitude characterised by energy and focus towards one's work (Schaufeli et al., 2002), which further appears to influence behaviour.

Work engagement is a multidimensional concept and viewed as a constructive, content frame of mind that is relevant to the work context. Work engagement is categorised into three components, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (González-Romá, Schaufeli, Bakker, & Lloret, 2006) (see section 1.6.2.2).

(a)   Vigour

Vigour relates to increased levels of energy and psychological resilience at work, an eagerness to be devoted to one's work through determination and perseverance, even during challenging circumstances (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, it seems that individuals with high levels of vigour may have increased psychological hardiness and the necessary energy to persevere and complete tasks at work during difficult times. Mendes and Stander (2011) argue that engaged employees may have higher energy levels, therefore they may be more enthusiastic and eager to complete work tasks efficiently.

(b)   Dedication

Dedication signifies a feeling of meaning, importance, passion, excitement, motivation, pride and challenge (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Therefore, it appears that employees with high levels of dedication may be more, enthusiastic about as well as committed and devoted to their jobs. Similarly, Mendes and Stander (2011) have found that individuals who believe that they are knowledgeable to complete work tasks, experience meaning at work and feel they have the capability to impact their work surroundings may feel more satisfied, motivated, energised and proud.

Research indicates that role clarity, authority, competence, development, meaning and impact concerning one's work may contribute to increased levels of dedication. When employees feel they have increased control over their work, they may experience increased levels of eagerness and enthusiasm to make contributions in the workplace (Mendes & Stander, 2011).

Finally, dedication seems to influence employees' intention to leave the organisation. More specifically, when employees experience their work as challenging and feel motivated, they may have decreased turnover intentions (Karlowicz & Ternus, 2007; Mendes & Stander, 2011).

(c)   Absorption

The absorption component of work engagement represents a complete state of focus and intense involvement in one's work. Individuals who are highly engaged may find it difficult to separate themselves from their work and can also find that time goes by more quickly (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, employees who are highly engaged seem to be totally involved in their work and appear to focus effortlessly on the task at hand. Mendes and Stander (2011) have found that individuals who are more absorbed in their work tend to have faith in their own abilities, experience a fit with their job roles and competencies, and perceive their values and beliefs to be similar to those of their employers.

(d)   Work engagement and burnout

Research indicates that the construct dimensions of work engagement and burnout are theoretically counterparts (González-Romá et al., 2006). Exhaustion is seen as the indirect opposite of vigour, while dedication is viewed as the counterpart of cynicism (Bakker et al., 2005). Individuals may experience exhaustion when their psychological energy levels are depleted (Langelaan et al., 2006; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Cynicism indicates a pessimistic or negative attitude towards one's work (Langelaan, Bakker, van Doornen, & Schaufeli, 2006; Maslach et al., 2001).

Burnout appears to be largely connected with neuroticism. Research findings indicate that high neuroticism is an essential component of burnout, while lower levels of neuroticism, and high extraversion in combination with increased employee mobility, may indicate work engagement (Langelaan et al., 2006). Therefore, Langelaan et al. (2006) argue that a person's personality and temperament may influence work engagement and burnout, as indicated in figure 3.10 below.
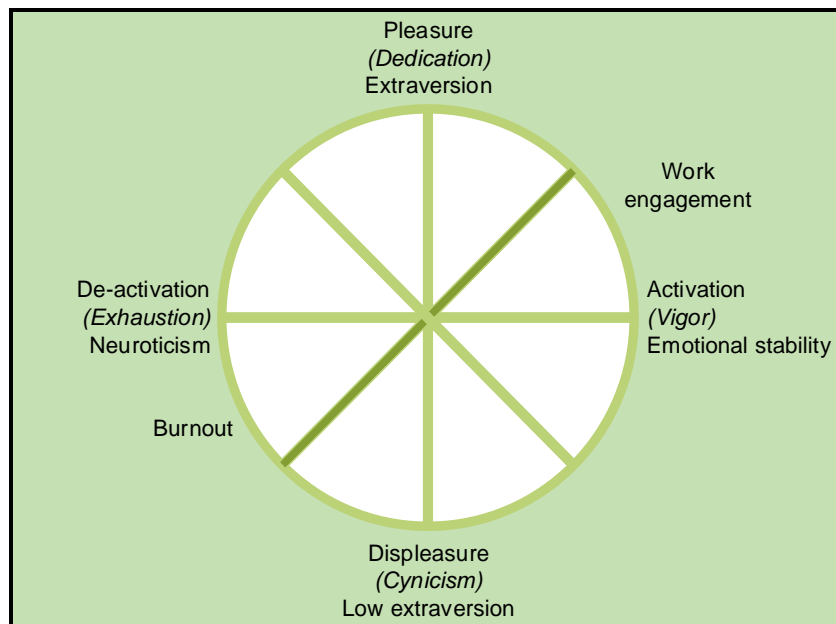
Figure 3.10:   Integrated model to classify burnout and work engagement (Langelaan et al., 2006; Russell & Carroll, 1999)

Langelaan et al. (2006) have found that employees who are highly engaged tend to adjust more easily to a changing environment. They also have the capability to move with ease between different activities as opposed to individuals with lower levels of engagement. Therefore, low work engagement seems to influence employee adjustment and mobility

137

negatively. It appears that engaged individuals look forward to new challenging encounters and may leave when they perceive that their current position no longer offers challenges (Langelaan et al., 2006).

Langelaan et al. (2006) also argue that neuroticism may cause employees to perceive their work environment as threatening. This may trigger negative feelings, result in poor performance and increase the possibility of experiencing burnout. Neuroticism may further aggravate the consequences of job demands on burnout. For example, neurotic employees may display more exhaustion due to everyday troubles at work (Langelaan et al., 2006).

Burnt-out individuals appear to have less energy, may not relate with their jobs and consequently struggle to perform in their work. Normally these employees are over-exposed to stressors and may therefore feel overwhelmed and exhausted. Work engagement is viewed as a separate construct (Bakker et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). More specifically, individuals who experience lower degrees of burnout are not necessarily highly engaged in their organisations (Bakker et al., 2005).

The central concepts of the burnout syndrome are cynicism and exhaustion (Schaufeli & Buunk, 2003). Bakker et al. (2005) argue that the development of the burnout syndrome entails a particular range of circumstances. More specifically, individuals have a higher degree of exhaustion when they experience more job demands. The authors further hypothesise that individuals' experience greater exhaustion although not disengagement. However, when employees have limited resources available to them, they may experience disengagement instead of exhaustion.

On the other hand, individuals who are exposed to many demands at work and have insufficient resources may experience a combination of exhaustion and disengagement. The burnout syndrome is only present when a person concurrently experiences both exhaustion and disengagement (Bakker et al., 2005). Disengagement is seen as an internal process that involves emotional withdrawal, loss of work energy and a propensity to be indifferent, unconcerned and callous about work assignments and colleagues (Kahn, 1990).

(e)   Work engagement and psychological wellbeing

Stander and Rothmann (2010) have found that psychological empowerment can influence work engagement. Psychological empowerment represents a person's capability, sense of meaning, purpose and self-determination. Moreover, employees who have personal goals

experience their work as meaningful. Employees who have a sense of control and influence over their environment tend to display higher levels of work engagement (Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

On the other hand, individuals who fear job loss (job insecurity) may experience a reduced sense of meaning in their work, may not feel as capable. Feelings of fear may also negatively affect the sense of control over their work environment (the system). The influence of psychological empowerment on work engagement appears greater when employees experience job insecurity as opposed to lower levels of job insecurity. When individuals view their work as meaningful, it seems to contribute to work engagement, especially when employees experience job insecurity (Stander & Rothmann, 2010).

Research suggests that when one has the opportunity to carry responsibilities and freedom to develop work activities, it can promote feelings of identification and attachment to one's work environment (increased work engagement), which in turn, can reduce turnover intention (Galletta, Portoghese, & Battistelli, 2011). It seems that employees who are emotionally engaged in their work may develop a bond with the organisation, which may decrease their intention to leave.

(f)   Development of engagement

Research indicates that there is only one in four employees who is significantly engaged despite all the efforts of organisations (Clark, 2012). Work engagement can be developed on an individual and organisational level (Wollard & Shuck, 2011). Organisations that are viewed as safe on a physical, cultural and emotional level seem to increase employee engagement (May et al., 2004). Thus, it appears that when employees perceive their general work environment to be safe, they experience increased levels of engagement.

Management can play a significant role in creating a supportive climate (Plakhotnik, Rocco, & Roberts, 2011; Wollard & Shack, 2011). Research indicates that a combination of a meaningful work environment and individual involvement appears to be associated with work engagement (May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010). Therefore, it seems that employees who both perceive their organisational environment as meaningful and participate at work may have increased feelings of engagement.

Clark (2012) argues that there are two core factors that drive work engagement, namely intrinsic and extrinsic factors, as seen in figure 3.11. Intrinsic factors are seen as intrinsic

elements that are not reliant on environmental influences but rather based on individual behaviour. Moreover, intrinsic factors are motivated by indiscernible emotional, cognitive and moral incentives, which are consequently reflected in a person's focus, effort and emotion. On the other hand, extrinsic factors are associated with elements in the environment and life happenings, which may influence individuals to become more engaged (Clark, 2012).
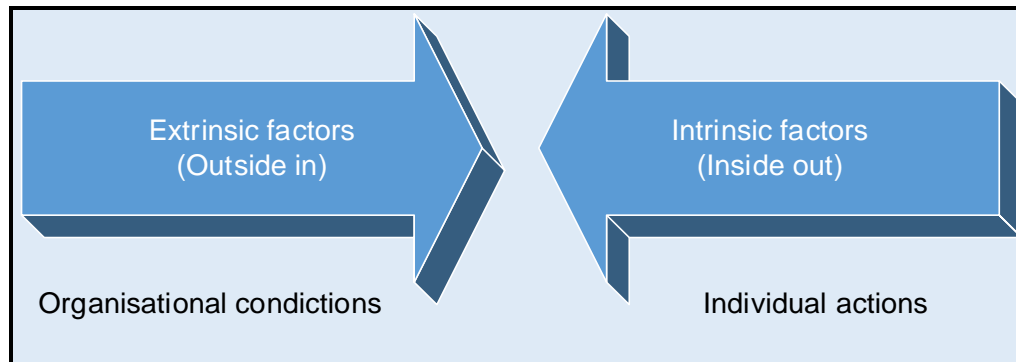
Figure 3.11: Extrinsic and intrinsic factors of engagement (Clark, 2012, p. 11)

Both intrinsic and extrinsic factors seem to contribute to the development of work engagement, since organisations normally regulate many of the extrinsic factors, for example the conditions in which individuals work, while employees regulate the intrinsic factors. Highly engaged employees tend to focus on the intrinsic factors that drive engagement. Organisations are responsible to create work conditions to enhance engagement; however, to maintain high engagement, individuals also need to take responsibility to enable engagement behaviour. Thus, employee behaviour and organisational conditions equal high work engagement (Clark, 2012).

Research indicates that organisations can motivate, engage and subsequently enhance employee wellbeing, performance and commitment by (a) establishing fair and supportive organisational and team cultures; (b) ensuring job roles are clearly aligned with the company's vision and mission; (c) providing employees with autonomy, and (d) offering career development prospects (Albrecht, 2012), and individual coaching (Clark, 2012).

Table 3.4 below provides a summary of the above discussion on the construct of work engagement.

Table 3.4

Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Work Engagement

Work engagement concepts	Core conclusions
Vigour	Employees who are vigorously engaged have mental resiliency and vitality to perform well at work, even during stressful work conditions (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).
Dedication	Dedicated individuals have a sense of purpose, desire and excitement towards their jobs (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).
Absorption	Individuals who are highly absorbed in their work find it easy to focus on the task at hand for long periods, but may find it difficult to separate themselves from their work (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).
Work engagement and burnout	Individuals may experience exhaustion when their psychological energy levels are depleted (Langelaan et al., 2006; Maslach et al., 2001).
Work engagement and psychological wellbeing	Psychological empowered individuals tend to have a sense of meaning and purpose in their work. Individuals who view their work as meaningful seem to have increased levels of work engagement (Stander & Rothmann, 2010).
Development of engagement	Highly engaged employees tend to focus on the intrinsic factors that drive their engagement. Organisations are responsible to create work conditions to promote employee engagement. However, to maintain high engagement, individuals also need to take ownership to be actively involved in their work (Clark, 2012).

In summary, similar definitions of work engagement seem to exist in the literature and there appears to be various core themes among the conceptualisations of work engagement. The defined conceptualisation of work engagement implies that engaged individuals are determined and persevere during strenuous circumstances (Schaufeli et al., 2002, 2006). Highly engaged employees seem to focus their thoughts, emotions and actions on the set goals of the organisation (Shuck & Wollard, 2010) and feel more connected to their work (Kahn, 1990; May et al., 2004; Shuck & Wollard, 2010).

Employees who engage in their work have a higher tendency to display less counterproductive behaviour and perform satisfactory work (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Shuck et al., 2011a).

On the other hand, research indicates that work engagement can be viewed from either an attitudinal approach (Schaufeli et al., 2006) or from a behavioural approach (Harrison et al., 2006). The attitudinal approach refers to individuals who display a positive attitude towards their work, which signifies energy, mental focus and dedication toward their work tasks (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Conversely, the behavioural approach signifies the propensity of employees who are motivated to make contributions enthusiastically, exert themselves physically and mentally, and are emotionally tied to their occupations (Harrison et al., 2006; Rich et al., 2010).

In respect of this study, the construct of work engagement can be viewed as an attitudinal approach (Schaufeli et al., 2006) where employees are more inclined to make contributions (Harrison et al., 2006) through physical effort and mental focus (absorption), have an emotional connection to their employers (dedication) and display energy towards their jobs (vigour) (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Thus, individuals with high levels of work engagement have positive attitudes, are more willing to add value to the organisation, and are actively involved on a cognitive, emotional and behavioural level. The relevant work engagement definition seems to include a person's effective functioning in various domains such as affective, cognitive and conative facets, which are necessary for effective functioning within a social work context. This study attempts to contribute to the research of work engagement and measure employees' core self-assessments of their psychological wellbeing in relation to experiences of bullying and intentions to leave their employing organisations.

Based on the conceptualisation of work engagement, it is hypothesised that individuals with high levels of engagement may possess a personal resource that will allow them to manage difficult social interactions, such as workplace bullying, more efficiently. Thus, work engagement may shield employees against the adverse effects of bullying behaviour, which may lower their intentions to leave the organisation. Finally, the focus of this study is on work engagement as one of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes within an organisational context.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of work engagement will be discussed.

3.1.4.2 Theoretical models

The following work engagement models will be discussed in more detail, namely the job demands-resources model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004), the job demands-control model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) and the effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996).

(a) Job demands-resources model

The job demands-resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004) posits that circumstances at work can be grouped into two general categories, namely job demands and job resources, which are associated with particular results. Job demands can be seen as a concept that is mainly linked to exhaustion, while the absence of job resources can be connected to disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). The JD-R model indicates that burnout may develop when job demands are experienced. Burnout is also not limited to certain occupations but may affect any individual when demands are high and resources are restricted. According to Demerouti et al. (2001), these negative working conditions can affect individuals to experience lower vigour and drive. Thus, it seems that destructive work circumstance can cause employees to experience decreased levels of energy and lower motivation, which in turns contribute to burnout.

According to the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004), external factors are only seen as stressors when the external element may potentially cause people in most circumstances to experience negative outcomes whereas job demands refer to physical, social or occupational elements of work. This entails continuous physical and cognitive exertion that can be linked to negative physiological and psychological consequences such as exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001).

Physical, emotional and psychological resources are required for employees to perform in their work (Kahn, 1990). Empirical research indicates that organisational and team level resources can also influence employee wellbeing and engagement. Subsequently, it may have a direct link to the motivational processes as suggested by the JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004). In addition, research indicates that external resources (job, organisational and team level resources) as well as internal resources such as optimism and resilience can predict work engagement. Consequently, these aspects influence employee commitment, performance and creativity (Albrecht, 2012).

The relationship between burnout (exhaustion) and job demands, and the relation between resources and disengagement may be clarified by theories of wellbeing advancement and preservation (Antonovsky, 1987; Demerouti et al., 2001). Demerouti et al. (2001) further argue that health-protecting factors such as job resources may explain why people remain healthy despite increased challenges at work. Since job resources are associated with physical, psychological, social or organisational work components, which may (a) be beneficial to attain occupational objectives, (b) decrease job demands, and lower relevant physiological and psychological outcomes, and (c) encourage individual advancement.

As illustrated in figure 3.12 below, the job demand-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004) indicates that burnout development consists of two processes. Initially, the energetic process, also referred to as the health impairment process (Bakker, Demerouti & Schaufeli, 2003; Petrou & Demerouti, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), signifies the demanding facets of one's work, which can contribute to continuous strain and finally result in exhaustion (Demerouti et al., 2001) and health problems (Petrou & Demerouti, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, it seems that individuals who are exposed to strenuous work continuously may experience exhaustion.

During the second process, which appears motivational in nature (Bakker et al., 2003; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), it is suggested that limited resources may act as a hindrance, which may further function as a contributing factor to increase the tendency of withdrawal behaviour. In the long-term, one of the outcomes of withdrawal tends to be disengagement. Therefore, it seems when employees' resources are restricted or inadequate to meet job demands, it may cause employees to display negative behaviour such as withdrawal, consequently influencing their engagement to the organisation negatively. The relationship between job demands and job resources seems conceptually more significant with regard to the development of burnout; more specifically, the development of exhaustion and disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001).
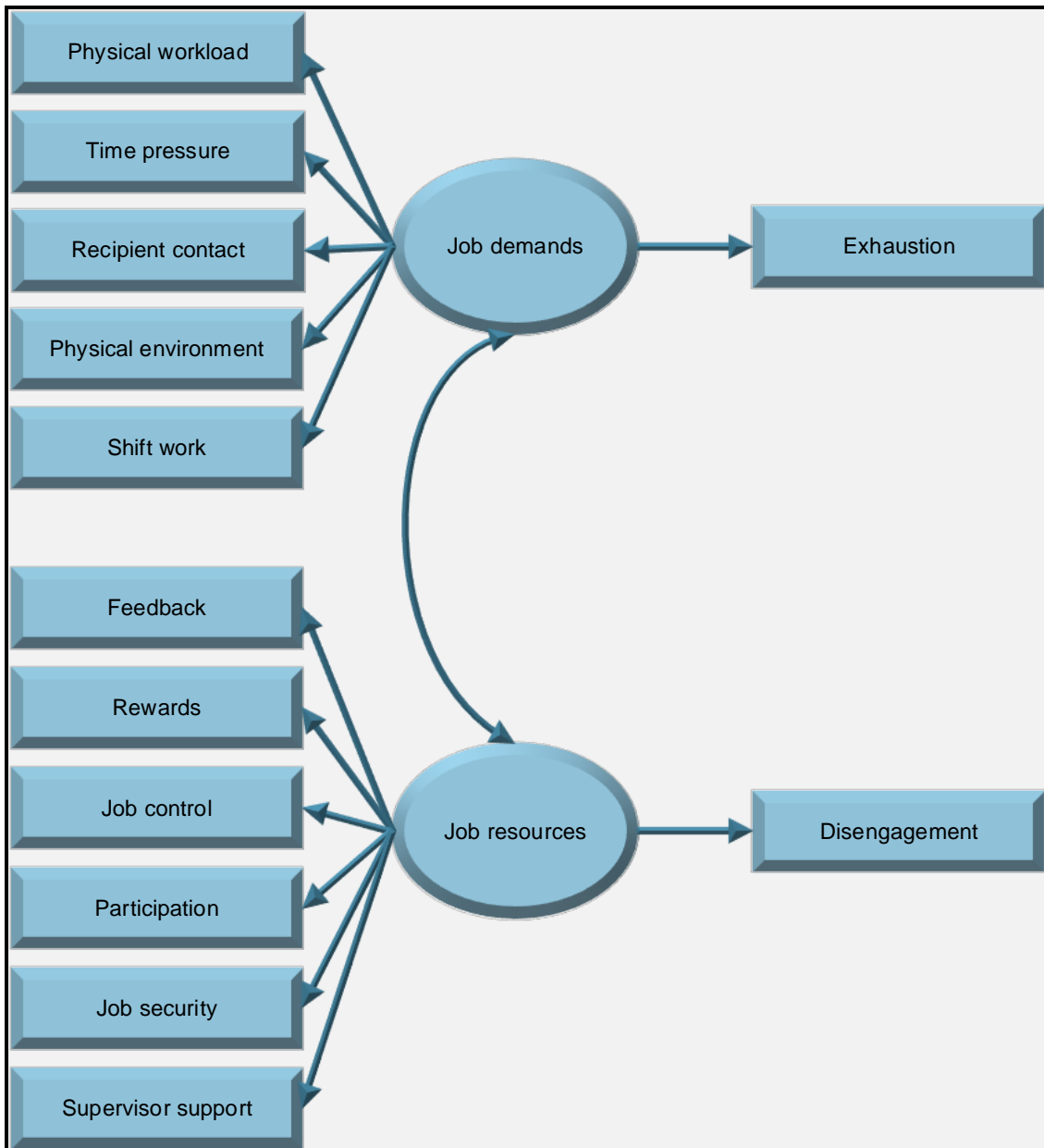
Figure 3.12: The job demands-resources model of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 502)

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggest that burnout may be linked to wellbeing difficulties and the intention to leave one's employer, while work engagement can only be linked to turnover intention (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Therefore, it seems that work engagement and burnout can predict individuals' intention to leave the organisation, while burnout appears to predict health problems. In order to increase work engagement, different intervention strategies need to be implemented, since work engagement reflects different possible antecedents and consequences (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). De Braine & Roodt (2011) argue that the JD-R model is a more suitable model to predict individuals' wellbeing and work engagement in comparison to previous theoretical models, since the model is validated (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) and can be applied to various occupations (De Braine & Roodt, 2011).

Petrou and Demerouti (2010) posit that the JD-R model is more comprehensive, since (a) individual resources are included at a later stage and they appear to mediate the relationship between work engagement and job resources (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007; 2009b); (b) they provide more job demands and resources, and (c) they reflect the manner in which job demands and resources relate to wellbeing consequences (Petrou & Demerouti, 2010). Research also indicates that job resources can shield harmful effects of job demands on burnout (De Braine & Roodt, 2011). Thus, it seems that job resources may protect employees from demanding challenges at work, and consequently the development of burnout may be avoided.

The JD-R model (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2001, 2004) is applicable to the current research study.

(b)   Job demand-control model

The job demand-control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) is a stress management model of job strain that proposes that psychological strain may be caused by the interaction between job demands and job decision latitude. The JD-C model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) indicates that there is not one particular facet in the work environment but a combination of work demands and a series of decision-making freedom (discretions) that are accessible to the employee.

In addition, the job event signifies two elements, namely the instigators of action such as the workload demands, conflict, other factors that affect the individual to experience a motivated or vitalised condition of 'stress', as well as hindrances on the possible outcome behaviour. Furthermore, the job decision latitude of employees represents the restriction that controls the release or conversion (transformation) of stress (possible energy) into the momentum of action (Karasek, 1979).

Additionally, the JD-C model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990) proposes that the relationship between job demands and job control produces various psychosocial work experiences for the individual, depending on the relevant degree of job demands and job control (De Bruin & Taylor, 2006). The relevant work experiences can be categorised into four types of work positions, namely high-strain positions (high demands and low control); active positions (high demands and high control); low strain positions (low demands and high control) and passive positions (low demands and low control) (Karasek, 1979), as illustrated in figure 3.13 below.
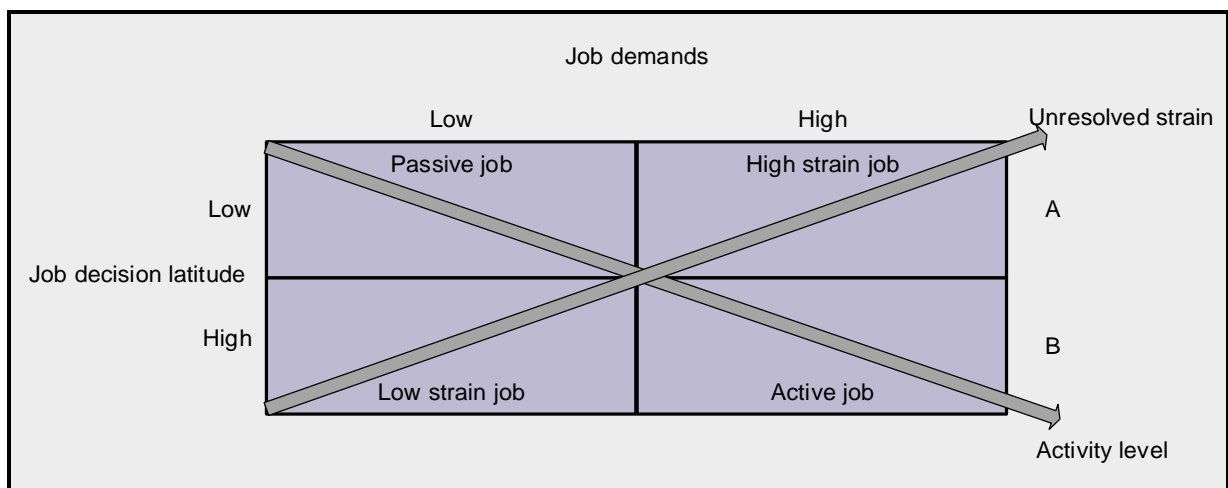
Figure 3.13: Job strain model (Karasek, 1979, p. 288)

The different position types, as illustrated above in figure 3.14, can result from various blends of job demands and job decision latitudes (Karasek, 1979). The labelled diagonals in figure 3.14 signify two interactions, namely (1) circumstances where job demands and job decision latitude differ ('A') and (2) circumstances where these constructs are similar ('B'). The first circumstances represent job demands that are moderately stronger than decision latitude, which may significantly predict psychological strain. Strain, according to the JD-C model embodies demands that are greater than decision latitude (Karasek, 1979).

Furthermore, the JD-C model entails two predictions, which is (a) strain intensifies when job demands grow (Diagonal A) and (b) accumulative inclusions to competencies may happen when the demands of the circumstances correspond with the employees' skills or capability to control challenging situations. This occurs when job demands and job decision latitude are concurrently high (Karasek, 1979).

On the other hand, when the work position is active, Karasek (1979) posits that it may instigate the development of new action patterns (Diagonal B towards lower right). More specifically, an active position entails a blend of high job demands and increased freedom (autonomy) that may result in personal development and increased drive (Proost, De Witte, De Witte & Evers, 2004). Moreover, passive work positions (the opposite extreme) represent a reduction in general actions and a decrease in overall problem-solving (Karasek, 1979), which involves low job demands and low autonomy (Proost et al., 2004). High strain positions entail increased job demands and minimal work autonomy that can result in ill health and affect mental wellbeing negatively.

On the contrary, positions with lower strain involve fewer job demands and increased work autonomy (Proost et al., 2004).

Later on, the job demands-control support model was developed (Sargent & Terry, 2000). The additional component of social support is suggested to protect employees from the negative influence of high-strain positions (Proost et al., 2004). Thus, it appears that social support may act as a shield to protect individuals assisting them to remain mentally healthy.

(c)   Effort-reward imbalance model

The effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996) proposes that high-effort (cost) / low-reward (gain) circumstances can cause employees to experience tension. The exertion of employees is viewed as an element of a socially methodical exchange manner in which the community greatly contributes towards rewards (Siegrist, 1996). Thus, it seems that there is an imbalance when individuals exert themselves to complete work assignments and receive little or no advantage.

Siegrist (1996) suggests that the emphasis of analysis has moved from regulation (control) to compensation (reward). Rewards from society can be supplied to the working population in three ways, namely money (relevant financial compensation), esteem (adequate respect and support) and status control (Kinman & Jones, 2008; Siegrist, 1996), as seen in figure 3.14 below. Low status control can be seen as the absence of promotion or job insecurity (Siegrist, 1996), whereas high status control may include sufficient career prospects (Kinman & Jones, 2008).
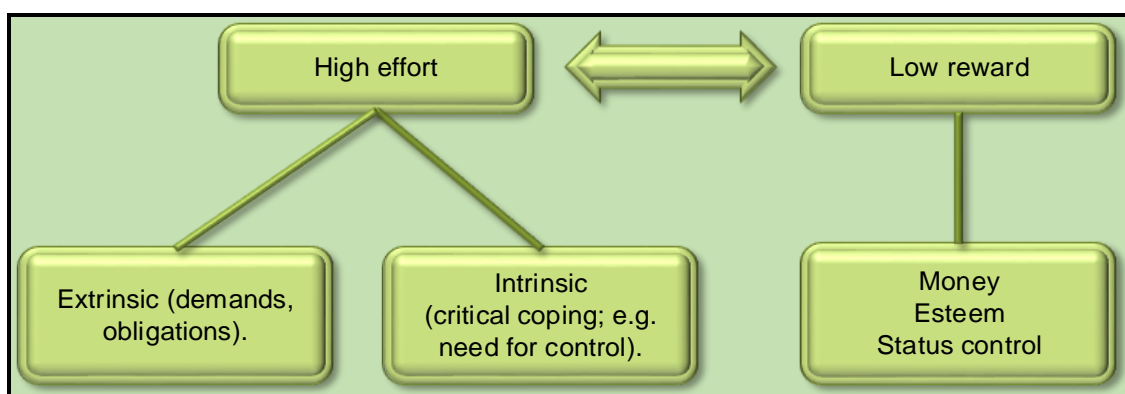
Figure 3.14: The effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996, p. 30)

The model proposes that a lack of mutual exchange between a person's effort and benefits may contribute to a condition of emotional distress, which involves a tendency of involuntary arousal and relevant strain reactions (Siegrist, 1996). Employees who perceive that there is an imbalance between their efforts provided and benefits received for their associated contributions may have a tendency to be stimulated automatically and subsequently experience tension or anxiety. Employees tend to experience a cost-gain imbalance more often when they are extremely dedicated or overly committed to their job (Kinman & Jones, 2008).

Furthermore, there are two types of exertion at work, namely extrinsic and intrinsic sources. Extrinsic sources signify challenges at work (job demands) (Siegrist 1996). For example, employees may have many responsibilities and numerous disturbances while working (Kinman & Jones, 2008), whereas an intrinsic source represents the internal drive of employees when they experience challenging work circumstances (Siegrits, 1996); for example, when individuals are overly committed to their work (Kinman & Jones, 2008).

In a research study done by Kinman and Jones (2008), a group of university employees who were not rewarded for their work as expected, displayed lower levels of work/life balance as opposed to employees who had enjoyed better working conditions. Furthermore, the research results indicate that elements of the effort-reward imbalance model may influence work/life conflict significantly (Kinman & Jones, 2008). Thus, it seems that individuals who perceive that they are rewarded fairly in accordance with their efforts may have a higher tendency to experience a balance between their work and family life. Conversely, it seems that individuals who perceive that they are unfairly rewarded for their work performance may struggle more to balance their work and family life.

Kinman and Jones (2008) further argue that the effort-reward imbalance model may have an advantage over the job demand-control and other work stress models, since the model combines individual differences and recognises the significance of a broad scope of employment circumstances such as job prospects, compensation and job security in the attainment of individual wellbeing.

Table 3.5 below provides a summary of the foregoing discussion with regard to the theoretical models of work engagement.

Table 3.5

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Work Engagement

Theoretical model	Job demands-resources model (JD-R) (Demerouti et al., 2001)	The job demand-control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990)	The effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996)
Conceptualisation	Job demands can be seen as a concept that is mainly linked to exhaustion, while the absence of job resources may be connected to disengagement (Demerouti et al., 2001). The JD-R model indicates that burnout may develop when job demands are experienced.	The model posits that psychological strain may be caused by the interaction between job demands and job decision latitude.	The model stipulates that high-effort (cost) /low-reward (gain) circumstances may cause employees to experience tension. The exertion of employees is viewed as an element of a socially methodical exchange manner in which the community greatly contributes towards rewards (Siegrist, 1996).
Dimensions	General categories: job demands and job resources Types of resources: physical emotional and psychological resources are required for employees to perform in their work (Kahn, 1990).	The relevant work experiences can be categorised into four types of work positions, namely: high-strain positions (high demands and low control), active positions (high demands and high control) low strain positions	Control Reward Rewards can be offered in three ways: money (relevant financial compensation, esteem (adequate respect and support) and status control.

Theoretical Dmodel	Job demands-resources model (JD-R) (Demerouti et al., 2001)	The job demand-control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979; Karasek & Theorell, 1990)	The effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996)
Dimensions *(continue)*		(low demands and high control) and passive positions (low demands and low control).	
Core conclusions	Negative working conditions may affect individuals to experience lower vigour and drive, and consequently they become disengaged (Demerouti et al., 2001).	High strain positions entail increased job demands and minimal work autonomy that may result in ill health and affect mental wellbeing negatively (Proost et al., 2004).	Employees who perceive that there is an imbalance between their efforts provided and benefits received for their associated contributions may have a tendency to be stimulated automatically and subsequently they experience tension or anxiety.

In summary, the job demands-resources model (JD-R) of Demerouti et al. (2001) is applicable to this study, since it provides a wide framework of work engagement in a social work environment. The model posits that employees can become disengaged when job demands are high and individual resources are limited. Thus, employees may struggle to cope with difficult work situations such as workplace bullying effectively when they do not have sufficient physical, emotional and psychological resources.

Next, the variables that influence work engagement will be discussed.

3.1.4.3   Variables influencing work engagement

A variety of variables seem to influence work engagement. The variables of importance to this research include age, gender, race, tenure, job level, work environment and leadership, which will be explained next.

(a)   Age

Coetzee and De Villiers (2010) have found that there is a significant difference between age groups and work engagement (26 years and older scored significantly higher on employee engagement). Similarly, research indicates that work engagement may increase with age (Goštautaitė & Bučiūnienė, 2015; Reio Jr. & Sanders-Reio, 2011) because employees obtain more job-specific knowledge and enhance their interpersonal capabilities with clients and colleagues over time, which can further contribute to increased levels of work engagement (Goštautaitė & Bučiūnienė, 2015). On the other hand, the Institute of Employment Studies (IES) has found in a 2003 attitude survey that engagement levels are highest amongst young employees, especially in the age groups 20 years and younger, and above 60 years of age (Robinson, 2007). Thus, it seems that there is an inconsistency in research regarding the age group that may influence employees' engagement levels.

(b)   Gender

Women seem to experience significantly higher levels of overall work engagement (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010). On the other hand, Cifre, Salonova and Rodríguez-Sánchez (2011) have found no difference between engagement levels among various gender or age groups. Thus, there seems to be an inconsistency in research regarding gender as an influencing variable of work engagement.

(c)   Race

Research indicates that the effect of job appraisal concerns are more significant among employees who have previously experienced unequal employment opportunities. Previously disadvantaged groups seem to have a stronger impact on their engagement levels when they view the performance appraisal system as inaccurate and unfair (Volpone, Avery, & McKay, 2012). Thus, it seems that previously disadvantaged groups may display decreased work engagement when they view their organisational performance appraisal system as erroneous and unjust.

(d)   Tenure

Research indicates that engagement levels decline when length of service increases until 20 years or more are reached (Robinson, 2007). Similarly, employees who have less tenure seem to display increased engagement levels, job satisfaction and occupational success (Stumpf Jr., Tymon, & Van Dam, 2013). On the contrary, Albdour and Altarawneh (2014) have found no significant difference between tenure and work engagement.

(e)   Job level

Research indicates that managers generally have higher engagement levels, and individuals who interact directly with customers also tend to have relatively high levels of engagement (Robinson, 2007). On the other hand, employees providing back-room support are likely to experience lower levels of engagement (Robinson, 2007). Thus, it seems that management may have higher levels of engagement as opposed to lower job levels. Furthermore, it seems that employees who interact with clients regularly may have a higher tendency to experience engagement.

(f)   Work environment

Engagement can be encouraged when the work context is focused on the management of work engagement instead of performance management. The performance management process needs to be structured in such a way that it includes engagement management and consequently creates an environment that promotes work engagement, which is essential for organisational performance (Saks & Gruman, 2011). Thus, it appears that employers need to focus on both engagement and performance management to enhance employee engagement.

(g)   Leadership

Leadership seems to play a significant role in work engagement and may further act as a predictor to talent retention. On the other hand, job satisfaction appears to act as an antecedent to work engagement (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Thus, it seems that leadership may influence employees' level of engagement and that employees' satisfaction with their work may consequently influence their engagement to the organisation.

In summary, it appears that age may influence the degree of work engagement although there seems to be an inconsistency in research (Coetzee and De Villiers, 2010) Goštautaitė & Bučiūnienė, 2015; Reio Jr. & Sanders-Reio, 2011; Robinson, 2007). Inconsistent research seems to exist in literature regarding gender as an influencing variable of work engagement. Different race groups seem to experience work engagement in various degrees (Volpone et al., 2012). Employees who have less tenure seem to experience more work engagement (Stumpf Jr. et al., 2013). Furthermore, higher job levels may be associated with increased work engagement (Robinson, 2007). Research indicates that the combination of engagement and performance management strategies may result in higher work engagement (Saks & Gruman, 2011) while effective leadership appears to enhance work engagement (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Thus, it seems that age, gender, race, tenure, job level, work environment and leadership may influence the development of work engagement.

Next, the construct of psychosocial flourishing will be discussed.

3.1.5 Psychosocial flourishing

Research indicates that psychological wellbeing is significantly associated with work performance (Ford, Cerasoli, Higgins & Decesare, 2011) and flourishing individuals may cope better with difficult life events (Fredrickson, 2001, 2004; Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). The construct of psychosocial flourishing will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing psychosocial flourishing will be discussed.

3.1.5.1 *Conceptualisation of psychosocial flourishing*

Keyes and Simoes (2012) refer to psychological flourishing as positive mental health. Similarly, Catalino and Fredrickson (2011) view flourishing as a condition of optimum mental health. In the past, mental health has been viewed as the absence of mental disorders (Sigerist, 1941). Huppert and So (2013) have found that flourishing consists of both positive feelings (hedonic) and positive functioning (eudaimonic) components. It seems that individuals need to feel good and function well to experience flourishing.

Similarly, Keyes (2002) argues that flourishing is to be full of positive emotions, and to be healthy on a psychological and social level. Thus, psychosocial flourishing includes internal wellbeing (emotional and psychological) and external wellbeing (social) characteristics. Keyes (2002) argues that psychological wellbeing represents private and personal measures to assess one's psychological functioning, whereas social wellbeing represents communal

and social measures to assess one's functioning in life. In addition, emotional wellbeing is seen as a collection of signs indicating the occurrence or lack of positive feelings about one's existence (Keyes, 2002). Individuals who flourish feel well and perform well tend to experience pleasant feelings frequently, are successful in life and contribute to their external world (Keyes, 2007). Therefore, it seems that individuals who flourish psychosocially may experience psychological wellbeing, which provides individuals and organisations with various benefits (Keyes, 2007); for example, lower absenteeism and higher performance.

Psychosocial flourishing appears to be part of the field of positive psychology, which is viewed as a subdivision of psychology that investigates factors and circumstances that may cause individuals to flourish (David, Boniwell, & Ayers, 2013). More specifically, positive psychology focuses on certain strengths and actions, which enable individuals to experience higher levels of wellbeing (Noble & McGrath, 2013).

(a)   Human flourishing and wellbeing

Flourishing can be seen as one of the main attempts of human beings toward which all behaviour is focused and it signifies success when achieved (Younkins, 2011). Younkins (2011) further argues that human flourishing needs to be attained through one's own exertion and the capability of initiating flourishing, which can be enhanced or hampered by oneself. Moreover, conceptual thoughts are significant in the pursuit of human flourishing, and people must identify and follow their life objectives (Younkins, 2011). Thus, it seems that individuals need to be actively involved and take responsibility in the attainment of life goals, focus their thoughts and actions accordingly, since they have the power to either improve or hinder their own chances to flourish.

As mentioned in chapter 1, wellbeing is broadly classified into hedonic wellbeing (happiness) and eudaimonic wellbeing (functioning) (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The hedonic view of wellbeing entails constructive emotions, a positive frame of mind and delightful happenings (Harrington, 2013). On the other hand, the eudaimonia theory of wellbeing is determined by a person's evaluation of life satisfaction and positive emotions (Harrington, 2013). The differentiation between hedonic and eudaimonic wellbeing is based on an extensive path of philosophical history. In ancient Greek the term *eudaimonia* was used and popularised by the philosopher Aristotle. The term is often referred to as "happiness". Numerous philosophers have either chosen to side with the hedonic or the eudamonic approach (Huta, 2013).

Eudaimonia can be viewed as a condition of wellbeing through a person's rationale, which is depicted by self-actualisation and development. Moreover, the philosopher Aristotle has suggested that happiness is a result of a well lived life and argued that one's own actions are the most significant factor that influences happiness (Younkins, 2011). In addition, Seligman (2002) suggests that eudamonic wellbeing is a life with meaning and purpose.

In contrast, the hedonic approach of wellbeing is when a person is able to experience pleasure and avoid pain. The hedonic approach to wellbeing signifies individuals' mental and emotional assessment of their life, whereas the eudamonic approach to wellbeing appears broader and includes individual purpose, self-realisation and positive functioning (Younkins, 2011). Furthermore, the hedonic approach entails emotions of joy, contentment and inquisitiveness (Keyes, 2007).

On the other hand, flourishing seems to entail positive emotions and optimal functioning (Crum & Salovey, 2013). Flourishing is seen as a thriving condition of life, whereas happiness is viewed as a positive condition of awareness that emerges from or supplements a flourishing existence (Younkins, 2011). Younkins (2011) further argues that boundaries on self-fulfilment are established by one's individual reality, traits and characteristics. Therefore, it seems that people's perceptions of their realities and personal attributes may determine the probability to experience a life of flourishing.

Wellbeing is seen as a subjective condition that involves emotions of positive affect and overall contentment with life. Also, wellbeing entails moderately little negative affect (Diener, 1984). Positive affect represents an encounter of positive feelings and is an approach-oriented system, moving the individual towards the specific positive encounter to obtain more enjoyment or compensation. Negative affect refers to an encounter of negative feelings and is part of the withdrawal-oriented system, which aims to protect one from harm or discomfort (Harrington, 2013). Thus, it seems that wellbeing can be described as the existence of optimal psychological functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

According to Keyes and Westerhof (2012), flourishing mental health can be seen as a condition of subjective wellbeing that involves psychological and social wellbeing (functioning well) as well as emotional wellbeing (feelings of happiness). There are three approaches to life that is significant for lasting happiness, which require continuous nurturing to sustain happiness, namely pleasure, meaning and engagement.

Pleasure signifies a life quest in search of concrete enjoyment; engagement represents being engaged and curios in life happenings, growth and development; and meaning indicates a life of exploration and involvement in searching for a general purpose or significance (Seligman, 2002).

Moreover, positive mental health can be divided into three essential categories, namely psychological wellbeing, social wellbeing and subjective wellbeing (Westerhof & Keyes 2010).

(b)   Psychological wellbeing

Psychological wellbeing is concerned with the likelihood (potential) of having a meaningful life and self-realisation during challenging circumstances (Keyes & Ryff, 2002). In addition, psychological wellbeing entails the appearance of positive feelings and fewer negative feelings (Wright, 2010). Thus, psychological wellbeing refers to individuals who are functioning well in terms of self-realisation (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).

(c)   Social wellbeing

Social wellbeing represents positive social functioning and adding social value (Westerhof & Keyes 2010). Therefore, it seems that individuals will experience social wellbeing when they can function well in society, and constructively add value to their community and during social interactions.

According to Keyes (1998), social wellbeing involves five different components, which portrays individuals who are functioning well in their community, namely: (a) social coherence: the ability to make sense of social events; (b) social acceptance: a positive stance towards other individuals and accepting differences; (c) social actualisation: to trust that society does have potential and can develop constructively; (d) social contribution: the impression that a person's actions can enhance his or her community and that his or her efforts will be valued by society; (e) social integration: a feeling of belonging to one's community (Keyes, 1998).

(d)   Subjective wellbeing

Keyes and Ryff (2002) argue there is a distinction between subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing. Subjective wellbeing is relevant to the hedonic approach, whereas

psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989b; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014) and social wellbeing are related to the eudaimonic approach (Keyes 1998; Slemp & Vella-Brodrick, 2014). Emotional wellbeing involves emotions of happiness and contentment with life (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).

Furthermore, subjective (emotional) wellbeing is empirically based on increasing one's quality of life, which is mainly based on emotions, experiencing general life satisfaction and contentment. Likewise, Diener and Ryan (2009) describe subjective wellbeing as experiences based on individuals' emotional assessments of their lives. The assessments can be both negative (sadness, disappointment) or positive (joy, satisfied), depending on the event, work situation, relationship, health, meaning and other significant areas in one's life (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Subjective wellbeing can be categorised as a general evaluation of one's life, contentment with significant life domains, the occurrence of positive feelings and low levels of negative feelings (Kesibir & Diener, 2008). Therefore, it seems that subjective wellbeing is a person's emotional evaluation of experiences that he or she encounter during his or her lifetime.

In addition, subjective wellbeing appears to be a general feeling of wellness, which seems constant over time, and involves emotional and cognitive factors that seem to be lasting rather than a fleeting condition (Diener & Tov, 2007). Similarly, Diener and Tov (2007) suggest that the emotional factor entails the frequency of feelings such as joy while the cognitive factor represents evaluations of an individual's existence. Research indicates that people who have more friends and supportive family members tend to experience increased subjective wellbeing. On the other hand, people who possess higher levels of wellbeing tend to experience more intimate and encouraging relationships as opposed to people with lower life contentment (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008; Diener & Ryan, 2009). Thus, it seems that individuals who have many understanding and helpful people in their lives tend to possess greater subjective wellbeing.

On the other hand, it seems that individuals who possess higher subjective wellbeing may consequently have more rewarding interpersonal relationships. In addition, high subjective wellbeing can positively influence individuals' immune systems and improve their cardiovascular health (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008; Diener & Ryan, 2009).

Interestingly, various research studies indicate that wealthier individuals and countries appear to enjoy higher subjective wellbeing as opposed to lower income individuals and poorer populations (Diener & Biwas-Diener, 2002; Howell & Howell, 2008).

(e)   Occupational wellbeing

Occupational wellbeing can be described as the general condition of individuals' performance and experiences at work (Warr, 1987). The composition of occupational wellbeing consists of affective (emotional fatigue), professional (ambition), social (functioning well socially), cognitive (mental fatigue) and psychosomatic (psychosomatic complaints) dimensions. Therefore, occupational wellbeing can be viewed as a multifaceted concept (Van Horn, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2004).

(f)   Development of psychosocial flourishing

Research indicates that people's happiness can increase when they adjust their activities; for instance, when individuals perform various acts of kindness once a week it can improve their feelings of happiness (Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2004). Thus, it seems that individuals can increase their own psychological wellbeing when they help others, for example, by doing regular charity work. Similarly, people also have the need to support other individuals and it seems that individuals may benefit more from giving to others as opposed to receiving help from others (Diener et al., 2010; Dunn, Aknin, & Norton 2008).

Furthermore, a high degree of subjective wellbeing can increase the probability of a steady, productive and effective performing community. However, there is the likelihood that individuals want to pursue more dangerous activities such as drug use when they persistently attempt to experience increased levels of wellbeing (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Diener and Ryan (2009) argue that, although subjective wellbeing can be beneficial to people and their communities, it can also be detrimental when they constantly strive to experience euphoria. In addition, interventions such as personal development, more autonomy, positive interrelationships, meaning and self-acceptance can possibly promote psychological wellbeing and consequently improve stress management. Stress is associated with various health problems, and enhanced general psychological wellbeing may assist in reducing certain health conditions, consequently decreasing sick leave and promoting work performance (Vazi, Ruiter, Van den Borne, Martin, Dumont, & Reddy, 2013). Moreover, organisational strategies to adjust the work environment can reduce the impact of stress on employees and subsequently increase their psychological wellbeing, for example, by reducing the workload, restructuring work content, improving communication, (Bartholomew, Parcel, Kok, Gottlieb, & Fernandez, 2011) and elucidating work roles (Vazi et al., 2013).

Jaga et al. (2013) have found a positive relationship between work and family roles, as family to work enrichment may result in enhanced subjective wellbeing. Conversely, work to family enrichment seems to cause employees to experience less emotional exhaustion and depression. Organisations can provide resources to facilitate work-family enrichment, which can also lower absenteeism and enhance employee performance. Strategies to improve work-family enrichment may include job resources (autonomy and task variety) and training to management to improve employee support. This may assist individuals to have a greater balance between work and family life (Jaga et al., 2013) and consequently, promote wellbeing (Clark, 2001; Jaga et al., 2013).

Table 3.6 provides a summary of the above discussion on the construct of psychosocial flourishing.

Table 3.6

Summary of the Core Conclusions on the Concept of Psychosocial Flourishing

Psychosocial flourishing concepts	Core conclusions
Human flourishing and wellbeing	Flourishing is a main goal that all individuals strive to reach in their life, and it is viewed as an accomplishment. Flourishing can be reached through one's own efforts. One can either hamper or enhance one's own level of wellbeing (Younkins, 2011).
Psychological wellbeing	Psychological wellbeing is concerned with the likelihood (potential) of having a meaningful life and self-realisation during challenging circumstances (Keyes & Ryff, 2002). Psychological wellbeing signifies individuals who are functioning well (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).
Social wellbeing	Social wellbeing refers to constructive social functioning and to contribute to society (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).
Subjective wellbeing	Subjective wellbeing appears to be a general feeling of wellness, which seems constant over time involving emotions and cognitive factors. Subjective wellbeing seems to be a lasting condition rather than momentary (Diener & Tov, 2007).

Psychosocial flourishing concepts	Core conclusions
Occupational wellbeing	Occupational wellbeing refers to a general sense of wellbeing at work (Warr, 1987). The composition of occupational wellbeing consists of affective (emotional fatigue), professional (ambition), social (functioning well socially), cognitive (mental fatigue) and psychosomatic (psychosomatic complaints) dimensions; therefore, occupational wellbeing can be viewed as a multifaceted concept (Van Horn et al., 2004).
Development of psychosocial flourishing	Interventions such as personal development, more autonomy, positive interrelationships, meaning and self-acceptance may possibly promote psychological wellbeing and consequently, improve stress management.
	Increased general psychological wellbeing may assist in reducing certain health conditions, thereby decreasing sick leave and promoting work performance (Vazi et al., 2013).
	Organisations can implement strategies to improve the work environment, which may reduce the impact of stress on employees and subsequently increase their psychological wellbeing such as reducing the workload, restructuring work content, improved communication (Bartholomew et al., 2011) and well-defined work roles (Vazi et al., 2013).

In summary, similar definitions of psychosocial flourishing seem to exist in the literature and there appears to be various core themes among the conceptualisations of psychosocial flourishing. The defined conceptualisation of psychosocial flourishing implies that individuals who flourish psychosocially experience optimal psychological wellbeing (Catalino & Fredrickson, 2011; Keyes & Simoes, 2012). Previously, flourishing was viewed as the non-existence of psychological disorders (Sigerist, 1941). However, in the modern era, psychosocial flourishing represents individuals who experience emotional wellbeing (hedonic) and also function well in all areas of life (eudaimonic) (Huppert & So, 2013; Keyes, 2002). People who flourish psychosocially tend to have positive emotions more frequently, contribute to society and seem more successful in life (Diener et al., 2010; Keyes, 2007).

In respect of this study, psychosocial flourishing is viewed as having supportive and rewarding social relationships, when one is able to contribute to the happiness of others, feeling respected by others, experiences a life with purpose and meaning, is involved in and

committed to personal projects, has feelings of optimism as well as a belief in one's own competence and capability (Diener et al., 2010). Thus, individuals with high levels of psychosocial flourishing have meaningful interpersonal relationships, have a constructive influence on the wellbeing of others, feel valued by society, live with purpose and are motivated to reach their personal goals. The relevant psychosocial flourishing definition seems to include a person's effective functioning in all spheres of life such as affective, cognitive, conative and interpersonal facets, which are necessary for individuals to thrive within a social work context. This study attempts to contribute to the research of psychosocial flourishing and measure employees' core self-assessments of their psychological wellbeing in relation to experiences of bullying and intentions to leave their employing organisations.

Based on the conceptualisation of psychosocial flourishing, it is hypothesised that individuals with increased levels of psychosocial flourishing possess a personal resource that will allow them to handle difficult social interactions, such as workplace bullying effectively. Thus, psychosocial flourishing may act as a buffer and shield employees against the negative consequences of bullying behaviour that may lower employees' intentions to exit the organisation. Finally, the focus of this study is on psychosocial flourishing as one of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes within an organisational context.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of psychosocial flourishing will be explained.

3.1.5.2   Theoretical models

The model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b), the dual continua model (Keyes, 2002) and the broaden-and-build theory (Frederickson, 1998) will be explained next.

(a)   Model of psychological wellbeing

Ryff and Singer (1996) argue that the mental health concept is negatively biased. They posit that generally, the application thereof is linked to health with the absence of sickness as opposed to the existence of wellbeing and that this interpretation disregards individual capability, the requirements to flourish and the protecting factors related to wellness (Ryff & Singer, 1996).

Ryff (1989b) has studied previous psychological theories and discovered six fundamental components of constructive mental functioning which form the basis of psychological

wellbeing. The components of psychological wellbeing are identified as self-acceptance, purpose in life, autonomy, positive relations with others, environmental mastery and personal growth (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Each component is necessary in the pursuit of improving and reaching one's potential (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010), as indicated in figure 3.15 below.
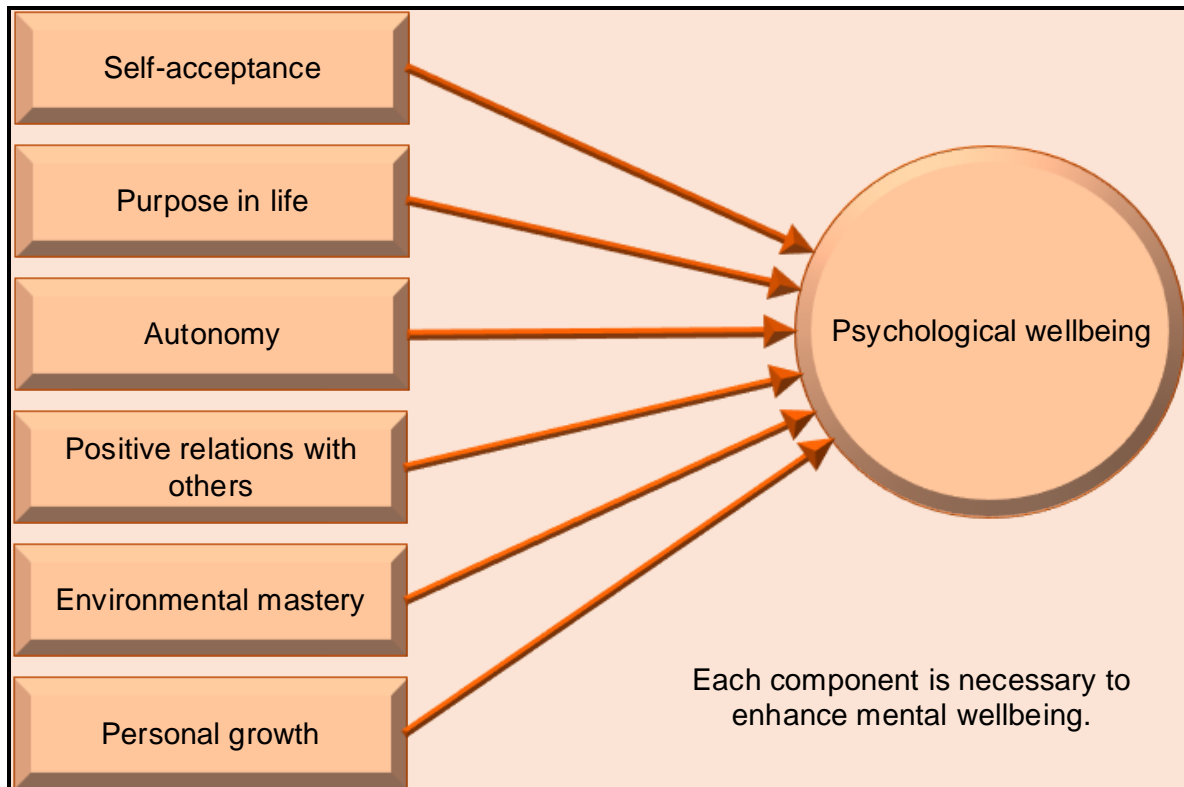
Figure 3.15: Model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995)

(i)   Self-acceptance

Self-acceptance includes positive personal assessments of the self and of one's past (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Thus, it entails an accepting approach towards the past and current status quo of oneself (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Moreover, self-acceptance is viewed as the core element of mental health, self-actualisation, positive functioning and during personal development. Life span theories also indicate the significance of accepting the past and oneself. Therefore, self-acceptance is viewed as an essential element of optimum psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

Individuals who have a positive approach towards themselves can recognise and accept their strong qualities as well as their development areas, have good emotions about their past and tend to display high levels of self-acceptance. On the other hand, individuals who

display lower levels of self-acceptance tend to possess emotions of discontent with themselves, feel saddened with past happenings, are uneasy with their development areas and yearn to be different as opposed to who they are (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

(ii)   Purpose in life

Purpose in life can be seen as a feeling of constant personal advancement and growth (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Furthermore, it represents the objectives and principles that offers one a feeling of purpose and a path to continue on in life (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Lifespan development theories (Erikson, 1959; Buhler; 1935; Neugarten, 1973) indicate various life changes, for example, being dynamic, fruitful, creative or realising emotional integration as one matures (Ryff & Singer, 1996).

One of the components of mental health is the certainty that one possesses a sense of purpose and meaning in life. In addition, maturity forms part of wellbeing. Individuals experience a meaningful life when they function well, have set targets, and have a feeling of direction in their lives (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996). Individuals who perceive that they have a purpose in life tend to have various objectives in life, are focused, and view past and current happenings as meaningful. On the contrary, individuals who have a lower sense of purpose in life may have fewer objectives, have a negative approach to life or believe there is no possibility to obtain meaning in life (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

(iii)   Autonomy

Autonomy can be viewed as a feeling of willpower or to have determination (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Individuals who are functioning well tend to have an internal locus of appraisal and they do not need confirmation from other people (Ryff & Singer, 1996), but are guided by their own internal social values and standards (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Highly autonomous individuals are independent, persistent, have the ability to withstand social demands, which require them to behave in a specific manner, control their own behaviour through internal thought processes and have personal benchmarks that guide their behaviour (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

On the other hand, individuals with low autonomy are highly concerned with other people's view points and needs, depended on other individuals' evaluations to guide their own decisions and adapt to social demands that direct their behaviour in a specific manner (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

(iv)   Positive relations with others

Psychological wellbeing also entails having good interpersonal relationships (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) whereby a person has the ability to display empathy and express intimacy (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). The ability to love is viewed as another core component of psychological wellbeing (Ryff & Singer, 1996) and the significance thereof is often highlighted in mental health literature (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996). People who function well have good, rewarding and trusting social relationships, care about the wellbeing of others, have the capability to display empathy, affection and intimacy. They understand the complexity of relationships whereas less effective relationships entail the absence of warmth, trust, less concern for others wellbeing, withdrawal and frustration. These individuals appear not willing to make compromises to maintain bonds with other individuals (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

(v)   Environmental mastery

Environmental mastery refers to people who have the capability to control their personal life and external world successfully (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) according to their own requirements (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Furthermore, a characteristic of mental health is for a person to possess the ability to choose or design surroundings that are appropriate to his or her psychological conditions. Individuals can improve and change their environments resourcefully through physical and psychological undertakings (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996). In addition, environmental mastery represents the ability to make use of opportunities effectively in one's environment (Ryff, 1989b). In contrast, people who struggle to manage their environment may display difficulty to control everyday happenings, feel unable to change or develop their circumstances, are oblivious to external opportunities, and do not feel in control of their surroundings (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer, 1996).

(vi)   Personal growth

Personal growth entails an understanding of one's own potential for personal growth (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010), and to develop and advance as an individual continuously (Ryff 1989b; Ryff & Singer 1996). One of the requirements for personal development is an openness to experience growth needed to function optimally. These individuals continuously develop and attempt to solve challenges creatively (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Singer 1996). Thus, it seems that these individuals constantly challenge the status quo in order to improve themselves. On the other hand, people with a lack of personal growth seem to stay the same

over a period of time, experience boredom, seem indifferent with their lives and appear to have difficulty adjusting their behaviour or struggle to learn new behavioural approaches (Ryff 1989b; Ryff & Singer 1996).

The psychological wellbeing model of Ryff (1989b) is relevant to the present research study.

(b)   Dual continua model

The dual continua model of Keyes (2002) consists of two components, namely the mental health continuum and the mental illness continuum, which are related although viewed as two distinct elements of wellbeing. People who possess high levels of mental health in combination with lower levels of mental illness are categorised as flourishing, while people with lower levels of mental health are seen as languishing (Keyes, 2003). Flourishing individuals seem to have high levels of subjective wellbeing, and they function psychologically and socially to the optimum. On the other hand, languishing individuals may have lower levels of subjective wellbeing, and may function inadequately on psychological and social levels (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Furthermore, languishing individuals can either suffer from depression or not, depending on the intensity of their mental illness. Mental wellbeing is thus seen as more than just a lack of psychological illness complaints (Keyes, 2003).

The flourishing continuum represents the existence or lack of psychological wellbeing, whereas the languishing continuum displays the existence or absence of mental illness. The model also indicates that people who are neither flourishing nor languishing may have reasonable psychological health (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).

Keyes (2002) argues that constructive psychological functioning entails psychological wellbeing in combination with social functioning. Psychological wellbeing represents the personal assessment of a person's functioning. On the other hand, social functioning represents the capability to manage social difficulties and indicates the more public factors during individuals' assessments of their functioning in life (Keyes, 2002).

To summarise, flourishing refers to individuals who experience positive feelings and are able to function well psychologically and socially. Conversely, languishing is related to decreased emotional wellbeing, which can be powerful, are similar to major depression episodes, can constrain everyday living and increase absenteeism that are associated with lower mental health (Keyes, 2002). Keyes (2002) has found that people who are flourishing or individuals

who have reasonable mental health levels experience optimum emotional wellbeing and display lower absenteeism at work. Moreover, people who are flourishing experience fewer restrictions as opposed to people who display reasonable levels of mental health (Keyes, 2002). Herewith an overview of the dual continua model (Keyes & Lopez, 2002) in figure 3.16.
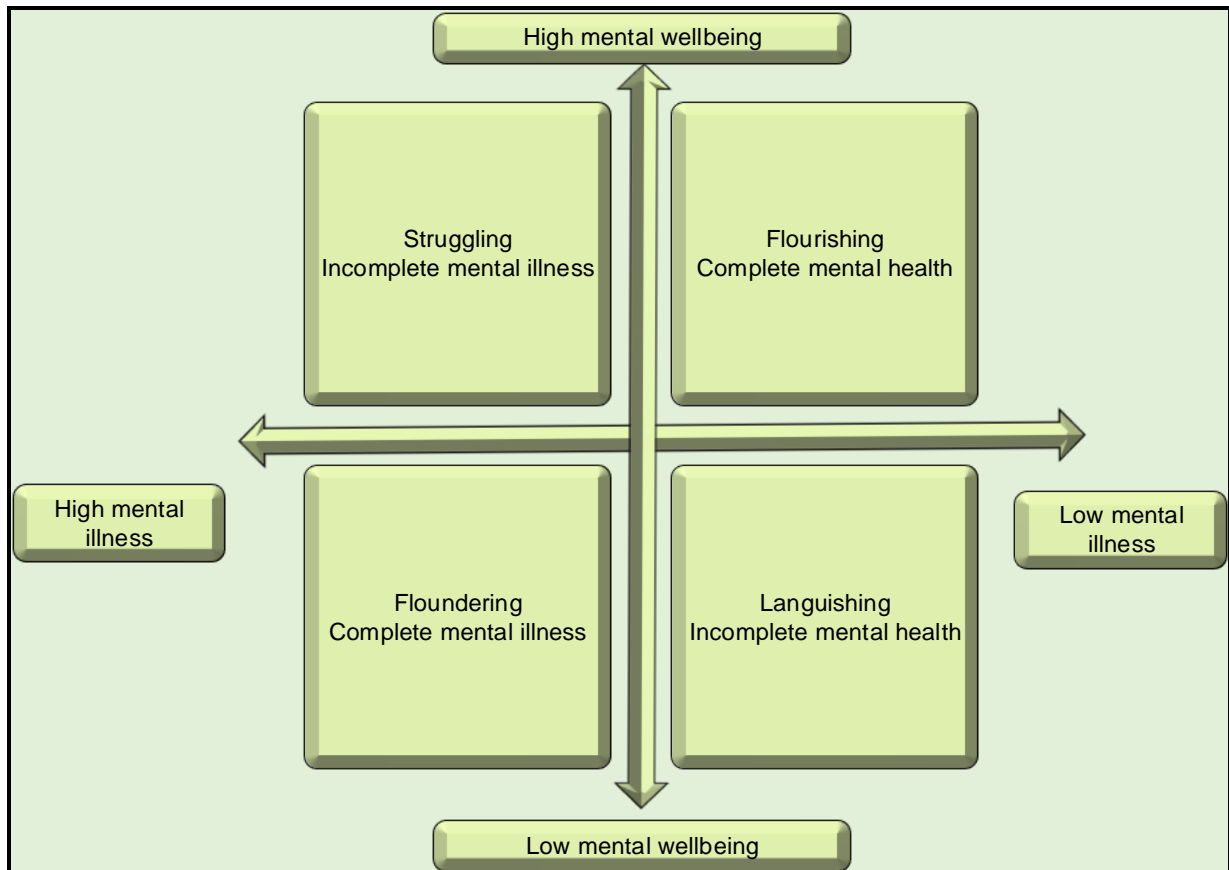
Figure 3.16: Dual continua model (Keyes & Lopez, 2002)

(c)   Broaden-and-build theory

Fredrickson (1998) posits that positive feelings such as happiness, satisfaction and love can instigate and broaden a person's thought-behavioural repertoire, and may further enhance a person's personal resources, and may include physical, cognitive and social resources. The broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998) further suggests that a person's resources may be more powerful than the initial experience of positive feelings upon which individuals can draw at a later stage (Fredrickson, 1998). Thus, the initial effect of positive emotions can enhance one's resilience through the attainment of personal resources that seems to have a lasting effect.

Fredrickson (1998) argues that an understanding of the tendency of positive feelings may be utilised to enhance personal and global wellbeing, as reflected in figure 3.17. Positive feelings indicate individual flourishing and positive emotions may also instigate flourishing. Constructive emotions seem to have a lasting effect from which one can draw during current and future challenging situations. The personal resources obtained during emotional positive conditions appear to have a long-lasting effect and are even more enduring than the initial positive feelings, which had originally resulted in the acquisition of these resources (Fredrickson, 2001).
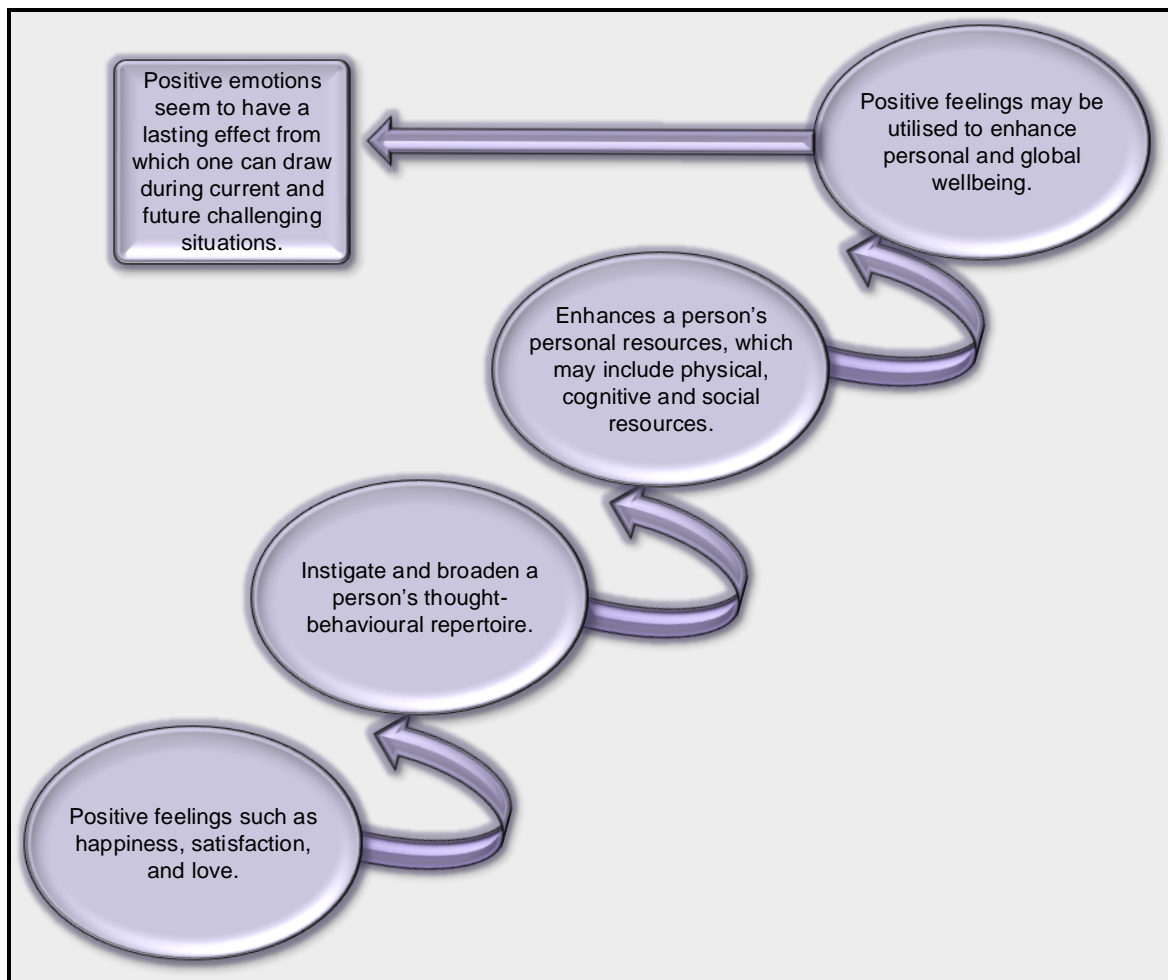
Figure 3.17: Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 1998, 2001)

Positive feelings have the predisposition to broaden a person's mindset, whereas negative feelings tend to result in narrow-mindedness. Happiness can instigate the impulse to have fun and negative feelings, like fear may create the urge to attack or escape (Fredrickson, 2004; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Therefore, when individuals expand their transient thought-behavioural inventory through play, exploration or other constructive actions, the

positive feelings that people experience may increase, cause creativity and build interpersonal connections. In turn, these may enhance people's personal resources. These resources may be used to progress and enhance one's chances to effectively manage and cope with difficult circumstances later on (Fredrickson, 2004).

People who expand their mindset may experience indirect and continuous advantages through the acquisition of personal resources. If these resources appeared to remain stable over time, they could be applied during various emotional conditions (Fredrickson, 2004). Positive feelings can allow one to change and develop into a more innovative, knowledgeable, hardy, socially functioning and vigorous person. The inclination to have constructive feelings appears hereditarily fixed (Fredrickson, 1998, 2004). Thus, it seems that certain people may have a predisposition to experience more positive emotions than others.

Over time constructive feelings, in combination with expanded thought patterns, can influence people reciprocally, which can cause an upward spiral when individuals seem more capable of coping and experiencing increased wellbeing (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Although emotions are fleeting in nature, positive emotions can transform people through their thoughts, behaviour and physiological reactions that have long-term effects (Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). Thus, positive emotions may assist them to become more adaptive through attained personal resources and consequently they can handle difficult situations better, which may further influence them to experience increased mental health.

Table 3.7 below provides a summary of the foregoing discussion with regard to the theoretical models of psychosocial flourishing.

Table 3.7

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Psychosocial Flourishing

Theoretical model	Model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b)	Dual continua model (Keyes, 2002)	Broaden-and-build theory (Frederickson, 1998)
Conceptualisation	Psychological wellbeing is the existence of wellbeing as opposed to the absence of illness (Ryff & Singer, 1996).	Constructive psychological functioning entails psychological wellbeing in combination with social functioning (Keyes, 2002).	Positive feelings such as happiness, satisfaction and love, can instigate and broaden a person's thought-behavioural repertoire and may further enhance a person's personal resources. These may include physical, cognitive and social resources (Fredrickson, 1998).
Dimensions	Self-acceptance Purpose in life Autonomy Positive relations with others Environmental mastery Personal growth	Mental health continuum Mental illness continuum	Positive emotions

Theoretical model	Model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b)	Dual continua model (Keyes, 2002)	Broaden-and-build theory (Frederickson, 1998)
Core conclusions	Each wellbeing dimension is necessary in the pursuit of improving psychological wellbeing and reaching one's potential (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).	People who possess high levels of mental health in combination with lower levels of mental illness are categorised as flourishing, while people with lower levels of mental health are seen as languishing (Keyes, 2003).	Positive emotions can assist one to become more adaptive through attained personal resources. Consequently one can handle difficult situations better, further influencing one to experience increased mental health.

In summary, the model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b) is applicable to this study, since it provides a wide framework of psychosocial flourishing in a social work environment. The model posits that employees who flourish psychosocially can become successful in all spheres of life and reach their full potential. These employees may be more capable of handling workplace bullying and more inclined to experience meaning and purpose at work. They display work performance due to their tendency to be successful in life. Thus, they may also display decreased intentions to leave their current employer.

In the following section, the variables that influence psychosocial flourishing will be discussed.

3.1.5.3   Variables influencing the development of psychosocial flourishing

Individuals appear to differ in the degree to which they flourish psychologically and socially due to variables that may influence their psychosocial flourishing. The variables of importance to this research include gender, age, environmental factors, workplace conditions, organisational identification and work aholism, which will be discussed in more detail.

(a)   Gender

Women seem to exhibit more emotional problems in adolescence than men as they experience more symptoms of depression and anxiety. The gender difference also seems to increase with age (Compas, Connor-Smith, & Jaser, 2004; Ranta et al., 2007). According to Kauppinen (2010), women seem to experience more work-related stress and display twice as many mental health problems than men. Ferreira and Coetzee (2010) have found that women appear to have higher levels of social connectivity, which may indicate confidence in their capability to form significant social bonds. Thus, females may have higher levels of social wellbeing.

(a)   Age

Research findings of Westerhof and Keyes (2010) indicate that older individuals generally have fewer mental health problems in comparison to younger individuals. Older people appear to have greater emotional wellbeing, lower psychological wellbeing and similar social wellbeing in comparison to younger adults. However, older people do not possess greater psychosocial flourishing although they experience fewer mental illnesses (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).

(b)   Environmental factors

Poor economic conditions can cause individuals to experience more stress, especially individuals in the lower income groups, as they tend to be exposed to stressors and negative life happenings frequently (Lantz et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2009). On the other hand, individuals in higher income groups tend to have less psychological distress and this contributes to increased perceived psychological wellbeing (Barnard, 2013).

Conversely, positive economic conditions can also result in stress, since the modern era involves more activities, abundant choices and less time. Although a higher income provides one with potentially more leisure activities and products it also contributes to feelings of anxiety, since limited time seems to contribute to pressure and perceived stress (Ng et al., 2009). Ng et al. (2009) argue that wealthy countries may have more prosperity and modern facilities but they have a higher probability of experiencing pressurised lifestyles. People in more prosperous countries tend to have better living conditions and higher healthcare standards. They also seem to experience greater subjective wellbeing and a longer life expectancy regardless of their increased levels of perceived stress (Ng et al., 2009).

(c)   Workplace conditions

Work environments with fewer stressors seem to contribute to greater health and mental wellbeing, facilitating job performance as well as personal life activities (Rethinam & Ismail, 2008). On the other hand, interpersonal conflict appears to be significantly associated with psychological wellbeing (Meier, Semmer, & Gross, 2014). More specifically, employees who are regularly exposed to conflict at work may experience lower psychological wellbeing; for example, they may experience increased levels of depression, lower job satisfaction and somatic symptoms (Meier et al., 2014).

(d)   Organisational identification

Employees who can greatly identify with their organisation seem to perceive the company's objectives as their own and consequently, they exert more effort in attaining the set goals. In general, employee identification may be valuable in assisting individuals to cope more effectively with stressors at work. In contrast, organisational identification may potentially amplify individual motivation to such an extent that it produces perceptual distortion of the organisational demands and a person's internal resources. As a result, this may be detrimental to employees' health (Avanzi, Van Dick, Fraccaroli, & Sarchielli, 2012).

Individuals who excessively identify with their organisation may perceive their job strains and coping techniques inaccurately, since they misjudge their job demands and/or their coping skills and resources, resulting in excessive time loss. This gives employees less recover time to recuperate from the unnecessary strenuous work attempts. Over the long-term, these excessive efforts may increase stress and lower employees' health (Avanzi et al., 2012).

(e)   Workaholism

Workaholism can be described as an urge or irrepressible necessity to continuously exert one's effort at work (Avanzi et al., 2012; Oates, 1971). These individuals tend to work much harder than what is required from them due to an internal sense of duty. Workaholics tend to spend extremely long hours working; therefore, they may end up having inadequate time to recover from their extreme work attempts. They may experience more strain and health problems in this process (Avanzi et al., 2012; Schaufeli, Bakker, Van der Heijden, & Prins, 2009a). Thus, it seems that workaholism may increase individuals' probability of experiencing stress, further negatively influencing their psychological wellbeing. In addition, research indicates that individuals who excessively identify with their organisation are at risk

of developing a maladaptive connection in the form of workaholism, which can lower mental health (Avanzi et al 2012).

In summary, it seems that gender may influence the level of individuals pscyhosocial wellbeing (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Kauppinen, 2010), since women may have a higher tendency to experience work-related stress (Kauppinen, 2010) and social wellbeing (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010) than men. Differences in age also seem to influence individuals' psychosocial flourishing levels (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Environmental factors such as economic conditions (Ng et al., 2009) and level of income (Barnard, 2013) may either decrease or increase psychosocial flourishing.

Work environments with fewer stressors may increase employees' psychosocial flourshing (Meier et al., 2014; Rethinam & Ismail, 2008). Organisational identification generally assists employees in coping more effectively, thereby increasing their psychosocial flourishing. However, some employees can identify with the organisation excessively, which may cause decreased psychosocial flourishing (Avanzi et al., 2012). Workaholism can contribute to increased leves of stress, subsequently decreasing employees' levels of psychosocial flourishing (Avanzi et al., 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2009a). Thus, it appears that gender, age, environmental factors, workplace conditions, organisational identification and workaholism may influence the development of psychosocial flourishing.

Next, the practical implications of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing will be discussed.

3.2   IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing's appear to have practical implications for employee wellness and talent retention.

3.2.1   Self-esteem

High self-esteem appears to increase one's coping capability (Arndt & Goldenberg, 2002) and provides one with more confidence. Self-esteem protect a person from the destructive outcomes of negative life happenings (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013). Thus, it seems that individuals with higher self-esteem may cope more effectively during difficult situations and

they also tend to have greater confidence. Therefore, self-esteem may protect one during challenging events and avoid a detrimental effect on one's wellbeing.

Conversely, individuals with low self-esteem may experience negative happenings more intensely, since the protective effect which high self-esteem provides lacks. This may result in withdrawal behaviour, for example, avoiding work tasks (Zeigler-Hill, 2011b; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013), which may subsequently cause lower productivity and turnover for organisations.

Research findings of Orth et al. (2012) indicate that self-esteem is associated with increased relationship fulfilment, job satisfaction, work prestige, compensation and physical wellbeing, although these variables appear to have no reciprocal effect on self-esteem. It seems that high self-esteem may influence individuals' happiness and contentment at work in a positive manner (Orth et al., 2012), increasing employee wellbeing and consequently being beneficial to organisational performance.

Next, the practical implications of emotional intelligence will be explained.

3.2.2   Emotional intelligence

Research findings indicate that emotional facilitation may assist individuals in arranging their thoughts, ideas and the recollection of information in a manner that enhances the way they manage difficulties and stressors within their social surroundings. Thus, effective facilitation of emotions may influence interpersonal relations at work positively (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011). Accurate emotional assessments and understanding emotional situations may promote a person's prediction capability and degree of control while utilising communication competencies during social interactions. Individuals who recognise emotions correctly may experience fewer situations of interpersonal conflict through projection methods, control and effective communication skills (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011).

Similarly, Qureshi and Raja (2011) have found that emotionally intelligent people have emotional insight, can evaluate situations effectively and also possess impression management strategies necessary to promote themselves at work. On the other hand, individuals with low levels of emotional intelligence may not fully comprehend emotional situations; therefore, they may apply impression management strategies ineffectively, which may increase the possibility of job loss (Qureshi & Raja, 2011).

There seems to be a link between emotional intelligence and leadership. Managers who possess emotional intelligence may have the capability of promoting productivity and performance through the whole organisation. Emotionally intelligent leaders may have a positive influence on the quality of interpersonal relations within the organisation (Farahani, Taghadosi, & Behboudi 2011; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2005). Thus, it seems that managers with high emotional intelligence may have the ability to reduce interpersonal problems and improve the overall ambience in the workplace. Farahani et al. (2011) have found that emotionally intelligent leaders who have a transformational leadership style are more effective, especially when their subordinates also possess high levels of emotional intelligence. There also appears to be a relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance (O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011). Thus, highly emotional intelligent employees may be more productive and contribute more to the organisation's success.

Next, the implications for practice relevant to hardiness will be discussed.

3.2.3   Hardiness

Delahaij et al. (2010) have found that hardiness can be included as a measurement during the selection process, since hardiness can act as an indicator of performance during challenging situations. Thus, it seems that hardiness may indicate employees' probability of resiliency during stressful events. Similarly, research indicates that hardiness may predict admission into military officer schools (Hystad et al., 2011b). Therefore, it appears that individuals who possess higher levels of hardiness may have a higher likelihood of being accepted into the military. Circumstances in the military can be highly strenuous and candidates need to be able to perform, even during events that are life threatening (Escolas et al., 2013).

Individuals who have lower levels of hardiness are inclined to apply negative coping strategies during stressful situations; for example, alcohol or drug abuse (Bartone et al., 2012). On the other hand, high hardiness individuals apply active coping strategies and seem to have a positive approach to life, whereas individuals who demonstrate low levels of hardiness are more inclined to expect the worst and seem to have a sense of helplessness (Bartone et al., 2012; Ursin & Eriksen, 2004).

Bartone et al. (2012) have found in a sample of defense workers that the combination of low hardiness and a strong preference for avoidance coping strategies can predict alcohol abuse. More specifically, defense workers who demonstrate low levels of hardiness and who

are continuously exposed to high volumes of stress have a higher tendency of substance abuse as a coping mechanism, even when they are not deployed. Thus, hardiness may act as a buffer against stressors, especially the challenge component of hardiness, which has been found to lower the risk of alchol abuse (Bartone et al., 2012).

Hystad, Eid and Brevik (2011a) have found that individuals with low levels of hardiness demonstrated higher absenteeism rates (sick leave), irrespective of their stress levels. It appears that individuals with low hardiness tend to take more sick leave, although the level of stress does not influence their tendency to be absent from work. Research indicates that individuals with high levels of hardiness and low stress levels demonstrate lower absenteeism, whereas individuals who experience a combination of high hardiness and high stress levels demonstrate higher absenteeism (Hystad et al., 2011a). Therefore, it seems that when employees with high levels of hardiness are subjected to lower work demands, it may predict a tendency that they will be less absent from work, while more sick leave occurs when employees with high levels of hardiness experience high work demands.

It is clear from the literature that hardiness has a protective effect on individuals' psychological wellbeing and seems to lower the straining influences of stressors.

Next, the practical implications of work engagement will be explained.

3.2.4 Work engagement

Stressors seem to influence employees' devotedness, eagerness and keenness to work negatively. Research indicates that stress needs to be lowered or eradicated to promote employee willingness to exert effort, since job stress and engagement appear to be related negatively (Iqbal, Khan, & Iqbal, 2012). Thus, it seems that work stress may cause employees to have decreased work engagement.

Similarly, Hansen, Byrne, and Kiersch (2014) have found that tension at work is related to work engagement. Hansen et al. (2014) have also found engagement to be an indicator of psychological wellbeing. Work stress seems to influence individuals' engagement levels and may subsequently predict mental health. Employees who are engaged in their work seem to create work environments that promote and support their own engagement. Thus, highly engaged individuals not only apply their job resources but also generate resources to sustain their current engagement levels (Bakker, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2011).

Research indicates that effective coping strategies are associated with increased work engagement during difficult events at work (Rothmann, Jorgensen, & Marais, 2011; Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010). More specifically, individuals who apply constructive, active coping strategies are more capable of sustaining a high degree of engagement as opposed to individuals who apply deconstructive coping techniques and tend to experience lower engagement. Therefore, employees' coping techniques need to be taken into account when companies create work engagement interventions (Rothmann et al., 2011).

Mendes and Stander (2011) have found that individuals who are extremely devoted to their organisations have a lower probability of displaying intention to leave the organisation. Conversely, individuals who are keen and excited about their jobs have a higher possibility of experiencing positive feelings about their workplace. Subsequently, they are less inclined to foster thoughts of leaving the company (Mendes & Stander, 2011). Thus, work engagement seems to influence turnover intention positively and this may improve talent retention.

High work engagement seems to be associated with interpersonal leaders, improved physical and psychological wellbeing, further contributing to a healthy society (Hansen et al., 2014). Hansen et al. (2014) argue that companies need to focus on developing and training managers in order to create positive interpersonal relationships with subordinates. As a result, they create an increased constructive work environment where individuals can flourish. The research findings also indicate that individuals who are highly engaged in their organisations have a higher probability of experiencing physical and mental health (Hansen et al., 2014). Thus, it appears that work engagement positively influences individuals' physical and psychological wellbeing.

In the following section, the construct of psychosocial flourishing will be discussed.

3.2.5 Psychosocial flourishing

Individuals tend to have increased psychological wellbeing when they experience a balanced work/family life, job satisfaction and are content with their organisation (Chan and Wyatt, 2007; Srivastava, 2007). Research indicates that higher levels of psychological wellbeing may lower turnover intention (Amin & Akbar, 2013). Likewise, research indicates that employees may be more committed to and engaged in the organisation when they feel they belong there (Chena, et al., 2012). Individuals who experience their work as meaningful are less likely to leave the organisation (Chang et al., 2013). Thus, employees will display lower turnover intention when they are able to associate with the organisation and feel they do

work of meaning and value. Employees will also regard their work as meaningful when they experience autonomy and are allowed to participate in decision-making that relate to their work, further heightening feelings of belonging and meaningfulness (Amin & Akbar, 2013).

Ford et al. (2011) argue that psychological health and work performance have a reciprocal relationship. Mental health can increase work performance and then again, performing employees who receive positive feedback from management may experience improved psychological wellbeing. Thus, it seems that performance can influence flourishing and conversely, flourishing can result in improved performance.

Employees who suffer from mental illnesses such as depression display lower productivity, especially in positions that require them to apply cognitive skills (Adler et al., 2006; Lorenzo, 2013). Research indicates that anxiety and depression can have a negative influence on employee performance, resulting in increased absenteeism and lower work performance (Lorenzo, 2013; Plaisier et al., 2010).

Therefore, it seems that self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing may have practical implications for individuals' wellbeing and organisational performance, as indicated in Table 3.8 below. More specifically, employees who have high levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing may cope more effectively when exposed to stressors in the workplace. They experience increased wellness, job satisfaction and higher performance, which lead to increased organisational productivity, overall success and talent retention.

Table 3.8

Summary of the Core Practical Implications of the Composite Set of Psychological Wellbeing-Related Dispositional Attributes

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Individual level implications	Organisational level implications
Self-esteem	Employees with high self-esteem may cope more effectively (Arndt & Goldenberg, 2002) during difficult situations. They tend to have greater confidence; therefore, self-esteem may protect and protect their psychological wellbeing during challenging events (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013) such as workplace bullying. Employees with low self-esteem may not expereince the protective effect that high self-esteem provides. This may result in withdrawal behaviour like avoidance of work tasks (Zeigler-Hill, 2011b; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013).	Possibly lower productivity Increased voluntary turnover
	High self-esteem is associated with increased relationship fulfilment, job satisfaction, work prestige, compensation and physical wellbeing (Orth et al., 2012).	Increased employee wellbeing and consequently organisational performance (Orth et al., 2012).

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Individual level implications	Organisational level implications
Emotional intelligence	Effective facilitation of emotions can positively influence interpersonal relations at work. Employees who recognise emotions correctly may experience fewer situations of interpersonal conflict through projection methods, control and effective communication skills (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011).	Managers who possess emotional intelligence may have the capability of promoting productivity and performance through the whole organisation. Leaders who demonstrate high emotional intelligence may have a positive influence on the quality of interpersonal relations within the organisation (Farahani, Taghadosi & Behboudi 2011; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2005).
Hardiness	Individuals with low levels of hardiness have a higher tendency to apply negative coping strategies during stressful situations, for example, alcohol or drug abuse (Bartone et al., 2012). Individuals with low levels of hardiness are more inclined to expect the worst and they seem to have a sense of helplessness (Bartone et al., 2012; Ursin & Eriksen, 2004).	Hardiness can be useful during the employee selection process, since hardiness may act as an indicator of performance during challenging situations (Delahaij et al., 2010). Individuals with low levels of hardiness are more inclined to be absent from work (sick leave), irrespective of their stress levels (Hystad et al., 2011a). Individuals who experience a combination of high hardiness and high stress levels demonstrate higher absenteeism (Hystad et al., 2011a).

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Individual level implications	Organisational level implications
Hardiness *(continue)*	Individuals with high levels of hardiness apply active coping strategies and seem to have a positive approach to life (Bartone et al., 2012; Ursin & Eriksen, 2004). Thus, hardiness may act as a buffer against stressors (Bartone & Hystad, 2012).	
Work engagement	Work stress and engagement appear to be related negatively (Hansen et al., 2014; Iqbal et al., 2012). Engagement is an indicator of psychological wellbeing (Hansen et al., 2014). Highly engaged individuals not only apply their job resources but also generate resources to sustain their current engagement levels (Bakker et al., 2011).	Employees who apply constructive, active coping strategies are more capable of sustaining a high degree of engagement as opposed to individuals who apply deconstructive coping techniques who tend to experience lower engagement. Therefore, employees' coping techniques need to be taken into account when companies create work engagement interventions (Rothmann et al., 2011). Highly engaged employees have a lower tendency of displaying an intention to leave (Mendes & Stander, 2011).

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Individual level implications	Organisational level implications
Work engagement *(continue)*	Effective coping strategies are associated with increased work engagement during difficult events at work (Rothmann et al., 2011; Schiffrin & Nelson, 2010). High work engagement seems to be associated with improved physical and psychological wellbeing, which can further contribute to a healthy society (Hansen et al., 2014).	Employers need to focus on the development and training of management to create positive interpersonal relationships with subordinates and consequently create an increased constructive work environment where individuals can flourish. Highly engaged employees have a higher tendency of experiencing physical and mental health (Hansen et al., 2014).
Psychosocial flourishing	Performing employees who receive positive feedback from management may, as a result, experience improved psychological wellbeing (Ford et al., 2011). Employees who suffer from mental illnesses such as depression display lower productivity, especially in positions that require them to apply cognitive skills (Adler et al., 2006; Lorenzo, 2013).	Increased psychological wellbeing may lower turnover intentions (Amin & Akbar, 2013). Employees may be more committed to and engaged in the organisation when they feel they belong there (Chena et al., 2012). Individuals who experience their work as meaningful are less likely to leave the organisation (Chang et al., 2013). Increased mental health can increase work performance (Ford et al., 2011).

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Individual level implications	Organisational level implications
Psychosocial flourishing *(continue)*		Low mental health can have a negative influence on employee performance and, as a result, cause increased absenteeism and lower work performance (Lorenzo, 2013; Plaisier et al., 2010).

3.3   EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

This chapter has highlighted the conceptualisation of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. The literature review has indicated that self-esteem appears to be a significant personal resource during strenuous events (Lee-Flynn et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2011). Individuals with high self-esteem seem to utilise proactive strategies to develop and grow in their jobs (Marock, 2008; Potgieter, 2012). Also, people who display increased levels of self-esteem tend to have better interpersonal relationships and seem to have a greater understanding for diversity (Baumeister, 2005; Bezuidenhout, 2010; Potgieter, 2012). Self-esteem seems to lower the effects of stressors and subsequently improve mental health (Dolan, 2007; Sowislo & Orth, 2013). In addition, self-esteem is a personal resource, which can assist employees in coping more effectively with stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wu et al., 2011). Thus, self-esteem may act as a protective shield (Crocker & Park, 2004) during challenging work happenings, lower the impact of stressors and subsequently improve psychological wellbeing.

Research indicates that emotional intelligence is associated with more positive emotions and fewer negative emotions, which may subsequently promote mental health (Kong et al., 2012). Individuals with high emotional intelligence tend to have greater emotional insight and more control over their own emotions, and manage other people's emotions more effectively as opposed to individuals with lower emotional intelligence (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). In addition, the capability to regulate emotions may enable a person to cope more effectively with stressors (O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011). Emotional regulation is associated with increased mental health and consequently lower absenteeism, increased social support and contentment at work (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012). Thus, emotional intelligence may protect one against stressors and, as a result, promote psychological wellbeing (Ciarrochi et al., 2002).

Similarly, researchers argue that hardiness may play a significant protective role during stressful events, particularly in the work environment (Kardum, Hudek-Knežević, & Krapić, 2012). Individuals who demonstrate hardiness have a greater tendency to approach demands enthusiastically (Maddi, 1990). Individuals with high levels of hardiness seem to have more confidence in their capability to handle stress. They are more inclined to view stressful events as less frightening, since they have certainty that they can handle difficult situations (Delahaij et al., 2010).

In addition, people with high levels of hardiness have a greater sense of control and are more committed to their environment and may therefore decide to interact and engage as opposed to avoiding stressors (Eschleman et al., 2010). Individuals with high levels of hardiness may possess lower levels of stress and increased mental health (Hanten et al., 2013; Maddi, 2008). Thus, hardiness appears to protect one against stressors in both the military and organisational contexts, and as a result, improve physical and psychological wellbeing (Bartone, 2012; Escolas et al., 2013).

Engaged individuals seem to be more adaptable and flexible; therefore, they have a greater capability to adjust to change and are more eager to encounter challenging situations (Langelaan et al., 2006). Moreover, highly engaged people have a greater probability of applying effective coping strategies when they are exposed to stressors (Rothmann et al., 2011). Research further indicates that work engagement can lower the effect of stressors, and subsequently protect a person's physical and mental health (Hansen et al., 2014).

Furthermore, individuals who flourish psychosocially appear to have positive feelings, are able to function effectively at work (Crum & Salovey, 2013), and may therefore experience more happiness and satisfaction (Harrington, 2013). Research indicates that psychosocial flourishing may protect one against stressors and consequently decrease the risks of developing health problems, and as a result, may increase productivity and lower absenteeism (Vazi et al., 2013).

The literature further indicates that employees who experience increased depressive symptoms may be more susceptible to lose their personal resources, subsequently increasing their vulnerability for future stressful situations (Meier et al., 2014). Thus, it seems that the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes of this study may be essential to buffer one against the effects of stress, such as those that stem from workplace bullying, and may further improve and maintain one's psychological wellbeing. Therefore, it seems that self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing may protect one during stressful circumstances, lower the straining effects of stressors, and consequently promote physical and mental wellbeing.

Research focusing on employees' psychological wellbeing as a significant indicator during the stress process seems limited. More specifically, research studies highlighting lower psychological wellbeing as a vulnerability indicator during negative happenings at work seem to be lacking (Meier et al., 2014). The research on psychological hardiness seems to be mainly performed on participants in the U.S. and, therefore it is essential to expand the

research to other countries to obtain a broader viewpoint within various cultures (Hystad et al., 2011b). In addition, there appears to be a scarcity on wellness research in South African organisations that focuses on the advancement of psychological wellbeing in the work context (Sieberhagen, Pienaar & Els, 2011).

In summary, psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing are conceptualised as personal resources for employee wellness, as indicated in Table 3.9 below.

Self-esteem is conceptualised in terms of Battle's theory (1992) of self-esteem. Battle (1992) posits that the three sub-components of self-esteem (general, social and personal) equally represent an individual's overall self-esteem and may be an indication of a person's wellbeing. Self-esteem relates to increased confidence that may act as a resource and protect one against detrimental life happenings (Crocker & Park, 2004; Wu et al., 2011; Zeigler-Hill, 2011b; Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013). However, there exists a paucity of research on self-esteem as a coping resource in relation to workplace bulling and turnover intention.

Emotional intelligence is conceptualised by the ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) which views emotionally intelligent individuals as competent in observing, interpreting, controlling and applying emotional information to solve problems effectively and enhance work performance. The emotional intelligence construct may act as a resource to protect a person against adverse happenings, and consequently increase psychological wellbeing (Ciarrochi et al., 2002; Furnham & Petrides, 2003; Salami, 2010) and lower interpersonal conflict (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011). However, little research exists on emotional intelligence as a coping resource in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Hardiness is conceptualised by the hardiness model of Kobasa (1979) and posits that individuals who demonstrate hardiness have a positive mindset towards difficult life events (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Maddi, 2002). The hardiness construct can act as a personal resource and contribute to effective coping with stressors (Bartone, 2000; Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Delahaij et al., 2010; Escolas et al., 2013; Hanton et al., 2013; Kobasa et al., 1982), which conseqently decreases emotional strain (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa et al., 1982). However, there is a paucity of research on hardiness in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Work engagement is conceptualised by the job demands-resources model (JD-R) of Demerouti et al., (2001) which suggests that individuals who have insufficient resources to cope with job demands may experience burnout and consequently become disengaged. Work engagement is viewed as a combination of increased mental focus (absorption), an emotional connection to the organisation (dedication) and energy towards one's job (vigour) (Rich et al., 2010; Schauefeli et al., 2002). Sufficient job resources can protect a person against the detrimental effects of challenges at work. Consequently, one can avoid exhaustion (de Braine & Roodt, 2011) and maintain work engagement (Sonnentag et al., 2012), further lowering intention to leave (Karlowicz & Ternus, 2007; Mendes & Stander, 2011). However, very little research exists on work engagement as a coping resource in relation to workplace bullying.

Psychosocial flourishing is conceptualised by the model of psychological wellbeing of Ryff (1989b) which suggests that the components, namely self-acceptance, having purpose in life, autonomy, good interpersonal relations, environmental mastery and to experience personal growth (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) are needed to enhance psychological wellbeing and to reach one's potential (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010). Psychosocial flourishing is viewed as having effective interpersonal relationships, contributing to society, feeling respected, being engaged in life ventures, enjoying purpose and meaning in activities, and having confidence in one's abilities and talents (Diener et al., 2010). The construct of psychosocial flourishing may assist individuals in coping more effectively with challenging work circumstances (Fredrickson, 2001, 2004; Fredrickson & Losada, 2005) and consequently it enhances psychological wellbeing (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2002; Fredrickson & Branigan, 2005). However, limited research exists on psychosocial flourishing as a coping resource in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Herewith research aim 2, to conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature, has been partially achieved.

Finally, research aim 4, to conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experience/perception of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions, has been partially achieved.

Table 3.9

Summary of the Psychological Wellbeing-Related Dispositional Attributes

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Core conceptualisation	Theoretical model	Influencing variables	Implication for employee wellness and talent retention
Self-esteem	Self-esteem can viewed as a blend of individuals' emotions, aspirations, uncertainties, reservations and opinions of the current, past and future self, which is based on self-insight and information of one's own capabilities, an awareness of one's self-worth and one's self-esteem can develop across time through interactions with others (Battle, 1992).	Battle's model of self-esteem (1992) Dimensions: Global self-esteem Social self-esteem Personal self-esteem	Age Gender Race Socio-economic factors	Self-esteem relates to increased confidence that may act as a personal resource and protect one against stressors in the workplace such as bullying behaviour, which may consequently lower one's intention to leave the organisation. Thus, it will contribute to increased talent retention.

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Core conceptualisation	Theoretical model	Influencing variables	Implication for employee wellness and talent retention
Emotional intelligence	Emotional intelligence can be viewed as the capability to recognise and assess one's own emotions and those of others, to enhance the interpretation and understanding thereof, and the capacity to change one's thinking and actions according to the relevant emotional information, which can further foster emotional and cognitive development (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).	The ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1997) Dimensions: Perception of emotions Utilisation of emotions to facilitate thought Understanding of emotions Management of emotions	Age Gender Race Childhood Socio-cultural factors Training	Emotional intelligence may act as a personal resource to protect a person against adverse events such as workplace bullying. Emotional intelligence may increase employee wellness, lower interpersonal conflict and further lower one's intention to leave the organisation. Thus, it may cause increased talent retention.

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Core conceptualisation	Theoretical model	Influencing variables	Implication for employee wellness and talent retention
Hardiness	Hardiness can be viewed as a positive approach towards stressful happenings (Maddi & Kobasa, 1984; Maddi, 2002), which may act as a personal resource and assist individuals in effectively managing stressors, decrease psychological strain (Bartone & Hystad, 2010; Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa et al., 1982) and contribute to realising personal development (Hystad et al., 2011b; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 1999; Maddi, 2006).	Hardiness model of Kobasa (1979) Components: Commitment Control Challenge	Age Gender Race Leadership	Hardiness may act as a personal resource and assist employees in coping better with stressors such as bullying behaviour in the workplace. This may decrease emotional strain and, therefore increase employee wellness. Consequently, employees may have decreased thoughts on leaving the organisation; therefore increasing talent retention for organisations.

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Core conceptualisation	Theoretical model	Influencing variables	Implication for employee wellness and talent retention
Work engagement	Work engagement is viewed as an attitudinal approach (Schaufeli et al., 2006) where employees are more inclined to make contributions (Harrison et al., 2006) through physical effort, mental focus (absorption), have an emotional connection to one's employer (dedication) and display energy towards one's job (vigour) (Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002).	Job demands-resources model (JD-R) of Demerouti et al. (2001). General categories: Job demands Job resources Types of resources: Physical, emotional and psychological resources are required for employees to perform in their work.	Age Gender Race Tenure Job level Work environment Leadership	Work engagement may act as a personal resource to protect employees against the detrimental effects of challenges such as incidents of workplace bullying. Consequently, one may avoid burnout and maintain work engagement, which may increase employee wellness and further lower intention to leave (increased talent retention).

Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes	Core conceptualisation	Theoretical model	Influencing variables	Implication for employee wellness and talent retention
Psychosocial flourishing	Psychosocial flourishing is viewed as having supportive and rewarding social relationships, when one is able to contribute to the happiness of others, feeling respected by others, experiences a life with purpose and meaning, is involved in and committed to personal projects, has feelings of optimism, and believes in one's own competence and capability (Diener et al., 2010).	Model of psychological wellbeing (Ryff, 1989b) Elements: Self-acceptance Purpose in life Autonomy Positive relations with others Environmental mastery Personal growth	Gender Age Environmental factors Workplace conditions Organisational identification Workaholism	Psychosocial flourishing may assist individuals in coping more effectively with challenging work circumstances such as workplace bullying and consequently enhance employee wellness. Psychological wellbeing may further contribute to job satisfaction and lower turnover intention (contribute to increased talent retention).

3.4   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapters 2 and 3 have offered a broad literature review of the five mediating variables (the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) that are relevant to the current research study in an attempt to resolve the first and second research questions.

The aim of chapter 3 was to conceptualise the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing by examining the literature and research on these constructs. The theoretical models, variables influencing the development and the implications for practice were provided to discuss the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

Research aim 2, to conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention has been achieved partially by means of theoretical models in the literature.

Furthermore, research aim 4, to conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experience/perception of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions has been achieved partially.

Chapter 4 will conceptualise the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention. Chapter 4 will also focus on answering research aims 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 to conclude the literature review aims.

CHAPTER 4: WORKPLACE BULLYING AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The previous chapter focused on the theoretical framework for the conceptualisation of the psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Chapter 4 aims to conceptualise the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention. The focus is to explore how individuals' perceptions of workplace bullying relate to their intention to leave the organisation, and how their psychological wellbeing attributes influence this relationship. In the present chapter, the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention, and the related theoretical models will also be explored. The variables influencing workplace bullying and turnover intention, and the implications for talent retention and employee wellness will also be discussed. This chapter will conclude with a discussion of an integrated theoretical model that constitutes the psychological wellbeing profile that will be tested empirically.

The aim is to determine whether certain aspects of psychological wellbeing allow some individuals to cope better with workplace bullying and whether they influence certain employees' turnover intentions. This is congruent with steps 3 and 4 of phase 1 of the research method, as identified in chapter 1 of this study.

4.1   WORKPLACE BULLYING

Workplace bullying is regarded as a significant job stressor which appears to greatly influence the psychological wellbeing of employees (Reknes et al., 2014). The construct of workplace bullying will be conceptualised, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing workplace bullying discussed.

4.1.1   Conceptualisation of workplace bullying

Workplace bullying is seen as circumstances where one or numerous employees view themselves as targets of bullying, and they perceive themselves to be exposed to frequent and relentless acts of bullying from one or various offenders. Victims also feel unable to protect themselves against these activities (Einarsen et al., 2011). Workplace bullying refers to individuals who experience unwanted behaviour that may potentially cause discomfort (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) on a psychological, emotional and/or physical level. According to Einarsen and Raknes (1997), workplace bullying is also referred to as "negative behaviour". In addition, Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper (2003) view workplace bullying as behaviour that harasses, offends, socially excludes or negatively affects a person's work. In order to be

classified as bullying, a specific action, incident or behaviour has to occur repeatedly and frequently (e.g. weekly) and over a period of time (e.g. for about six months). Bullying is an intensifying process where the victim ends up in an inferior position and becomes the object of organised negative social actions (Einarsen et al., 2003).

Leymann (1996) offers a slightly different view and refers to bullying as "psychological terror" or "mobbing". According to Leymann (1996), workplace bullying entails immoral and intimidating interactions that are focused mainly towards one person in a methodical manner by one or a few individuals, and consequently the target is pushed into a vulnerable or defenceless position. The victim is being held in a helpless position through relentless bullying actions, which can occur frequently (once a week) or over longer periods (at least six months) (Leymann, 1996).

Bullying is also seen as a severe interpersonal stressor that entails aggressive actions, which are methodically and tenaciously focused on a specific employee (Zapf, 1999). Djurkovic et al. (2008) posit that behaviour only qualifies as bullying when the bullied individual (victim) experiences the specific actions as cruel, unfair, humiliating, undermining and threatening. Bullying occurs when targets find it difficult to defend themselves or when the actions involve the violation of a person's human rights (Djurkovic et al., 2008).

Einarsen and Skogstad (1996) regard bullying as a situation where a person views him- or herself to be exposed to relentless negative behaviour or actions from one or several individuals, and also has difficulty to defend him- or herself against these activities over a period of time. An isolated once-off incident is not regarded as bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Similarly, workplace bullying occurs when the negative behaviour is recurrent, when one or more individuals harm another employee through actions of exclusion (omission) and direct bullying behaviour (commission) that is displayed in the form of physical, interpersonal or psychological abuse, or a combination thereof. The bullying behaviour may also manifest in physical or unspoken threats, coercion, intimidation, embarrassment, sabotage or the disruption of productivity in the workplace (Nami & Nami, 2011).

On the other hand, Branch et al. (2013) suggest that bullying can be viewed as an imbalance of power between the target and the offender. In addition, negative behaviour from another person can be associated with problematic events and the perception of considerable, unsuitable, unjust or destructive behaviour (Saunders, Huynh, & Goodman-Delahunty, 2007). Moreover, technology advancements seem to contribute to the various available methods

utilised by perpetrators to bully other individuals, which necessitates continuous investigation such as cyberbullying. Cyber bullying entails the use of electronic media such as the internet, electronic messages, social networking websites and video clips, which are not limited to a specific location (White, 2013). In addition, cyber bullying can reach a substantial number of people and result in repetitive bullying, since the comments and clips can be accessed multiple times. The offender's identity is not always known with cyber bullying, which can increase feelings of fear and anxiety within the target (White, 2013). Cyber bullies may not always be aware of the negative impact that their actions have on others. Also, there are fewer opportunities for direct feedback of empathy or remorse, and fewer bystanders who can offer support (Slojne & Smith, 2008; White, 2013). However, cyber bullying will not be measured in this research study.

The types of bullying that will be measured in this research study are actions associated with work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation. In this study, work-related bullying is viewed as negative acts that can deter productivity and work performance such as unreasonable deadlines or impractical workloads, extreme inspection of assignments, or allocation of insignificant tasks or given no responsibilities. Person-related bullying behaviour entails negative behaviour such as making offensive comments, excessive bantering, spreading gossip or rumours, incessant disapproval, playing practical jokes and psychological threats (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). Physical intimidation in this study is seen as the invasion of one's personal space, threats of violence, physical abuse or mistreatment (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen et al., 2009).

Individuals appear to experience workplace bullying as disturbing, and normally view the negative actions as unwarranted and unfair (Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008). Workplace bullying can also be regarded as persistent, verbalised and nonverbal hostility, which can entail individual assaults, interpersonal exclusion, and a variety of antagonistic and hurtful exchanges and interactions (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006).

The astonishment and surprise of being picked out can cause severe pain that can be similar to the loss of a loved one (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). Targets of bullying seem to have feelings of embarrassment, since they may feel unable to control the situation, feel responsible and as a result, blame themselves (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008). Workplace bullying can influence job performance negatively and cause feelings of incompetence at work (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006).

Bullying at work normally entails antagonistic communication, being made fun of, obstacles to hinder one's work performance, or being ignored during interactions (Glasø, Vie, Holmdal & Einarsen, 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Direct methods of workplace bullying can involve incessant disapproval of a person's tasks, attempts or work outcomes, or degrading communication such as insults, offensive comments or belligerent conduct. On the other hand, indirect methods of bullying may entail interpersonal exclusion, rumours and gossip in an attempt to damage the victim's character or professional stance. The mentioned examples are fairly common behaviour when experienced in isolation, although when these actions are continuously focused on the same person, it can cause severe harm and suffering (Glasø et al., 2011).

Bullying behaviour is viewed as different from regular conflict in the workplace, since the bullying behaviour is associated with repetitive and continuous negative behaviour focused on the target to harm his or her personal dignity or to decrease his or her self-confidence (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001). In addition, research indicates that exposure to bullying behaviour can cause victims to experience psychological distress and they may develop health problems as a result of the bullying (Hogh, 2012; Nami & Nami, 2011). Herewith a summary in Table 4.1 of the relevant behaviours and actions to workplace bullying.

Table 4.1

Summary of Behaviour and Actions Related to Workplace Bullying

Behaviour and actions related to workplace bullying	Core conclusions
Unwanted and undesirable behaviour	Actions may cause embarrassment or uneasiness for targeted employees (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008).
Harassment Offensive behaviour Physical or unspoken threats Intimidation Embarrassment Sabotage Disruption of work tasks	Bullying behaviour negatively affects a target's work performance (Einarsen et al., 2003; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006; Nami & Nami, 2011). Targets of bullying behaviour experience feelings of embarrassment when they feel unable to manage the bullying situation; they tend to feel responsible and end up blaming themselves for falling victim to the bullying behaviour (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008).

Behaviour and actions related to workplace bullying	Core conclusions
(continue)	In addition, victims can experience feelings of incompetence when they continuously receive critical feedback on their work performance (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006). Targets may experience psychological distress and develop health problems (Hogh, 2012; Nami & Nami, 2011).
Focused and methodical negative social actions	The victim ends up in a vulnerable position and becomes the target of planned negative social actions (Einarsen et al., 2003; Leymann, 1996).
Frequent, recurrent and relentless behaviour	Bullying behaviour occurs frequently and repetitively (e.g. weekly) over a period of time (e.g. about six months) (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996).
Aggressive actions	Forceful actions are methodically and tenaciously directed toward a specific employee (Zapf, 1999).
Cruel, unfair, humiliating, undermining and threatening behaviour Violation of personal human rights	The targeted employee experiences the actions as intensely negative and finds it difficult to defend him- or herself. The behaviour also entails the violation of a person's fundamental human rights (Djurkovic et al., 2008).
Indirect bullying behaviour: social exclusion, rumours and gossip	The targeted employee is excluded in the form of withholding information or from social groups at work (Einarsen et al., 2003; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006; Nami & Nami, 2011). Offenders aim to damage the target's character, reputation or professional position by utilising rumours or gossip. The mentioned examples are fairly common behaviour when experienced in isolation, although when these actions are relentlessly focused on the same individual (Glasø et al., 2011) it can severely hurt targets on a psychological level (Glasø et al., 2011; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002) and decrease their self-confidence (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001).

Behaviour and actions related to workplace bullying	Core conclusions
Direct bullying behaviour: abusive behaviour, incessant disapproval, demeaning comments, being confrontational, and degrading communication	Displayed in the form of physical, interpersonal or psychological abuse or a combination thereof (Nami & Nami, 2011) Direct methods of workplace bullying can involve incessant disapproval of the target's tasks, attempts or work outcomes, or derogative remarks (Glasø et al., 2011).
Verbal and non-verbal hostile behaviour	Behaviour that entails personal assaults, interpersonal exclusion, antagonistic and hurtful exchanges during social interactions (Glasø et al., 2011; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) such as being made fun of, obstruction of work performance and being ignored by others (Glasø et al., 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012)
Work-related bullying: unreasonable deadlines, impractical workloads, extreme inspection of assignments, allocation of insignificant tasks, or no work responsibilities	Negative acts that hinder productivity and work performance (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997)
Person-related bullying: making offensive comments, excessive bantering, spreading gossip or rumours, incessant disapproval, playing practical jokes and psychological threats	Negative behaviour directed to cause the individual psychological harm or distress is referred to as person-related bullying (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

Behaviour and actions related to workplace bullying	Core conclusions
Physical intimidation: threats of violence, physical abuse	Invasion of the target's personal space (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen et al., 2009)

Negative acts relate to workplace bullying and there seems to be various terminology for negative acts in the workplace, for example harassment and mobbing (Branch et al., 2013; Einarsen et al., 2011). However, the term workplace bullying seems to be the most frequently used (Branch et al*., 2013).

In summary, researchers have various perspectives on the concept of workplace bullying, although there seems to be similar core elements. Bullying behaviour seems to be associated with destructive and unpleasant actions that occur often, over a prolonged period of time, and are perceived by targets as undeserving and undesirable. Workplace bullying consists of verbal and non-verbal behaviour that encompasses hostility, aggression and intimidation. Bullying offenders appear to act insensitive and inappropriately in the workplace, are motivated to upset victims, and cause targets psychological and/or physical harm. Finally, it seems that workplace bullying is detrimental to employees' productivity as well as their mental and physical health.

For the purpose of this research study, the concept of workplace bullying will be measured to examine employees' perceptions of bullying. Three key categories are associated with the term, namely work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation.

Next, various types of bullying behaviour in the workplace are discussed.

4.1.1.1   Types of bullying

Workplace bullying is associated with negative behaviour. The range of negative behaviour in the workplace, as illustrated below in figure 4.1, involves inappropriate behaviour, incivility, disrespect, and mild to moderate and more severe bullying actions (Nami & Nami, 2011). The least invasive type of bullying behaviour are employees who act inappropriately, which may indicate a lack of insight on how to behave at work, whereas individuals who act uncivil seem to make a choice to disregard social norms. Uncivil employees may appear rude and their actions are not necessarily focused on a specific person (Nami & Nami, 2011).

On the other hand, when a person acts in a disrespectful manner the behaviour is more hostile and is normally directed at a certain individual. This can cause psychological discomfort and health problems that are associated with anxiety (Nami & Nami, 2011). Mild bullying seems to be on the severe side of disrespect, and may include covert and irregular negative behaviour, while moderate to severe bullying acts may include increased frequency of behaviour and may become more focussed on the target. Bullying methods can intensify and may become abusive (Nami & Nami, 2011).

Targets who struggle to find a way out of the bullying situation can slide into despair, followed by hopelessness and depression. This scenario may even result in suicide (also referred to as "violence on the inside") or the target may consider to react with violent behaviour (Nami & Nami, 2011), as indicated in figure 4.1.
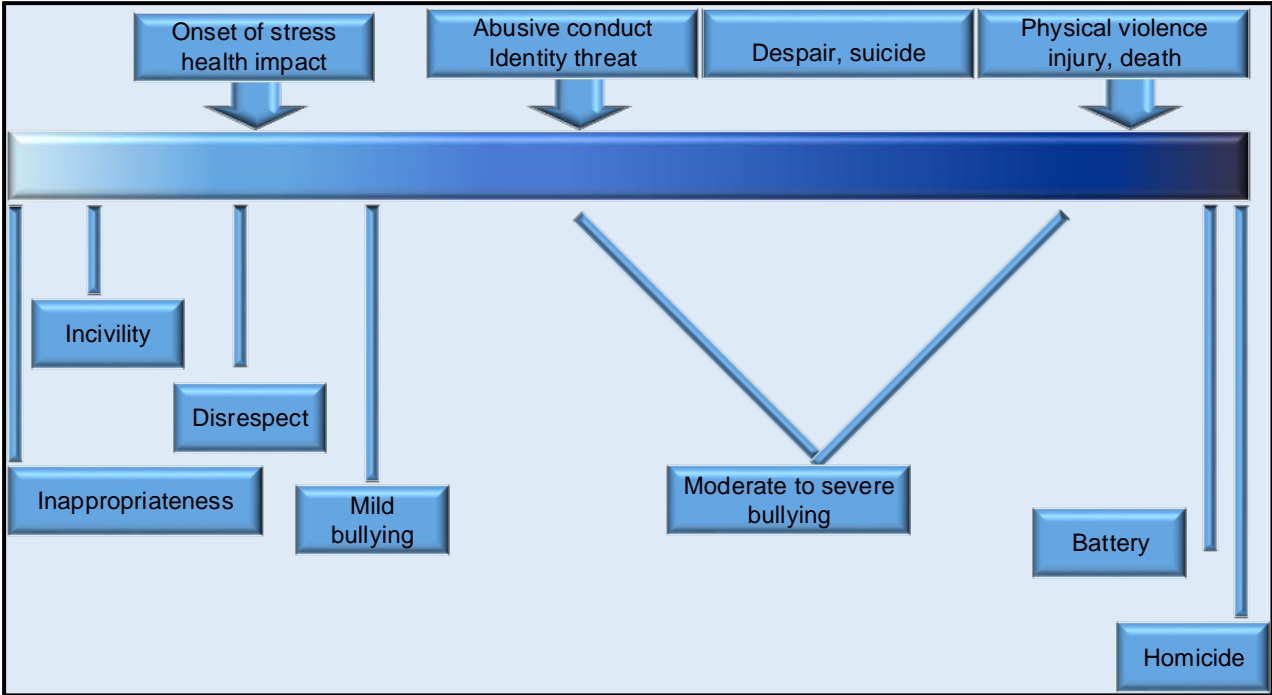
Figure 4.1: The continuum of negative interpersonal behaviour (Nami & Nami, 2011, p. 5)

Bullying behaviour in the work context can be classified into four major categories, namely personal derogation, intimidation, work-related bullying, and social exclusion (Tehrani, 2012). Personal derogation represents strategies that a perpetrator may use to damage individual integrity and demoralise how other employees view the target through tactics of individual criticism, destructive communication and humiliation. Intimidation cause targets to feel incapable of defending themselves or to feel they lack the ability to take action by utilising constructive strategies to cope with the perpetrator. On the other hand, work-related bullying

refers to an individual who is not receiving the necessary acknowledgement or praise, where significant work knowledge is kept hidden, responsibilities are eliminated or excessive work tasks are allocated to the victim. Lastly, social exclusion signifies bullying methods such as being isolated, blamed and side-lined by other employees (Tehrani, 2012).

To verify that bullying has taken place, one looks at the type of behaviour and not necessarily the intention of the perpetrator (Tehrani, 2012). According to Tehrani (2012), actions can be classified as bullying when the specific behaviour is viewed by society (a) as unacceptable and (b) the target perceives the actions as unwanted and unfavourable.

The next section looks at concepts of workplace aggression, workplace violence and harassment in order to differentiate between the various hostile and aggressive types of behaviour that occur in the workplace.

4.1.1.2   *Workplace aggression*

Workplace aggression relates to workplace bullying, since both concepts entail aggression and hostility in order to cause someone harm in the workplace. Aggression in the workplace can be seen as a reciprocal process of hostility by someone who is currently working or who has left the organisation, and has the intention to cause harm to a specific individual (Martinko & Zellars, 1998).

Similarly, research indicates a higher likelihood for the victim to get involved in reciprocal negative behaviour when a high-power and low-task interdependence relationship exists between the offender and the victim. The victim then displays negative behaviour towards the perpetrator in reaction to the aggressive behaviour received (Hershcovis, Reich, Parker, & Bozeman, 2012). Therefore, it seems that the nature of the bully-victim relationship can influence the victim's reaction towards the acts of bullying. More specifically, targets who are not highly dependent on the bully to complete their work assignments may be more likely to retaliate and display negative behaviour towards the bully (Hershcovis et al., 2012).

Hershcovis et al. (2012) view workplace aggression as a form of psychological abuse that consists of hurtful actions against employees in a specific organisation. However, targets will attempt to avoid the undesirable behaviour instigated by the offender (Hershcovis et al., 2012). Aggression can be grouped into two definite categories, namely physical violence and psychological aggression. Physical violence entails actions that are categorised by physical actions and involves instant, direct and primary outcomes of physical injury such as being

beaten, struck or attacked. On the contrary, psychological aggression entails actions that are categorised by verbal acts, which affect a person immediately such as being offended, intimidated, screamed at and terrorised (Schat & Frone, 2011).

Workplace bullying and aggressive actions have various similarities, since both concepts are explained by frequency, an imbalance of power, a struggle to defend oneself against direct (verbal abuse) or indirect negative actions (exclusion) (Bjørkelo, 2013). However, the concept of workplace bullying entails various negative acts (Nami & Nami, 2011), while workplace aggression seems to be a form of negative behaviour (Hershcovis et al., 2012).

4.1.1.3   Workplace violence

Workplace violence refers to acts of physical assault between employees working at the same employer. The concept of workplace violence relates to workplace bullying, since both concepts entail physical abuse or violence in the workplace (Estrada, Nilsson, Kristina, & Wikman, 2010).

Workplace violence can be divided into four types of violence, namely intruder violence, client-related violence, relational violence and structural violence. Intruder violence entails acts of criminal violence against employees; for example, a burglary at a bank. Violence associated with clients involves violent actions by customers to employees in the form of physical assault, whereas relational violence signifies violence between employees working at the same organisation. Lastly, structural violence can entail the type of organisational structures that expose employees to violent incidents at work (Estrada et al., 2010).

Perpetrators of workplace bullying are normally not criminal offenders. The violence involves mere physical and psychological intimidation (Schat & Frone, 2011). On the other hand, workplace violence involves acts of criminal violence and is seen as a criminal offence with consequences such as jail time (Estrada et al., 2011). Thus, workplace violence differs from workplace bullying.

4.1.1.4   Workplace harassment

Workplace harassment refers to badgering behaviour directed towards a specific individual and entails provocative comments, social exclusion, teasing and annoying actions that can escalate into becoming obsessive behaviour (Van de Vliert, Einarsen, & Nielsen, 2013). The concept of workplace harassment relates to workplace bullying, since both concepts entail

negative behaviour in the workplace that causes psychological distress, and entail harassment, offensive remarks and the intention to isolate the victim. Disagreements in teams can change into harassment if a team member constantly encounters negative behaviour with few options to defend him- or herself (Van de Vliert et al., 2013).

A conflict situation entails two parties where individual team members or sub-groups experience obstacles and frustration caused by either one or both parties. The offender then torments, badgers, offends and isolates the targeted party from the group where there is little space to defend and protect him- or herself. In addition, the conflict process can deteriorate even more when the perpetrator increases the negative actions and relentlessly confronts the target to a point of obsessive behaviour (Van de Vliert et al., 2013).

However, workplace harassment seems to differ somewhat from workplace bullying. The focus of workplace harassment seems to be more about annoying and pestering a specific individual and has the potential to escalate to the point of stalking someone (Van de Vliert et al., 2013). Conversely, workplace bullying entails the obstruction of work activities (work harassment) as well as harming the target's character and reputation (individual harassment) (Glasø et al., 2011; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen et al., 2009).

4.1.1.5   *Witnesses of workplace bullying*

Witnesses of workplace bullying refer to colleagues and management in the organisation who notice the acts of bullying against the victim (Van Heugten, 2012). The objective experience of bullying involves third parties and observers of workplace bullying, and can validate or confirm the occurrence of bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009). Employees who observe bullying are also psychologically affected by the negative actions. Research findings indicate that witnesses experience more general stress and lower psychological wellbeing as opposed to non-bullied employees (Vartia, 2001). Similarly, Van Heugten (2012) argues that workplace bullying influences the physical and mental wellbeing of witnesses and victims of bullying, as well as individuals who are accused of being the perpetrators.

Research findings indicate that some employees experience increased resilience after the bullying process has ended. Employees' resilience improves when they feel a greater sense of control over their circumstances, and when they perceive that management and observers of the bullying incidents support them. It seems that resilience is not constant but can be developed through life experiences (Van Heugten, 2012).

Perpetrators usually aim to exclude and isolate victims, and this behaviour has an immense impact on victims' psychological wellbeing and can further intensify when witnesses avoid or withdraw from the bullying situation. Subsequently, targets may experience less confidence and lose trust in their colleagues, which can cause increased feelings of isolation and withdrawal behaviour (Van Heugten, 2012). The subjective experience of bullying involves the victim's emotional experience of the acts of bullying (Brodsky, 1976; Einarsen et al., 2009).

Victims and witnesses subjected to bullying behaviour tend to become unsure and perplexed when the negative actions are indirect and subtle. Subtle bullying behaviour involves actions such as extreme supervision, concealing significant knowledge, interpersonal exclusion, demanding deadlines, spreading rumours, teasing, offensive comments, frequent disapproval and taking recognition that belongs to the target (Fox & Stallworth, 2005; Samnani, 2013).

Since the negative behaviour can be analysed in numerous ways, one may ascribe the behaviour to environmental factors and as a result, the targets and witnesses may be less likely to respond (Samnani, 2013). Bystanders of bullying may be unsure of what to do or fear that their actions will aggravate the situation and will end up being silent observers (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2011; Van Heugten, 2011). Conversely, witnesses may support the victim and stand up against the offender. Several sources of support will provide a much stronger perception of retaliation as opposed to when there is a lack of defenders (Samnani, 2013).

Research also indicates that subtle negative actions can cause witnesses to become sceptic and uncertain regarding the bullying behaviour and consequently may lead to less support, especially when the offender is in a managerial position (Samnani, 2013). Witnesses may even side with the perpetrator, since they may be fearful of becoming the next victim or may choose to remain impartial (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2011; Samnani, 2013).

4.1.1.6   *Workplace bullying and wellbeing*

Targets of bullying can experience negative health and psychological consequences such as anxiety and depression due to the negative actions focused on them (Hogh et al., 2011). Research findings indicate that workplace bullying may be the most significant predictor of depression and anxiety when compared to other occupational stressors (Hauge et al., 2010). Workplace bullying can also influence targets to experience physical symptoms such as

feeling nauseous, developing headaches, skin conditions and backache, sweating, loss of appetite or lower immune system deficiency (Oade, 2009).

The psychological impact of bullying can include the following symptoms: victims feel isolated, have lower confidence and self-esteem, they feel angry, and experience mood swings, lower motivation or energy levels (Oade, 2009). As indicated in figure 4.2, it seems that when employees are persistently exposed to bullying behaviour, it becomes a great source of stress, which can put a considerable amount of strain on employees' physical and psychological wellbeing.

Workplace bullying is an immense source of stress in the workplace.

Workplace bullying

Physical consequences:
- Nausea
- Headaches
- Skin conditions
- Backache
- Sweating
- Loss of appetite
- Lower immunity

Psychological strain:
- Anxiety
- Depression
- Feeling isolated
- Decreased confidence
- Lower self-esteem
- Anger
- Mood swings
- Decreased drive
- Less energy
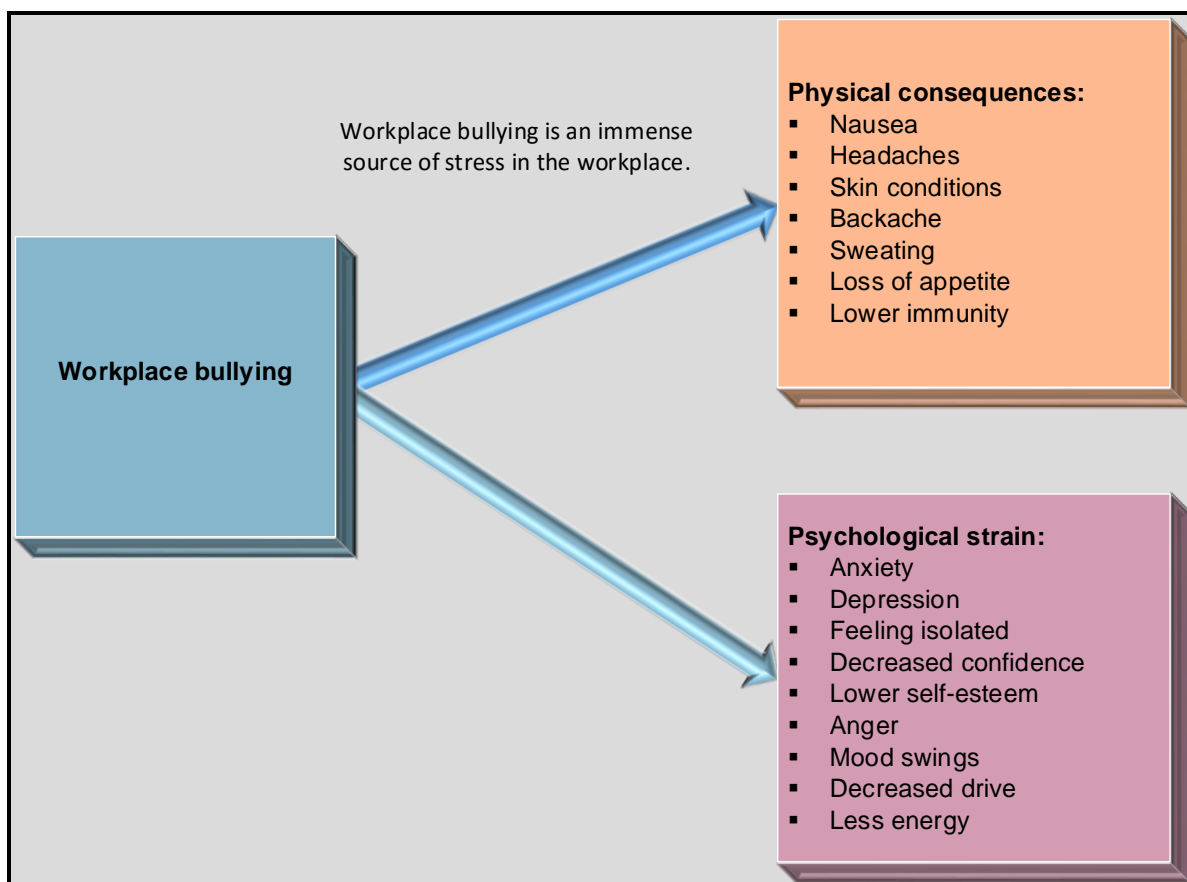
Figure 4.2: Summary of the effect of workplace bullying on victims' mental and physical health

An individual's psychological functioning seems to influence the propensity of becoming a target of bullying behaviour. It seems that psychological vulnerabilities such as depression may send a message to offenders that the specific individual is an easy target (Balducci et al., 2012). Similarly, research indicates a reciprocal association between psychological

symptoms such as nervousness and fatigue, and between experiences of bullying behaviour. Psychological difficulties and workplace bullying appear to influence each other negatively (Nielsen et al., 2012; Reknes et al., 2014). This theoretical viewpoint is also referred to as a strain-stressor and stressor-strain relationship (Nielsen et al., 2012; Reknes et al., 2014). More specifically, employees with lower psychological wellbeing may be more inclined to be exposed to bullying behaviour since their mental distress may cause them to act differently than expected in the workplace (strain-stressor relationship) and offenders may experience this type of behaviour as annoying (Finne, Knardahl, & Lau, 2011; Nielsen et al., 2012; Reknes et al., 2014). Thus, it seems that a mentally distressed individual's behaviour may be perceived by the perpetrator as irritating which can act as a trigger and consequently cause the individual to become the perpetrator's new target.

On the other hand, individuals with higher levels of psychological wellbeing may have better social relationships and be more successful at work as opposed to individuals with mental distress (De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2004; Reknes et al., 2014). Another explanation for the strain-stressor relationship could be that resources to cope with stress are depleted in mentally ill individuals, and therefore they may perceive their work environment as antagonistic and threatening. This may result in higher self-reports of bullying behaviour (Reknes et al., 2014). Similarly, De Lange et al. (2005) coined the term "gloomy perception mechanism" and they suggest that unhealthy people perceive work more negatively than other employees, since they have a pessimistic (gloomier) viewpoint of life. Mentally distressed individuals may view their job tasks and environment negatively, since they tend to have a negative perception of their existence (De Lange et al., 2005; Reknes et al., 2014). Different forms of bullying behaviour can lead to diverse stress responses, especially direct harassment and threatening behaviour seem to be more damaging to targets (Hogh et al., 2012).

Research indicates that employees who detach themselves from work during their spare time seem to cope better with work stressors, especially when they experience role conflict or workplace bullying (Moreno-Jiménez, Rodríguez-Muñoz, Pastor, Sanz-Vergel, & Garrosa, 2009). Psychological detachment in the work context is seen as a feeling of disconnection from one's job while one is not actively working (Etzion, Eden, & Lapidot, 1998); for example, being on holiday or during one's spare time after work. Psychological detachment appears to be an effective coping mechanism to handle work stressors when one's psychological resources are depleted. Consequently, individuals experience fewer feelings of burnout and improved psychological wellbeing in the end (Moreno-Jiménez et al. 2009).

Similar work stressors may influence employees in different ways; therefore, they display diverse reactions. Individuals who make use of psychological detachment usually attempt to control the influence of stressors by diverting the focus away from the stressors. On a physiological level, the detachment process may lower individuals' arousal levels and assist them to return to a more relaxed state (Moreno-Jiménez et al., 2009; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Also, there seems to be a relationship between mental strain and workplace bullying which is moderated by psychological detachment (Moreno-Jiménez et al. 2009). More specifically, it seems that when employees utilise psychological detachment as a coping strategy, it assists them in experiencing less psychological fatigue and coping better with work stressors. This may reduce the physical and emotional effects of stress caused by workplace bullying (Leymann, 1990).

Individuals' personal resources can become depleted when they continuously are exposed to bullying behaviour. This exposure may cause them to have lower coping capabilities, and may influence their ability to cope with everyday work assignments and deadlines negatively (Leymann, 1990). The exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (EVLN) model of Withey and Cooper (1989) suggests that there are four primary coping strategies, which victims may utilise, namely voice, loyalty, neglect and exit. Research indicates that the majority of targets will initially utilise the voice strategy (Zapf & Gross, 2001), which signifies targets' attempts to improve their situation through the use of dynamic and positive problem-solving techniques (Liefooghe & Roongrerngsuke, 2012). The loyalty coping strategy indicates that targets inertly support the company and anticipate that the bullying problem will be resolved. Neglect, another coping strategy, indicates that targets will have lower levels of commitment to the organisation as a way to cope with the bullying situation. Although, most targeted employees end with choosing the exit coping strategy by leaving their employers (Liefooghe & Roongrerngsuke, 2012).

4.1.1.7   *Workplace bullying and turnover intention*

Employees who are exposed to bullying behaviour, and have tried to find causes and solutions for the destructive behaviour in combination with support from family, external management or colleagues, may choose to leave the organisation. In addition, colleagues tend to provide their support once targets officially display their intention to leave. Since the likelihood of colleagues support at this stage is less likely to create conflict or cause trouble for themselves (Van Heugton, 2012). However, Hauge et al. (2010) argue that individuals

who are subjected to workplace bullying may also decide to stay at their organisation even though they are dissatisfied with the work circumstances.

4.1.1.8   Roles in the bullying relationship

The drama triangle model of Karpman (1968) suggests that there are three roles involved in the bullying relationship, namely the perpetrator, target and rescuer (Tehrani, 2012). The perpetrator represents the bully, the target represents the person being exposed to the bullying behaviour and the rescuer represents the person who attempts to assist or protect the target against the bullying behaviour (Tehrani, 2012).

Tehrani (2012) extends the drama triangle model of Karpman (1968) and adds a fourth role, namely the avenger. The avenger is usually the individual who has been subjected to bullying behaviour previously and currently strives to cope with his or her own unresolved emotional difficulties by taking action to assist others (Tehrani, 2012). Furthermore, Tehrani (2012) argues that these four roles (perpetrator, target, rescuer & avenger) interact with one another, as illustrated in figure 4.3 below.
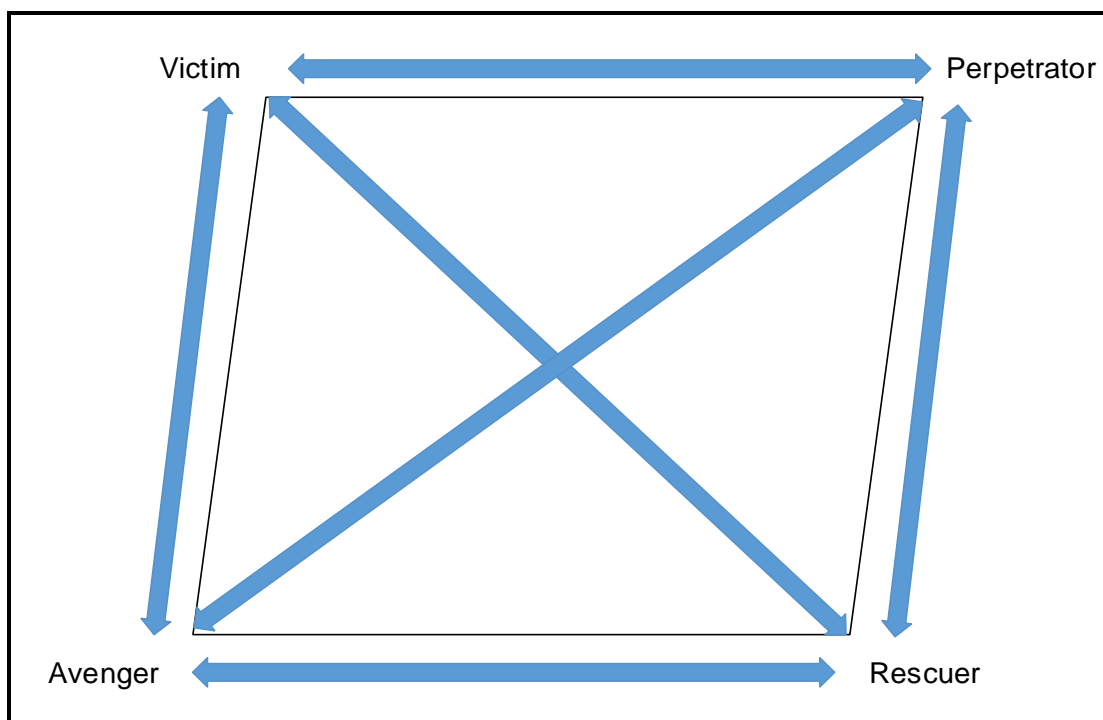
Figure 4.3: Roles within the bullying drama (Tehrani, 2012, p. 255)

Each role entails uncontrollable maladaptive precedents of behaviour, which are instigated by events associated with a person's past unresolved difficulties. Although, in exceptional circumstances, a person may fulfil the qualities of one particular role and never change to one of the other roles in the bullying drama (Tehrani, 2012). However, people tend to feel more content in one or two roles and will move between their preferred roles, depending on the situation. The bullying drama further entails that individuals are sporadically forced to fulfil roles in which they feel less comfortable. This may happen when the power balance within the bullying system changes (Tehrani, 2012). The bullying drama will persist for as long as all the parties continue to be oblivious to the real nature of the performance that is being acted out, and until they are able to identify their part in maintaining the interactions in the bullying process. The individuals involved need to have self-insight and the capability to move beyond the drama that is being played out (Oade, 2009).

Perpetrators of bullying may utilise some actions, which may disclose their intention to bully during the development of their relationship with targets. The intensity of the bullying behaviour can vary between subtle and blatant negative acts (Oade, 2009). Offenders may attempt to create an imbalance of power by moving power away from targets to themselves, limiting targets' options of conduct at work and initiating a bullying dynamic into the relationship (Oade, 2009).

The perpetrator may use a variety of methods to establish the bullying dynamic such as initiating offensive behaviour as an attempt to confuse and immobilise the target, making use of opportunities when the target appears off balance, using threats to cause fear and to assure submission of the target and using intimidation in front of others. These actions may silence observers, since they would like to avoid becoming the next target. At the same time targets feel that there is no one actively on their side (Oade, 2009).

According to Tehrani (2012), there are various forms of individual bullying such as predatory, dispute-related and escalating bullying. Predatory bullying occurs when the victim appears to display no form of action that may have instigated the bullying behaviour. Therefore, offenders may use targets to display their power to observers, or the target may be part of a team that is perceived as different (Tehrani, 2012). Predatory bullying tends to occur more often in organisational cultures where negative actions are tolerated and no consequences are in place for bullying behaviour (Tehrani, 2012). In addition, predatory bullying appears to be the most frequent type of workplace bullying behaviour (Einarsen, 2000).

On the other hand, dispute-related bullying happens when a minor disagreement or

perceived conflict gets out of hand and creates a negative interpersonal work climate where each party views the other individual as the cause of the conflict. Confrontation on both sides intensifies and the main focus is to destroy the other party, which causes both parties to have feelings of fear, scepticism, uncertainty and aggression (Tehrani, 2012).

Finally, escalating bullying can be described by the manner in which individuals ascribe motives for their own and other people's behaviour. More specifically, individuals tend to ascribe positive qualities of their personality to their own behaviour and negative characteristics to external environmental factors such as health or demands at work. During incidents of escalating conflict both parties are actively involved and will react according to their own ascribed qualities hidden beneath their behavioural intentions. When negative incidents take place, each participant only notices the negative act of the other and does not notice his or her own negative behaviour, which has contributed to the escalation of the conflict (Tehrani, 2012).

The research findings of Abii, Ogula, and Rose (2013) indicate positive workplace relationships influence employees' intentions to leave the organisation. Thus, it appears that constructive work relationships may cause lower intention to leave the organisation. Interpersonal conflict in the workplace seems to be associated with increased turnover intentions (Johnson, Beehr, & O'Brien, 2015). In organisations it is vital to address conflict and bullying behaviour, although the interactions between individuals and teams can involve complex emotional dynamics (Tehrani, 2012).

4.1.1.9   Antecedents of bullying

Unfavourable work environments can act as significant antecedents of workplace bullying (Balducci, Cecchin & Fraccaroli, 2012; Einarsen, Raknes, & Matthiesen, 1994; Leymann, 1996). Bullying behaviour appears to influence targeted individuals negatively and cause psychological strain. Negative work circumstances may also instigate workplace bullying (Balducci et al., 2012). In addition, research indicates that role conflict and role ambiguity can act as predictors of bullying behaviour (Balducci et al., 2012; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2011; Notelaers, De Witte, & Einarsen, 2010). More specifically, research suggests when employees have vague job descriptions, feel uncertain of work expectations and have a lack of resources for work task performance it can be meaningful indicators of being targets of workplace bullying (Balducci et al., 2012).

In addition, offenders may have personal aims for initiating acts of bullying, which may

include any of the following: (a) being afraid of failure and consequently to be embarrassed publicly; therefore, they need a victim to feel better about themselves; (b) having lower levels of performance and choosing not to find ways for self-improvement but rather redirecting the poor performance onto an innocent colleague; (c) feeling threatened that a new or younger employee will perform better and harm their own reputation at work; (d) bullying another employee as an effort to remove that person from the workplace due to irrational feelings of envy and suspicion; (e) offenders may covertly disapprove of employees who have a less aggressive personal style, and therefore, justify their negative behaviour to attack and humiliate the target (Oade, 2009).

Nevertheless, all the abovementioned motives do not justify using bullying behaviour. Normally perpetrators fail to achieve emotional maturity, they lack social skills and self-awareness, which are needed to complete work tasks effectively and to have fulfilling work relationships. Instead, offenders apply their time and effort to damaging targets as opposed to taking responsibility for their own actions and improving the necessary skills and proficiencies needed for work performance (Oade, 2009).

4.1.1.10   Intentions of bullying behaviour

Intentions of bullying behaviour may provide industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals with an understanding of the effects of negative behaviour on victims and some insight during the selection of effective organisational solutions (Tehrani, 2012). Tehrani (2012) identifies three types of intent, namely wilful, instrumental and unintentional intent. Wilful intent can be described as actions that are focused on a specific individual with the intention of causing damage on an occupational, physical or mental level. Instrumental intent can be seen as actions that are focused on achieving a different objective, but during the process unplanned negative behaviour consequently affects a colleague. Occasionally with instrumental intent, individuals do aim to cause targets harm but they may try to disguise their intentions by accusing organisational policies, procedures or other elements instead of taking responsibility for their own actions. On the other hand, unintentional bullying may occur when perpetrators lack insight and awareness of the negative affect that their behaviour have on others (Tehrani, 2012)

In summary, various workplace bullying definitions seem to exist in the literature. Herewith a summary of the various conceptualisations of workplace bullying, as indicated in table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2

Summary of the Workplace Bullying Definitions

Summary of workplace bullying definitions
Workplace bullying is seen as negative behaviour, which refers to acts and incidents in the workplace that are considered unwanted by the recipient and can potentially cause discomfort (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).
Workplace bullying is when one is exposed to frequent and relentless acts of bullying from one or various offenders, which can occur frequently (once a week) or over longer periods (for at least six months) (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996).
Workplace bullying is when individuals are unable to protect themselves against these activities (Einarsen et al., 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996).
Workplace bullying is seen as behaviour that harasses, offends, socially excludes or negatively affects a person's work. Bullying is also an intensifying process where the victim ends up in an inferior position and becomes the object of organised negative social actions (Einarsen et al., 2003).
Bullying is viewed as "psychological terror" or "mobbing", which entails immoral and intimidating interactions that are focused mainly towards one person in a methodical manner by one or a few individuals, and consequently the target is pushed into a vulnerable or defenceless position (Leymann, 1996).
Bullying is seen as a severe interpersonal stressor that entails aggressive actions, which are methodically and tenaciously focused on a specific employee (Zapf, 1999).
Djurkovic et al. (2008) posits that behaviour only qualifies as bullying when the bullied individual (victim) experiences the specific actions as cruel, unfair, humiliating, undermining and threatening; and also find it difficult to defend him- or herself or when it involves the violation of a person's human rights.
Workplace bullying is when the negative behaviour is recurrent; when one or more individuals harm another employee through actions of exclusion (omission) and direct bullying behaviour (commission) that is displayed in the form of physical, interpersonal or psychological abuse, or a combination thereof. The bullying behaviour may also manifest in physical or unspoken threats, coercion, intimidation, embarrassment, sabotage or the disruption of productivity in the workplace (Nami & Nami, 2011).
Bullying can be viewed as an imbalance of power between the target and the offender (Branch et al., 2013).

Summary of workplace bullying definitions
Workplace bullying is seen as negative behaviour, which refers to actions received from another person. Bullying can be associated with problematic happenings and also entail the perception of considerable, unsuitable, unjust or destructive behaviour (Saunders et al., 2007).
Workplace bullying can be seen as persistent, verbalised and nonverbal hostility which may entail individual assaults, interpersonal exclusion, and a variety of antagonistic and hurtful exchanges and interactions (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2006).
Bullying at work normally entails antagonistic communication, being made fun of, obstacles to hinder one's work performance, or being ignored during interactions (Glasø et al., 2011; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

These different viewpoints have common themes and indicate that workplace bullying relates to negative actions such as deconstructive communication techniques, continuous hurtful behaviour, mental and physical mistreatment, individual exploitation and psychological terror. All these types of behaviour seem unsuitable for the workplace and may affect employees and their work activities negatively. The bullying behaviour appears to be focused and directed at a specific individual or group of individuals in an attempt to terrorise them mentally and cause psychological distress.

In respect of this research study, workplace bullying is viewed as incidents in the workplace where a person becomes the target of persistent negative actions from one or several individuals, and find it difficult to defend him- or herself against these frequent actions, which occur over an extended period of time. An isolated once-off conflict incident is not regarded as workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Thus, employees who become targets of continuous hostile behaviour and struggle to defend themselves against the perpetrator, are being exposed to workplace bullying. The relevant definition of workplace bullying seems comprehensive and includes a person's experiences of negative behaviour in the workplace within a social work context. This study attempts to contribute to the research of workplace bullying and measures employees' core self-assessments of their experiences of workplace bullying.

Based on the conceptualisation of workplace bullying, it is hypothesised that individuals who are exposed to acts of bullying in the workplace experience decreased psychological wellbeing and consequently display increased turnover intentions. Also, it is hypothesised that employees who end up being targets of bullying behaviour and possess the relevant personal resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and

psychosocial flourishing) can cope more effectively with bullying behaviour, and may therefore, display decreased turnover intentions with little or no effect on their psychological wellbeing levels. Individuals who have high levels of psychological wellbeing may possess the relevant internal resources, which shield them against the adverse effects of workplace bullying and may lower their intentions to leave the organisation.

Finally, the focus of this study is on how individuals' perceptions of workplace bullying relate to their intention to exit the organisation, and how their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes influence this relationship.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of workplace bullying will be discussed.

4.1.2　Theoretical models of workplace bullying

The emotional abuse model (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003) seems relevant to workplace bullying, since it provides a framework of the cycle within which bullying behaviour occurs, and may also provide a better understanding of the dynamics of bullying behaviour within the workplace. The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) may offer a better understanding of the events and maladaptive coping strategies of victims during incidents of workplace bullying (Glasø et al., 2011). Finally, the conceptual model of workplace bullying (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003) outlines and distinguishes between bullying behaviour, causes and the interaction between the offender, target and employing organisation, and the model may also offer insight into bullying behaviour within the workplace.

In this section, the cognitive activation theory of stress (Ursin & Eriksen, 2004), the employee emotional abuse model (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003), the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the conceptual model of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003) will be explained in more detail.

4.1.2.1　*Cognitive activation theory of stress*

Workplace bullying is viewed as a significant source of work stress (Reknes et al., 2014) and therefore, the cognitive activation theory of stress (Ursin & Erikson, 2004) may provide a framework to understand individual stress reactions better when one is exposed to workplace bullying. The cognitive activation theory of stress (CATS) (Ursin & Erikson, 2004), as illustrated in figure 4.4 below, highlights a person's assessment of a stressful event where

the emphasis is on stimuli and outcome expectancies, which act as initiators of the physiological stress reaction (Ursin & Erikson, 2004).

CATS (Ursin & Erikson, 2004) offers a reasonable description of how negative actions (bullying behaviour) can be linked to health outcomes. Therefore, this theory seems relevant to the construct of workplace bullying, since it is normally associated with the loss of control and negative health consequences (Hogh et al., 2012). More specifically, a stressor is seen as a possible threat that may result in persistent cognitive stimulation such as feeling anxious or upset for becoming a victim of workplace bullying. The victim's reaction can result in continuous physiological stimulation and consequently cause ill health (Ursin & Erikson, 2004).

Similarly, the research findings of Reknes et al. (2014) support the CATS theory and indicate that individuals who are constantly exposed to work stressors may experience health problems through the process of continuous activation. Reknes et al. (2014) also argue that the exposure of workplace bullying can initiate increased feelings of anxiety and fatigue due to the sustained mental and physiological stimulation associated with fear and efforts to cope with the circumstances.

According to the CATS theory, as illustrated in figure 4.4 below, there are five important facets of stress, namely: (1) the stressors and stimuli (the load) that are perceived and evaluated as stress by one's (2) brain; (3) one's reaction (stress response) to the stressors that is sent back to the (4) brain. The physical stress reaction may differ, depending on the nature of the activation that has taken place, which will result in either training or straining outcomes. Momentary stimulation (phasic arousal) occurs when the person has a positive expectancy, as opposed to continuous stimulation (sustained arousal) that can result in physical tension (strain) (Ursin & Erikson, 2004).

Finally, the brain may change the stimulus or (5) alter how the stimulus is viewed through individual behaviour or anticipations (Ursin & Erikson, 2004). The training component in the CATS model is seen as learning or the development of positive expectancies. The stress reaction component is the overall alarm that provides general and unclear instigation for behavioural and psychological stimulation in various degrees of arousal (Ursin & Erikson, 2010), as indicated in figure 4.4.
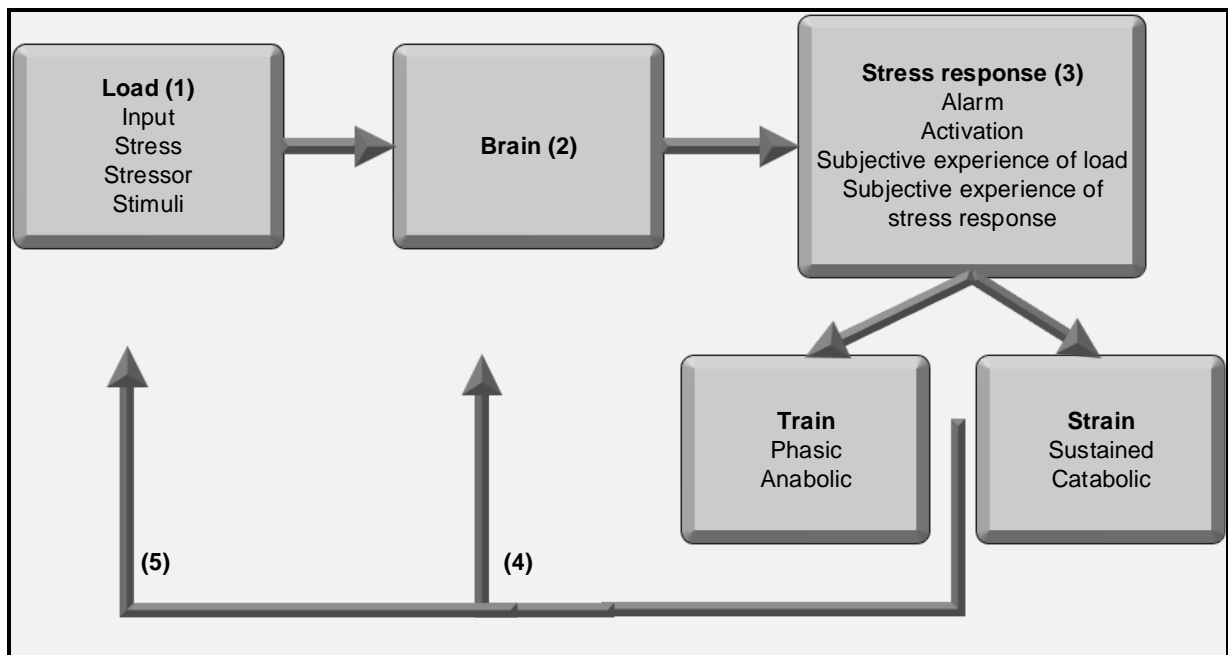
Figure 4.4: The cognitive theory of stress (Ursin & Erikson, 2004, p. 570)

Coping, according to the CATS theory, is seen as constructive reactions based on positive outcome anticipations (Ursin & Erikson, 2010). Individuals who cope expect that they are capable of managing events, and thus, they anticipate positive results due to their own efforts. However, when people discover that there is no association between their actions and the related outcomes, the learned expectancy is viewed as helplessness. On the other hand, individuals who discover most of their efforts result in negative outcomes may acquire the expectancy of hopelessness. According to Ursin and Erikson (2010), hopelessness is more clearly seen as the counterpart of coping, since the outcome expectancy and reactions of hopelessness are negative. In this instance, individuals do have control over the situation but the responses are all negative. This may cause feelings of guilt and consequently, may predict depression more than helplessness (Ursin & Erikson, 2010).

The CATS theory (Ursin & Erikson, 2004) postulates that individuals' perceptions and assessments of their challenges and expectancies of event outcomes may influence whether the challenges will create a stress reaction which may consequently affect their health (Tehrani, 2012). Individuals who are able to cope with the stressors have a positive outcome expectancy and also feel in control of the situation. However, when people do not feel in control and expect a negative outcome, it may cause targets to have feelings of hopelessness (Reme, Erikson, & Ursin, 2008; Tehrani, 2012; Ursin & Erikson, 2004, 2010). Thus, the CATS theory (Ursin & Erikson, 2004) may offer some insight with regard to how acts of bullying may act as stressors and how they affect individuals' physical health. It

seems that employees who feel out of control during difficult situations, such as bullying incidents, and expect a negative outcome rather than a positive one, may experience bullying behaviour as more intense, resulting in strain that can cause health problems.

In conclusion, the CATS theory can provide insight into how individuals experience stressful circumstances such as workplace bullying. However, the focus of the CATS theory seems to be on the physical effects of stress rather than the psychological impact. In addition, Ursin and Erikson (2010) argue that the focus of the CATS theory is on one's expectancy to cope with stress as opposed to the objective probability of being in control of the challenging event.

4.1.2.2   Employee emotional abuse model

The employee emotional abuse model (EEA) (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003) indicates workplace bullying as a persistent, focused, negative type of communication that is directed towards employees who have less power than the high-power individuals in the organisation (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). The EEA model postulates that bullying episodes have a six-stage cycle, which builds on Leymann's (1996) four stage linear model of workplace mobbing. The EEA model (figure 4.5) offers insight into abusive behavioural dynamics, acknowledges the signs of abuse, regulates or ends abusive behaviour and envisages the development of uncontrolled abusive behaviour (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).
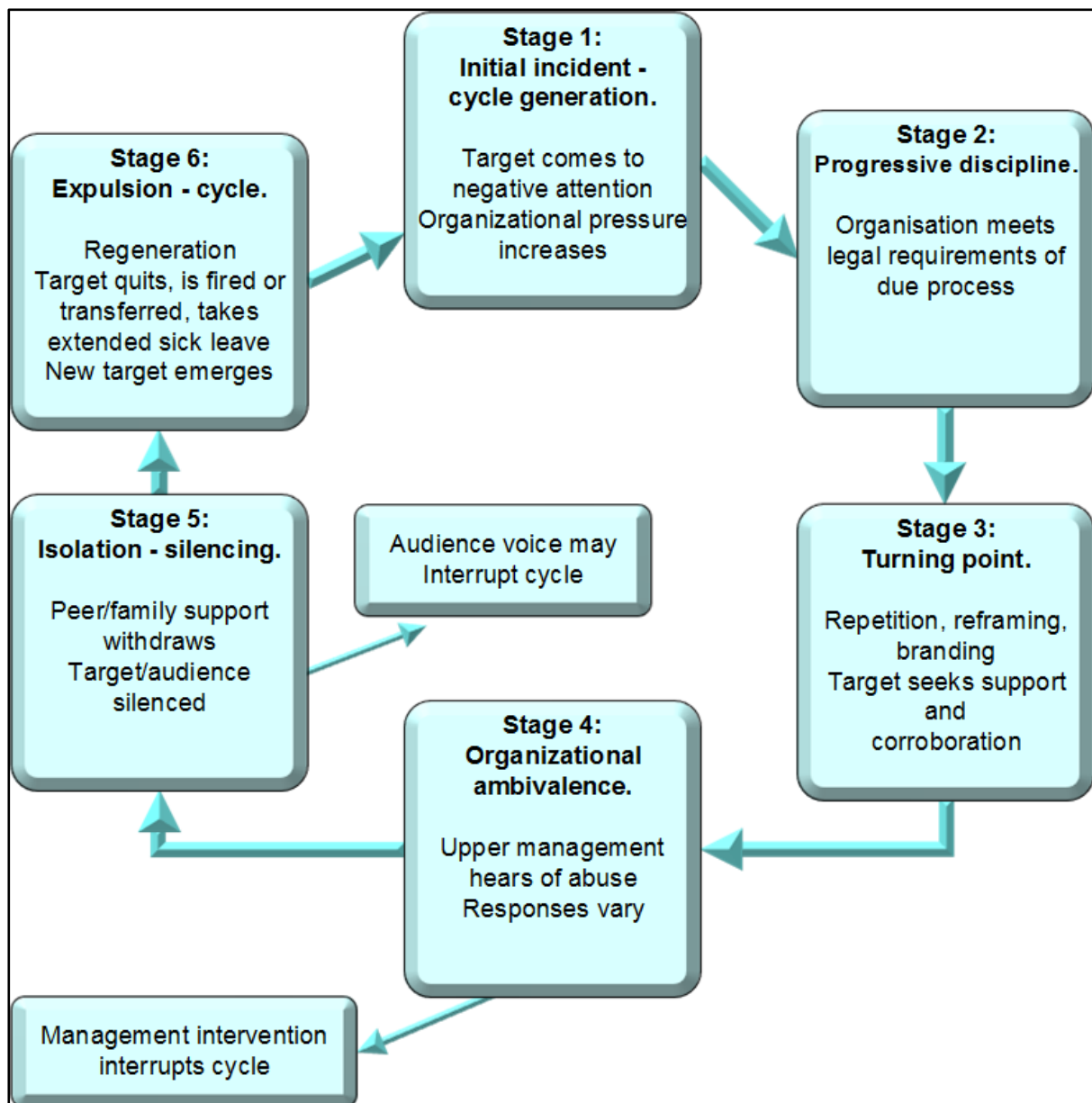
Figure 4.5: The communicative generation and regeneration of employee emotional abuse (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003, p. 479)

The first stage represents the initial incident, namely the situation that has instigated the cycle of bullying. For example: there is conflict between the manager and an employee, since the work task has not been completed within the required timeframe. The employee's behaviour is perceived as unacceptable by management (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). The situation develops into emotional bullying when the destructive communication pattern continues and the conflict or incident is not handled in a constructive manner. Consequently, feelings related to the abusive event remain and may further intensify (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003; Wyatt & Hare, 1997).

Normally the first stage is brief and the next phase develops once the victim recognises the negative actions of the offender (Leymann, 1990; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). During the next stage of progressive discipline, individuals who have less power are silenced and misrepresented. In this phase, supervisors and management tend to develop a strong written and verbal case against the victim to ensure that all the actions are justified and warranted. On the other hand, disciplinary action procedures that are not clearly explained to employees cannot lead to improved performance (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

Persistent disapproval and continuous distorted disciplinary processes only drive the abusive cycle to stage three, namely the turning point (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). During the turning point stage, the offender makes use of increased deconstructive, personal and aggressive communication methods. These involve four key interaction dynamics, namely repetition, reframing, branding and support-seeking. The perpetrator makes use of repetitive criticism for every slight oversight that is made by the target, and when the target tries to communicate the occurrence, the offender then reframes the target's experience and explains the occurrence in a total different way. Therefore, the reframing technique challenges the victim's perception of reality and strengthens the offender's behaviour as well as the dominant discourse of management. Branding is used in an attempt to accuse and blame the target. Consequently, victims may seek support from family, friends and colleagues. Victims may further decide to seek assistance from top management, especially when the abusive behaviour becomes intolerable, and consequently moves the abusive cycle into stage four (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

Organisational ambivalence (stage four) entails the involvement of top management above the offender in the hierarchy structure of the organisation. Top management normally joins the offender and disregards the target's perception of the abusive incidents. Conversely, employees feel valued and supported when management defends the victim, which may create a more constructive and optimistic organisational culture. However, not all targets report the abusive behaviour to top management and some targets will not progress into stage four (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

The bullying cycle develops into stage five when top management decides not to intervene, or when the attempted organisational interventions fail to hinder bullying behaviour. Stage five, termed "Isolation and silencing", involves actions of intimidation that may create feelings of fear within victims and witnesses, and cause them to keep quiet about the bullying behaviour (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

Consequently, targets may end up feeling isolated and perceive a loss of support. Bystanders may decide to support the offender, which may contribute to an organisational climate of distrust and enhance an unsafe work environment (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

The cycle moves to stage six when victims decide to leave the organisation, either voluntarily or involuntarily (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). The final stage in the cycle, termed "Expulsion and cycle regeneration", indicates the process where the target officially exits the organisation. Involuntary exits may include suspension or employment termination, whereas voluntary exits entail an extended period of sick leave or when the employee ends employment (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).

The working conditions become intolerable and strain the target in such a manner that the only alternative seems to leave the organisation. Accordingly, the offender will only choose another target and therefore, the abusive cycle will start all over again (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). Lutgen-Sandvik (2003) argues that, in order to terminate the abusive cycle, employers need to encourage communication of different work experiences despite the likelihood that those occurrences may not reflect the view of management.

The EEA model seems to relate to workplace bullying, since the model provides an awareness of the symptoms of workplace bullying and offers some insight into managing bullying behaviour within the work environment. However, this model omits to highlight external contributing factors of workplace bullying and lacks to provide possible causes of the occurrence of bullying behaviour.

4.1.2.3   Affective events theory

The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) posits that individuals' affective reactions are instigated by situations in the workplace, and that these accumulated emotions can have an effect on employees' attitudes over time, which may consequently influence their behaviour at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), as illustrated in figure 4.6 below, indicates that employee dispositions, events at work and work environmental features may influence a person's affective responses, and consequently have an effect on the person's employee attitude and behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).
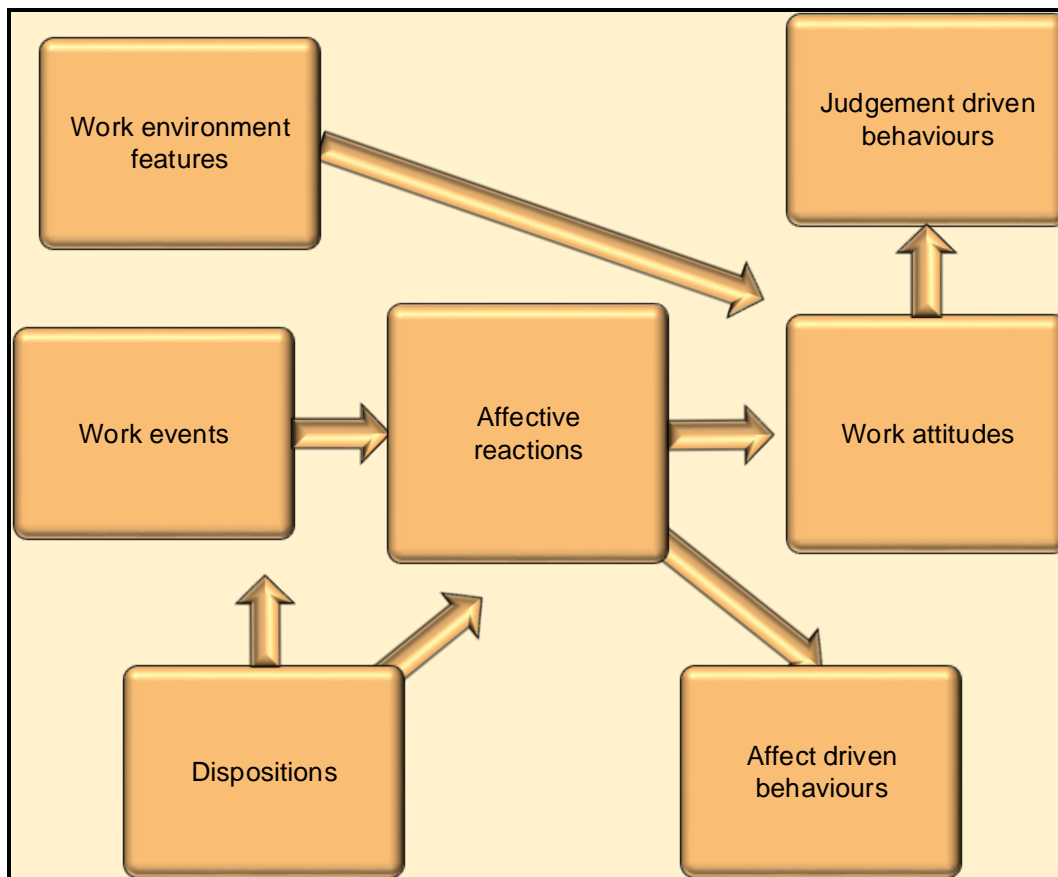
Figure 4.6: Affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996, p. 12)

More specifically, individuals' dispositions (mood) may influence the manner in which workplace happenings create emotional responses. The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) indicates that the work environment may have an indirect effect on individuals' emotional experiences, which can consequently influence their actions and attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective happenings can influence a person's level of job satisfaction directly. Work features represent elements in the work environment that directly influence a person's cognitive judgement and also relates to individual job satisfaction. In addition, work features entail work elements that indirectly influence numerous work events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Work environment factors such as job roles and designs can influence employees' attitudes directly via their thought processes as well as indirectly through either negative or positive emotions experienced during affective occurrences at work (Glasø et al., 2011). Employee actions are classified into two categories, namely affect-driven behaviour and judgement-driven behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affect-driven behaviour is seen as actions that result from emotional happenings, which are not mediated by general attitudes but rather

through coping or mood management processes, or direct influences of emotions on thought processes or judgement prejudices (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

On the other hand, judgement-driven behaviour is mediated by job satisfaction, which forms part of the cognitive evaluation process of a person's work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The type of work events that may be linked to employees' emotional responses is not stipulated by the affective events theory (Glasø et al., 2011). However, it seems that bullying behaviour may be viewed as affective occurrences at work (Branch et al., 2013; Ghosh, Dierkes, & Falletta, 2011; Glasø et al. 2011). Therefore, it seems that stressful incidents such as bullying at work may cause employees to display negative affective responses, which may result in affect-driven behaviour. Subsequently, employees' attitudes (low level of job satisfaction) may influence their judgement-driven behaviour, and as a result the targets of workplace bullying may consider leaving the organisation.

Research findings indicate that feelings perform a significant role during work relationships, which support the affective events theory (Glasø et al., 2011). Individuals who are subjected to negative work behaviour may experience negative feelings such as guilt, fear, frustration, shame and anger (Glasø et al., 2011; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). Glasø et al. (2011) also found that bullying behaviour may not only instigate negative feelings but also lower positive emotions. These feelings diminish job satisfaction and increase individuals' intentions to leave their organisations. In addition, both positive and negative affect appear to influence job satisfaction at work (Glasø et al., 2011).

In summary, the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) provides an overview of the influence that the work environment has on the occurrence of bullying, emotions and behaviour involved during incidents of bullying at work. Thus, the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) may provide more insight into the impact of bullying on victims' emotions and their voluntary turnover behaviour. However, the necessary interventions and consequences of bullying for organisations have not been highlighted and the external contributing factors of bullying behaviour are not included.

4.1.2.4   The conceptual model of workplace bullying

The model of workplace bullying (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003) differentiates between various acts of bullying, causes of workplace bullying, the perceptions of being bullied and victims' responses toward the bullying behaviour (Einarsen, 2005). Einarsen et al. (2003) argue that the tendency to bully entails personal or situational elements and that the

absence of preventative strategies within organisations may also contribute to bullying behaviour. The personality of a victim seems to influence how one perceives the offender's actions and also the manner in which a person may respond towards the bullying behaviour. In addition, the workplace bullying model (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003) posits that victims' responses toward bullying may change their coping styles or somewhat alter their personality characteristics, as reflected in figure 4.7. The victim may, for example, become withdrawn and less sociable rather than being sociable and actively involved in group activities. The target may also become more aggressive in an attempt to cope with the offender's behaviour. Workplace bullying may also change how management reacts toward the victim (Einarsen, 2005). For example, management may view the victim as a troublemaker or not capable of performing work tasks, especially when the negative actions are not perceived by others as bullying behaviour (Einarsen, 2005).

Socio-economic and cultural factors may influence the manner in which bullying is managed in organisations. Various nations have different traditions and may, for example, apply more forceful leadership styles and thus end up managing workplace conflict more aggressively than constructively (Einarsen, 2005). On the other hand, some countries may not have the necessary legislation to prohibit workplace bullying. Socio-economic factors such as a poor labour market with decreased job opportunities can cause victims not to escape the bullying circumstances through job changes. A poor economy may also influence the way in which the employer treats employees and the focus may shift to productivity as opposed to the psychological wellbeing of employees (Einarsen, 2005).

In addition, organisations can positively influence the manner in which victims perceive and react toward bullying behaviour; for example, by offering an efficient support system to victims. The model of workplace bullying (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003) also highlights that, during workplace bullying strategy development, leaders need to consider the circumstances within which the bullying behaviour takes place, targets' experiences of the bullying and their reactions toward the bullying behaviour as opposed to ignoring the situation. In addition, a rehabilitation programme should be included in order to manage bullying behaviour in the workplace effectively (Einarsen et al., 2003), as indicated in figure 4.7.
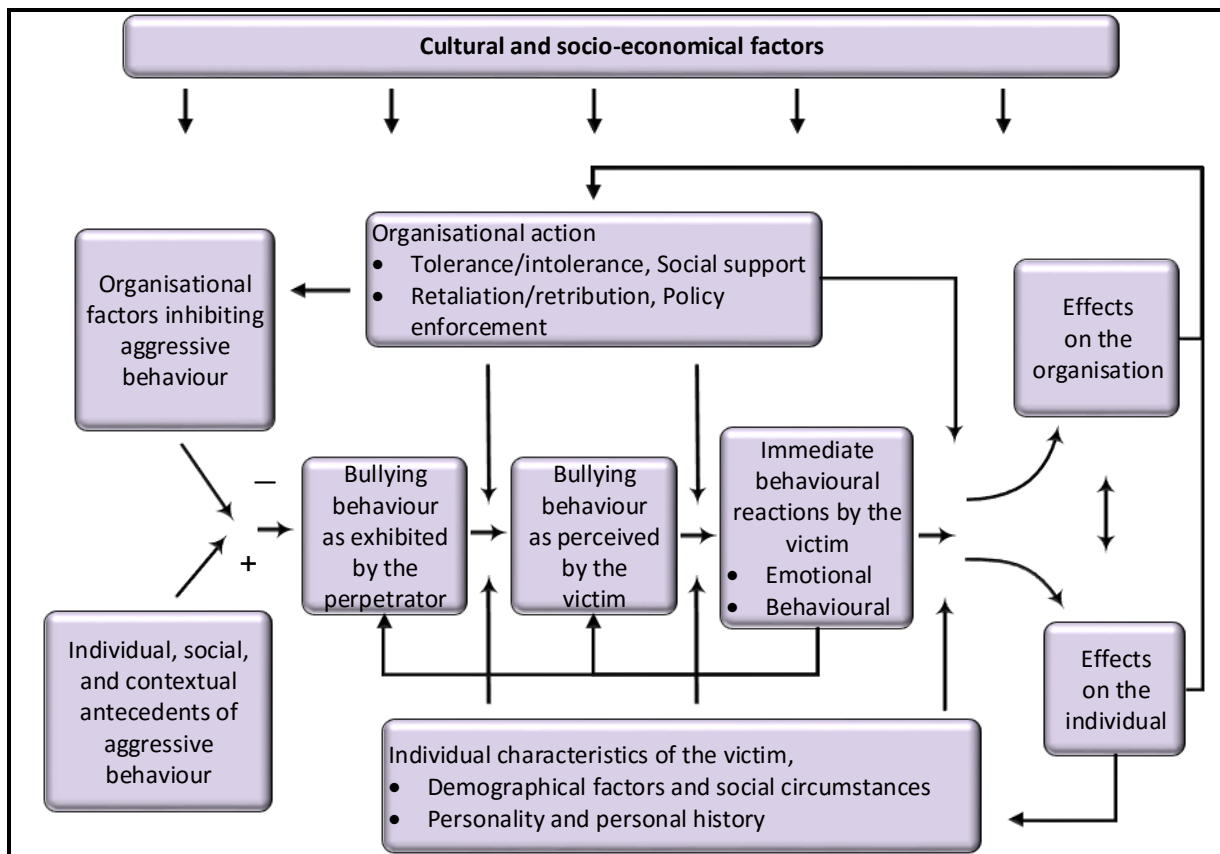
Figure 4.7: The conceptual model of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003)

The interactions between the perpetrator and victim, and the dynamics of conflict escalation can play a significant part in the occurrence of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001). The offender progressively focuses on the victim and applies bullying behaviour such as insulting remarks, excessive teasing, social exclusion, gossip and rumours. Later on, the acts of bullying may become more frequent and severe. This may cause victims to struggle even more to cope with their daily work tasks. Consequently, victims may feel increasingly vulnerable and over time the perpetrator may utilise more aggressive behaviour as the conflict situation escalates into intimidation, humiliation or the initiation of fear (Einarsen, 2005; Einarsen et al., 2003). As a result, colleagues may start to avoid victims and without knowing contribute to the isolation of targets. Victims who are exposed to continuous bullying behaviour seem to experience acts of bullying more often and intense (Einarsen, 2005; Einarsen et al., 2003).

Victims of bullying who manage to cope with the bullying behaviour tend to fight back with similar behaviour and consequently, circumvent the conflict from escalating. Targets who battle to cope with the conflict situation contribute to the escalation of the conflict situation, especially when they utilise hostile responses (Einarsen et al., 2003; Zapf & Gross, 2001).

On the other hand, bullying behaviour in social groups may entail focusing on a less dominant or influential group member as a manner to displace the group's frustration and anger of another group to which the victim belongs (Einarsen et al., 2003).

In conclusion, employers who reward or tolerate bullying behaviour can enforce misbehaviour and contribute to a culture that permits bullying behaviour. Stress, interpersonal conflict or aggressive personality types seem to act as antecedents of bullying behaviour among employees or between management and subordinates (Einarsen, 2005). Thus, organisations can decrease the tendency of aggressive behaviour by implementing policies against bullying behaviour and enforcing consequences for offenders.

Below, table 4.3 provides a summary of the foregoing discussion with regard to the theoretical models of workplace bullying.

Table 4.3

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Workplace Bullying

Theoretical model	The cognitive activation theory of stress (CATS), (Ursin & Erikson, 2004)	The employee emotional abuse model (EEA) (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003)	The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Workplace bullying model (Einarsen et al., 2003)
Conceptualisation	Highlights a person's assessment of a stressful event where the emphasis is on stimuli and outcome expectancies of the individual, which act as initiators of the physiological stress reaction	Offers insight into abusive behavioural dynamics; acknowledges the signs of abuse; regulates or ends abusive behaviour and envisages the development of uncontrolled abusive behaviour (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003)	Posits that individuals' affective reactions are instigated by situations in the workplace and over time these accumulated emotions can have an effect on employees' attitudes, which may consequently influence their behaviour at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Highlights victims' emotions and behaviour as well as their perceptions of the bullying behaviour and reactions toward the offender. Various factors are indicated as contributing or hampering factors of workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003)
Dimensions	Key components of stress, namely: (1) The load – the stressors and stimuli that are perceived and evaluated as stress by one's	Six stages: (1) The initial incident (2) Second stage progressive discipline (3) The turning point (4) Organisational ambivalence	Disposition. Work environment features Work attitudes Work events Affective reactions Affect-driven behaviour	Contributing/deterring factors: Situational / contextual Individual Social Organisational

Theoretical model	The cognitive activation theory of stress (CATS), (Ursin & Erikson, 2004)	The employee emotional abuse model (EEA) (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003)	The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Workplace bullying model (Einarsen et al., 2003)
Dimensions *(continue)*	(2) Brain (cognitive assessment); (3) One's reaction (alarm) to the stressors that is sent back to the brain. (4) The brain may change the stimulus or alter how the stimulus is viewed through individual behavior or positive/negative expectations.	(5) Isolation and silencing (6) Expulsion and cycle regeration	Judgement-driven behaviour	
Core conclusions	A stressor is seen as a possible threat that may result in persistent cognitive stimulation such as feeling anxious or upset for becoming a victim of workplace bullying.	Indicates workplace bullying as a persistent, focused, negative type of communication that is directed towards employees who have less power than the high-power employees (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003).	Stressful incidents such as bullying at work may cause employees to display negative affective responses, which can further result in affect-driven behaviour.	Work stress, interpersonal conflict or aggressive personality types may cause bullying behaviour among employees or between management and subordinates.

Theoretical model	The cognitive activation theory of stress (CATS), (Ursin & Erikson, 2004)	The employee emotional abuse model (EEA) (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003)	The affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)	Workplace bullying model (Einarsen et al., 2003)
Core conclusions *(continue)*	The victim's reaction can result in continuous physiological stimulation and consequently cause ill health (Ursin & Erikson, 2004).	Workplace bullying progressively increases and severely affects targets' mental health, which can subsequently lead to withdrawal behaviour such as terminating employment.	Subsequently, employees' attitudes (low level of job satisfaction) may influence their judgement-driven behaviour. As a result, the target may consider leaving the organisation.	Personalities of targets may have an impact on their perceptions of the bullying event as well, and consequently how they respond toward these negative acts. Bullying behaviour seems to influence victims' coping strategies. Their personality characteristics may change in an attempt to deal with the offender's behaviour. Employers can prevent incidents of bullying when they prohibit bullying and consistently apply consequences. However, bullying behaviour is difficult to identify by management and involved parties.

In essence, all the theoretical models that have been discussed suggest that bullying may be a significant source of stress and severely affect targets on a physical and/or psychological level.

The conceptual model of workplace bullying (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen et al., 2003) is applicable to this study, since it provides a comprehensive framework for the exploration and management of bullying behaviour in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2003). Also, this model seems to highlight individual, social and contextual factors that may influence the incidence of workplace bullying and the impact on the employing organisation and victims. Finally, the model provides a better understanding of the causes of bullying behaviour, perceptions of the victims and their reactions toward acts of bullying; the interpersonal dynamic between the offender, target and employer, as well as possible interventions that can be employed by organisations.

In the following section some influencing variables of workplace bullying are discussed.

4.1.3   Variables influencing workplace bullying

Some factors appear to influence the occurrence and degree of bullying in organisations. The variables of significance to this research include biological factors, early life experiences, personality, organisational factors, age, gender, culture and climate, supervision, and mental distress, which will be discussed in more detail.

4.1.3.1   *Biological factors*

According to Nami and Nami (2011), aggressive bullies may quickly react and experience emotions of anger which consequently result in bullying behaviour, since their prefrontal cortex appears smaller than average.

4.1.3.2   *Early life experiences*

Nami and Nami (2011) also argue that abuse during childhood may be another contributing factor of bullying behaviour. Individuals who are either witnesses or targets of personal violence and abuse may resort to negative acts later in their lives, since they have learned to handle conflict through acts of aggression. However, not all individuals who have been exposed to hostility and violence display bullying behaviour. In addition, children who demonstrate bullying behaviour at school tend to present negative actions at work (Nami & Nami, 2011). On the other hand, individuals who were exposed to bullying at school seems

to be more inclined to become victims of workplace bullying (Smith, Singer, Hoel, & Cooper, 2003).

4.1.3.3   Early development

Toddlers from around 18 months start to understand the intentions of other individuals. This ability to evaluate other people's thoughts, level of knowledge and emotional conditions develop until approximately age three or four. The knowledge of a person's own thoughts is used to decide what is happening in another person's mind, also referred to as projection. This process is necessary to develop secondary interpersonal emotions such as sympathy, guilt and thankfulness (Tehrani, 2012).

On the other hand, when a child displays intense feelings that are perceived as unacceptable by other individuals such as anger, jealousy and distress, the child is normally not accepted nor rewarded. Children are usually taught to modify, deny or control these emotional reactions, and as a result, the child develops a shadow side where less attractive aspects of the self are repressed to feel more valued and accepted by others. The concealment and suppression of emotional desires before one has the chance to develop the capability to make use of more refined processes can lead a person to acquire a dispositional manner, which results in avoidance of certain emotions through a combination of suppression, repression and denial of these emotions. Children subsequently learn to demonstrate emotional agony of their unrecognised feelings by using projection on to other individuals through various negative actions such as passive aggressive behaviour, pursuing appreciation through extreme requests, accusing and belittlement of others (Tehrani, 2012).

The child's behaviour in the shadow side will persist into adulthood and can cause involuntary, irrational, unjustified, undesirable and unforeseen types of behaviour. In the work context these individuals may tend to accuse other employees, rationalise and defend their own actions, since they struggle to acknowledge their incapacity to establish constructive relationships, which have possibly derived from their supressed anger due to some unspoken emotions such as feelings of rejection in childhood (Tehrani, 2012). Thus, it seems that emotions experienced in childhood that are not dealt with can cause individuals discomfort and result in negative reactions in adulthood, which may further result in bullying behaviour at work. Conversely, emotional capable individuals can comprehend and admit their motives, reactions and behaviour to their surroundings and relations. They also have the ability to recognise their emotions and realise that their troublesome feelings can be utilised to increase self-awareness and allow self-recovery (Tehrani, 2012).

4.1.3.4   Personality

Van Heugten (2012) argues that not all individuals exposed to bullying behaviour experience detrimental health effects, which indicate that there are certain mediators between bullying and health outcomes. Certain personality factors, for example being agreeable or having an extroverted personality, may decrease one's propensity to personalise conflict or view a certain situation as negative (Van Heugten, 2012). Similarly, research indicates that victims of bullying display lower self-esteem and social skills (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). The research findings of Glasø et al. (2007) indicate significant personality differences between targeted and non-targeted individuals, and it seems that targets may be more neurotic, less agreeable and more emotionally unstable. However, only a small amount of participants displayed lower levels on these personality dimensions; therefore, the authors argue that targeted employees' personalities do not necessarily differ (Glasø, et al., 2007).

On the other hand, Nami and Nami (2012) suggest that targets tend to be more accommodating, avoid being competitive even during intense competitive situations, do not respond to offenders' behaviour with aggression, which may be detrimental to targets. Targets are inclined to be candid, forthright and reveal a considerable amount of personal information that provides the offender with knowledge regarding their vulnerability, while offenders tend to be more aggressive, threatening and keep their matters private (Nami & Nami, 2012).

Individuals who have personality disorders tend to participate in cyclic patterns of behaviour in their personal and work relationships (Tehrani, 2012). These people are normally unaware of the effect of their actions on others and often have the perception that they are not part of the problem. They battle to maintain lasting relationships and view their own negative actions as strengths or advantages. In the workplace these individuals can be challenging to manage due to the nature of their condition (Tehrani, 2012).

4.1.3.5   Organisational factors

Task characteristics and interpersonal relations at work can cause a disadvantageous and unsafe work environment, which may increase the propensity for negative actions at work. Task characteristics entail too high or too low workloads, uneven task distribution, too fast-paced work environments with excessive deadlines, insufficient breaks, limited task variety and employees' skills that are not fully utilised. On the other hand, interpersonal relational factors, for example unfair view of organisational practices; employees who are not involved

during the decision-making processes; solo work tasks which cause feelings of isolation; unfair performance evaluation systems; lack of learning opportunities; feelings of job insecurity and unpredictability; frequent threats and intimidation, which cause anxiety and lower psychological safety; discrimination, and no social interaction allowed are associated with increased suicide risk (Nami & Nami, 2012).

Oade (2009) argues that negative actions in the workplace can be a predominant challenge for victims of workplace bullying, since witnesses and management frequently do not view behaviour as bullying. On the other hand, when the behaviour is viewed as bullying, it is sometimes disregarded by bystanders and supervisors. In doing this, perpetrators are encouraged to continue with their destructive behaviour. Colleagues and management tend to provide several reasons and justifications for offenders' behaviour, and downplay the intensity in an attempt to reduce the negative actions to become more appropriate and socially suitable. However, when the employer tolerates these negative actions, it signals a message to employees of an increased possibility that they will need to manage the situation on their own if they do become targets of bullying behaviour (Oade, 2009).

4.1.3.6   *Influence of age*

Djurkovic et al. (2008) found that age is significantly related to workplace bullying. Younger employees reported higher levels of bullying as opposed to older individuals. Hoel et al. (2004) found that the direct effects of bullying behaviour appear to increase with age. While, indirect effects of bullying seem to decrease with age, especially in the case of witnesses of bullying behaviour who consequently experienced health problems (Hoel et al., 2004).

4.1.3.7   *Influence of gender*

Research studies indicate that bullying may affect women more negatively than men (Finne et al., 2011; Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner et al., 2002). Women tend to report higher levels of anxiety as well as more psychosomatic complaints than men (Zapf et al., 1996). Rayner et al. (2002) argue that, in general, women may experience bullying behaviour different and more intense, which is not related to the amount of bullying behaviour to which they are being exposed. Another explanation may be that women and men work in different positions, occupations and roles (Rayner et al., 2002).

However, these findings contradict those of Hoel et al. (2004) who found that men reported higher negative effects of bullying on their health, particularly their physical health as

opposed to women. Similarly, Djurkovic et al. (2008) found that gender was significantly related to workplace bullying and that men reported higher levels of bullying as opposed to female employees. Finne et al. (2011) found that more women experienced mental health distress after being bullied. Conversely, research indicated that gender was not a predictor of stress (Vartia & Hyyti, 2002), nor an indicator of health effects (Hansen et al., 2011) among bullied victims.

4.1.3.8 Culture and climate

Research findings indicate that poor countries that are typified by more extreme weather conditions (hot or cold) tend to have a higher tendency for harassment behaviour, whereas more wealthy countries with similar extreme weather conditions are inclined to experience fewer negative behaviour (Van de Vliert et al., 2013), such as workplace bullying.

4.1.3.9 Mental distress

Mental distress seems to be a predictor of workplace bullying (Finne et al., 2011). More specifically, employees who experience lower psychological wellbeing may be more inclined to be targets of bullying behaviour. Research findings indicate that employees who have been exposed to bullying over a period of time have reported lower psychological wellbeing as opposed to employees who have not experienced bullying behaviour at work (Finne et al., 2011). Finne et al. (2011) also argue that employees who experience intense psychological distress may have a higher likelihood to perceive other individuals' comments and actions as bullying. However, some individuals may not be affected when exposed to negative actions in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2003). Similarly, not all employees exposed to bullying behaviour label themselves as targets of workplace bullying (Nielsen et al 2012).

In summary, it seems that biological factors may influence workplace bullying (Nami & Nami, 2011). Abuse during childhood (Nami & Nami, 2011) and being bullied at school (Smith et al., 2003) seem to increase the propability of the occurrence of workplace bullying in adulthood (Nami & Nami, 2011). Emotional development during early child development seems to have an effect on the occurrence and level of bullying behaviour during adulthood (Tehrani, 2012). Certain personality factors may decrease one's tendency to personalise conflict or to perceive a challenging event as negative (Van Heugten, 2012).

Certain personality types may be more inclined to become targets of bullying behaviour (Nami & Nami, 2012). Various organisational factors have the possibility to increase the

likelihood of workplace bullying to occur in the organisation (Nami & Nami, 2012; Oade, 2009). Age (Djurkovic et al., 2008; Hoel et al., 2004) and gender (Djurkovic et al., 2008; Finne et al., 2011; Hoel et al., 2001; Hoel et al., 2004; Rayner et al., 2002) seem to influence the effect and occurrence of workplace bullying, although research indicates mixed results.

It appears that poor countries with extreme weather conditions may have a higher possibility of experiencing workplace bullying (Van de Vliert et al., 2013). Finally, mental distress seems to influence the manner in which employees may categorise negative behaviour as workplace bullying (Finne et al., 2011), since not all employees will perceive negative actions as bullying (Nielsen et al 2012). Therefore, it seems that biological factors, early life experiences, personality, organisational factors, age, gender, culture and climate, supervision, and mental distress may influence the occurrence and level of workplace bullying. However, some individuals may not be affected when exposed to negative actions in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 2003) and not all employees exposed to bullying behaviour label themselves as targets of workplace bullying (Nielsen et al 2012).

Next, the construct of turnover intention will be conceptualised.

4.2   TURNOVER INTENTION

Organisations in the modern era experience substantial difficulties in managing talented employees, especially with regard to voluntary turnover (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013) which continues to be a concern for employers (Robyn & Du Preez, 2013) and also seems to be a focus area that is widely researched in order to understand organisational behaviour (Hom, Mitchell, Lee, & Griffeth, 2012).

The turnover intention construct will be conceptualised in detail, relevant theoretical models explained and variables influencing turnover intention discussed.

4.2.1   Conceptualisation of turnover intention

According to Ozolina-Ozola (2014), turnover indicates the rate at which employees exit the organisation in accordance with the average number of individuals employed at the company during a specific period. Normally voluntary turnover is seen as dysfunctional and damaging to organisational performance; however, voluntary turnover can be functional when low performance employees exit the organisation (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984; Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). Turnover appears to be costly and cause significant consequences for

organisations such as high recruitment costs. Therefore, human resource managers attempt to retain their talented employees (Alhamwan & Mat, 2015). It seems that employers attempt to prevent dysfunctional voluntary turnover and encourage functional turnover to increase organisational productivity and success.

Dysfunctional turnover refers to employees who display high performance and decide to exit the organisation (Ozolina-Ozola, 2014). On the other hand, functional turnover represents employees who display low work performance and choose to leave the organisation (Abelson & Baysinger, 1984; Holtom et al., 2008).

There appears to be a significant relationship between voluntary turnover and turnover intention. Research indicates that turnover intention seems to be an antecedent to actual turnover (Martin & Roodt, 2008) and the most direct predictor of turnover seems to be the intention to leave (Mobley, Horner, & Hollingsworth 1978; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Park & Kim, 2009; Zimmerman & Darnold, 2009). Intention to leave is viewed as the final mental stage where thoughts of leaving and searching for possible job positions actively occur during the decision process, although individuals' intentions may differ from their actual turnover behaviour (Park & Kim, 2009).

Turnover intention consists of attitudinal (thoughts of leaving), decisional (plans to exit) and behavioural practices (actively searching for alternatives) that occur before actual turnover takes place (Khan, 2014; Sager, Griffith & Hom, 1998). Similarly, Porter and Steers (1973) argue that a verbal intention to leave the organisation may indicate the next logical step in the withdrawal process. Employees may compare and evaluate their current job against other available positions. When another position seems more attractive it will stimulate an intention to leave, followed by actual leaving behaviour. Thoughts of intention to leave may decrease if employees find that they still prefer their current job after comparing it to other job alternatives (Mobley, 1977).

On the other hand, Mobley (1977) argues that some individuals may act on impulse when they decide to leave the organisation, with only a few, if any, foregoing steps in the withdrawal process. Thus, employees may end up leaving the organisation without going through a decision process of comparing job alternatives.

Tett and Meyer (1993) view turnover intention as a premeditated and intentional wilfulness to leave the organisation. According to DeTienne et al. (2012), turnover intention refers to an employee's goal or determination to end employment at a specific organisation. Turnover intention is seen as a principal mental precursor of employees' definite turnover actions (Tett & Meyer, 1993).

Quin and Cha (2010) found that professionals in the IT industry tend to change jobs more frequently than those in other industries. The research findings indicate that past turnover behaviour is a strong predictor of future turnover intentions (Quin & Cha, 2010). Therefore, it appears that a person's past pattern of turnover behaviour may provide valuable information with regard to his or her impending intention to leave the employing organisation.

Research also indicates that leaders who view high turnover as costly and who have a proactive stance in handling turnover-related challenges, display lower levels of organisational turnover (Mendes & Stander, 2011; Taplin & Winterton, 2007).

In summary, researchers seem to have similar views on the concept of turnover intention. Turnover intention appears to influence voluntary turnover behaviour, and is seen as the final stage before employees display actions to exit the organisation. In essence, turnover intention seems to consist of cognitive elements (individual thoughts and plans) and behavioural elements (exploring other opportunities). For the purpose of this research study, the concept of turnover intention will be measured to examine employees' opinions on their behavioural goals to exit their employing organisations (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008).

The following concepts seem to influence employees' turnover intentions and their psychological wellbeing, which will now be discussed in more detail.

4.2.1.1   *Turnover intention and supervision*

Research findings indicate that management can act as a significant factor in talent retention where supervisors can have a significant influence on employees' turnover intentions (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011; Rothmann, Diedericks, & Swart, 2013). Mendes and Stander (2011) have found a relationship between leadership behaviour and employee work experiences, and they postulate that employee development is associated with increased role clarity. Thus, it seems that employees who receive training that is related to their job roles may acquire the necessary skills to display increased work

performance and they may also have a clearer understanding of what is expected of them. Training opportunities seem to be linked to decreased turnover intentions. However, employers need to be aware of the training methods utilised to ensure that the training is beneficial for the organisation and its employees (Long & Perumal, 2014).

On the other hand, leaders who are perceived as insincere can cause employees to have increased intentions to leave the organisation (Greenbaum, Mawritz, & Piccolo, 2015; Long & Perumal, 2014). The type of leadership behaviour that can create an atmosphere of pretence and hypocrisy among employees can entail the belittlement of employees and putting individuals down when they have questions with regard to work processes. This creates feelings of incompetence in employees (Greenbaum et al., 2015).

Similarly, research indicates that abusive supervision, such as personal attacks, can lower individual job satisfaction, cause employees to experience psychological strain and subsequently increase intention to leave (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Rodwell, Brunetto, Demir, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2014) while task-oriented attacks of abusive supervision seem to be associated directly with turnover intentions (Rodwell et al., 2014).

4.2.1.2   Turnover intention and work engagement

Employees tend to be more engaged in their organisation when they perceive the work environment as predictable and stable (Saks, 2006). Research also indicates a positive association between turnover intention and work engagement. Highly engaged individuals seem to display higher levels of trust towards their employers. They also appear to have a more positive outlook on the organisation and decreased turnover intentions (Mendes & Stander, 2011; Saks, 2006).

Mendes and Stander (2011) have found that meaningful work increased all three levels of work engagement, namely vigour, dedication and absorption. When employees view their work as significant, they may have more energy, motivation and eagerness to perform in their jobs. Engaged individuals who are excited about their work may possess more positive feelings regarding the work environment, have fewer thoughts of leaving and consequently, are less likely to exit the organisation (Mendes & Stander, 2011).

Management need to be engaged themselves and lead by example. This will motivate employees to be more attached to the organisation and influence employees to be more enthusiastic, energetic and determined to enhance organisational effectiveness and success (Mendes & Stander, 2011; Wildermuth & Pauken, 2008).

4.2.1.3 Turnover intention and stress (psychological wellbeing)

DeTienne et al. (2012) have found that moral stress is a predictor of increased employee fatigue, decreased job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions. Moral stress is the intensity of stress experienced when one is faced with unethical situations and how often these situations are experienced (DeTienne et al., 2012). Research indicates that work that is perceived as stressful can increase an individual's intention to leave the organisation (Paillé, 2011).

Similarly, employees who experience high work stress and perceive high levels of organisational politics tend to have strong intentions to leave the organisation (Zhang & Lee, 2010). Organisational politics can be described as individual or group behaviour that is informal, supposedly narrow-minded, typically disruptive and illegitimate (Mintzberg, 1983). Organisational politics is disorderly and prohibits behaviour observed by employees. This may, in combination with high levels of stress result in increased intention to leave the organisation.

4.2.1.4 Turnover intention and negative behaviour (bullying)

The perception of interpersonal exclusion, as a form of workplace bullying, seems to influence turnover intentions greatly. Research findings indicate that employees who experience social exclusion at work seem to display a higher tendency to leave the organisation as opposed to employees who perceive acceptance among colleagues and management (Renn, Allen, & Huning, 2013).

Individuals who perceive that they are socially excluded may leave the organisation by one of two ways: either impetuously (impulsive quitting) or contemplatively by forming intentions before leaving. Employees may leave the organisation suddenly in order to escape the environment where the isolation occurs (Renn et al., 2013), since it involves emotions of hurt, anxiety and decreased prospects of repairing the relationships (Renn et al., 2013; Richman & Leary, 2009). Conversely, individuals who are still in the process of forming their turnover intentions may have higher confidence to restore and rebuild the relationships with those

individuals who have socially excluded them. Nonetheless, when efforts to restore relations collapse, these employees may eventually exit the organisation (Renn et al., 2013).

4.2.1.5   Turnover intention and employee psychopathy

Employee psychopathy, also referred to as corporate psychopathy, relates to workplace bullying behaviour. Both concepts involve negative acts, namely to cause someone harm within the workplace (Boddy, 2011). Psychopathy is viewed as a propensity towards disruptive and harmful actions which can be described by decreased levels of empathy and self-control. Furthermore, psychopathy is characterised by different and sometimes divergent qualities such as boldness, absence of repentance, seeking superiority and stress resistance. Psychopathy also deals with social behaviours such as insincere charm, being calculating and devious, antisocial behaviour, being irresponsible, anxiousness and offensive actions (Cleckley, 1976). Lynam and Widiger (2007) posit that psychopathic individuals are essentially hostile and aggressive.

Psychopathy is categorised into primary and secondary psychopathy. Both types of psychopathic individuals seem to be involved in antisocial behaviour (Lilienfeld et al., 2012; Johnson et al., 2015). Primary psychopathy consists of egocentric and controlling behaviour without feelings of remorse (Johnson et al., 2015).

Secondary psychopathy entails hostility and defiance towards anyone with authority. This attitude may cause difficulties for supervisors who have authority over their daily work activities. In addition, secondary psychopathy entails a similar emotional capability as non-psychopathic individuals, although they also display impulsive behaviour. Research indicates that the secondary type of psychopathic individual may especially have a destructive influence on the health and effectiveness of relationships at work (Johnson et al., 2015).

Johnson et al. (2015) argue that secondary psychopathic individuals may eventually exit the organisation due to their hostility towards supervisors and the tension they create at work. In addition, psychopathic individuals' antagonistic behaviour may create conflict and consequently increase stress, which may lead to strained interpersonal relationships for themselves and others (Baysinger, Scherer, & LeBreton, 2014; Johnson et al., 2015) as well as increased voluntary turnover (Johnson et al., 2015).

Research findings indicate that psychopathy and aggression in general may influence group interactions and outcomes negatively during task completion in the work context (Baysinger et al., 2014). Thus, it seems that psychopathic individuals may contribute to a hostile organisational climate and interpersonal conflict. Their actions may cause themselves and others increased stress and exhaustion that may result in increased turnover intentions or actual turnover behaviour.

Research also indicates that the degree of workplace bullying is considerably greater when employee psychopaths are present as opposed to when they are not. Workplace bullying is utilised by psychopaths to humiliate others at work; however, not all workplace bullies are viewed as employee psychopaths (Boddy, 2011). According to Johnson et al. (2015), employee psychopathy is considered an antisocial personality disorder, which entails a willingness to lie, manupulation, a lack of empathy and remorse, while others may perceive them as socially well-adjusted (Boddy, 2011). On the other hand, workplace bullying involves negative behaviour due to various factors such as unfavourable work conditions (Balducci et al., 2012; Einarsen et al., 1994; Leymann, 1996) or role conflict (Balducci et al., 2012).

In conclusion, employee psychopathy seems to influence employees' psychological wellbeing negatively and this may increase employees' intention to leave their organisations.

Next, the ancedents of turnover intention will be discussed in more detail.

4.2.1.6   *Antecedents of turnover intention*

Human resource management may develop more effective turnover interventions when they are familiar with the antecedents of turnover intention (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Employees tend to link their importance and value to compensation received, thus when individuals view that their salaries are not adequate they tend to feel unappreciated and less valued by their employers (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011).

Research findings indicate that compensation and benefits influence employees' intentions to leave the organisation (Abii et al., 2013; Alhamwan & Mat, 2015; Long & Perumal 2014; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2005). Similarly, Al-Ahmadi (2014) has found an increased level of intention to leave among a sample of nurses who received lower salaries. It seems that compensation may act as a predictor of turnover intention.

Research also indicates that leadership (Alhamwan & Mat, 2015) and advancement opportunities may contribute to lower turnover intention (Alhamwan & Mat, 2015; Long & Perumal, 2014). Organisations that provide advancement opportunities to employees may create a perception of organisational support to employees. In return, this may decrease their intentions to leave (Long & Perumal, 2014). Conversely, research done by Al-Ahmadi (2014) indicates no relationship between job advancements, autonomy or variety with turnover intentions.

Long and Perumal (2014) argue that the manner in which organisations allocate compensation, signals a message to employees that communicates how leaders view and value employees' behaviour and output at work. When organisations provide benefits such as flexi time and child care, it may improve employees' job satisfaction. Similarly, research indicates that job satisfaction is a leading factor in the prediction of intention to leave (Al-Ahmadi, 2014). Thus, it appears that compensation and organisational benefits may promote job satisfaction and consequently lower employee intention to leave the organisation.

Christian and Ellis (2014) argue that employees with increased turnover intentions may have a lower tendency to adhere to the organisational norms and obligations of the psychological contract. These employees may be more likely to be disengaged psychologically and display negative work behaviour (Christian & Ellis, 2014). It seems that individuals who show high intentions to leave may be mentally disconnected from their employing organisation and may display negative actions. The psychological contract between employees and organisations entails employees' perceptions of the organisation's responsibilities towards them, as well as the responsibilities of employees towards organisations (Ho, Rousseau & Levesque, 2006; Robinson, 1996).

Turnover intentions may entail expensive consequences for companies, even when employees decide to stay with them, since turnover intentions seem to have a direct influence on deviant behaviour. More specifically, employees who are exposed to abusive supervision may react negatively through negative behaviour or express some thoughts, such as moral disengagements, which they have previously kept hidden. Moral disengagement can be viewed as unprincipled decisions and actions. Deviant work behaviour involves intentional behaviour that disregards organisational norms that may jeopardise the wellbeing of employees and the organisation (Christian & Ellis, 2014).

According to Long and Perumal (2014), performance management has the strongest link with intention to leave as opposed to other organisational factors. Long and Perumal (2014)

posit that the absence of performance appraisals can have a harmful effect on employee motivation and subsequently increase turnover intentions.

Alternative job opportunities seem to be a determining factor of turnover intention although employees may only consider alternative positions when the circumstances and organisational factors are unsatisfactory (Al-Ahmadi, 2014). Thus, when employees are not satisfied with their job and work environment, in combination with available job opportunities, then they may have increased thoughts of leaving. Similarly, research findings indicate that job satisfaction is a significant predictor of turnover intention (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hom & Griffeth, 1991; Regts & Molleman, 2013). When employees experience more work satisfaction, they may be more likely to have decreased levels of intention to leave.

In the contemporary world of work, employees seem to have a new viewpoint towards work-family obligations. Individuals appear not to be disconnected from their family concerns and responsibilities, and these days' employees seldom remain with a single employer throughout their careers (Long & Perumal, 2014).

Research indicates that spousal career support may predict voluntary turnover. Employees frequently acquire support from home, especially during demanding work circumstances. Those individuals who lack support from their spouses may have fewer resources to manage work-family conflict effectively (Huffman, Casper & Payne, 2014). Huffman et al. (2014) have found in a sample of US army officers that individuals who receive increased levels of spousal career support indicated a lower tendency to leave the military. Thus, it seems that employees who receive career support from their spouses during difficult circumstances may have the necessary resources to cope better with work-family stress and, as a result, may be more likely to display decreased turnover intentions.

In summary, similar definitions of turnover intention seem to exist in the literature. The core themes of turnover intention definitions are highlighted in table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4

Summary of the Core Themes of Turnover Intention Definitions

Core themes of turnover intention definitions
A verbal intention to leave the organisation may indicate the next logical step in the withdrawal process (Porter & Steers, 1973).
Turnover intention can be viewed as a premeditated and intentional wilfulness to leave the organisation. Turnover intention is seen as a principal mental precursor of employees' definite turnover actions (Tett & Meyer, 1993).
Turnover intention seems to be an antecedent to actual turnover (Martin & Roodt, 2008). Intention to leave is viewed as the final mental stage where thoughts of leaving and searching for possible job positions actively takes place during the decision process, although individuals' intentions may differ from their actual turnover behaviour (Park & Kim, 2009).
Turnover intention consists of attitudinal (thoughts of leaving), decisional (plans to exit) and behavioural practices (actively searching for alternatives), which happens before actual turnover takes place (Khan, 2014; Sager et al., 1998).

In conclusion, turnover intention seems to take place before actual turnover behaviour occurs. Turnover intention appears to consist of mental and behavioural intentions to exit the organisation. In addition, employees' thoughts on turnover may differ from their physical turnover behaviour. More specifically, individuals may end up staying at the employer although they have thoughts of leaving the organisation.

In respect of this study, turnover intention refers to employees who have a higher behavioural intent to leave their current occupational roles (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008) and hold a focused objective or plan to terminate employment (DeTienne et al., 2012). Thus, individuals who are determined to leave may utilise an action plan in order to reach their aim of leaving the organisation. The relevant definition of turnover intention seems thorough and includes a person's cognitive reasoning on turnover intention within a social work context. This study attempts to contribute to the research on turnover intention and measures employees' core self-assessments on intentions to leave their employing organisation.

Based on the conceptualisation of turnover intention, it is hypothesised that individuals will have a higher likelihood to leave the organisation when they are exposed to acts of bullying in the workplace. Individuals who have high levels of psychological wellbeing may possess the relevant internal resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work

engagement and psychosocial flourishing), which may shield them from the negative effects of workplace bullying and may lower their intentions to exit the organisation.

Finally, the focus of this study is on how employees' turnover intention relates to their perceptions of workplace bullying, and how their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes influence this relationship.

Next, theoretical models relevant to the construct of turnover intention will be explained.

4.2.2 Theoretical models of turnover intention

Various theories regarding voluntary turnover are identified in literature; therefore, only a few will be included and discussed in this section, namely: the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964); process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958); cusp-catastrophe model of employee turnover (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983); casual model of turnover (Price & Mueller, 1986); unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) and the turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

4.2.2.1 The social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) posits that individuals who perceive that they gain in the process and receive benefits from being in a certain relationship, such as the relationship between an employee and the organisation, will eventually experience a feeling of obligation and responsibility, and then reimburse the other party through exertion and devotion.

The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that employees will enter into a relationship when they perceive that the other party is capable of offering something of value to the relationship. Both parties will increase their contributions when they view benefits from the exchanges over time, and will exert themselves in order to balance the worth of each party's contribution (Rothmann et al., 2013). It appears that a strong social exchange relationship may contribute to an organisational climate of trust and loyalty. During the social exchange employees will attempt to obtain a balance between the perceived sacrifices and the advantage of being in the relationship (Flint, Haley, & McNally, 2013; Homans, 1958). Employees who display exertion and devotion can be viewed as dedicated to their jobs and may have lower intentions to leave the organisation (Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2005; Mustapha & Ahmad, 2011).

There are two kinds of social exchange relationships, namely social and economic exchanges (Blau, 1964; Flint et al., 2013). Social exchanges entail a process where each party anticipates some kind of advantage of being in the relationship, and since the responsibilities are unstipulated and the time-frame vague, both parties will trust that the other party will come through and reciprocate the benefits received (Blau, 1964; Flint et al., 2013).

Rothmann et al. (2013) have found that supportive and trusting relationships instigated by managers who fulfill individuals' needs for autonomy at work may contribute to lower intention to leave. Flint et al. (2013) have also found that turnover intentions are influenced by exchanges from supervisors. The research findings indicate that procedural and interpersonal justice can influence individuals' turnover intentions. Therefore, organisations should attempt to enhance the treatment of employees by management and implement fair organisational procedures to lower turnover intention in general (Flint et al., 2013). It seems that when employees view procedural and interpersonal managerial conduct in the organisation as fair, it may reduce their intentions to leave.

In addition, research indicates that organisations that are able to meet their responsibilities towards employees may have a higher probability of reducing turnover intention, since employees may view the organisation as trustworthy for reciprocating their efforts and loyalty towards the organisation (Clinton & Guest, 2014). Employees who receive acknowledgement for their efforts could experience a strong social exchange relationship with their employer (Rothmann et al., 2013). It also appears that a strong social exchange relationship may contribute to an organisational climate of trust and loyalty.

Offensive supervision may cause employees to view the organisation as untrustworthy due to the lack of social exchanges, and consequently instigate negative actions among employees, which may be damaging to organisations (Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, & Marrs, 2009). Thus, it appears that abusive management behaviour can have detrimental organisational effects such as deviant employee actions.

In summary, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) may offer more insight into the relationship between employees and their employing organisations. The relationship between management and subordinates seems to have an impact on employees' turnover intentions. More specifically, employees who are exposed to bullying behaviour by management may experience decreased loyalty and trust toward the organisation, and may consequently display increased intentions to leave.

On the other hand, employees who perceive that management offers support during incidents of bullying may experience increased feelings of trust and loyalty, which may cause decreased intentions to leave. The social exchange relationship involves loyalty and decreased voluntary turnover from employees in exchange for support from management, which leads to trust between both parties. However, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) omits to highlight employees' decisions or intentions for leaving.

4.2.2.2 *The process model of turnover*

The process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958) posits that job satisfaction is the main factor that influences individuals' viewpoints regarding their desire to leave the organisation (Morrell et al., 2001). Intentions of leaving are generally determined by two definite aspects, namely the employees' perceptions of their eagerness to change jobs (desire of movement), which are affected by their work satisfaction, and their perception of alternative job opportunities (ease of movement), as illustrated in figure 4.8 below (Morrell et al., 2001; Swider, Boswell & Zimmerman, 2011).

March and Simon's (1958) original two-factor model has developed into a three-factor model, which indicates three equally significant antecedents of voluntary turnover that includes employees' aspirations to exit the organisation, labour market conditions and the utilisation of their current occupation (Swider et al., 2011). Later, various turnover models seem to be based on the process turnover model of March and Simon (1958) (Morrell et al., 2001). The simplified version of the model of voluntary turnover (March & Simon, 1958; Morrell et al., 2001) is illustrated in figure 4.8.
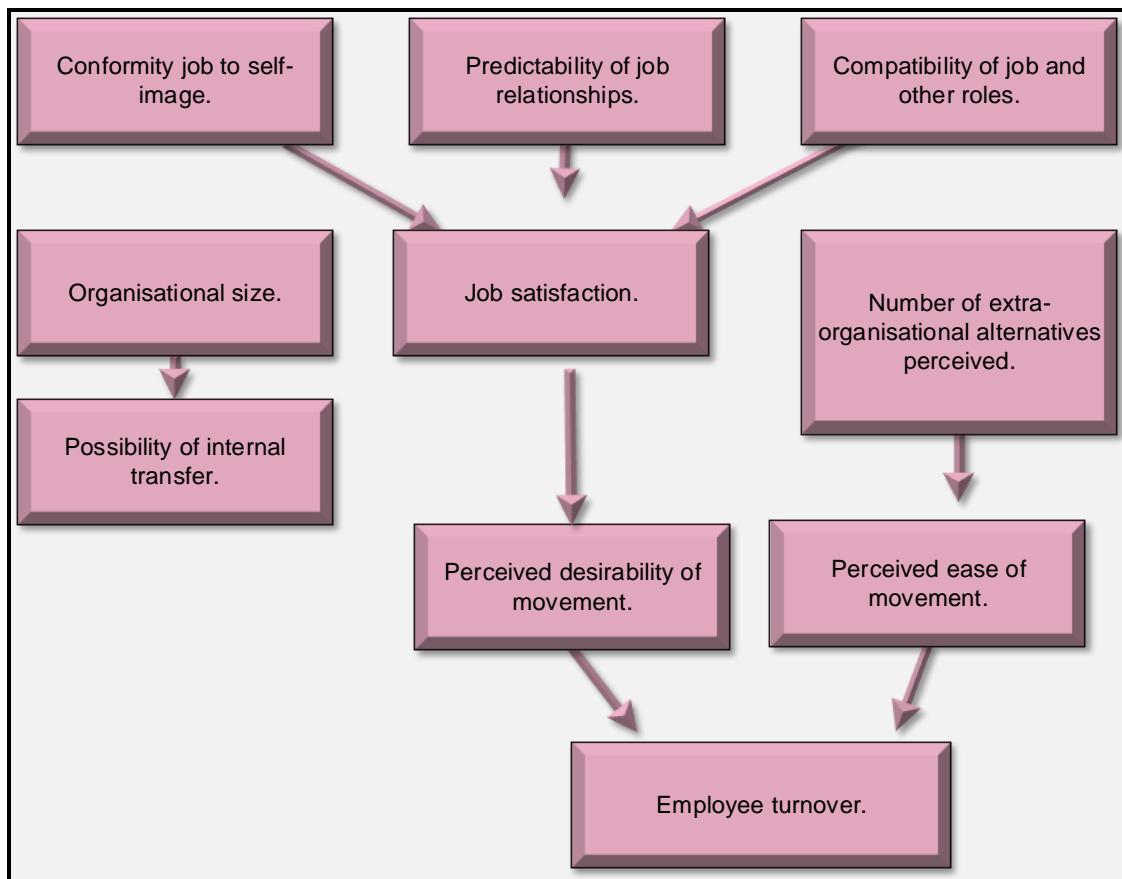
Figure 4.8: Simplified version of the model of voluntary turnover (March & Simon, 1958; Morrell et al., 2001)

According to the process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958), motivation is based on the organisational equilibrium theory (Barnard, 1938) and posits that there needs to be a balance between the contributions and incentives (inducements) provided by the employee and the organisation. Organisations provide incentives in the form of compensation to inspire and motivate employees to be involved in and contribute at work. The probability of employees leaving will thus be decreased through increased incentives, and conversely employees' intentions to leave will be increased when the available incentives are perceived as low (Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Morrell et al., 2001).

In summary, the process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958) is the basis of subsequent voluntary turnover models. The model offers a framework that provides more insight into employees' intentions of leaving their employers. More specifically, employees with decreased job satisfaction and motivation, in combination with available job opportunities (ease of movement), may be more inclined to display increased turnover intentions. However, the model provides a static perspective of employees' turnover

decisions rather than a dynamic viewpoint (Morrell et al., 2001), which may be a limitation due to the constant change in organisations. In addition, the model omits to include external and internal organisational factors that may influence turnover decisions.

4.2.2.3   *The cusp-catastrophe model*

The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983) provides a multifaceted view of the elements involved in the turnover process as opposed to previous turnover models (Morrell et al., 2001). The model signifies three principal features, namely a discontinuous variable, a hysteresis zone and divergent behaviours.

Turnover is viewed as a discontinuous variable embodied by sudden change and postponement, which indicates the notion that individuals may attempt to stay in their current job for as long as possible (Morrell et al., 2001; Sheridan & Abelson, 1983). Employees may display higher levels of withdrawal behaviour when they are dissatisfied, since they perceive lower commitment exchanges from the employer, or when they experience stress due to increased work strain, or a combination of both (Morrell et al., 2001). However, when individuals reach a point where they can no longer remain in the specific position due to continuous work tension or decreased commitment, they will suddenly move from staying (retention) to exiting the organisation (voluntary turnover) (Morrell et al., 2001; Sheridan & Abelson, 1983).

The hysteresis zone signifies a condition of disequilibrium where employees move from remaining in the organisation to leaving. A process of change occurs, which is referred to as transformation of individuals' external behaviour. This area is illustrated by the fold in the behavioural surface in figure 4.9 below. The divergent behaviours occur on the opposite sides of the bifurcation area. Employees who reach the fold region may change from staying to exiting the organisation, even when small changes occur in either, or a combination of organisational commitment, job tension and job satisfaction (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983).
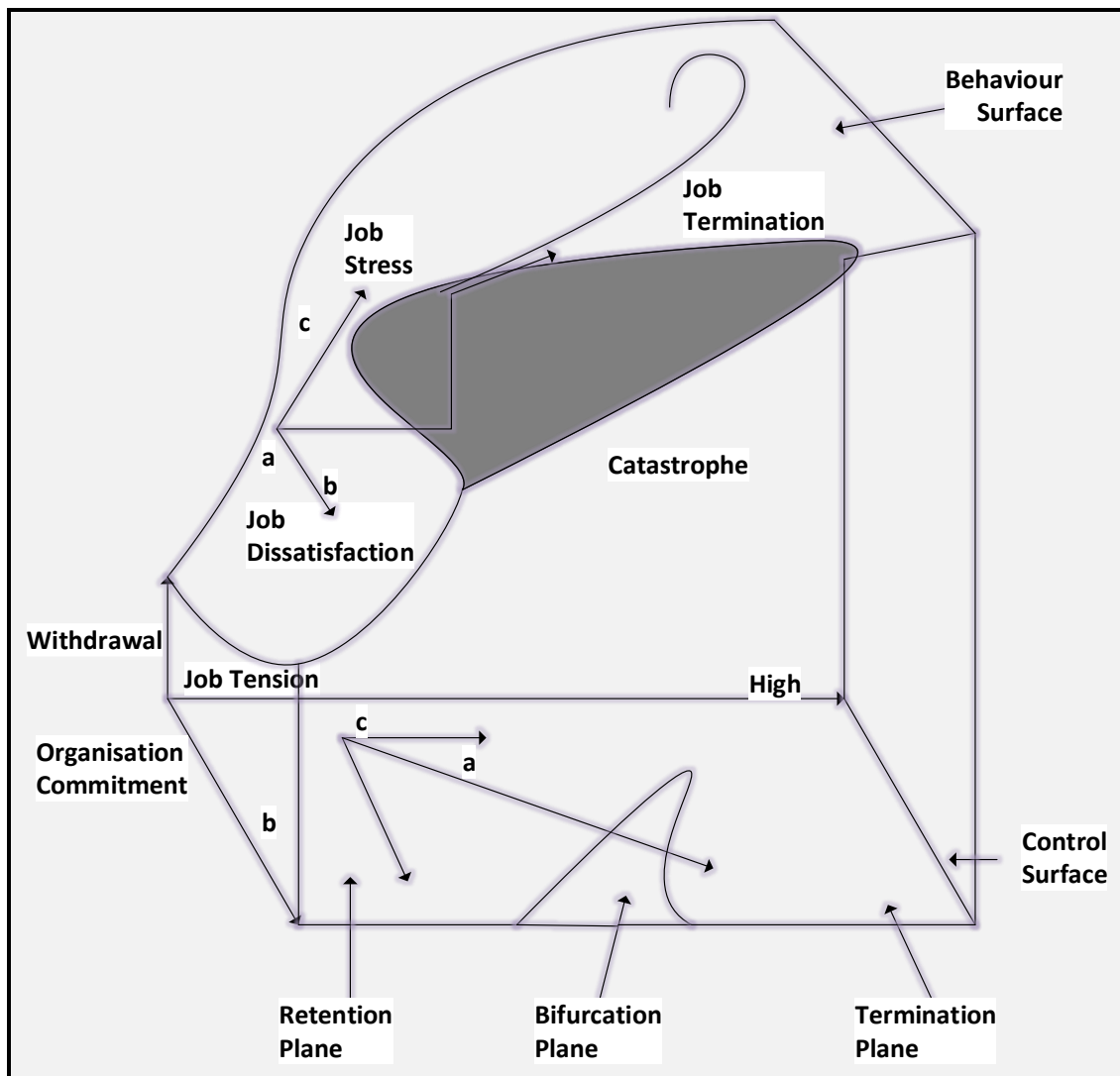
Figure 4.9: The cusp catestrophe model of turnover (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983, p. 421)

The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983) is based on a division of mathematics referred to as the catastrophe theory (Sheridan, 1985). Turnover is viewed as one of a series of withdrawal reactions such as absenteeism and decreased work performance, which occurs as a result of reduced organisational appeal or lower socio-mental interest (Morrell et al., 2001).

In summary, the cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983) may offer a framework to better understand the psychological factors involved in the turnover process. Employees who are exposed to continous work stressors such as workplace bullying may experience increased psychological strain and decreased job satisfaction, which may lead to increased intention to leave. The model also highlights that turnover is an intermittent dynamic occurrence. However, the model focuses on turnover as a phenomenon rather than focusing

on the decisional process that employees may follow (Morrell et al., 2001).

4.2.2.4   The unfolding model of turnover

The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) posits that decisions and actions of employees who voluntarily exit organisations, are influenced by ideas and constructs of both market-pull and mental-push methods. There are certain situations where neither a push nor pull method is relevant to describe reasons for turnover behaviour (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).

This model is based on the image theory (Miller, Galanter, & Pribram, 1960), which suggests that a person who makes decisions utilises characteristics of the event to trigger memories of comparable decisions and circumstances. Successes or disappointments from the past will inspire or dishearten a similar decision in the current day (Beach & Mitchell, 1990; McWilliams, 2011). Thus, a decision context that has been experienced previously provides a structure or framework for the new decision.

On an individual level such a re-encountered decision is referred to as a habit; on an organisational level it represents a policy, and on a social level it is stated as an image (Beach & Mitchell, 1990; McWilliams, 2011). Employees who make career decisions are therefore guided by their internal morals, values and beliefs (Beach, 1993; McWilliams, 2011).

An event that is perceived by an individual as a 'shock' or as disturbing encourages the person to gather new data, or alter the information to suit the image or alternatively to accommodate his or her values or trajectory image to fit the new data (Lee & Mitchell, 1994). A shock is viewed as an instigating situation that activates the psychological evaluation process which individuals use when they exit their occupations (Holtom et al., 2008). Therefore, individuals' turnover decisions are not always a consequence of continuous job dissatisfaction; it may sometimes happen without much thought (Holtom et al., 2008).

The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) stipulates that there are five decision paths, which individuals may follow before actually leaving the employing organisation, as illustrated in figure 4.10 below (Lee, Mitchell, Holtom, McDaniel, & Hill, 1999).
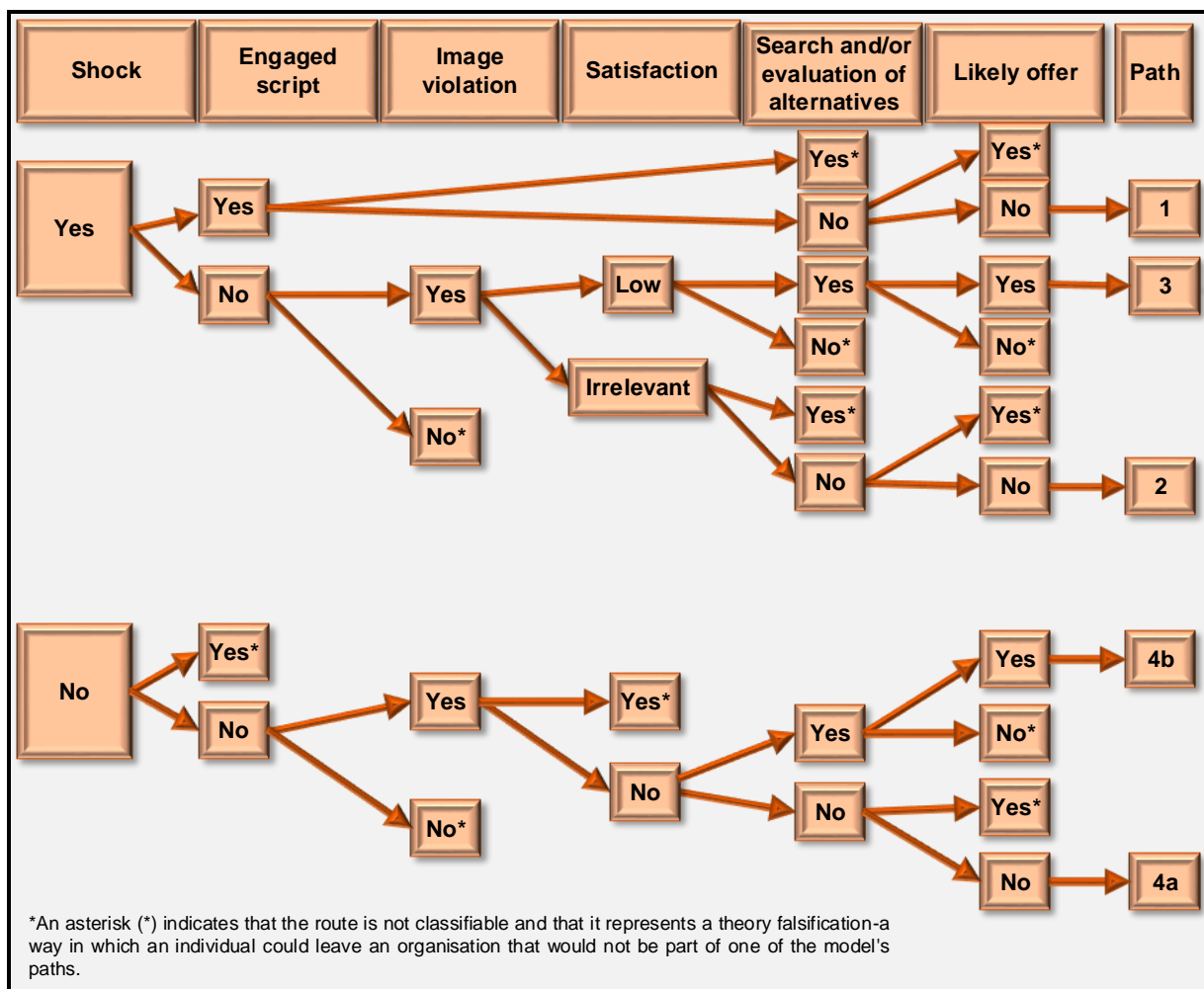
Figure 4.10: The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee et al., 1999)

Path one differs the most from previous turnover models, since it starts with an external incident, which influences individuals to start with a leaving script that entails little rational consideration (Holtom et al., 2008). A script can be viewed as an established plan of action, which can be based on previous encounters, research, social expectancies or perceptions of others (Lee et al., 1999). A script may be used when a 'shock' occurs (Holtom & Interrieden, 2006). However, when employees' values, aims and tactics are incongruent with those of the employer or those inferred by the shock, then an image violation arises. Every action concerned with seeking for job alternatives is viewed as part of the search process (Holtom & Interrieden, 2006; Lee et al., 1999).

Individuals who experience a shock (shock versus no shock) may fall into paths 1, 2 or 3, eliminating path 4, whereas search activities (including assessment of options and job offers) classify individuals into path 1 or 2, excluding path 3, or into path 4a or 4b. In addition, script (script versus no script) classifies individuals into path 1 or 2. Empirical findings of the

unfolding model provide an understanding of how and why employees leave (Lee et al., 1999). It seems that different paths may vary in the length of time to unfold. Employees also seem to leave sooner when a shock occurs as opposed to paths instigated by reduced job satisfaction.

On the other hand, when there are various jobs available more employees may leave via path 3 (unsolicited job offers). Conversely, when employees experience negative events such as downsizing, they may leave through path 2. Management may classify individuals who are more likely to exit and provide them with feedback, career counselling or counter-offers, when required (Lee et al., 1999).

Shipp, Furst-Holloway, Harris, and Rosen (2014) found that, although personal shocks cannot be avoided, path 1 may represent individuals who are interested in resuming working for their current employer again, someday in the future. Therefore, Shipp et al. (2014) posit that path 1 should not be disregarded, since it signifies unavoidable turnover. Management could utilise the information gained from path 1 in order to understand individual behaviour of those who may ultimately return (Shipp et al., 2014).

Employees who leave the organisation due to pull factors such as personal shocks or alternative job openings may be more open in future to return to the organisation. Shipp et al. (2014) posit that the previous employer can utilise the situation to ensure that individuals return one day, especially when employees leave for better opportunities (greener prospects) and then find that the new circumstances are not better as expected. A new path may be added to the unfolding model to include individuals' desires for mobility, since more employees may return to their previous employers as opposed to permanently leaving (Shipp et al., 2014).

In summary, the unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) may offer more insight into employees' decisions to exit the organisation. A significant element of the unfolding model is that it highlights the fact that many employees may not exit the organisation to enter a new job opening (Holtom & Interrieden, 2006), since various career path posibilities are proposed. Most traditional turnover models aim to predict voluntary turnover through job satisfaction. Conversely, the unfolding model focuses on additional factors such as tendencies, the labour market and the economy (Jones, Ross & Sertyesilisik, 2010). However, the model could have elaborated more on potential external factors and lacks to include the influence of psychological factors on employees' turover decisions.

4.2.2.5   The turnover intention model

The turnover intention model is based on the theoretical framework of Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010), which includes the goal orientation theory (Dweck, 1986) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) to provide a framework within which employees' turnover intentions are explored (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

The goal orientation theory (Dweck, 1986) differentiates between mastery and performance goals. Mastery goals signify aims that are focused on developing skills or grasping knowledge (Elliot, 2005; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010), while performance goals are seen as an attitude or approach to demonstrate one's competence in comparison to those of others (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

Research indicates that mastery goals can be associated with turnover intention whereas performance goals seem to be related in a lesser degree (Lin & Chang, 2005). Therefore, the model focuses only on the dimension of mastery goals (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). The turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) posits that employees who have mastery-oriented goals tend to display a drive for continous development, which may cause individuals to have a higher probability to view their tasks as repetitive and uninteresting. Subsequently, these employees may be more inclined to have thoughts of leaving the organisation, and decreased eagerness and energy levels, which may increase their intention to leave (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

On the other hand, the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) signifies that motivation is essentially focused within oneself (intrinsic motivation). Employees who are highly motivated complete tasks because they are passionate about their work, find their work rewarding and enjoyable. In addition, these employees will explore new challenges and continuously seek to practise and learn new skills (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

The self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) suggests that intrinsic motivation develops through three inherent psychological needs, namely a need for autonomy, competence and connectedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The need for autonomy indicates that employees inherently prefer to have opportunities where they can make personal decisions themselves (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2002) while competence represents a sense of efficiency during social interactions and the opportunity to apply one's skills (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Finally, connectedness represents a need to belong with others, having a

support system, and to feel part of a group or organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2002).

More specifically, the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) posits that employees who have all three internal needs fulfilled may be more inclined to participate during work activities because they find it enjoyable rather than an obligation (Ryan & Deci, 2006; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). Organisations that offer employees opportunities to satisfy their autonomy, competence and connectedness needs, may have lower voluntary turnover (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) have found that mastery-oriented goals and intrinsic motivation are related to employees' intentions to leave although intrinsic motivation has the strongest significant relationship with turnover intention (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2006). It seems that an employee who is intrinsically highly motivated may display a lower tendency to leave the organisation. Employees who have high mastery-oriented goals in combination with high intrinsic motivation may also display decreased turnover intentions.

To satisfy employees' mastery goals can be challenging for organisations (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). An employee who has a lower need satisfaction in combination with high mastery-oriented goals may have an increased likelihood to display higher turnover intentions, since individuals with high levels of mastery-oriented goals are more inclined to explore new challenges and search for development opportunities (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

In essence, it seems that mastery-oriented goals and intrinsic motivation may influence employees' turnover intentions. Employees who are highly focused on learning new information or exploring ways to develop (mastery-oriented goals) may have a higher need to expore new job opportunities and consequently display increased turnover intentions. On the other hand, employees who are highly intrinsically motivated and perceive opportunities in the organisation to make personal decisions (autonomy), feel competent during social interactions, able to apply their skills (competence) and feel emotionally tied to the organisation (connectedness) may display decreased turnover intentions.

Table 4.5 below provides a summary of the aforegoing discussion with regards to the theoretical models of turnover intention.

Table 4.5

Summary of the Theoretical Models of Turnover Intention

Theoretical model	The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964)	The process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958)	The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983)	The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)	Turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010)
Conceptualisation	Suggests that employees will go into a relationship when they perceive that the other party is capable of offering something of value to the relationship. Both parties will increase their contributions when they view benefits over time from the exchanges.	Posits that job satisfaction is the main factor that influences individuals' viewpoints regarding their desire to leave the organisation (Morrell et al., 2001)	Turnover is viewed as a discontinuous variable embodied by sudden change and postponement, which indicates the notion that individuals may attempt to stay in their current job for as long as possible (Morrell et al., 2001; Sheridan & Abelson, 1983).	Posits that decisions and actions of employees who voluntarily exit organisations are influenced by ideas and constructs of both market-pull and mental-push methods. There are certain situations where neither a push nor pull method is relevant to describe reasons for turnover behaviour (Lee & Mitchell, 1994).	The model is based on the goal orientation theory (Dweck, 1986) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Mastery-oriented goals and intrinsic motivation are related to turnover intention and may, therefore, influence employees' intentions to leave their employing organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

257

Theoretical model	The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964)	The process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958)	The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983)	The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)	Turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010)
Conceptualisation *(continue)*	They will exert themselves in order to balance the worth of each party's contribution (Rothmann et al., 2013)				
Dimensions	Two kinds of social exchange relationships, namely social and economic exchanges	Desire of movement Ease of movement	Discontinuous variable Hysteresis zone Divergent behaviours	A script A shock Image violation Job satisfaction Job search	Mastery-oriented goals (developing skills and acquiring knowledge) Intrinsic motivation: inherent psychological needs, namely a need for autonomy, competence and connectedness

Theoretical model	The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964)	The process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958)	The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983)	The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)	Turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010)
Core conclusions	Organisations that are able to meet their responsibilities towards employees may have a higher probability to reduce turnover intentions, since employees may view the organisation as trustworthy for reciprocating their efforts and loyalty toward their employer (Clinton & Guest, 2014).	Foundation for future turnover models (Morrell et al., 2001) Intentions of leaving are generally determined by two definite aspects, namely employees' perceptions of their eagerness to change jobs, which is affected by individuals work satisfaction and their perception of alternative job opportunities (Morrell et al., 2001; Swider et al., 2011).	Based on a division of mathematics, referred to as the catastrophe theory (Sheridan, 1985) Employees may display higher levels of withdrawal behaviour when they are dissatisfied, since they perceive lower commitment exchanges from the employer; or when they experience stress due to increased work strain, or a combination of both (Morrell et al., 2001; Sheridan & Abelson,	This model is based on the image theory (Miller et al., 1960), which suggests that a person who makes decisions utilises characteristics of the event to trigger memories of comparable decisions and circumstances. Successes or disappointments from the past will inspire or dishearten a similar decision in the current day (Beach & Mitchell, 1990; McWilliams, 2011).	Mastery-oriented goals and intrinsic motivation may predict employees' turnover intentions (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). High mastery-oriented goal individuals who are exposed to workplace bullying may be more inclined to have thoughts of leaving due to their needs to explore and acquire new skills that may drive them to exit the organisation for new opportunities.

Theoretical model	The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964)	The process model of turnover (March & Simon, 1958)	The cusp-catastrophe model (Sheridan & Abelson, 1983)	The unfolding model of voluntary turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994)	Turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010)
Core conclusions *(continue)*	Employees who are exposed to workplace bullying may have decreased turnover intentions when the organisation rewards their work efforts. Employees may have feelings of trust and loyalty toward the organisation that may influence turnover intentions positively.	Targets of workplace bullying may have increased voluntary turnover when they perceive alternative occupational possibilities and are open to change.	1983). Targets of workplace bullying (increased stress/strain) may feel dissatisfied with their work environment and may consequently choose to withdraw by exiting the organisation.	Employees may perceive workplace bullying as a shock, which will influence voluntary turnover decisions.	Highly intrinsic motivated employees who are exposed to workplace bullying may be less inclined to display intentions of leaving the organisation, because they have an internal energy or drive that may protect them during incidence of bullying, especially when their inherent psychological needs are satisfied within the organisation.

In summary, the highlighted theoretical models of turnover intention seem to have a similar core element. The various models suggest that employees who perceive lower satisfaction with their work environment or work tasks may display increased turnover intention. The turnover intention model of Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) is applicable to this study, since it provides a comprehensive framework of employees' turnover intentions. More specifically, this model posits that employees who have high mastery-oriented goals may display higher turnover intentions, while employees who have high intrinsic motivation may display lower turnover intentions. The turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) may offer a guideline to better understand employees' behavioural aims or plans to terminate employment.

In the following section some influencing variables of turnover intention are explained.

4.2.3 Variables influencing turnover intention

Employees' turnover intentions may differ due to variables that may influence their career decisions. The variables of importance to this research include age, gender, marital status, tenure, experience, level of education, work/family influence and work environment influence, which will be discussed next.

4.2.3.1 Influence of age

De Cuyper, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Mäkikangas (2011) have found that age and family status are significantly related to turnover intentions. Kabungaidze and Mahlatshana (2013) have found that older individuals in the age group of 45 years and above experience lower intention to leave as opposed to younger employees. Similarly, Benson and Brown (2011) have found that employees between the age group of 49 and 67 years (Baby Boomers of 1946-1964) experience higher job satisfaction and have a lower intention to leave the organisation as opposed to their Generation X colleagues (1965-1976), the age group between 37 and 48 years of age.

Du Plooy and Roodt (2013) argue that older employees may be more cautious to exit their employing organisation, since they may find it more challenging to find alternative job opportunities. Similarly, Proost, Verboon, and Van Ruysseveldt (2015) have found a negative relationship between turnover intentions and age. More specifically, older employees seem to have lower intentions to leave and tend to be more satisfied with their work as opposed to younger individuals. When older workers perceive that the organisation is supportive, they

tend to experience higher intentions to stay in the organisation (Cheung & Wu, 2013). It seems that employees' turnover intentions may decrease with age and they may experience more job satisfaction.

On the other hand, a research study conducted in Saudi Arabia, which consisted of nurses from various countries found higher turnover intentions among older nurses due to their social and family connections, which might have increased their inclination to return to their home countries (Al-Ahmadi, 2014). It seemed that, in this situation, the individuals experienced higher intention to leave the organisation, since they preferred to return to their home countries to be with family and friends.

Benson and Brown's (2011) research findings indicate a lack of supervisor support can predict higher intentions to leave among the Baby Boomer generation, while a lack of co-worker support can predict a higher intention to leave among GenXers.

4.2.3.2   Influence of gender

Research indicates that women's turnover intentions are influenced by intrinsic factors, whereas men's intentions to leave the public sector is mostly motivated by extrinsic factors. Also, research indicates that management and leadership style are important predictors of turnover intention in the public sector among ethnic minority men (Groeneveld, 2011). In addition, Al-Ahmadi (2014) has found higher intentions to leave among an international sample of female nurses working in Saudi Arabia. Conversely, another research study indicated no significant differences between individuals' turnover intentions and gender (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013). There seems to be an inconsistency in research with regard to gender and turnover intentions.

4.2.3.3   Marital status

Research indicates no significant differences between employees' turnover intention and marital status (Al-Ahmadi, 2014).

4.2.3.4   Influence of tenure and experience

Intention to leave seems lower for employees who remain in their positions for longer (Kabungaidze & Mahlatshana, 2013). There appears to be a negative relationship between individuals' years of experience and turnover intention. More specifically, it seems that

employees who have less tenure may experience lower intention to leave (Al-Ahmadi, 2014; Stewart et al. 2011). Research findings indicate that nurses with more years of experience tend to display higher turnover intentions as opposed to nurses with less than one year's experience, which can create a problem for organisations to replace these experienced employees (Al-Ahmadi, 2014).

Conversely, Helm (2013) has found that employees who have been with the organisation for longer and take more pride in their organisational membership seem to display a lower tendency to exit the organisation. There seems to be mixed results with regards to tenure and turnover intentions.

4.2.3.5   Level of education

Research indicates a relationship between employees' level of education and their level of turnover intention (Al-Ahmadi, 2014; Borkowski, Amann, Song, & Weiss, 2007; Stewart et al., 2011). Al-Ahmadi (2014) has found that nurses with postgraduate degrees seem to have higher turnover intentions as opposed to individuals who possess high school level education. The author argues that an increased level of education may increase an employee's probability to obtain better employment opportunities. The author also argues that advanced educated individuals may be more inclined to develop their careers, which subsequently require them to change employers more often than the average individual (Al-Ahmadi, 2014).

On the other hand, another research study indicates that individuals with higher levels of education seem more committed and may display a lower intention to leave the organisation (Borkowski et al., 2007). There seems to be an inconsistency in research with regard to level of education and turnover intentions.

4.2.3.6   Influence of work/family

The systems perspective (Bronfenbrenner, 1989) posits that career choices are affected by employees' and their family members' attitudes, morals and principles. Therefore, employees' spouses or partners have a significant influence on their employment decisions and may inspire them to remain with the organisation or urge employees to look for better employment opportunities. Spousal encouragement is viewed as a resource that can enhance employees' outlook on life and improve their actions at work (Huffman, Casper, & Payne, 2014).

Research findings indicate that individuals with no family responsibilities may display higher intentions to leave the organisation (Stewart et al., 2011). Thus, one's family responsibilities and spousal support seem to influence one's turnover intentions.

4.2.3.7 Work environment

Takase, Oba, and Yamashita (2009) have found that intense work demands and interpersonal problems seem to be significant factors that negatively influence employees' turnover intentions. It seems that employees who experience increased work demands and interpersonal conflict may display more intentions to leave the organisation.

In summary, it seems that older employees may experience more job satisfaction (Benson & Brown, 2011; Proost et al., 2015) and have lower intentions to leave their employers (Benson & Brown, 2011; Kabungaidze & Mahlatshana, 2013; Plooy & Roodt, 2013; Cheung & Wu, 2013). There seems to be mixed results between gender, tenure, level of education and turnover intentions. On the other hand, no significant differences seem to exist between marital status and turnover intentions (Al-Ahmadi, 2014). In addition, it seems that work/family can influence employees' intention to leave the organisation (Huffman et al., 2014). Finally, it appears that work demands and conflict in the workplace may increase employees' intention to leave the organisation (Takase et al., 2009). Therefore, it seems that age, gender, tenure, experience, level of education, work/family influence and work environment influence individuals' intention to leave their employers.

Herewith research aim 2, namely to conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature, has been achieved.

Research aim 4, to conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experience/perception of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions, has been achieved.

Next, an overview is provided of the practical implications for employee wellness and talent retention.

4.3   IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

From the literature above, it seems that the construct of workplace bullying may have an influence on the wellbeing of employees and consequently, influence their intention to stay at their employing organisations, which can further influence the survival of organisations.

4.3.1   Workplace bullying

Glasø et al. (2011) posit that negative behaviour in the form of workplace bullying may be reasonably common, since 70% of respondents in their research study have indicated some kind of exposure to bullying actions in the work context. Many individuals may be at risk of being exposed to workplace bullying, since it appears to be a chronic problem (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). Research findings indicate that bullying activities may reduce victims' job satisfaction and increase their intention to exit the organisation. Thus, it is essential for management to handle bullying occurrences effectively in order to avoid increased job dissatisfaction and prevent high turnover intentions (Glasø et al., 2011).

Employees who are subjected to acts of bullying may become tangled in a vicious circle of occurrences, since stress and unsatisfied targets may emphasise and intensify potential threats from their work environment, which can increase negative feelings and lower positive emotions (Glasø et al., 2011). More specifically, targets who find themselves caught in the vicious circle of occurences may experience potential threats or stressors in the workplace as more intense, which may increase negative feelings. These increased negative emotions and lower positive moods may instigate the utilisation of ineffective coping methods, which in turn, can create lower job satisfaction and increased turnover intentions (Glasø et al., 2011).

Workplace bullying seems to be a dreadful, terrifying and devastating experience that influences victims and witnesses of bullying (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008), as previously mentioned. Bullying may result in symptoms such as anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion, frustration, decreased focus, lowered self-esteem and feelings of helplessness (Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). Consequently, these elements may have a negative influence on employees' psychological wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).

Over time the severity of the bullying actions may increase and cause victims to feel constantly stressed, leaving them vulnerable and unable to cope with these situations. Eventually victims may become dysfunctional at work due to the constant psychological

pressures to which they are exposed (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). Victims may also experience negative flashbacks of the bullying incidents. This makes it more challenging to focus on their work or to find relevant descriptions to vocalise emotions relevant to the negative happenings (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). It seems that workplace bullying creates persistent stress which may eventually drain employees. Consequently, targets may make use of maladaptive coping techniques, which may further result in decreased psychological wellbeing and poor work performance.

In addition, research indicates that some organisational cultures may aggravate the workplace bullying dilemma, since supervisors may not be able to identify behaviour as bullying or simply view it as a tough management style. Management may also choose to ignore the problem, which can further promote bullying behaviour. When managers make use of bullying actions it may imply that this type of behaviour is accepted as the norm within the organisation and some employees may also start to bully other employees (Georgakopoulos, Wilkin, & Kent, 2011). It appears that an organisational culture can either promote or supress bullying behaviour, depending on the manner in which management handles the bullying incidents.

Hauge et al. (2010) have found that workplace bullying is a powerful interpersonal stressor with outcomes more intense than the effects of other stressors one is normally confronted in the organisational context. As previously mentioned, employees exposed to bullying activities may experience psychological and physical symptoms, post-traumatic stress, lowered organisational commitment, job satisfaction (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) and increased intentions to leave (Djurkovic et al., 2008; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

Victims also start to behave differently outside the work context. They may find it challenging to maintain the same interest and enthusiasm in their hobbies and interpersonal activities (Oade, 2009). Targets frequently leave work emotionally drained, since they view the workplace as a place where they constantly need to fight for survival; they have limited energy and commitment left after a day's work. Victims often find it difficult to confide in others, since they feel that others may not understand what they are going through and may not be able to support them (Oade, 2009).

Psychological and physical wellbeing are vital to maintain efficient work functioning, since one needs to be rested in order to have the necessary energy, focus and engagement on a cognitive level to perform at work (Schat & Frone, 2011). It seems that workplace bullying may affect employees and their families as well as organisational performance and success

negatively. Workplace bullying is viewed as a significant problem that needs to be managed and prevented actively (Balducci et al., 2012; Hauge et al., 2010)

In summary, workplace bullying seems to influence employee wellness and performance as well as organisational success and productivity negatively. Consequently, it may increase turnover intention, as indicated in table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6

Summary of the Core Practical Implications of Workplace Bullying

Practical implications of workplace bullying	
Individual level implications	**Organisational level implications**
Many individuals may be at risk of being exposed to workplace bullying (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).	Workplace bullying seems to be a common (Glasø et al. 2011) and frequent problem (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011) in the workplace.
Can reduce employee job satisfaction (Glasø et al., 2011)	May increase turnover intention (Glasø et al., 2011)
Threats in the workplace are experienced as more intense and consequently increase negative feelings and lower positve emotions (Glasø et al., 2011).	May lower job satisfaction and consequently increase intention to leave
Workplace bullying is a dreadful, terrifying and devastating experience for both victims and witnesses (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008).	May decrease employee wellness

Practical implications of workplace bullying	
Individual level implications	**Organisational level implications**
Can cause symptoms such as anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion, frustration, decreased focus, lowered self-esteem and feelings of helplessness (Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). These may consequently have a negative influence on employees' psychological wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011) and lower physical wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012)	Decreased organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) and increased intentions to leave (Djurkovic et al., 2008; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012) Decreased employee wellness (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012)
Over time the severity of the bullying actions may increase and cause victims to feel constantly stressed, leaving them vulnerable and unable to cope with these situations. Employees battle to focus on their work (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).	Decreased psychological wellbeing, which may cause poor work performance Razzaghian & Shah, 2011)
Sends message to employees that bullying behaviour is acceptable Viewed as the norm, which may further increase bullying type of behaviour (Georgakopoulos et al., 2011)	Management may choose to ignore workplace bullying behaviour or not be able to identify and categorise negative acts as bullying (Georgakopoulos et al., 2011).
Spillover to personal life, which causes one to experience problems in personal activities and interpersonal problems with family and friends. Frequently leave work emotionally drained, have limited energy and commitment left after a day's work (Oade, 2009)	Decreased organisational commitment
Targets often find it difficult to confide in others, since they feel that others may not understand what they are going through and may not be able to support them (Oade, 2009).	Decreased trust and superficial interpersonal relationships

Next, the practical implications of turnover intention for employee wellness and talent retention will be explained.

4.3.2 Turnover intention

High voluntary turnover negatively influences organisational growth and success; therefore, human resource management is concerned with interventions to reduce the loss of performing employees (Ozolina-Ozola, 2014). The retention of talented individuals is essential for organisations to survive the new changing nature of the world of work (Garciá-Chas, Neira-Fontela, & Castro-Casal, 2014). In addition, turnover intention receives great attention, since it is viewed as the most direct predictor of real turnover behaviour. High turnover intention employees can also negatively influence their colleagues' turnover behaviour and work performance in general (Hom & Griffeth 1991; Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2013), which may consequently result in more talented employees leaving the organisation.

Research indicates that human resource practices can send messages to employees of how much they are valued, and may further create positive attitudes among employees. These positive attitudes towards the employing organisation may consequently cause lower turnover intentions, and reduce costs associated with high voluntary turnover (Garciá-Chas et al., 2014; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). It seems that management may benefit to signal to employees that they are valued by the organisation in order to create a more positive attitude towards the company. This may decrease turnover intentions and increase work performance. Indirect costs such as reduced performance may be hidden as opposed to more direct costs that are more noticeable and concrete such as salary expenses (Jones & Gates, 2007).

Conflict seems complex and there are many factors that contribute to the escalation or resolution of conflict. Furthermore, conflict in the workplace that is not handled effectively may also be costly to organisations, individuals and the community. Research indicates that the manner in which supervisors respond to conflict and visibly support employees can influence the procedural justice climate of the organisation, and subsequently employee health and morale (Way, Jimmieson, & Bordia, 2014). Thus, it seems that the reaction of management during conflict situations, especially when it is effective, can contribute to a perception of procedural justice and may consequently increase the optimism and wellbeing of employees.

Research findings indicate that employees who perceive supervisors to be highly cooperative may have a lower probability of experiencing sleep disturbances and job dissatisfaction (Way et al., 2014). The way conflict is handled in work groups also affect observers and cause strain for all parties involved (Way et al., 2014), which may consequently increase turnover intention (Schat & Frone, 2011; Zhang & Lee, 2010). It seems that interpersonal conflict that is not managed effectively by supervisors may create strain for bystanders and witnesses, influencing the turnover intention of everyone involved negatively.

Research findings indicate that individuals who perceive that management support their development through various training and development possibilities, and who also receive encouragement to obtain their career ambitions appear less inclined to have intentions of leaving the company (Shuck, Twyford, Reio Jr., & Shuck, 2014). Employees may feel emotionally tied (emotionally attached) to the organisation when they view their employer as supportive to their own career development (Shuck et al., 2014). As such, the environment of value creates a sequence of thought appraisals through which a perspective of social exchange is initiated. More specifically, employees may be more willing to invest their talents, competencies and skills back into the company. Consequently, they have decreased intentions of leaving, since they feel that the company rewards their efforts by providing support, training and development (Shuck et al., 2014). It seems that employees feel emotionally connected when their employer creates a supportive work environment. As a result, employees may display increased performance and decreased turnover intentions, especially when their efforts are reciprocated by the employer.

Finally, employee wellbeing plays a significant part in talent retention, which is vital for organisational success. Since a healthy and positive organisation may create a climate where talented employees may choose to remain with the company (Ulrich, Brockban, Johnson, Sandholtz, & Younger, 2008), it may promote increased productivity and ultimately organisational success.

In summary, effective human resource practices, supportive management, training and development opportunities as well as the effective management of conflict resolution can increase employee wellness, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and work engagement. Consequently, employees may display increased work performance and decreased turnover intention. This may contribute to organisational productivity, overall success and increased talent retention, as indicated in table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7

Summary of the Core Practical Implications of Turnover Intention

Practical implications of turnover intention	
Individual level implications	**Organisational level implications**
Increased thoughts of leaving the organisation	Increased voluntary turnover decrease organisational growth and success (Ozolina-Ozola, 2014)
High turnover intention employees may also negatively influence their colleagues' turnover behaviour and work performance in general (Hom & Griffeth 1991; Kim, Lee & Lee, 2013).	Decreased organisational productivity, increased turnover intention and lower talent retention
Employees feel valued and positive towards the organisation. They have decreased thoughts of leaving the employer.	Effective human resource strategies can send messages to employees of how much they are valued, and may further create positive attitudes among employees. Consequently, effective human resource strategies may cause lower turnover intentions and reduce costs associated with high voluntary turnover (Garciá-Chas et al., 2014; Wayne et al., 1997).
Decreased employee morale and wellness (Way et al., 2014) Consequently increased turnover intention (Schat & Frone, 2011; Zhang & Lee, 2010)	Interpersonal conflict that is not managed effectively by supervisors can lead to the escalation of conflict (Way et al., 2014).
Employees may be less inclined to have intentions of leaving the organisation (Shuck et al., 2014). Increased work engagement and commitment (Shuck et al., 2014)	Management who support the development of employees through various training and development opportunities, and also encourage individuals to reach their career ambitions may decrease turnover intention (Shuck et al., 2014).
Increased employee wellness Decreased turnover intention (Ulrich et al., 2008)	Healthy and positive organisations lead to increased talent retention and organisational success (Ulrich et al., 2008).

In conclusion, the literature review indicates that bullying behaviour in the workplace has negative practical implications on employees' psychological wellbeing and their turnover

intentions. This may consequently have detrimental effects for employers. Bullying behaviour in the workplace should be managed effectively to prevent increased voluntary turnover. Below, Table 4.8 provides a summary of the concepts of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Table 4.8

Summary of the Concepts of Workplace Bullying and Turnover Intention

	Workplace bullying	**Turnover intention**
Core conceptualisation	Workplace bullying can be viewed as incidents in the workplace where a person becomes the target of persistent negative actions from one or several individuals. Targets may find it difficult to defend themselves against these frequent actions, which occur over an extended period of time. An isolated once-off incident is not regarded as bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).	Turnover intention occurs when employees have a higher behavioural intent to leave their current occupational roles (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008) and hold a focused objective or plan to exit their employing organisation (DeTienne et al., 2012).
Theoretical model	Workplace bullying model (Einarsen et al., 2003) Dimensions: Contributing/deterring factors: Situational / contextual Individual Social Organisation	Turnover intention model (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) Dimensions: Mastery-oriented goals (developing skills and acquiring knowledge) Intrinsic motivation: inherent psychological needs: a need (1) autonomy, (2) competence, and (3) connectedness
Influencing variables	Biological factors Early life experiences Personality Organisational factors	Age Gender Marital status Tenure

	Workplace bullying	**Turnover intention**
Influencing variables *(continue)*	Age Gender Culture and climate Supervision Mental distress	Experience Level of education Work/family influence Work environment influence
Implication for employee wellness and talent retention	Work stress (such as unreasonable deadlines), interpersonal conflict or aggressive personality types may predict bullying behaviour and contribute to a work environment of bullying. Victims of bullying who effectively cope with bullying behaviour tend to fight back with similar behaviour and consequently weaken the intensity of the conflict situation. Targets who battle to cope with workplace bullying may contribute to a conflict situation that escalates and the offender may continue targeting the victim. Victims may adjust their coping strategies and become withdrawn and less sociable rather than being actively involved in work activities. Victims' personality characteristics may change and they may become more aggressive in an attempt to cope with the offender's behaviour.	Employees with high levels of intrinsic motivation may be more able to cope more effectively with incidences of workplace bullying, since their internal drive may act as a buffer to protect them during strenuous circumstances such as workplace bullying, which may lower their intentions to leave. Employees who have high levels of mastery-oriented goals may be so focused on exploring new development opportunities that the incidence of workplace bullying may influence (drive) them to seek other occupational opportunities for personal growth and an improved work environment.

	Workplace bullying	**Turnover intention**
Implication for employee wellness and talent retention *(continue)*	Employers can prevent incidents of bullying when they prohibit bullying behaviour and consistently apply consequences for negative work behaviour. Employers can facilitate a safe and trusting work environment that may promote higher employee psychological wellbeing and lower intention to leave.	

4.4 EVALUATION OF RESEARCH LITERATURE

From the abovementioned literature review it seems that workplace bullying negatively affects victims and bystanders' psychological wellbeing (Heugten, 2012; Hogh et al., 2011; Oade, 2009) and physical health (Heugten, 2012; Oade, 2009). Subtle negative behaviour may cause witnesses to doubt bullying behaviour and question victims' perceptions of the occurrences (Samnani, 2013). Eventually witnesses may end up siding with the offender (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2011; Samnani, 2013).

It seems that offenders normally aim to isolate and exclude targets. Many victims experience lower self-confidence, and they lose faith in their colleagues and employers (Heugten, 2012). Persistent exposure to bullying actions may become an enormous source of stress and cause victims great physical and psychological strain (Hogh et al., 2011; Oade, 2009). Employees who are frequently subjected to bullying behaviour may eventually struggle to cope effectively with occurrences of bullying, and even daily work activities may become more challenging (Leymann, 1990). Employees who experience intense stress at work may be more inclined to have increased turnover intentions (Paillé, 2011).

Employees who are socially excluded at work appear to have a higher likelihood to leave the company as opposed to employees who receive acceptance and support from supervisors and colleagues (Renn et al., 2013). Continuous exposure to stress such as workplace bullying may cause individuals to feel mentally drained and they may display increased intentions to leave the organisation (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). Similarly, abusive supervision seems to influence employees' job satisfaction negatively and create increased psychological strain, which can increase individuals' intentions to leave even further (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Rodwell et al., 2014). Victims may utilise the exit coping strategy by actually leaving their employing organisation (Liefooghe & Roongrerngsuke, 2012).

Next, the theoretical integration is provided in an attempt to explore whether a theoretical relationship exists between the constructs of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research aim 5, namely to conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, explains this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 6, to identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting an individual's self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, will be addressed.

Finally, research aim 7, to outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices, will be discussed.

4.5 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION TOWARDS A PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING PROFILE

The general aim of this research is to investigate and determine whether individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation.

The research also aims to investigate and determine the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile (constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), and whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding these variables.

Furthermore, the research aims to outline the implications of an overall psychological wellbeing profile to inform employee wellness and retention practices in a diverse South African organisational context.

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989) suggests that individuals attempt to acquire, maintain, promote and safeguard things that are important to them (Hobfoll, 1988, 1998, 2002). Individuals tend to experience stress when the acquisition or loss of their resources is threatened. The acquisition and facilitation of resources are, therefore, viewed as a significant motivational dimension (Hobfoll, 2002).

One of the main principles of the COR theory is that individuals need to safeguard their resources against loss, to recuperate from loss and to increase their resources (Hobfoll, 2011). Hobfoll (2011) argues that people with more resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more capable to obtain resources. Also, people with fewer resources are more vulnerable and less able to obtain more resources. Thus, individuals with more resources might appear psychologically stronger and able to deal better with difficult situations.

General resources can be described as things that are important to a person (health and close relationships) or that is needed to gain important things (money and social support) (Hobfoll, 2002). Personal resources can be viewed as positive facets of the self that represent a person's capability to control and impact circumstances successfully (Hobfoll, Johnson, Ennis, & Jackson, 2003). Individuals who exhibit personal resources seem to feel in control and are more capable to cope with life events.

Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009a) posit that personal resources operate similar to job resources (for example supervisor support). Job resources protect individuals from stressful circumstances, are utilised to reach objectives, and inspire advancement and development (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). Personal resources may protect individuals' psychological wellbeing from negative effects caused by stressful situations, assist individuals to reach their goals and trigger personal development.

Stress can be caused by actual or imagined stimuli that are viewed as threats to physical and psychological wellbeing (Anitei et al., 2012). Pratt and Barling's (1988) workplace stress model suggests that, when there is a stressor (objective or event), a person cognitively evaluates and decides how to react to the stressor (psychological stress or strain).

A stressful event may cause individuals to experience psychological and physical effects (Eden, 1982). The severity of such a stressful experience depends on the individual's ability to cope with the event or situation. "Coping" is defined as cognitive and behavioural attempts that change continuously to achieve certain external and/or internal difficulties that are

beyond the resources of the individual (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Individuals need various mental and behavioural competencies, which need to be adjusted regularly in order to cope with life stressors and difficult situations. Effective coping strategies often used by employees are to avoid the bully or to find a way to leave the situation (Aquino & Thau, 2009). In the workplace, the employee may decide to leave the department or organisation in order to avoid the offender.

On the other hand, Van Heugten (2012) states that stress may be the reason for conflict as opposed to be the result of conflict. Also, conflict should rather be expressed than avoided, since avoidance may cause more stress. Avoidance as a coping strategy may not always prove to be effective for difficult or stressful work situations.

The COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) also posits that resource obtainment and positive feelings are imperative during the process of resource loss (Hobfoll, 2002). The capability to gain resources is especially important during resource loss, following stressful circumstances, in order to protect the effects on emotional and functional outcomes (Hobfoll, 2002; Wells, Hobfoll, & Lavin, 1999). It seems that individuals can protect their psychological wellbeing during stressful events through the obtainment and maintenance of resources.

Finne, Knardahl and Lau (2011) have found that employees who are being bullied experience severe symptoms of mental distress. The direct result of workplace bullying is stress, while common symptoms are a negative attitude, poor concentration and feelings of fear (Ford, 2013). Stress causes a person to experience psychological problems, for example depression and psychosomatic problems (Barling, 1996).

Hence, personal resources may buffer the effect of stress on an individual's psychological wellbeing caused by workplace bullying. Shack et al. (2011) have found that employees who perceive that they have the physical, emotional and psychological resources that are essential for work performance are less likely to demonstrate an intention to leave. It seems that personal resources may decrease employees' intention to leave their employing organisation.

As seen in figure 4.11, this study focuses on the constructs of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. These constructs are regarded as core self-evaluations, which act as personal resources in managing stressful situations such as bullying. These personal resources may also reduce turnover intention (intention to leave).

This research study highlights that biographical factors, namely age, gender, race, tenure and job level may influence employees' psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.
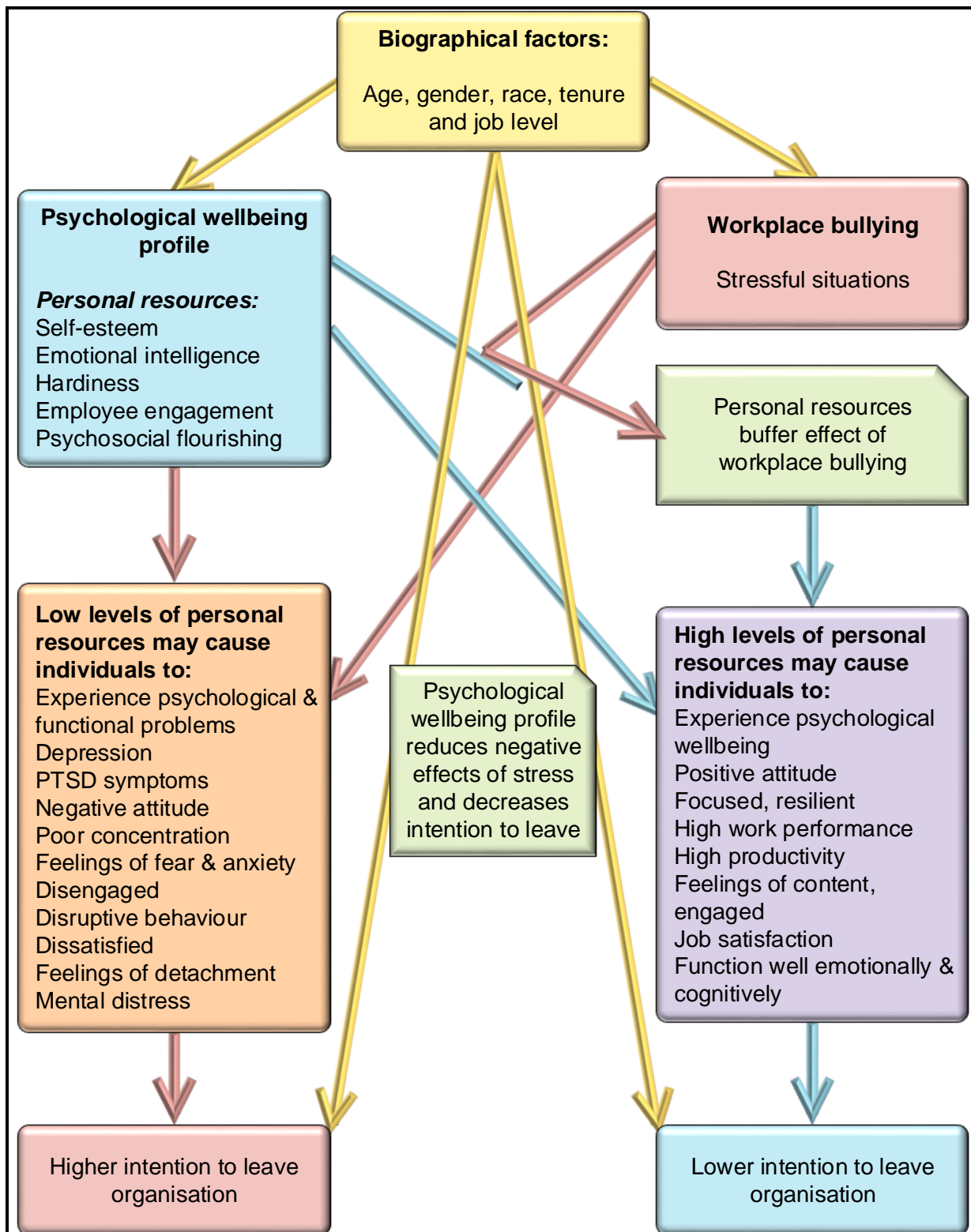
Figure 4.11: Psychological wellbeing profile mediates the relation between experiences of bullying and intention to leave the organisation

Table 4.9 below indicates the elements (cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal) that constitute the hypothesised theoretical psychological wellbeing profile.

Table 4.9

Psychological Wellbeing Profile Reflecting Wellbeing-Related Dispositional Attributes (Self-esteem, Emotional Intelligence, Hardiness, Work Engagement and Psychosocial Flourishing), Workplace Bullying and Turnover Intention

Levels	Psychological wellbeing resources					Behavioural dimensions	
	Self-esteem	Emotional intelligence	Hardiness	Work engagement	Psychosocial flourishing	Workplace bullying	Turnover intention
Cognitive	Thoughts about self Positive attitude Self-acceptance Protect against negative or stressful events	Ability to recognise and apply emotions	Aware of ambitions and abilities	Aware of work roles and mission	Mental wellbeing Promotes mindfulness Functions well	Negative attitude Ability to cope or not to cope with situations	Evaluates other opportunities Intention to stay/leave
Affective (emotional)	Feelings about self Subjective Not based on certain behaviour	Experiences more positive feelings. Optimistic.	Feel in control of their life Committed to values, aims and skills	Emotional bond with job Empathy. Involved in and satisfied with job	Positive feelings often Optimistic and content Fulfilled life	Feel anxious Fear, exhaustion, burnout, stress, strain and mental distress	Satisfied, content Attachment to work. Exhaustion Stress

Levels	Psychological wellbeing resources					Behavioural dimensions	
	Self-esteem	Emotional intelligence	Hardiness	Work engagement	Psychosocial flourishing	Workplace bullying	Turnover intention
Conative (motivational)	Attempts to correct balance between self-esteem and feedback from others	Controls emotions to direct energy positively	Views difficult situations as challenges	Enthusiastic Focused energy Contributes to organisation's productivity and success	Committed and actively involved in reaching life goals	Lower productivity Lower work performance	Meaningful work. Compensation
Interpersonal (social)	Receives feedback from others with regard to self-worth	Handles emotions of others Manages conflict and assists with negotiation			Social wellbeing Healthy interactions Helps others Participates in community	Conflict Stressful relationships Disruptive behaviour	Positive work relationships Leadership Organisational and supervisor support

283

On a *cognitive level*, individuals' **self-esteem** is viewed as a diverse construct that consists of secure and fragile aspects (Kernis, 2003). Secure high self-esteem indicates positive thoughts toward the self that are rational, realistic and resilient to threat. Hence, people with a secure high self-esteem may be more capable to accept themselves as they are as opposed to generate negative impressions about themselves (Zeigler-Hill, Masri, Smith, Vonk, Madson, & Zhang, 2013). High self-esteem acts as a buffer and protects people against the harmful effects of negative experiences such as bullying (Brown, 2010; Zeigler-Hill, 2013). On an *affective level,* self-esteem indicates how individuals feel about themselves, which is part of the self-concept (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). The emotional self-assessment is subjective and not based on any particular behaviour (Robins, Hendin, & Trzesniewski, 2001). Individuals may feel that they are 'good enough' and valuable but not necessarily better than others (Rosenberg, 1989). Self-esteem on an *interpersonal level* is reflected through a person's external feedback with regard to his or her relational worth to others. When it is consistent with someone's self-esteem, that person may experience emotions of self-control and confidence. In contrast, when the feedback is incongruent with the person's self-esteem, feelings of uneasiness and embarrassment are produced (Stinson et al., 2010).

On a *conative (motivational) level*, an individual will attempt to correct the inconsistency between feedback and self-esteem (Stinson et al., 2010). It seems that individuals are motivated to maintain consistency between their self-esteem and external opinions of their personal value. Over the long-term, these attempts eventually drain their emotional resources (Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Panaccio, 2011). It is clear that self-esteem protects a person during strenuous circumstances. In essence, high self-esteem appears to be a personal resource that may protect a person during the exposure of bullying behaviour and reduce his or her intention to leave the employer.

On a *cognitive level*, **emotional intelligence** is the ability to observe, process, manage and apply emotional data (Bar-on, 2005). Individuals with higher emotional intelligence have a greater capability to view and reason around emotions. This ability facilitates greater positive feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Thus, emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise emotions, which can result in optimistic and constructive feelings. Bar-On (1997) has categorised emotional intelligence into five types of skills, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood (to cope with expectations and stress). On an *affective level*, highly emotionally intelligent individuals tend to display more optimistic feelings as opposed to negative feelings that may contribute to psychological wellbeing. It seems that emotional intelligence can protect a person against

negative events and lower one's mental distress (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kong et al., 2012).

Emotional intelligence on an *interpersonal level* is when a person is not only able to control his or her feelings but also handle the emotions of others (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002). Emotional intelligence entails the social skills that are required to manage conflict and negotiate successfully (Aliasgari & Farzadnia, 2012). Emotional intelligence acts as a resource to assist a person when dealing with confrontations effectively and to influence others (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982). In essence, high emotional intelligence may act as a buffer to protect employees during exposure to bullying behaviour and may even reduce their intentions to leave the organisation.

On a *cognitive level*, **hardiness** in individuals causes them to be intensely aware of their ambitions and abilities (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982). It seems that individuals with high levels of hardiness are able to recognise what they are good at and know what they want to achieve in life. On an *affective level*, hardiness in individuals tends to let them feel more in control of what happens in their lives (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2007). It appears that people who possess high levels of hardiness may feel that they can cope with daily events. These individuals are extremely attached (committed) to their values, aims and skills (Kobasa, 1982). Hardy individuals seem to have an emotional bond with their goals and abilities.

On a *conative (motivational) level,* individuals who possess high levels of hardiness view difficult or stressful situations as challenges rather than threats. They seem motivated to accept new tasks and appear to have a positive attitude when dealing with challenging circumstances (Bartone, Barry, & Armstrong, 2009; Kobasa, 1982). According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2007), high hardiness people are more resilient to stress and confident that they can impact their environment. They view stressful circumstances as challenges rather than threats (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). It seems that hardiness may act as a buffer during difficult situations. In essence, individuals who possess high levels of hardiness may have the necessary personal resources to protect them during exposure to workplace bullying, resulting in decreased intentions to exit the organisation.

On a *cognitive level*, **work engagement** refers to individuals who are aware of their work roles and mission (Abraham, 2012). It seems that engaged employees know where they are going (mission) and what is expected of them (role) in the work environment. On an *affective level*, work engagement represents a condition where a person has an emotional

bond with his or her job (Kahn, 1990, 1992). Thus, highly engaged individuals seem to be attached to their work. In addition, emotionally engaged employees have good relationships with management and their co-workers, and they are likely to have empathy towards others (Abraham, 2012). Engaged individuals tend to be involved in their work and are satisfied with their jobs (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002).

On a *conative (motivational) level,* emotionally engaged individuals tend to display enthusiasm, and have a focused energy to reach personal and organisational goals (Macey & Schneider, 2008). It seems that people with high levels of engagement have a positive attitude and may act accordingly. They are motivated to contribute to the productivity and success of their organisations (Abraham, 2012). These individuals also take pride in their work and are willing to go the extra mile to ensure their work is completed and of good quality (Frank et al., 2004). Emotionally engaged employees seem to have an internal energy that may assist them to continue when circumstances are challenging. In essence, highly engaged employees may possess a personal resource that may act as a buffer to protect them during incidences of workplace bullying, and they may display decreased intentions to leave the organisation.

On a *cognitive level*, **psychosocial flourishing** can be viewed as a condition of ultimate mental wellbeing (Catalino & Frederickson, 2011). Research indicates that psychosocial flourishing promotes mindfulness (Catalino & Frederickson, 2011), where a person is able to focus for the purpose of attaining a particular goal (Kabat-Zinn, 1990). High flourishing individuals seem to function effectively on the cognitive level. On an *affective level*, individuals who flourish psychosocially experience "good" feelings on a regular basis (Keyes, 2007). It seems that people who flourish psychosocially are positive and optimistic most of the time. Individuals who experience emotional wellbeing feel content and fulfilled with their lives (Huppert & So, 2013). They also tend to enjoy most things in life and may be less likely to experience mental distress (Catalino & Fredrickson, 2011).

On a *conative (motivational) level*, individuals who flourish psychosocially seem involved and committed to their personal projects (Diener et al., 2010; Younkins, 2011). They take responsibility for the accomplishment of their life ambitions (Younkins, 2011). People who flourish psychosocially tend to explore actively and are involved in the search for a general purpose or meaning in life (Seligman, 2002). On an *interpersonal level*, individuals experience social wellbeing when they function well in their communities and have healthy interactions with others (Diener et al., 2010; Keyes, 2002). They are also able to participate in the process of helping others (Diener et al., 2010). It seems that psychosocial flourishing

may act as a buffer to protect a person from stress and difficult happenings during exposure to bullying behaviour and may reduce his or her intention to terminate employment.

The hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile in relation to workplace bullying and turnover intention is illustrated in figure 4.12.
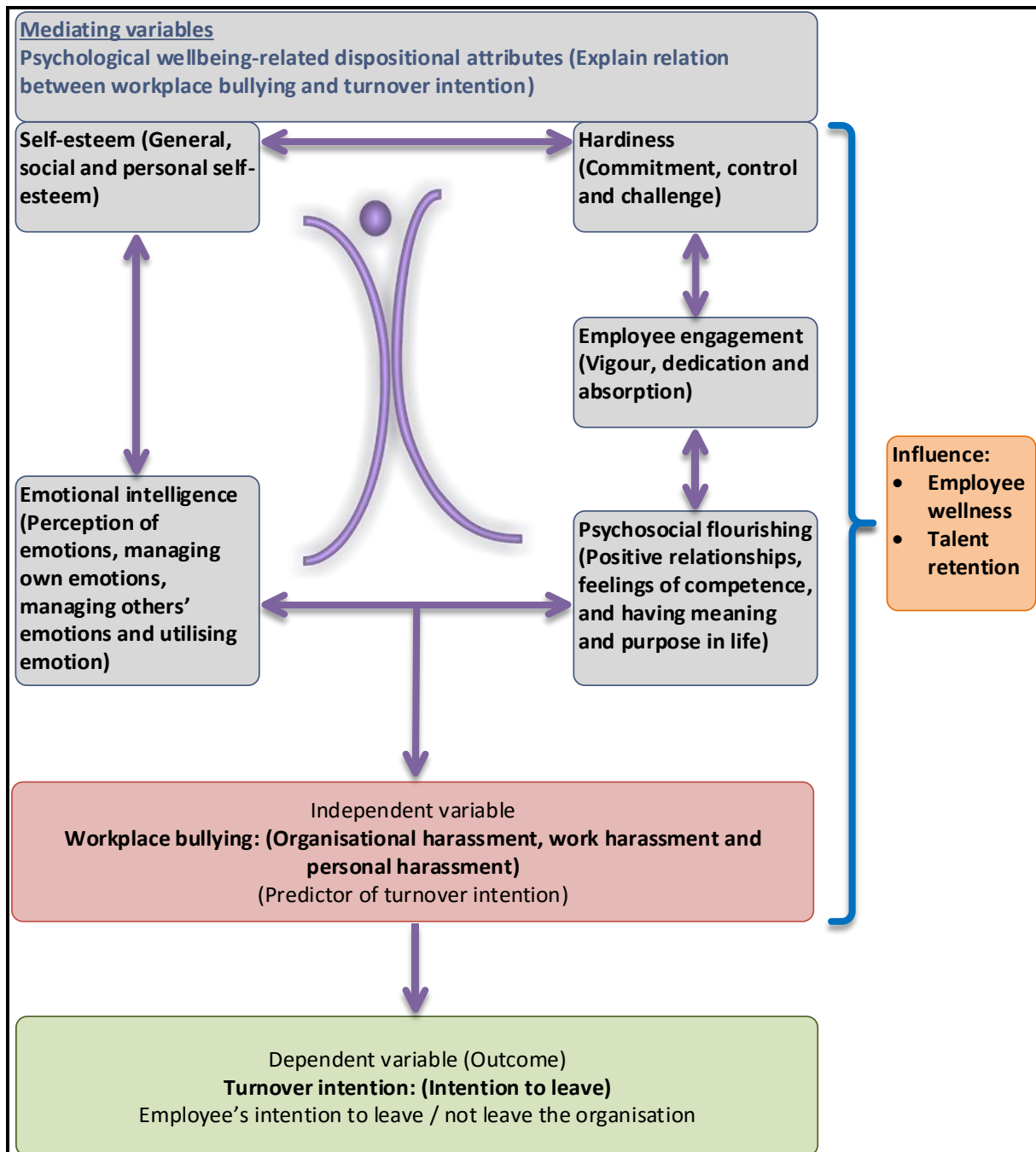
Figure 4.12: Hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile in relation to bullying and intention to leave

The research literature indicates the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting an individual's self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Moreover, the literature also indicates a theoretical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research seems limited with regard to the workplace bullying concept in the South African work context as well as the influence of bullying on employees' professional and personal lives (De Wet, 2014). Workplace bullying may be challenging to identify and, therefore management may not notice the negative actions of perpetrators (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). There seems to be a great need to research workplace bullying further (Balducci et al., 2012). Voluntary turnover of talented employees is an immense problem for organisations due to the enormous costs involved (Huffman et al., 2014). There appears to be a paucity of research on the strength of workplace bullying as a predictor of employees' psychological wellbeing (Hauge et al., 2010).

The central hypothesis of this research is that individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) will constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile. It is proposed that individuals' psychological wellbeing profile will significantly mediate the effect of their experiences of bullying on their intention to leave the organisation. More specifically, a strong psychological wellbeing profile will significantly reduce the negative effect of bullying experiences on individuals' intention to leave the organisation. The effect of negative experiences of bullying on strong intentions to leave will be significantly lowered because of the positive psychological strengths embedded in the overall psychological wellbeing profile. Moreover, individuals from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups may have different levels of psychological wellbeing resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), and different experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

In conclusion, the literature review indicates that exposure to workplace bullying has damaging practical implications on employees' psychological wellbeing. Exposure to workplace bullying may increase employees' turnover intentions and consequently effect the overall performance and success of organisations negatively.

This research aims to construct a psychological wellbeing profile, which may potentially inform human resource and industrial psychology professionals on employee wellbeing support interventions and talent retention practices in South African organisations.

Herewith, research aim 5, to conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention and explains this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model, has been achieved.

Research aim 6, to identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile, constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, has been achieved.

Finally, research aim 7, to outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices, has been achieved.

4.6   EVALUATION

This chapter has focused on the conceptualisation of workplace bullying and turnover intentions. Theoretical models have been highlighted. Influencing variables which may influence the occurrence of workplace bullying and affect employees' intention to leave their employing organisations have also been provided.

Workplace bullying is conceptualised as happenings in the workplace that involve one to become the focus of continuous negative acts from one or several employees, where one finds it difficult to defend oneself against these persistent actions, which occur at least once a week or over a period of at least six months (Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2011; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Workplace bullying is viewed in terms of the workplace bullying model of Einarsen et al. (2003) and posit that work stressors, interpersonal conflict and aggressive personality types can be contributing factors of bullying behaviour among employees or between management and subordinates. Furthermore, the personalities of targets may influence employees' perceptions of the bullying events, which in turn, can influence the manner in which employees react toward these bullying acts. Bullying behaviour seems to influence victims' coping strategies. The personality characteristics of victims may change in an attempt to deal with the offender's behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2003).

Turnover intention is conceptualised as an attentive aim or strategy to end employment and exit the organisation (DeTienne et al., 2012). Furthermore, turnover intention is viewed in terms of the turnover intention model of Dysvik & Kuvaas (2010), which suggest that mastery-oriented goals and intrinsic motivation are associated with turnover intention and may, therefore influence employees' intentions to leave their employing organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). The model is based on the goal orientation theory (Dweck, 1986) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). The turnover intention model Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) posits that employees who are exposed to workplace bullying may be more inclined to have thoughts of leaving due to their needs to explore and acquire new skills that may drive them to exit the organisation for new opportunities (high mastery-oriented goal individuals). In addition, employees who are exposed to workplace bullying may be less inclined to display intentions of leaving the organisation, because they have an internal energy or drive that may protect them during incidence of bullying, especially when their inherent psychological needs are satisfied within the organisation (highly intrinsic motivated employees).

In essence, employees who have increased levels of psychological wellbeing may cope more effectively when they experience stressors such as workplace bullying and, may therefore have a lower tendency to leave the employing organisation. High levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing can act as personal resources which may protect individuals during the exposure of bullying behaviour and consequently decrease employees' turnover intentions. Employee wellbeing plays a significant role in the retention of talented employees, which, in turn, may be vital for organisational productivity and overall success.

In summary, the present research takes a two-pronged approach to investigating the effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention as mediated by psychological wellbeing attributes. Firstly, a variable-centred approach is used to explore how bullying relates to turnover intention, and how psychological wellbeing attributes influence this relationship. Secondly, the research also takes a person-centred approach by assuming that individuals from homogenous socio-demographic subgroups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) will experience these variables differently and that these differences may potentially influence the relations between the variables, which in turn, will have specific implications for retention and wellness practices in the workplace. However, there exists a paucity in research into the theoretically hypothesised psychological wellbeing profile (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. This may provide insight into how employees cope

on a cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal level. This research study may also assist human resource professionals to increase employee wellness and to develop effective talent retention strategies.

4.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explored the conceptual foundations and models of the constructs of workplace bullying and turnover intention. It provided an overview of the literature pertaining to the theoretical models that predominantly influenced workplace bullying and turnover intention. The chapter provided a theoretical integration of the constructs of psychological wellbeing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The following literature research aims were achieved in chapter 4:

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experience/perception of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.

Research aim 5: To propose a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between constructs for the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research aim 6: To identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

Research aim 7: To outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices.

Chapter 5 focuses on the empirical research relevant to this research study.

CHAPTER 5: EMPIRICAL STUDY

This chapter highlights the statistical approach that has been applied to assess whether a psychological wellbeing profile can be constructed for employee wellness and talent retention purposes by examining the relationship subtleties between psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Firstly, a summary of the sample size and population of the research study is presented. The measuring instruments are discussed and motivated. Next, the data gathering and statistical processing methods are provided, and then the formulation of the research hypotheses is stated.

The empirical research phase consists of nine steps, as outlined below:

Step 1 Determination and description of the sample

Step 2 Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

Step 3 Ethical considerations and administration of the psychometric battery

Step 4 Capturing of criterion data

Step 5 Formulation of research hypotheses

Step 6 Statistical processing of the data

Step 7 Reporting and interpreting the results

Step 8 Integration of the research findings

Step 9 Formulation of research conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

Steps one to six are discussed in this chapter and steps seven to nine will be addressed in chapters 6 and 7.

5.1   DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

A sample refers to individuals who are chosen from a population and can be seen as the segment of the whole population that has been selected. This is of interest to the researcher (Hair et al., 2010). The most important aspect to consider is whether the sample size will be representative of the total population (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Probability sampling allows an equivalent likelihood of every facet in the target population of being chosen for the sample. On the other hand, the non-probability sampling method does not permit facets to be chosen based on the basis of organised randomness (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

A convenience sample was chosen for this research study. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method whereby a sample of participants is selected from a group that is easily and appropriately accessible to the researcher (Black, 2009; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). Convenience sampling allows the researcher to obtain information and research participants more easily, and is seen as a more cost-effective manner to obtain a sufficient sample size. However, the convenience sampling method can create a limitation on the interpretation of research results since the over- or underrepresentation of certain elements in the sample can occur (Black, 2009).

In this research study, the population comprised employees working in various industries in a diverse South African context. A convenience sample of 2 250 employees of different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups across South Africa was targeted, and constituted only permanently employed individuals. Individuals were required to complete paper-based or online versions of the seven measuring instruments and 373 usable questionnaires were received (N = 373). Therefore, a response rate of 16.6% was attained.

The biographical variables, namely age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups were included, based on the examination of the variables in the literature review, which influenced the constructs of psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

5.1.1 Composition of age groups in the sample

Table 5.1 and figure 5.1 illustrate the composition of age groups. The age of the respondents was measured in categories, ranging from 17 years to 60 years and older. The frequencies seemed to be concentrated mostly around the 40 to 49 age group (30.0%), and the 30 to 39 age group (29.5%).

Participants aged 17 to 29 years comprised 23.1%; those between the ages of 30 to 39 years 29.5%; those aged between the ages of 40 and 49 years 30.0%; those aged between the ages of 50 and 59 years 13.9%; and those who were 60 and older 3.5% of the total sample (N = 373).

Table 5.1 illustrates the age groups, according to Schein (1978) and Super's (1957) career life stages. Participants of 17 to 29 years are at the stage of entering the world of work/basic training, the socialisation/exploration stage; those aged between 30 and 39 at the full

membership/establishment/achievement stage; those aged between 40 and 49 in the maintenance/mid-career crisis stage, and those older than 50 in their mid-/late career stage.

Table 5.1

Age Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

		Age				
		Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**	**Super (1957) and Schein's (1974) Career Life Stages**
Valid	**17 to 29 years**	86	23.1	23.1	23.1	Exploration stage
	30 to 39 years	110	29.5	29.5	52.5	Establishment stage
	40 to 49 years	112	30.0	30.0	82.6	Maintenance stage
	50 to 59 years	52	13.9	13.9	96.5	Late career stage
	60 years and older	13	3.5	3.5	100.0	Late career stage
	Total	373	100.0	100.0		
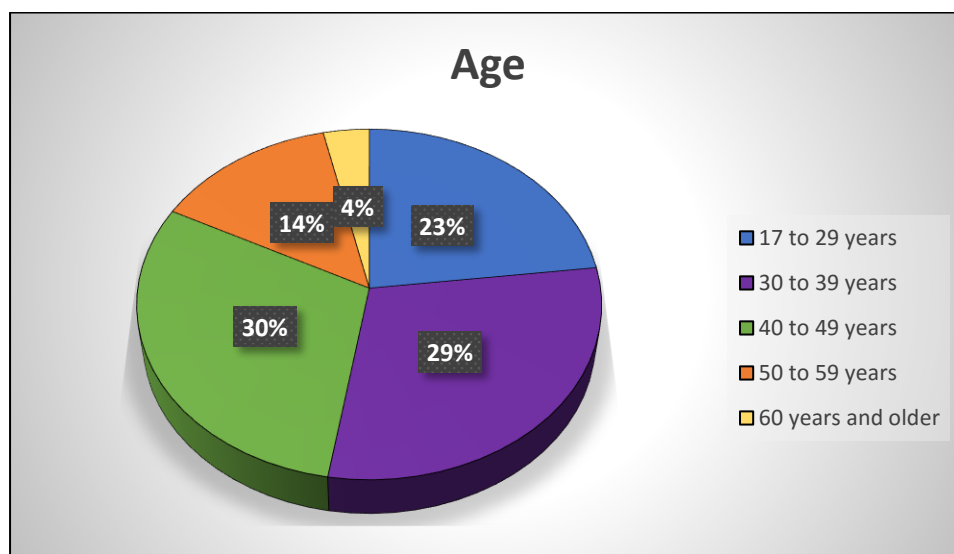
Figure 5.1: Sample distribution by age (N = 373)

5.1.2 Composition of gender groups in the sample

Table 5.2 and figure 5.2 illustrate the gender distribution of participants in the sample. Males comprised 37% and females comprised 63% of the participants (N = 373).

Table 5.2

Gender Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

		Frequency	**Gender Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	**Males**	138	37.0	37.0	37.0
	Females	235	63.0	63.0	100.0
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
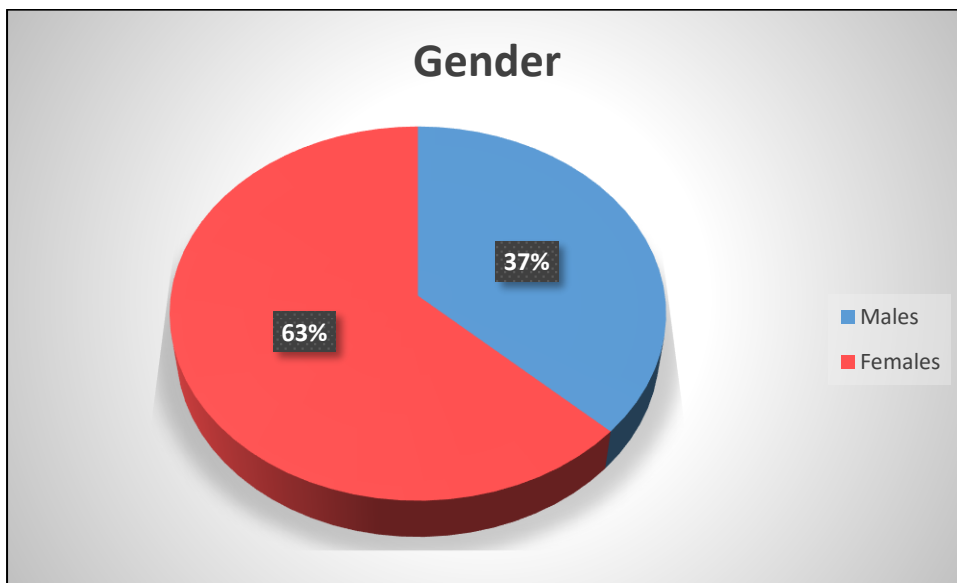
Figure 5.2: Sample distribution by gender (N = 373)

5.1.3 Composition of race groups in the sample

Table 5.3 and figure 5.3 illustrate the race distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample indicated the white people comprised 68.1%, African people comprised 21.4%, coloured people comprised 6.4% and people from Asian descent comprised 4% of the entire sample of research participants (N=373). The frequencies seemed to be concentrated mostly around the white race group (68.1%).

Table 5.3

Race Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
					Race group
Valid	**White**	254	68.1	68.1	68.1
	African	80	21.4	21.4	89.5
	Coloured	24	6.4	6.4	96.0
	Asian	15	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
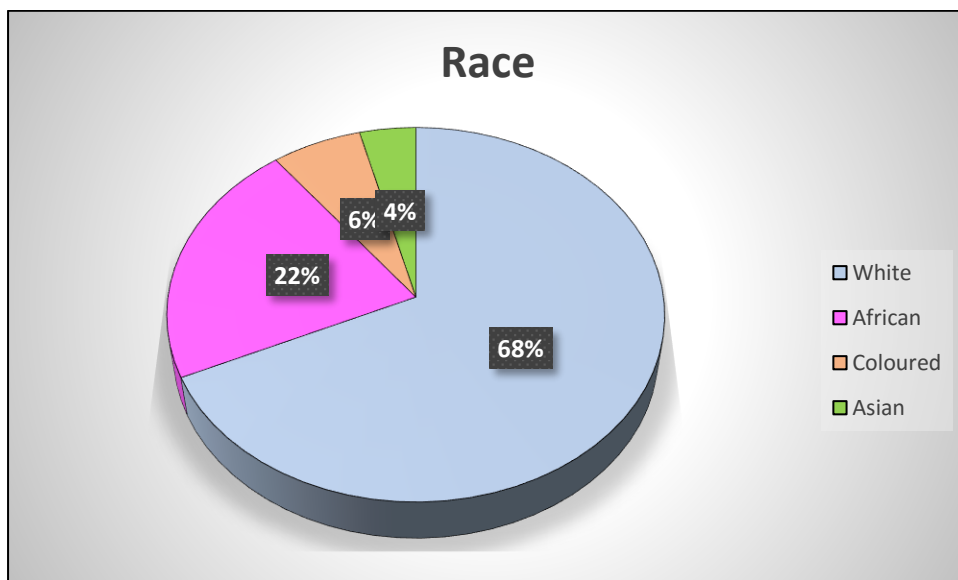
Figure 5.3: Sample distribution by race (N = 373)

5.1.4   Composition of tenure groups in the sample

Table 5.4 and figure 5.4 indicate the tenure distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implied that 12.9% of participants (N = 373) were employed for 11 to 15 years, 19% of the participants for six to ten years, 46.9% of the participants for fewer than five years, and 21.2% of the participants were employed for more than 15 years at their current employing organisation. The frequencies seemed to be concentrated mostly around the fewer than five years' tenure group (46.9%).

Table 5.4

Tenure Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

	Tenure			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	More than 15 years	79	21.2	21.2	21.2
	11 to 15 years	48	12.9	12.9	34.1
	6 to 10 years	71	19.0	19.0	53.1
	Less than 5 years	175	46.9	46.9	100.0
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
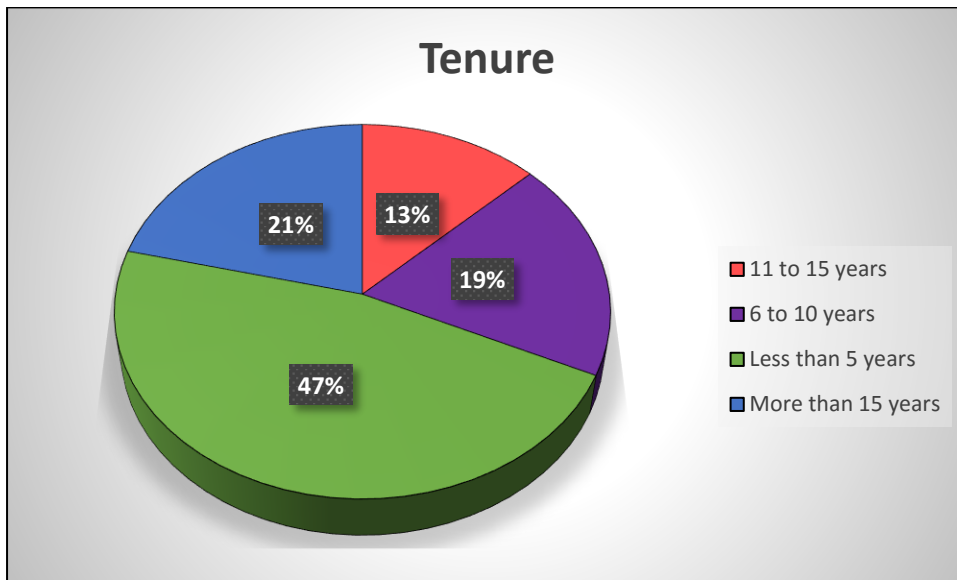
Figure 5.4: Sample distribution by tenure (N = 373)

5.1.5 Composition of job level groups in the sample

Table 5.5 and figure 5.5 indicate the job level distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implied that 4% of the participants (N = 373) were working on executive management level, 19.3% were working on senior management level, 19.6% were working on supervisor job level, 52.5% were working on operational level and 4.6% were working on trainee/intern job level. The majority of participants worked on the operational job level (52.5%).

298

Table 5.5

Job Level Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

		Tenure		Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
		Frequency	Percent		
Valid	Executive management	15	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Senior management	72	19.3	19.3	23.3
	Supervisor	73	19.6	19.6	42.9
	Operational level	196	52.5	52.5	95.4
	Trainee/intern	17	4.6	4.6	100.00
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
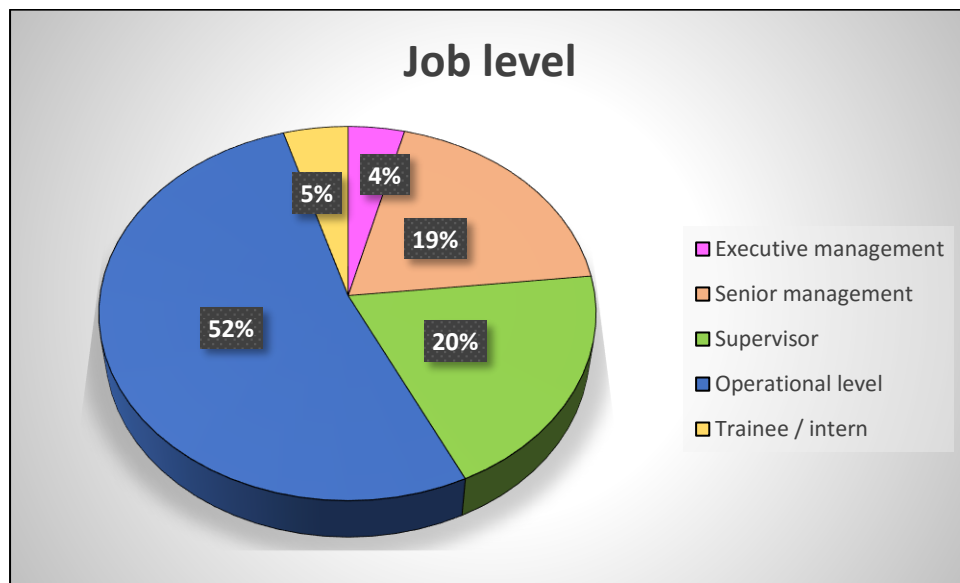
Figure 5.5 Sample distribution by job level (N = 373)

5.1.6 Composition of marital status groups in the sample

Table 5.6 and figure 5.6 indicate the marital status distribution of the sample. The majority of employees were married (60.3%) or single (27.9%). Only 9.1% were divorced and 2.7% widowed.

Table 5.6

Marital Status Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

			Marital status		
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	104	27.9	27.9	27.9
	Married	225	60.3	60.3	88.2
	Divorced	34	9.1	9.1	97.3
	Widowed	10	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
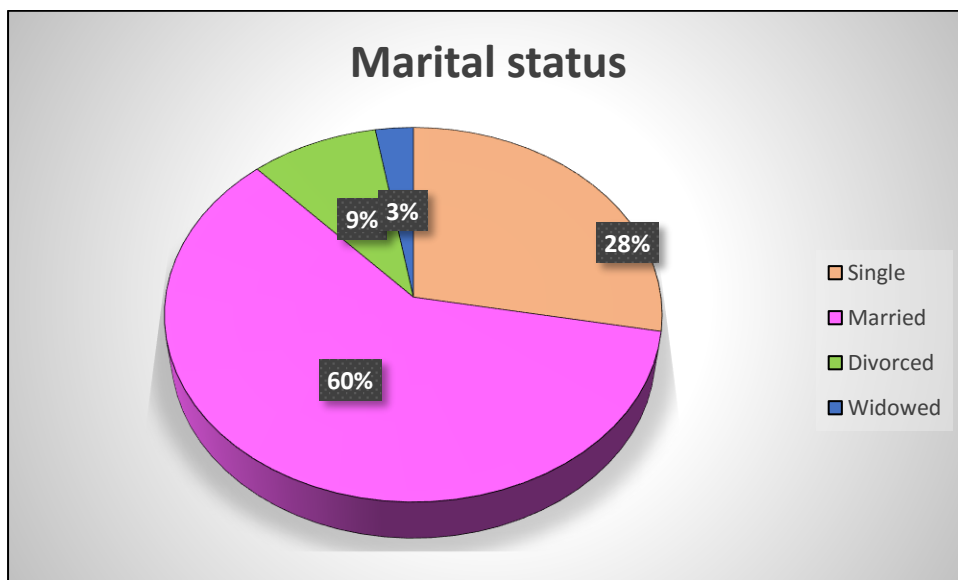
Figure 5.6: Sample distribution by marital status (N = 373)

5.1.7 Composition of generational groups in the sample

Table 5.7 and figure 5.7 indicate the generational group distribution of the sample. The distribution of the sample implied that 46.4% of the participants (N = 373) were in the generation X group, 27.9% were in the generation Y group and 17.4% were in the baby boomers' generation group. The majority of the sample were in the generation X group (46.4%).

Table 5.7

Generational Group Distribution of the Sample (N = 373)

	Generational group			
		Frequency	**Percent**	**Valid Percent**	**Cumulative Percent**
Valid	**Baby boomers**	65	17.4	17.4	17.4
	Generation X	173	46.4	46.4	63.8
	Generation Y	135	36.2	36.2	100.00
	Total	373	100.0	100.0	
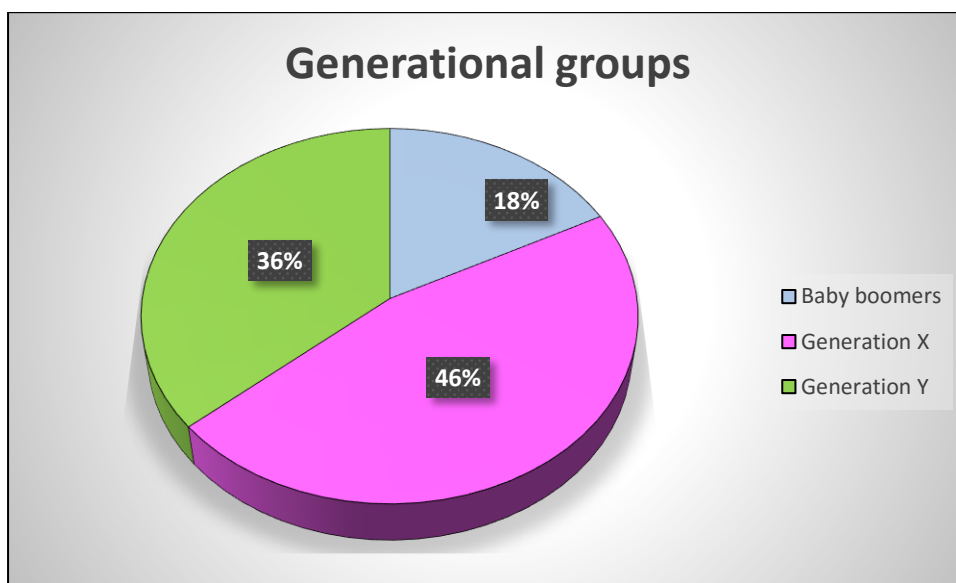
Figure 5.7: Sample distribution by generational group (N = 373)

5.1.8 Summary of sample socio-demographic profile

In summary, the socio-demographic profile obtained for the sample showed that the main sample characteristics that needed to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results were as follows: age, gender, race, tenure, job level, marital status and generational group. The participants in the sample were predominantly employed married female white individuals between 30 to 49 years of age (establishment/maintenance stage) in the generation X group, working fewer than five years at their current employers at operational job level.

5.2   CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The selection of the psychometric battery was directed by the literature review and the measuring instruments were chosen based on the relevance to the models and theories of the current research study. More specifically, the psychometric instruments were investigated and chosen based on the validity, reliability, cost effectiveness and suitability to assess the research constructs of psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Next, the research instruments will be discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1   Measurement of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes

- The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992) is a 40-item self-report inventory, which uses a seven-point Likert scale to measure individuals' perceptions of self-worth and achievement compared to those of others.
- The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009) is a 33-item self-report inventory, which uses a five-point Likert scale to measure emotional intelligence traits.
- The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987) is a self-rated multi-factorial measure for hardiness, which uses a four-point Likert scale for subject responses to each item. It consists of 50 items.
- The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) is a self-report questionnaire that is used to measure the levels of engagement. The UWES consists of 21 items that are scored on a seven-point frequency-rating scale.
- The Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010) is a self-report questionnaire that is used to measure major aspects of social-psychological functioning from the respondent's point of view. The brief 8-item scale provides a single psychological wellbeing score that is scored on a seven-point frequency-rating scale.

5.2.2   Measurement of workplace bullying

- The Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009) measures exposure to negative behaviours identified with bullying within the last six months. The NAQ-R is based on the previous NAQ version (Einarsen &

Raknes, 1997), which resulted first in a new 29-item version of the NAQ (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2004). Subsequently, on the basis of further analyses, a 22-item revised version was proposed (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001) that is used in this study.

5.2.3 Measurement of turnover intention

- The Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) includes items of behavioural intent to leave an organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010). The TIS consists of five items, which is a self-report inventory and is presented in the form of a five-point Likert scale.

5.2.4 Socio-demographic questionnaire

- Socio-demographic variables were assessed through a structured socio-demographic questionnaire to gather biographical information on age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups.

5.2.5 Psychometric properties of the measurement of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes

The psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, are discussed to examine the relevance, validity, reliability and motivation of each measuring instrument.

5.2.5.1 Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD)

The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the CFSEI2-AD as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the CFSEI2-AD

The CFSEI2-AD (1992) is a self-report inventory, consisting of multifactors such as general self-esteem, social/peer self-esteem, personal self-esteem and lie/defensiveness items. The aim of the instrument is to measure an individual's perceptions and feelings of self-worth and achievement, which provide insight into an individual's emotions and current level of psychological wellbeing. The CFSEI2-AD (1992) can be utilised in measuring personal growth and designing personal development interventions (Battle, 1992).

(ii)   Dimensions of the CFSEI2-AD

The CFSEI2-AD (1992), which is the second edition of the instrument, contains 40 items and consists of four sub-scales. The following is a detailed description of the four dimensions:

- *General self-esteem (16 items)*

This dimension indicates how an individual view his or her overall self-worth or significance (Battle, 1992).

- *Social/peer self-esteem (8 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives meaningful relationships with friends, associates and partners (Battle, 1992).

- *Personal self-esteem (8 items)*

This dimension indicates an individual's most intrinsic perceptions and emotions of his or her self-worth (Battle, 1992).

- *Lie/defensiveness items (8 items)*

This dimension indicates an individual's level of openness/defensiveness to items on the CFSEI2-AD inventory.

(iii)   Administration

The CFSEI2-AD (1992) inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. The scores for the CFSEI 2-AD (1992) are derived by totalling the number of items checked that indicate high self-esteem, excluding the lie scale item. A separate score may be computed by totalling the number of items checked correctly in the lie scale. All the negatively keyed items on the test are reverse-scored before the results are interpreted.

(iv)   Interpretation

A seven-point Likert-type scale is used for rating the responses of the questionnaire. Each subscale (general, personal, social and total) is measured separately and reflects the perceptions (self-evaluations) and feelings of the participants in these dimensions. Thus, the researcher can determine which dimensions are true for the respondent and which are not. The higher the score, the higher the respondent's level of self-esteem. Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Somewhat disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Neither disagree nor agree
5 = Slightly agree
6 = Somewhat agree
7= Strongly agree

A negative score on general self-esteem is indicative of low self-worth in many areas in life, such as family life and the work context. A negative score on social self-esteem indicates a feeling of less meaningful friendship or family relations. A negative score on personal self-esteem indicates that an individual's core belief of his or her self-worth is low compared to others. A negative score on the lie items can indicate a level of defensiveness to admit to valid self-esteem characteristics that are viewed as socially unacceptable in nature.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the CFSEI2-AD

Battle (1992), has found evidence of the validity and the factor analysis of Battle (1992) confirms the construct validity of the CFSEI2-AD. Reports of test-retest correlations were between .79 and .82, and internal consistency reliability coefficients ranged between .79 and .92 for all the subscales (Battle, 1992). Similarly, the research findings of Potgieter (2012) indicated high item reliability (≥ .98).

(vi)   Motivation for using CFSEI2-AD

The CFSEI2-AD is quick and easy to administer, and has been proven to be valid, reliable and free of cultural bias. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of self-esteem, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual forecasts based on the CFSEI2-AD, but rather to examine a range of tendencies and interactions between variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the CFSEI2-AD would deepen an understanding of the construct of self-esteem in this research study.

5.2.5.2   Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the AES as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the AES

The AES (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009) is a self-report inventory. This instrument consists of multifactors such as perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilising emotions. The aim of the AES is to measure characteristics of emotional intelligence to determine the degree of individual emotional functioning (Schutte et al., 2009).

(ii) Dimensions of the AES

The AES contains 33 items and consists of four sub-scales. The following is a detailed description of the four dimensions:

- *Perception of emotion (10 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives the ability to recognise and express emotions accurately (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

- *Managing own emotions (9 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives the ability to control (regulate) one's own feelings successfully (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

- *Managing others' emotions (8 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual feels able to control (regulate) the emotions of others in certain situations in order to complete tasks successfully (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

- *Utilisation of emotions (6 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives the ability to apply or change his or her emotions to obtain goals or to solve problems (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

(iii) Administration

The AES inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately five minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements about their feelings or reactions associated with emotions on a five-point Likert-type scale.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. Total scale scores were calculated by reverse-coding items 5, 28 and 33, and then summing all items. The scores can range from 33 to 165. A higher score indicates that an individual may display more emotional intelligent characteristics. Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Somewhat disagree

3 = Neither disagree nor agree

4 = Somewhat agree

5= Strongly agree

A negative score on perception of emotions can indicate feeling inadequate to read and appraise different emotions. A negative score on managing own emotions indicates feeling not capable to regulate one's own emotions. A negative score on managing others' emotions suggests feeling inadequate to control others' feelings, while a negative score on the utilisation of emotions dimension is indicative of not feeling able to apply or change emotions to fit the situation.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the AES

Evidence was found for test-retest reliability of the AES (Schutte et al., 1998). Coetzee and Schreuder (2011) have found internal consistency reliability for all subscales, which ranged between .76 and .84. Reports also indicated convergent and divergent validity of the AES (Bracket & Mayer, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998).

(vi)   Motivation for using AES

The AES is quick and easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of characteristics of emotional functioning, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the AES, but rather to investigate various tendencies and relations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the AES would provide more insight into the construct of emotional intelligence in the current research study.

5.2.5.3   The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II)

The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the PVS-II as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the PVS-II

The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987) is a self-report inventory. This instrument consists of multifactors such as control, commitment and challenge. The aim of the PVS-II measuring instrument is to determine an individual's level of hardiness.

(ii)   Dimensions of the PVS-II

The PVS-II contains 50 items and consists of three sub-scales. The following is a detailed description of the three dimensions:

- *Commitment (15 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual is actively involved in various spheres of life (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2004).

- *Control (17 items)*

This dimension indicates an individual's belief to respond effectively, and manage life outcomes and events successfully (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2008).

- *Challenge (18 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual associates change with prospects and advancement instead of detriment (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2008).

(iii)   Administration

The PVS-II inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately 15 minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements regarding their feelings or reactions associated with hardiness on a four-point Likert-type scale. All the negatively keyed items on the test are reverse-scored before the results are interpreted.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual may display more hardiness characteristics. Each subscale is calculated separately on a four-point Likert-type scale and indicates the participant's hardiness levels on three dimensions (commitment, control and challenge). A higher score suggests that the statement is perceived by the respondent as more true. Subscales with the highest mean scores are viewed as a participant's primary hardiness characteristic. Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

0 = Not at all true
1 = A little true
2 = Reasonably true
3 = Completely true

A negative score on commitment suggests an individual feels alienated in various life domains, such as family, friends and the work context. A negative score on control indicates an individual experience feelings of powerlessness. A negative score on challenge indicates that an individual perceives change or adverse events as a threat/s.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the PVS-II

The PVS-II inventory obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .87 for the total scale (Ferreira, 2012). Evidence indicated test-retest correlations for commitment (.85), for control (.68) and for challenge (.70) (Kobasa, 1982). The research findings of Ferreira (2012) also indicated high item reliability ($\geq$ .98).

(vi)   Motivation for using PVS-II

The PVS-II is easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of characteristics of hardiness, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the PVS-II, but rather to investigate various tendencies and relations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the PVS-II would provide a better understanding of the construct of hardiness in the current research study.

5.2.5.4   The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the UWES as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the UWES

The UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2002) is a self-report inventory. This instrument consists of multifactors such as vigour, dedication and absorption. The aim of the UWES is to measure an individual's level of engagement towards the employing organisation.

(ii)   Dimensions of the UWES

The UWES contains 21 items and consists of three sub-scales. The following is a detailed description of the three dimensions:

- *Vigour (8 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual is energised, eager and determined to complete work assignments (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

- *Dedication (5 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual is passionate, excited and motivated to make a contribution at work (Bakker et al., 2005; Mendes & Stander, 2011; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

- *Absorption (8 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual is intensely focused on and involved in his or her work (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

(iii)   Administration

The UWES requires approximately 15 minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements regarding their feelings or reactions associated with their work on a seven-point Likert-type scale.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual may be more engaged in his or her work. The highest possible score is 102. Each subscale is calculated separately on a seven-point Likert-type scale and indicates the participant's work engagement levels on three dimensions (vigour, dedication and absorption). Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

0 = Never
1 = A few times per year or less
2 = Once a month or less
3 = A few times per month
4 = Once a week
5 = A few times a week
6 = Every day

A negative score on vigour suggests an individual feels lethargic, unenthusiastic and undetermined towards his or her job. A negative score on dedication indicates an individual feels bored, indifferent and unmotivated towards his or her work. A negative score on absorption indicates that an individual is uninvolved and uninterested in his or her work.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the UWES

Coetzee and De Villiers (2010) determined alpha coefficients for the three subscales between .78 and .88. Similarly, alpha coefficients were reported by Storm and Rothmann (2003), ranging between .78 and .89, while Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) determined alpha coefficients between .68 and .91. Schaufeli et al. (2002) found acceptable reliability and confirmatory factor analysis demonstrated the factorial validity of the UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2002).

(vi)   Motivation for using UWES

The UWES is easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of the level of engagement in the organisational context, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the UWES, but rather to investigate various tendencies and relations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the UWES would provide more insight into the construct of work engagement in the current research study.

5.2.5.5   Flourishing scale (FS)

The Flourishing Scale (FS) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the FS as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the FS

The FS (Diener et al., 2010) is a self-report inventory. The brief 8-item FS scale provides a single psychological wellbeing score. The aim of the FS is to measure major aspects of social-psychological functioning from the respondent's own point of view.

(ii)   Dimensions of the FS

The FS scale includes several items on social relationships: having supportive and rewarding relationships; contributing to the happiness of others; being respected by others; having a purposeful and meaningful life; being engaged and interested in one's activities, and feeling competent and capable in the activities that are important to the individual.

(iii)   Administration

The FS inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately five minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements about their feelings associated with psychological flourishing on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The score is calculated by adding up the total responses and determining the total average score.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual flourish psychosocially. Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Somewhat disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Neither disagree nor agree
5 = Slightly agree
6 = Somewhat agree
7 = Strongly agree

A negative score suggests an individual is not functioning well on both social and psychological level.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the FS

Diener et al. (2010) found high reliability and high convergence validity of the FS, although more validity work is needed (Diener et al., 2010). Diener et al. (2010) determined alpha coefficients for the FS scale at .87.

(vi)   Motivation for using FS

The FS is quick and easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of individuals' social-psychological functioning, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the FS, but rather to investigate various tendencies and correlations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the FS would provide a better understanding of the construct of psychosocial flourishing in the current research study.

5.2.6 Psychometric properties of the measurement of Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)

The Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the NAQ-R as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the NAQ-R

The NAQ-R (Einarsen et al., 2009) is a self-report inventory. The NAQ-R is based on the previous NAQ version (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), which resulted first in a new 29-item version of the NAQ (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2004). Subsequently, on the basis of further analyses, a 22-item revised version was proposed (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001) that is used in this study. This instrument consists of multifactors such as work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation. The aim of the NAQ-R is to measure different kinds of behaviour that could be perceived as bullying if they occurred on a regular basis (Einarsen et al., 2009).

(ii)   Dimensions of the NAQ-R

The NAQ-R contains 22 items and consists of three sub-scales. The following is a detailed description of the three dimensions:

- *Work-related bullying (7 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives bullying behaviour, which has a detrimental effect on his or her productivity and work performance, such as impossible work assignments or receiving meaningless tasks (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

- *Person-related bullying (12 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives bullying behaviour at work, which has a negative influence on him or her, such as excessive bantering and spreading gossip or rumours (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

- *Physical intimidation (3 items)*

This dimension indicates that an individual perceives bullying behaviour at work that is directed towards the individual in the form of physical acts, such as invasion of personal space, threats of violence, physical abuse or mistreatment (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen et al., 2009).

(iii)   Administration

The NAQ-R requires approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements regarding their feelings of exposure to negative behaviours associated with bullying within the last six months on a five-point Likert-type scale.

Research indicates that the term 'bullying' should not be used with participants during the research process and data collection, since it can influence the research results negatively (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Nielsen, Skogstad, Matthiesen, Glasø, Aasland, Notelaers & Einarsen, 2009). Organisations and individuals tend to have a negative association with the term 'bullying', which influences the manner participants answer the NAQ-R, which was used to measure workplace bullying (negative behaviour in the workplace) and therefore, could have a negative impact on the research

results. Hence, no reference was made to the term 'bullying' and all the items were formulated in behavioural terms.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual may perceive more bullying behaviour at work. Each subscale is calculated separately on a five-point Likert-type scale and indicates the participant's perception of bullying behaviour regarding three dimensions (work-related bullying, personal-related bullying and physical intimidation). Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

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

A negative score on work-related bullying suggests that an individual is not exposed to bullying behaviour in the work context. A negative score on personal-related bullying indicates that an individual perceives fewer acts of bullying directed towards him or her on a personal level. A negative score on physical intimidation indicates that an individual is not exposed to physical acts of bullying behaviour.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the NAQ-R

Both Einarsen et al. (2009) and Nielsen et al. (2009) determined alpha coefficients for the NAQ-R (22-item scale) at .90, indicating excellent internal consistency reliability (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001) and good validity (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 2009).

(vi)   Motivation for using NAQ-R

The NAQ-R is easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed for the measurement of the level of bullying exposure in the work context, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the NAQ-R, but rather to investigate various tendencies and relations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the NAQ-R would provide more insight into the construct of workplace bullying in the current research study.

5.2.7   Psychometric properties of the measurement of Turnover Intention Scale (TIS)

The Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) is discussed in terms of the rationale, description, administration, interpretation, validity, reliability and the motivation for choosing the TIS as a measuring instrument in this research study.

(i)   Rationale for the TIS

The TIS (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) is a self-report inventory. The brief 5-item TIS scale provides an overall turnover intention score. The aim of the TIS is to measure respondents' intention to leave their current employer.

(ii)   Dimensions of the TIS

The TIS includes items of behavioural intent to leave an organisation (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

(iii)   Administration

The TIS inventory can be administered individually or in groups. This instrument requires approximately three to five minutes to complete. Clear instructions are provided for completion, and there is no time limit. No supervision is required, since the questionnaire is self-explanatory. Respondents are required to respond to statements regarding their feelings or behaviour associated with their intentions to leave, on a five-point Likert-type scale.

(iv)   Interpretation

Each respondent's test form was scored electronically. A higher score indicates that an individual may be more likely to leave the employing organisation. Responses are measured in terms of the following scale:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Somewhat disagree

3 = Neither disagree nor agree

4 = Somewhat agree

5 = Strongly agree

A negative score suggests an individual is more likely to remain with the current employing organisation.

(v)   Reliability and validity of the TIS

Kuvaas (2008) determined alpha coefficients for the TIS scale at .88, while Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010) determined alpha coefficients for the different TIS scale items between .83 and .90, indicating excellent internal consistency reliability and good validity.

(vi)   Motivation for using TIS

The TIS is fast and easy to administer, and has been found to be valid and reliable. This instrument has been designed to measure the level of intention to leave the current employing organisation, which is relevant to the current research study.

The aim of the research study was not to make individual projections based on the TIS, but rather to investigate various tendencies and relations between research variables. Therefore, the inclusion of the TIS would provide a better understanding of the construct of turnover intention in the current research study.

5.2.8   Limitations of the psychometric battery

All the research instruments chosen for this study were self-report assessments. Self-reports measure individuals' views and feelings towards their interests, attitudes or preferences. However, self-reporting instruments have a few disadvantages. The results of self-reporting inventories may be biased, since participants may lack the ability for introspection and

therefore, provide inaccurate responses to the questions despite their best attempts to offer true and honest answers (Hoskin, 2012). Individuals may also try to conceal their own feelings, outlooks and opinions (Cherry, 2016), which may seem unacceptable to society (a spurious/false response) (Hoskin, 2012).

This research study had seven constructs and therefore, entailed many items in the inventory, which could have caused respondents to lose interest and hence they may have provided less accurate answers (Cherry, 2016).

In conclusion, after a thorough evaluation, the seven instruments (CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS) were chosen to measure the psychological wellbeing profile (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. However, the limitations of the seven instruments will be considered during the interpretation of the research results based on the research findings.

5.3   ETHICAL CONSIDERATION OF ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

This step involved the collection of data from the sample in the following manner:

Ethical clearance was obtained from the University's Research Committee and permission was obtained from the research organisations. An online questionnaire was provided for completion in order to gain relevant information for this study. After informed consent had been provided, employees completed the questionnaire either online or using a paper-based version. Approximately 2 250 employed individuals in various industries across South Africa were invited to complete the questionnaire (approval was obtained from the relevant research organisation's management).

The employees were invited to participate voluntarily in the study by means of a participation invitation letter that was emailed to each employee. All participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity was ensured as participants were not asked to give any identifying information. Personnel were required to sign statements agreeing to protect the security and confidentiality of identifiable information. Personal identifiers were removed from research-related information. Participants' names were not recorded anywhere and no-one was able to connect individuals to the answers provided. Participants' answers were given a fictitious code number or a pseudonym and participants will be referred to in this way

in the data, any publications or other research reporting methods, such as conference proceedings.

Completed questionnaires were sent back to the researcher via the external mail system to ensure confidentiality. Individuals' participation was voluntary, specific and based on written informed consent. Direct or indirect coercion, as well as undue inducement of people in the name of research was avoided, to prevent people consenting against their better judgement to participate in the research study. The covering letter also stated that completing and returning the questionnaire constituted agreement to use the results for research purposes only. In this letter, employees were informed that completing the questionnaire would be considered informed consent. All research participants were treated as unique human beings within the context of their community systems, and their tradition was respected to ensure respect for cultural differences. Criteria for the selection of participants of research were fair. The conduct of the research was honest, fair and transparent.

The consent letter that was enclosed as an attachment to participants and included the following information: purpose of research; possible risks and benefits of the research; the nature of questions; methods (questionnaire) and participants' role in the research study; the estimated time questionnaire could take; the identities of the researchers with their contact details; the reason participants were selected to take part in this research was explained; privacy, anonymity and confidentiality were explained and ensured; future use of information obtained for thesis and research articles were mentioned and that this would not violate their privacy, anonymity and confidentiality in any way; participants had the right to get help if this research might cause them any discomfort or distress; researchers were available to assist participants with any concerns or discomfort.

Ethical and employment equity concerns were also taken into consideration. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 requires all psychological tests and other similar assessments to be valid, reliable, fair and not biased against any employee or any specific group of employees. In order to comply with legislation, the instruments included in the psychometric test battery were scientifically valid and reliable, could be applied fairly to all employees, and were not biased against any employee or group.

Researchers ensured that the actual benefits from the research clearly outweigh possible risks, and that participants were subjected to only those risks that were clearly necessary for conducting the research. Furthermore, measures were taken to ensure that the risks were assessed, and that adequate precautions were taken to minimise and mitigate risks. There

was no exploitation of research participants. Only information that was relevant and necessary was collected. Participants were free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. However, once the completed questionnaire had been submitted it was not possible to withdraw the questionnaire due to the non-identifiable nature of the material.

Due to the sensitive nature of the term 'workplace bullying', the researcher made use of the terms 'workplace behaviour', 'negative behaviour' or 'negative behaviour in the workplace' during the research process and data collection phase to avoid negative association, and to prevent unreliable research results. All items were written in behavioural terms with no reference to the terms 'bullying' or 'harassment', following recommendations by Arvey and Cavanaugh's (1995) results.

Einarsen et al. (2009) also argue that, although the NAQ-R is based on self-report, this approach is considered to provide a more objective estimate of exposure to bullying behaviours than self-labelling approaches, as respondents' need for cognitive and emotional processing of information would be reduced.

The research will be beneficial to the community and feedback on research results will be provided.

5.4   CAPTURING OF CRITERION DATA

The employees' responses to each of the items in the seven questionnaires were captured on a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet where each row was a participant and each column was a question. The completed questionnaires were scored by an independent statistician. All data were imported and analysed, using statistical methods, specifically utilising the statistical programmes SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Version 23 for the Microsoft Windows platform (SPSS Inc., 2015), SAS version 9.4 (SAS, 2013) and MPlus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015).

5.5   FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses were formulated in order to achieve the objectives of the study. A hypothesis is 'a set of assumptions expressed in a coherent manner about the observable phenomena. It is the researcher's formal declaration that states the research prediction or description of the relationship between two or more variables in a particular population' (Brink, 2006). The research hypotheses are summarised in Table 5.8 below.

322

Table 5.8

Research Hypotheses

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
Research aim 1: To empirically assess the nature of the statistical inter-relationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.	H_1: There is statistically significant positive interrelationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.	Correlation analysis
Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables, and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	H_2: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Canonical correlation

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.	H_3: The significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.	Thematic analysis based on canonical correlation results and literature review
Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable)	H_4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable)	Path analyses (mediation modelling)

Research aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedure
Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.	H_5: Age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.	Multiple regression analysis
Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable).	H_6: Individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ statistically significantly regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable).	Tests for significant mean differences

5.6 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The statistical procedure relevant to this study includes descriptive statistics (Cronbach's alpha coefficients, Rasch analysis for uni-dimensionality of measures, means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and frequency data), correlational analysis, and inferential

(multivariate) statistics (canonical correlation analysis, standard multiple regression analysis, structural equation modelling, tests for significant mean differences and mediation modelling).

The data investigation process comprised three major stages, each consisting of various steps of statistical analysis, as depicted in figure 5.8.

Stage 1	**Descriptive statistical analysis**
	Internal consistency reliability Uni-dimensionality analysis Common method variance Means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and frequency data Tests for assumptions
Stage 2	**Correlational analysis**
	Pearson product moment correlations
Stage 3	**Inferential and multivariate statistics**
	Canonical correlation analysis Standard multiple regression analysis Mediation modelling Test for significant mean differences

Figure 5.8: Data analysis process and statistical procedures

5.6.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analyses

Descriptive statistical analysis is utilised to describe the characteristics of substantial amounts of data in a practical and reasonable manner (Babbie, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013). In this study, descriptive statistics were applied to explain the features of the data with regard to the research constructs, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

This stage consists of four steps, namely:

- determining the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficients (also known

as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient);

- evaluating the uni-dimensionality of the CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS by using the Rasch analysis;

- determining the means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness of the categorical and frequency data; and

- testing assumptions (correlational analysis, canonical correlation analysis, multiple regression analysis and tests for significant mean differences).

5.6.1.1   Step 1: Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability refers to a method to determine the consistency of the measuring instruments. This method is used to establish if the test measures what it is supposed to measure, and to determine whether the test results are consequent each time when measuring the same research constructs. The measuring instrument will display increased reliability when the different research constructs deliver consistent results (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to determine the internal consistency reliability of the seven research instruments, as well as the average interrelatedness among the various test items (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010). The Cronbach alpha coefficient measures on a continuous scale and ranges from 0 (no consistency) to 1 (more desirable) (Macdougall, 2011). The Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficients (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient) was also used, since the Cronbach's alpha coefficient has a tendency to display over- or underestimate reliability results (Raykov, 2012).

5.6.1.2   Step 2: Uni-dimensional analyses

Uni-dimensional analysis was performed by utilising the Rasch analysis method to determine the infit and outfit chi-square statistics, which provides the relation between person ability and item difficulty. The Rasch analysis establishes whether the scale items measured the essential research constructs accurately (Hagell, 2014).

5.6.1.3   Step 3: Common method variance

Common method variance is utilised to determine the degree of spurious correlations among the research constructs. The systematic error variance has the potential to affect research results negatively and can be attributed to the measurement method, such as a survey method, rather than the specific constructs (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003).

The Harman's one factor test and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (one factor solution) were conducted to assess the model fit data of each scale. The Harman's one factor test is one of the most widely used methods, which focuses on the problems of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Fundamentally, this method represents the common method variance as either a single factor or one overall factor, which explains the majority of the covariance among the research constructs. All the items of the research constructs were included into the factor analysis to establish whether the main variance could be ascribed to one general factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The confirmatory factor analysis method was conducted to evaluate the model fit data of each scale of the research constructs (Hamtiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013; Park, Nam, & Cha, 2012).

5.6.1.3   Step 4: Means and standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and frequency data

The means and standard deviations for all the dimensions of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention were determined in the empirical study. The mean is calculated by dividing the total sum of the data by the number of values in the group to get an average mean score. The mean score provides a measure of central tendency of the research sample (Salkind, 2012). Standard deviation (SD) is a method to measure the degree in which the group varies with regard to their mean scores (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

Skewness is a measure to determine the absence of symmetry. The sample group's data is symmetrical when it appears similar on both sides of the middle viewpoint. Positive scores suggest data values are skewed toward the right side of the middle viewpoint while negative scores indicate that data values are skewed toward the left side (Salkind, 2012).

Kurtosis is a method to measure how the data is distributed around the mean score. The data distribution can appear flat, even or peak in comparison to normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

5.6.1.4   Step 5: Tests for assumptions

Normally research aims to make valid interpretations and conclusions from a sample of data from a population. On the other hand, random samples from a larger population may create difficulties to provide exact values that can be attributed to the entire population (Salkind, 2012). Statistical procedures have been applied in order to establish the confidence level with which research conclusions and inferences can be made.

The following notions, fundamental to the multivariate procedures and tests for significant mean differences that are highlighted in the current research study, were applied and they explained in more detail:

- the accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values;
- the ratio of cases to independent variables;
- outliers (univariate and multivariate);
- normality, linearity and homoscedasticity; and
- multicollinearity and singularity.

(a)   The accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values

The accuracy of the data was ensured by screening the data to eliminate potential miscoding. Frequency statistics for each of the items were requested (by means of the SPSS Statistics version 23 (2015) frequency procedure) and these were scrutinised in terms of minimum and maximum values as well as means and standard deviations. All the items fell within the possible range of values, and the data was, therefore, deemed acceptable for further examination. The researcher only included completed questionnaires for this research study; therefore, no missing data was identified.

(b)   Ratio of cases to independent variables

An adequate sample size is a significant aspect that needs to be considered to obtain reasonable statistical power. A rule of thumb to calculate the ratio of cases to independent variables entails that the sample size be equal to at least $N \geq 50 + 8k$ (k is the number of

independent variables) (De Vaus, 2004; Newton & Rudestam, 1999). However, when there are only low or modest relationships (regression coefficients R^2), the sample size should be enlarged (De Vaus, 2004). Based on the above equation, the required sample size was N = 74. The sample size of N = 373 obtained in this study was, therefore, considered adequate for achieving satisfactory statistical power for identifying effects by means of the correlation and regression analyses to be completed.

(c)   Outliers

An outlier can be described as a value that cascades further from the remainder of the values on a variable (Gordon, 2015). Extreme scores on one variable is referred to as univariate, or an unusual combination of scores on two or more variables is regarded as multivariate (Kline, 2011). Extreme outliers or an enormous amount of outliers may indicate non-normality or errors in the data (Gordon, 2015).

In the current research study, outliers were identified by visually scrutinising the boxplots of standardised normal scores for each variable.

(d)   Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity

Multivariate normality assumes that each variable and all linear combinations of the variables are distributed normally (Hair et al., 2010). This study has made use of skewness and kurtosis as well as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Linear relationships and homoscedasticity (uniform distributions) among variables are dimensions of multivariate normality (Kline, 2011).

Linearity assumes that the relationship between the independent and dependent variables has a straight line. Thus, linearity is when the assumption is verified that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables, and the researcher will be able to fit a line between the X- and Y-values on a bivariate scatterplot (Schinka, Velicer & Weiner, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The present study has tested this assumption and visually investigated the bivariate scatterplots.

The assumption of homoscedasticity for ungrouped data assumes that the variance of the value stays consistent for the independent variable and is similar at all values of the dependent variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Furthermore, this assumption can be viewed as the variation of the values around the regression line that appear stable across

the entire examined range of data when regression analyses methods are utilised (Osborne, 2010). There were no problems observed within the scatterplots in this study.

(e)   Multicollinearity and singularity

Multicollinearity refers to any single independent variable that highly correlates with a set of other independent variables. Extreme collinearity can be observed when separate variables measure identical constructs. Thus, two different variables evaluate the same concept and may, therefore, become redundant as a measuring instrument (Kline, 2011). Singularity can be seen as variables that have adequate correlations, while multicollinearity occurs when the variables are highly correlated ($r = .90$) (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010; Salkind, 2012).

The current research study utilised VIF (variance inflation factor), tolerance, eigen-values and condition indices in order to test for the assumptions of multicolinearity and singularity. No anomalies were detected in the tests.

5.6.2   Stage 2: Correlation analyses

The correlation analysis method was utilised to determine concurrent correlations between numerous metric dependent variables and metric independent variables. The Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r) was applied to assess the direction and magnitude between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, as demonstrated in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context (Hair et al., 2010). A high correlation coefficient is close to 1.00 and suggests a strong relationship between variables (Gordon, 2015; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

In the present study, the Pearson product correlation coefficient was utilised to examine whether statistically significant positive or negative interrelationships existed between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying, turnover intention and the biographical variables of age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups on the CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS scales.

5.6.3   Stage 3: Inferential and multivariate statistics

Inferential and multivariate statistics were performed to make conclusions about the data. This stage entailed the following five steps:

- Canonical correlation analysis was conducted to assess the overall statistical relationship of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

- Canonical correlation analysis was also used to assess whether significant inter-correlations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

- Standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to ascertain whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intention.

- Structural equation modelling (SEM) was performed to assess the fit between the elements of the empirically manifested structural model and the theoretically hypothesised model.

- Mediation modelling was conducted to assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable), while controlling for workplace bullying and age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

- Tests for significant mean differences were conducted to determine whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables), and turnover intention (dependent variables).

5.6.3.1   Step 1: Canonical correlation analyses

Canonical correlation analyses were used to test the overall relationship between the two multivariate sets and the magnitude of correlation between the two sets of canonical variates (the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables). Canonical correlation offers a better understanding of the potential relationship between the two sets of canonical variates (Hair et al., 2010; Hancock & Mueller, 2010; Kline, 2011). The canonical correlating coefficients only take on positive values and range from 0 to 1 (Hancock & Mueller, 2010). Helio plots were utilised to demonstrate the overall canonical correlation between the independent and dependent canonical variates.

The canonical correlation analysis is beneficial, since it can limit the likelihood of committing Type I errors. The risk of a Type I error refers to the probability of establishing a statistically significant outcome where no relation exists. The possibility for Type I errors to occur may increase when similar constructs in a data set are used for too many statistical measures (Hair et al., 2010). The canonical correlation analysis is seen as an analytical method for investigating multivariate relations between two sets of constructs, while each set entails two or more variables (Hancock & Mueller, 2010).

The present research study involves multiple variables and therefore, the canonical correlation analysis method seems adequate to examine the strength and direction of the correlations between the variable sets with regard to empirical research aim 2 and 3.

Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables, and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

5.6.3.2   Step 2: Standard multiple regression analyses

The aim of standard multiple regression analysis is to predict the variance in the dependent variable in response to the variance in the independent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010). The application of multiple regression analysis allowed the researcher to assess which independent variables predicted the dependent variables, by giving the direction and magnitude of the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variables (Allison, 2014). In addition, the R^2 values indicate how well the independent variable explains the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

In the context of this study, standard multiple regression analysis was utilised to establish the proportion of variance that is explained by the biographical variables as independent variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) regarding the results of the research constructs as dependent variables (workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention).

Research hypothesis H5 was tested by performing standard multiple regression analyses.

Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

5.6.3.3   Step 3: Mediation modelling

The structural equation modelling (SEM) method was applied during the mediation modelling phase. SEM allows the researcher to model and test clusters of complex hypotheses concurrently, while evaluating mean structures and group comparisons (De Carvalho & Chima, 2014). Furthermore, SEM involves two imperative facets. Firstly, that the research study's causal procedures are indicated by a sequence of structural (regression) equations and secondly, that these structural relationships can be illustrated visually to ensure a better understanding of the research theory of the current research study. Further, the hypothesised model can then be tested empirically, which involves simultaneous testing of all the research variables that will allow the researcher to establish the degree to which the hypothesised model is consistent with the data (Byrne, 2010).

During the first phase of the mediation modelling procedure, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used in order to test competing measurement models for each scale before testing the underlying structural mediation model. CFA allowed the researcher to test the research questions and determine whether the observed variables were truly good indicators of the underlying (latent) variables. Separate confirmatory factor models were performed for each set of the observed hypothesised variables to point out the relevant underlying variables. This would ensure increased validity of the measurement model (Byrne, 2010; De Carvalho & Chima, 2014).

SEM can clarify the reason behind the occurrence of research results while decreasing misleading results. The evaluation of the model fit indexes results in the analysis of the general structural equation model to clarify the relations among the underlying research variables as defined by the CFA models. Consequently, the hypothesised correlations are compared to the observed correlations. When the fit statistics are inadequate, then the model should be respecified and modification indices should be performed. Once adequate model fit statistics are obtained, then the final adjusted model can be applied to test the statistical significance of the hypotheses (De Carvalho & Chima, 2014).

In respect of this study, three competing measurement models were performed for each scale to test the validity of the factor structure for each scale. Competing structural models were calculated to test research hypothesis H4, which also entailed the SEM method to assess a multi-level mediation model based on the modified measurement model 2 data for each scale. The multi-level mediation structural model (model including all the psychological wellbeing variables as well as the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables) obtained poor (unacceptable) data fit statistics. In the light of the unacceptable data fit statistics for the multi-level mediation model (including all the psychological wellbeing variables as mediators), it was then decided to run simple mediation models for each psychological construct separately, based on the modified measurement model 3 of the multi-construct scales.

Research hypothesis H4 was tested by performing structural equation modelling analyses.

Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

5.6.3.4   Step 5: Test for significant mean differences

In respect of the present study, significant differences between gender scores were determined by using the Mann-Witney U test (for non-parametric data). The Mann-Whitney U test permits the researcher to rank the data for each condition and then view the difference between the two rank totals (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

The Kruskal-Wallis test was applied for the age, generational differences, race, tenure, and job level groups to identify the differences between the mean scores. The Kruskal-Wallis test is a rank-based test (for non-parametric data) to establish statistically significant differences between two or more groups. This test is viewed as an alternative to the one-way ANOVA, which allows the researcher to compare more than two independent groups.

Research hypothesis H6 was tested by conducting the Mann-Witney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis test.

> Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

5.6.4   Statistical significance level

The statistical significant level of $p \leq .05$ was chosen and provided 95% confidence in the research results being accepted (Hair et al., 2010). The level of significance provides statistical significance, which offers various levels of research probability varying from less significant to extremely significant (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2013).

Research results lower than the chosen significant p-value will lead to the null hypothesis being rejected and is viewed as statistically significant. Since the test is based on probabilities, there is a risk of making the incorrect inferences. Researchers can make either a Type I or Type II error during the interpretation of results. Type I errors refer to a null hypothesis that is erroneously rejected, which indicate no relationship between research variables when in reality a relationship does exist. Type II errors refer to a null hypothesis that is erroneously accepted which suggests that there is a relationship between variables when in reality no relationship exists (Hair et al., 2010; Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

5.6.4.1   Level of significance: Correlational statistical analysis

Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2003) indicate the effect size of the absolute values of the Pearson Product moment correlations coefficient (*r*) as follows:

Small effect: $r \leq .20$
Medium effect: $r \geq .30 \leq .49$
Large effect: $r \geq .50$

The general level of significance of canonical correlations is seen as .05, which is the minimum acceptable level for interpretation. A multivariate test of all canonical roots was also performed. This can be used to assess the significance of discriminant functions, including Wilks' lambda, Hotelling's trace, Pillai's trace and Roy's greatest characteristic root (gcr). The size of the canonical correlation determines the practical significance of the canonical functions. The research should take the practical significance into account during interpretation. The adequate size for the correlation relationships is set on a *Rc* loading of $\geq$ .30.

The significant cut-off level for rejecting the null hypothesis in the present study was established at $p \leq .05$ and $Rc \geq .30$ (Hair et al., 2010).

5.6.4.2   Level of significance: Standard multiple regression

In respect of standard multiple regression, the following levels of statistical significance were followed:

F(*p*) < .001
F(*p*) < .01
F(*p*) < .05 as the cut-off for rejecting the null hypotheses

According to Cohen (1992), the practical significance of multiple regression models was interpreted as follow:

Adjusted $R^2 \leq .12$ (small practical effect size); $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$ (moderate practical effect size); $R^2 \geq .26$ (large practical effect size).

5.6.4.3   Level of significance: Mediation modelling

The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) establishes the level to which the sample variance or covariance data was correctly predicted by the estimates of the population. The main focus of SEM is to determine a statistically significant hypothesised theoretical model, which has practical and functional meaning. The GFI value range is between 0 and 1. The model will have a satisfactory fit with the data when the GFI values are closer to 1.0 (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park et al., 2012).

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) in conjunction with the SRMR (standardised root-mean-square residual) was calculated. The main factor of the RMSEA is that it examines the degree to which the model unsuccessfully fit with the data. The RMSEA estimates the overall level of inaccuracy, and highlights the fitting function value associated with the degrees of freedom (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). The standardised RMR (SRMR) is an absolute measure to establish model fit. SRMR is viewed as the standardised variance between the observed correlational relationship and the hypothesised (predicted) correlational relationship (Hair et al., 2010). A marginal value of RMSEA and SRMR for model acceptance is <.10 and a value of <.08 and lower is considered adequate for model fit (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park et al., 2012).

The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) is best known as a predictive fit index and normally utilised to compare non-hierarchical hypothesised models with similar data. Low values indicate a reasonable fit as opposed to models that fail to fit the data (Kline, 2011).

The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) assesses the fit of the hypothesised model compared to an independence model (Hooper et al., 2008). The CFI is also known as the Bentler Comparative Fit Index, which is seen as an incremental fit index that measures the comparative progress in the fit of the empirical model over that of a baseline model (the independence model) (Kline, 2011). CFI values close to >.90 and higher are deemed as an acceptable model fit (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park et al., 2012).

5.6.4.4   Statistical significance: Tests for significant mean differences

The significant level for the tests of mean differences is seen as significant and valid when the *p*-value is lower than *p* ≤ .05.

5.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The present chapter provided an overview of the first six steps of the empirical examination, namely: the determination and description of the research sample; the motivation for the assessment battery; the administration and scoring of the psychometric tests; ethical considerations; capturing of criterion data; and the formulation of the research hypotheses. The chapter also explored the three phases of the empirical investigation, which included the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analysis that will be used during the processing of the data. The chapter concluded with the statistical significance level, which will be applied during the interpretation of the data.

The following empirical research aims were highlighted in chapter 5:

Research aim 1: To empirically assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships among the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.

Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

Research aim 4: Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level

significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

Chapter 6 will achieve the empirical research aims 1 to 6 as outlined above.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results of the various statistical analyses that were performed in order to test the hypotheses formulated for the purposes of this research study. The results of the empirical research are presented in tables as well as in figures. Descriptive statistics, correlations and inferential statistics were applied to realise the research objectives. The empirical findings are integrated in the discussion section.

6.1   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics involve the reporting of raw scores and then organising or summarising these raw scores in a form that is more meaningful. This section discusses the three steps that are relevant to descriptive statistics, namely determining (1) the internal consistency reliability of the measuring instruments by means of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficients (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient); (2) the unidimensionality of the measuring instruments by means of Rasch analysis; (3) common method variance and (4) the means and standard deviations as well as the kurtosis and skewness of both the categorical data and the frequency data.

6.1.1   Reporting and interpretation of scale reliabilities: Rasch analyses and internal consistency reliability coefficients of the measures

This section reports on the internal consistency reliabilities of the following measurement instruments: Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992); Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009); Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987); Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002); Flourishing scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010); Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen et al., 2009) and Turnover intention scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010).

Raykov's rho (ρ) coefficients (also known as coefficient omega [ω] or composite reliability coefficient) for each measure were also computed in addition to the Rasch reliability coefficient and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients because structural equation modelling (confirmatory factor analysis) is relevant to the research. Recently the value of the alpha coefficient in psychological research has been criticised, especially when structural equation modelling is of relevance. Cronbach's alpha coefficient tends to over- or underestimate reliability (Raykov, 2012).

The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992) was used to measure the self-esteem levels of the research participants. Table 6.1 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.1

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
General self-esteem							
Person	.69(.54)	1.12 (.71)	1.12 (1.06)	2.26	.84	.86	.86
Item	.00(.49)	1.09 (.33)	1.12 (.35)	11.13	.99		
Social self-esteem							
Person	.56 (.57)	1.05 (.78)	1.03 (.93)	1.46	.68	.58	.66
Item	.00 (.36)	.96 (.30)	1.03 (.30)	8.84	.99		
Personal self-esteem							
Person	.40 (.71)	1.06 (.77)	1.06 (.82)	2.06	.81	.83	.83
Item	.00 (.26)	1.01 (.15)	1.06 (.30)	6.85	.98		
Lie items							
Person	-.16 (.49)	1.01 (.65)	1.03 (.85)	1.68	.74	.66	.68
Item	.00 (.40)	1.00 (.19)	1.03 (.22)	11.26	.99		
Overall scale							
Person	.35 (.25)	1.04 (.46)	1.07 (.65)	2.29	.84	.85	.85
Item	.00 (.41)	1.04 (.38)	1.07 (.39)	11.25	.99		

Notes: N = 373

Most of the subscales have obtained high reliabilities (> .80). Table 6.1 indicates acceptable Rasch item reliability (≥ .98) for the four dimensions of the CFSEI2-AD, indicating that the difficulty levels of the items were well distributed among the measured latent variables and that the items differentiated well among the measured variables. The person reliability coefficient is comparable to the traditional internal consistency reliability coefficient. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the CFSEI2-AD dimensions ranged between (α = .58) and (α = .86). The alpha coefficients for both the social self-esteem dimension (α = .58) and the lie items dimension (α = .66) were lower than the guideline of ≥ .70 (Hair et al., 2010). Similarly, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the CFSEI2-AD dimensions ranged between (ω = .66) and (ω = .86). Table 6.1 indicates low composite (omega) reliabilities for the social

self-esteem dimension (ω = .66) and the lie items dimension (ω = .68). This indicates that the social self-esteem and lie items have less internal consistency than the other self-esteem subscales. This finding will be considered in computing alternative measurement models.

The item separation (≥ 11.25) and person separation (≥ 2.29) for the overall CFSEI2-AD were adequate compared to the guideline of at least (>2.00), which means that participants would probably have indicated similar responses in other contexts. However, the person separation indices for social self-esteem (1.46) and the lie items (1.68) were lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicates that these sub-dimensions did not separate or discriminate well among respondents with different abilities, or that the respondents misunderstood the items (Bond & Fox, 2007).

Furthermore, the general self-esteem dimension showed the highest person average measure (.69; *SD* = .54), while the lie items dimension showed the lowest person average measure (-.16; *SD* = .49). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicated that individuals responded to the items in a consistent manner. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

6.1.1.2   Assessing Emotions Scale (Emotional intelligence)

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009) was used to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the research participants. Table 6.2 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.2

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Ray-kov's rho) ω
Perception of emotion							
Person	1.15 (1.19)	1.09 (.92)	1.06 (.96)	2.29	.84	.85	.84
Item	.00 (.54)	.99 (.22)	1.06 (.33)	7.71	.98		
Managing own emotions							
Person	1.52 (1.20)	1.05 (.84)	1.06 (.90)	1.87	.78	.84	.84
Item	.00 (.36)	1.04 (.33)	1.06 (.37)	4.62	.96		

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Managing others emotions							
Person	1.29 (.97)	1.06 (.74)	1.01 (.70)	1.55	.71	.73	.76
Item	.00 (.68)	1.01 (.25)	1.01 (.27)	9.46	.99		
Utilisation of emotion							
Person	1.56 (1.16)	1.05 (.91)	1.04 (.94)	1.49	.69	.74	.76
Item	.00 (.73)	1.02 (.20)	1.04 (.23)	9.05	.99		
Overall emotional intelligence							
Person	1.24 (.92)	1.16 (.71)	1.12 (.73)	3.42	.92	.93	.93
Item	.00 (.52)	1.03 (.30)	1.12 (.48)	7.64	.98		

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.2 indicates acceptable Rasch item reliability (≥ .96) for the four dimensions of the AES, which indicates that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the AES dimensions ranged between (α = .73) and (α = .93). Similarly, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the AES dimensions ranged between (ω = .76) and (ω = .93), which were higher than the guideline of ≥ .70 (Hair et al., 2010). This indicates that the AES overall scale and sub dimensions have internal consistency.

The item separation (≥ 7.64) and person separation (≥ 3.42) for the overall AES were adequate compared to the guideline of at least (> 2.00), which indicates that useful data were obtained from the AES scale. However, the person separation indices for managing own emotions (1.87), managing others emotions (1.55), and the utilisation of emotion (1.49) were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicated that these sub-dimensions did not separate or discriminate well among respondents with different abilities, or that the items were misunderstood by respondents (Bond & Fox, 2007).

Furthermore, the utilisation of emotion dimension showed the highest person average measure (1.56; *SD* = 1.16), while the perception of emotion dimension showed the lowest person average measure (1.15; *SD* = 1.19). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicates that participants responded to the items of each dimension consistently. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

The Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987) was used to measure the hardiness levels of the research participants. Table 6.3 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.3

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separa-tion	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Ray-kov's rho) ω
Commitment - Alienation							
Person	1.12 (.94)	1.02 (.48)	1.00 (.53)	2.05	.81	.85	.86
Item	.00 (.56)	1.04 (.18)	1.00 (.24)	7.57	.98		
Control - Powerlessness							
Person	1.12 (.74)	1.04 (.49)	1.00 (.48)	1.77	.76	.79	.79
Item	.00 (.55)	1.03 (.15)	1.00 (.17)	7.46	.98		
Challenge - Threat							
Person	.17 (.57)	1.01 (.49)	1.02 (.53)	1.73	.75	.72	.73
Item	.00 (.56)	1.00 (.15)	1.02 (.19)	9.19	.99		
Overall hardiness							
Person	.71 (.57)	1.02 (.41)	1.01 (.41)	3.03	.90	.91	.91
Item	.00 (.64)	1.02 (.14)	1.01 (.19)	9.64	.99		

Notes: N = 373

The PVS-II scale and sub dimensions have obtained high reliabilities, which suggests that the scale items have internal consistency. As indicated in Table 6.3, acceptable Rasch item reliability was obtained for the overall PVS-II scale (α = .99) and the three sub dimensions (α ≥ .98), indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PVS-II dimensions ranged between (α = .72) and (α = .91). Similarly, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the PVS-II dimensions ranged between (ω = .73) and (ω = .91).

The overall PVS-II scale indicated adequate item separation (≥ 9.64) and person separation (≥ 3.03). However, the person separation indices for control – powerlessness (1.77) and the challenge – threat (1.73) were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of >2.00. This indicates that the respondents have misunderstood the items within these sub-dimensions,

or that they were hesitant to provide answers to the questions with the required intensity (Bond & Fox, 2007).

Furthermore, the challenge-threat dimension is indicated as the lowest person average measure (.17; *SD* = .57), while the commitment – alienation (1.12; *SD* = .94) and control - powerlessness (1.12; *SD* = .74) obtained similar average measures. Participants responded to the items of each dimension consistently since the mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

6.1.1.4   Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Work engagement)

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) was used to measure the employee engagement levels of the research participants. Table 6.4 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.4

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separa-tion	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Ray-kov's rho) ω
Vigour							
Person	1.00 (1.16)	1.02 (1.12)	1.05 (1.21)	2.34	.85	.89	.89
Item	.00 (.23)	1.02 (.30)	1.05 (.34)	4.28	.95		
Dedication							
Person	1.20 (1.49)	1.01 (1.09)	1.00 (1.06)	2.21	.83	.91	.92
Item	.00 (.44)	1.03 (.38)	1.00 (.31)	7.01	.98		
Absorption							
Person	.83 (1.09)	1.07 (1.08)	1.04 (1.08)	2.31	.84	.88	.89
Item	.00 (.38)	1.04 (.30)	1.05 (.38)	7.79	.98		
Overall work engagement							
Person	.94 (1.10)	1.16 (1.12)	1.11 (1.02)	3.67	.93	.96	.96
Item	.00 (.30)	1.04 (.40)	1.11 (.54)	6.14	.97		

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.4 indicates acceptable Rasch item reliability (≥ .95) for the three dimensions of the UWES, indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the UWES dimensions ranged between (α = .88) and (α = .96). The composite (omega) reliabilities for the UWES dimensions ranged

346

between (ω = .89) and (ω = .96). This indicates that the UWES has high internal consistency among all the subscales.

The item separation (≥ 6.14) and person separation (≥ 3.67) for the overall UWES were adequate, compared to the guideline of at least (>2.00), which meant that participants would probably have indicated similar responses in the same circumstances.

Furthermore, the dedication dimension showed the highest person average measure (1.20; *SD* = 1.49), while the absorption dimension showed the lowest person average measure (.83; *SD* = 1.09). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicated that the responses of individuals were consistent and provided useful information. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

6.1.1.5   *Flourishing scale (Psychosocial flourishing)*

The Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010) was used to measure the psychosocial flourishing levels of research participants. Table 6.5 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale.

Table 6.5

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Flourishing Scale (FS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Overall psychosocial flourishing							
Person	1.80 (1.36)	1.01 (1.05)	1.04 (1.04)	2.18	.83	.90	.90
Item	.00 (.38)	1.02 (.18)	1.04 (.14)	5.23	.96		

Notes: N = 373

The FS scale has high internal consistency. As indicated in Table 6.5, the Rasch item reliability (≥ .96) was acceptable for the overall FS scale, indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. Similarly, both the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α = .90) and the overall composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .90) were high.

The item separation (≥ 5.23) and person separation (≥ 2.18) for the overall FS were adequate, compared to the guideline of at least (>2.00), which meant that participants would probably have indicated similar responses in other situations.

The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicated that the answers of respondents were consistent and provided useful data. The outfit statistics were below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

6.1.1.6 Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (Workplace bullying)

The Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen et al., 2009) was used to measure research participants' perception of workplace bullying. Table 6.6 provides an overview of the Rasch summary statistics for the NAQ-R.

Table 6.6

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Work-related bullying							
Person	-1.25 (1.17)	1.02 (.81)	1.01 (.85)	1.61	.72	.82	.82
Item	.00 (.41)	1.11 (.20)	1.01 (.14)	5.91	.97		
Person-related bullying							
Person	-2.26 (1.42)	1.00 (.61)	.95 (.67)	2.00	.80	.92	.93
Item	.00 (.61)	1.11 (.22)	.95 (.19)	6.34	.98		
Physical intimidation							
Person	-2.40 (1.58)	.86 (1.04)	.94 (1.47)	1.03	.52	.72	.75
Item	.00 (1.44)	1.31 (.62)	.94 (.25)	9.26	.99		
Overall workplace bullying							
Person	-1.97 (1.25)	1.08 (.71)	1.00 (.68)	2.57	.87	.94	.88
Item	.00 (.73)	1.16 (.34)	1.00 (.32)	8.29	.99		

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.6 indicates acceptable Rasch item reliability (≥ .97) for the three dimensions of the NAQ-R scale, which indicates that the items differentiated well among the measured variables. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the NAQ-R dimensions ranged between (α

= .72) and (α = .94). Similarly, the composite (omega) reliabilities for the NAQ-R dimensions ranged between (ω = .75) and (ω = .93) which are higher than the guideline of ≥ .70 (Hair et al., 2010). This indicates that the NAQ-R overall scale and sub dimensions have internal consistency.

The item separation (≥ 8.29) and person separation (≥ 2.57) for the overall NAQ-R were adequate compared to the guideline of at least (>2.00), which indicates that useful data were obtained from the NAQ-R scale. However, the person separation indices for work-related bullying (1.61) and physical intimidation (1.03) were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicates that respondents misunderstood the items within these sub-dimensions or that they were hesitant to provide answers with the required intensity (Bond & Fox, 2007).

The physical intimidation dimension showed the highest person average measure (-2.40; *SD* = 1.58), while the work-related dimension showed the lowest person average measure (-1.25; *SD* = 1.17). The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicates that the responses of individuals were consistent and provided useful information. The outfit statistics were all below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

6.1.1.7 *Turnover intention scale (Turnover intention)*

The Turnover intention scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) was used to measure the research participants' intentions of leaving the employing organisation. Table 6.7 reports the composite (omega) reliabilities (Raykov's rho) for the scale and its subscales.

Table 6.7

Descriptive Statistics: Rasch Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients for the Turnover intention scale (TIS)

Scale dimension	Average measure (*SD*)	Infit (*SD*)	Outfit (*SD*)	Separation	Reliability	Alpha α	Omega (Raykov's rho) ω
Overall turnover intention							
Person	-.11 (1.16)	1.03 (.96)	1.06 (1.09)	1.86	.78	.90	.90
Item	.00 (.23)	1.00 (.22)	1.06 (.33)	3.60	.93		

Notes: N = 373

The TIS scale has high internal consistency. In Table 6.7 the Rasch item reliability (≥ .93) was indicated as acceptable for the overall TIS scale, indicating that the items of the scale differentiated well among the measured variables. Similarly, both the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (α = .90) and the overall composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .90) were high. The item separation (≥ 3.60) for the overall TIS was adequate, compared to the guideline of at least (>2.00), which meant that participants would probably have indicated similar responses in other contexts. However, the overall person separation (≥ 1.86) was somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of 2.00. This indicated that that the respondents misunderstood the items or that they were hesitant to provide answers with the required intensity (Bond & Fox, 2007).

The mean item fit and person fit were acceptable, showing that the responses neither underfitted (≥ 1.30) nor overfitted (≤ .70). This indicated that the answers of respondents were consistent and useful information could be obtained. The outfit statistics were below 2.00, indicating that the scale provided useful information.

In summary, the following core conclusions were drawn:

- In terms of the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992), the overall scale obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .84), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .85) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .85). However, the Rasch reliability (α = .68) and composite (omega) (ω = .66) reliability values were similar (slightly below the .70 cut-off mark), while the Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .58) showed a lower reliability value for the social self-esteem dimension. This suggested that the social self-esteem dimension did not discriminate well among the measured variables. In addition, the lie items dimension indicated lower Cronbach alpha coefficients and composite (omega) reliabilities (just below the .70 cut-off mark), while the Rasch reliability statistic value indicated adequate internal consistency.

- In terms of the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009), the overall scale obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .92), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .93) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .93). However, the utilisation of the emotion dimension reflected a slightly lower Rasch reliability (α = .69) (below the .70 cut-off mark) as opposed to the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α = .74) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .76), which indicated similar adequate internal consistency statistics. In addition, the managing own emotions, managing

350

others' emotions and the utilisation of emotion dimensions showed somewhat lower person separation indices than the proposed guideline of >2.00.

- In terms of the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987), the overall scale obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .90), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .91) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .91). However, the control - powerlessness and the challenge - threat dimensions showed somewhat lower person separation indices than the proposed guideline of >2.00.

- In terms of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002), the overall scale obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .93), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .96) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .96). Likewise, the overall Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010) obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .83), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .90) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .90).

- In terms of the Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen et al., 2009), the overall scale obtained high Rasch reliability statistics (α = .87), Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .94) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .88). However, the physical intimidation dimension reflected a lower Rasch reliability value (α = .52) as opposed to the Cronbach alpha coefficient (α = .72) and composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .75), which indicated adequate similar internal consistency statistics. In addition, the person separation indices for work-related bullying and physical intimidation were somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of >2.00.

- In terms of the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010), the overall scale showed adequate Rasch reliability statistics (α = .78), high Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α = .90) and high composite (omega) reliabilities (ω = .90). However, the overall person separation was somewhat lower than the proposed guideline of >2.00. This indicated that that the respondents misunderstood the items or that they were hesitant to provide answers with the required intensity (Bond & Fox, 2007).

To conclude, the person and item infit and outfit statistics of all the scales were either close to or higher than 1.00. The mean item fit and person fit also revealed that respondents provided answers in a useful and logical manner (Bond & Fox, 2007). The outfit statistics of all the scales were below 2.00, indicating that the scales provided useful information.

The Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992); Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009); Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987); Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al. 2002); Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010); Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen et al., 2009), and Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010) indicated acceptable internal consistency and scale reliability for the purposes of this research study.

These findings were taken into account in the statistical analyses and interpretation of the findings.

6.1.2 Common method variance

Common method variance presents a potential threat of bias in behavioural research, especially with cross-sectional (single-informative) surveys (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Accordingly, the Harman's one factor test and Confirmatory factor analysis (one factor solution) were conducted to assess the model fit data of each scale. Table 6.8 summarises the results of the Harman's one factor test and the CFAs conducted on each scale. A marginal value of RMSEA and SRMR for model acceptance is ≤.10, and a value of .08 and lower, and a CFI value close to ≥.90 and higher, are all considered an acceptable fit (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park, Nam, & Cha, 2012).

Table 6.8

Testing for Common Method Variance: Factor Solutions

Measurement instrument	Harman's one factor test: Percentage variance explained by a single factor	One factor solution (Confirmatory Factor Analysis)
Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) Construct: self-esteem	24.41%	CMIN/df = 3.41*** RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .08 CFI = .63
Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) Construct: emotional intelligence	32.36%	CMIN/df = 3.61*** RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .07 CFI = .73

Measurement instrument	Harman's one factor test: Percentage variance explained by a single factor	One factor solution (Confirmatory Factor Analysis)
Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) Construct: hardiness	20.92%	CMIN/df = 3.13*** RMSEA = .08 SRMR = .07 CFI = .57
Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) Construct: work engagement	55.61%	CMIN/df = 5.85*** RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .06 CFI = .85
Flourishing Scale (FS) Construct: psychosocial flourishing	58.42%	CMIN/df = 8.68*** RMSEA = .14 SRMR = .06 CFI = .90
Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) Construct: workplace bullying	45.95%	CMIN/df = 5.40*** RMSEA = .11 SRMR = .07 CFI = .80
Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) Construct: turnover intention	71.37%	CMIN/df = 11.14*** RMSEA = .16 SRMR = .04 CFI = .96

Notes: N = 373; ***$p \leq .000$

The one-factor solution for the CFSEI2-AD showed that the construct accounted for only 24.41% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the four CFSEI2-AD variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value well below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 3.41; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .08; CFI = .63).

In terms of the AES, the one-factor solution showed that the construct accounted for only 32.36% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the four AES variables

onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value well below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 3.61; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07; CFI = .73).

The one-factor solution for the PVS-II revealed that the construct accounted for only 20.92% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three PVS-II variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a CFI value well below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 3.13; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .07; CFI = .57).

In terms of the UWES, the one-factor solution showed that the construct accounted for 55.61% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three UWES variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with a RMSEA value above .10 and a CFI value below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 5.85; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .06; CFI = .85).

The one-factor solution for FS showed that the construct accounted for 58.42% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the FS variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with an RMSEA value above .10 (Chi-square/df ratio = 8.68; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .14; SRMR = .06; CFI = .90). The FS is a single-factor scale and these findings suggest that model improvement needs to be done in order to improve the validity of the scale.

In terms of the NAQ-R, the one-factor solution showed that the construct accounted for 45.95% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three NAQ-R variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with an RMSEA value above .10 and a CFI value below .90 (Chi-square/df ratio = 5.40; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .07; CFI = .80).

Finally, in terms of the TIS, the one-factor solution showed that the construct accounted for 71.37% of the covariance among the scale variables. When loading the three TIS variables onto a single construct in the CFA model, the fit indices showed that the single factor did not fit the model well, with an RMSEA value above .10 (Chi-square/df ratio = 11.14; $p < .000$; RMSEA = .16; SRMR = .04; CFI = .96). The TIS is a single-factor scale and these findings suggest that model improvement needs to be done in order to improve the validity of the scale.

Overall, in line with the guidelines of Podsakoff et al. (2003), the one-factor results for the

various scales suggested that common method bias did not pose a threat to the research findings.

6.1.3 Reporting of means and standard deviations

This section provides the descriptive information on each of the subscales of the seven measuring instruments. The means and standard deviations of the CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R, and TIS are summarised below.

6.1.3.1 Means and standard deviations of the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD)

The CFSEI2-AD is scored by obtaining a mean score across all four subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing up all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by four. Each subscale can range from one to seven.

The descriptive information for the four construct variables on the CFSEI2-AD scale is summarised below in Table 6.9. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.9

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
CFSEI2-AD	2.85	5.95	4.81	.62	-.56	-.12
General self-esteem	2.31	7.00	5.36	.96	-.74	.21
Social self-esteem	2.38	6.25	4.88	.68	-.37	.33
Personal self-esteem	1.25	7.00	4.72	1.31	-.34	.67
Lie items	1.25	6.75	3.80	.99	.19	-.17

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.9 shows that the mean scores ranged from 3.80 to 5.36, indicating mid-range to high scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on general self-esteem (*M* = 5.36; *SD* = .96), and the lowest mean score on the lie items (*M* = 3.80; *SD* = .99). The Lie subtest comprised items related to matters considered socially undesirable (Battle, 1992). The low scores on the lie items suggested that the participants were not defensive in ascribing to themselves the characteristics of a generally valid but socially unacceptable nature.

The standard deviations ranged from .62 to 1.31. The skewness values for the CFSEI2-AD ranged from -.74 to .19, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis values ranged from -.17 to .67, thereby falling within the -1 and above 1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.2   Means and standard deviations of the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The AES is scored by obtaining a mean score across all four subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing up all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by four. Each subscale can range from one to five.

The descriptive information for the four construct variables on the AES scale is summarised below in Table 6.10. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.10

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
AES	1.70	5.00	4.03	.53	-.77	1.07
Perception of emotion	1.50	5.00	3.86	.68	-.74	.72
Managing own emotions	2.11	5.00	4.19	.62	-.86	.64
Managing others emotions	1.50	5.00	4.05	.58	-.86	1.23
Utilisation of emotion	1.00	5.00	4.07	.61	-.76	1.47

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.10 shows that the mean scores ranged from 3.86 to 4.19, indicating mid-range to high scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on managing own emotions (*M* = 4.19; *SD* = .62), and the lowest mean score on perception of emotion on the lie items (*M* =3.86; *SD* = .68). The standard deviations ranged from .53 to .68. The skewness values for the AES ranged from -.74 to -.86. The values were close to one another and did fall within the -1 and +1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis values ranged from .64 to 1.47, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.3   Means and standard deviations of the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II)

The PVS-II is scored by obtaining a mean score across all three subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing up all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by three. Each subscale can range from one to four.

The descriptive information for the three construct variables on the PVS-II scale is summarised below in Table 6.11. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.11

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
PVS-II	.61	2.92	2.02	.38	-.60	.12
Commitment - Alienation	.40	3.00	2.20	.51	-.88	.44
Control - Powerlessness	.88	3.00	2.24	.40	-.72	.20
Challenge - Threat	.53	2.88	1.63	.42	-.01	-.18

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.11 shows that the mean scores ranged from 1.63 to 2.24, indicating low to mid-range scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on control - powerlessness (*M* = 2.24; *SD* = .40), and the lowest mean score on the challenge - threat (*M* =1.63; *SD* = .42). The standard deviations ranged from .38 to .51. The skewness values for the PVS-II ranged from -.01 to -.88, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis values ranged from -.18 to .44, thereby falling within the -1 and above 1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.4   Means and standard deviations of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The UWES is scored by obtaining a mean score across all three subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing up all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by three. Each subscale can range from one to seven.

The descriptive information for the three construct variables on the UWES is summarised below in Table 6.12. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.12

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
UWES	.43	6.00	4.42	1.21	-1.06	.52
Vigour	.50	6.00	4.46	1.18	-.96	.29
Dedication	.00	6.00	4.50	1.45	-1.15	.60
Absorption	.13	6.00	4.32	1.25	-1.10	.85

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.12 shows that the mean scores were close to one another and ranged from 4.32 to 4.50, indicating mid-range scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on dedication (*M* = 4.50; *SD* = 1.45), and the lowest mean score on absorption (*M* =4.32; *SD* = 1.25). The standard deviation values were close to one another and ranged from 1.18 to 1.45. The skewness values for the UWES ranged from -.96 to -1.15, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis values ranged from .29 to .85, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.5   Means and standard deviations of the Flourishing Scale (FS)

Each subscale can range from one to seven. The descriptive information for the FS scale is summarised below in Table 6.13. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.13

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the psychosocial Flourishing Scale (FS)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
FS	1.88	7.00	6.04	.89	-1.47	2.92

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.13 shows that the mean score value was 6.04, indicating high scores by respondents. The skewness value for the FS was -.1.47, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis value was 2.92, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.6   Means and standard deviations of the Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)

The NAQ-R is scored by obtaining a mean score across all three subscales. A mean score is obtained by summing up all the individual scores for each subscale and then dividing the total score for each subscale by three. Each subscale can range from one to five.

The descriptive information for the three construct variables on the NAQ-R scale is summarised below in Table 6.14. The descriptive information includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis.

Table 6.14

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
NAQ-R	.00	3.18	.64	.62	1.65	2.58
Work-related bullying	.00	3.86	.92	.76	1.23	1.19
Person-related bullying	.00	3.58	.54	.64	2.06	4.88
Physical intimidation	.00	3.33	.36	.60	2.24	5.25

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.14 shows that the mean scores ranged from .36 to .92, indicating very low scores. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean score on work-related bullying (*M* = .92; *SD* = .76), and the lowest mean score on the physical intimidation (*M* = .36; *SD* = .60). The standard deviation values were close to one another and ranged from .60 to .76. The skewness values for the NAQ-R ranged from 1.23 to 2.24, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis values ranged from 1.19 to 5.25, thereby falling outside the -1 and above 1 normality range suggested for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

6.1.3.7   Means and standard deviations of the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS)

Each subscale can range from one to five. The descriptive information for the TIS scale is summarised below in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness and Kurtosis for the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS)

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
TIS	1.00	5.00	2.67	1.32	.20	-1.25

Notes: N = 373

Table 6.15 shows that the mean score value was 2.67, indicating mid-range scores by respondents. The skewness value for the TIS was .20, thereby falling within the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Pallant, 2010). The kurtosis value was -1.25, thereby falling outside the -1 and +1 normality range recommended for these coefficients (Hogg & Tanis, 2010).

In summary, the following core conclusions were drawn:

- In terms of the Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) (Battle, 1992), the highest score indicates that respondents have relatively high general self-esteem. The mid-range scores on the lie items dimension indicate that participants, on average, have answered the CFSEI2-AD scale items honestly and have not been defensive in ascribing to themselves the characteristics of a generally valid but socially unacceptable nature.

- In terms of the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009), the highest score indicate that participants view themselves as individuals who can frequently manage their own emotions. On the other hand, the lowest score on the scale (although mid-range *M* =3.86; *SD* = .68) indicate that respondents feel relatively less capable to perceive the emotions of others accurately (perception of emotions).

- Overall, the scores obtained on the Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) (Maddi, 1987) have been mid-range, which suggests that the participants have not felt strongly confident about their hardiness (control – powerlessness had a mid-range score). The lowest score shows that respondents may experience a number of threats in the

workplace or do not perceive their work as challenging but rather as a threat (challenge – threat dimension low).

- In terms of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002), respondents scored higher on the dedication dimension and the lowest on the absorption dimension. However, participants indicated similar mid-range scores on all the sub dimensions (vigour, dedication and absorption). Respondents indicated that they were generally engaged in their work.

- In terms of the Flourishing Scale (FS) (Diener et al., 2010), participants indicated high scores, suggesting high levels of psychosocial flourishing.

- In terms of the Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) (Einarsen et al., 2009), respondents scored very low on all the sub dimensions. The highest dimension was work-related bullying, which indicated that participants experienced relatively more bullying behaviour related to their work than incidents of physical intimidation. The lowest score indicated that participants experienced fewer physical intimidation as opposed to the other dimensions. Overall, the scores suggested low perceptions of bullying in the workplace.

- In terms of the Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010), participants indicated mid-range scores. This could indicate that respondents neither had overly strong intentions to leave nor to stay at their employing organisations.

Overall, the profile of the participants suggested positive self-evaluations regarding levels of general self-esteem, managing own emotions and their levels of flourishing as well as moderate levels of perceiving others' emotions. Their sense of hardiness (control – powerless and challenge – threat) was somewhat lower, and their engagement (dedication and absorption) moderate. The participants did not seem to perceive many bullying incidents in the workplace and did not seem to have strong turnover intentions. Below, figure 6.1 illustrates the dominant profile scores.
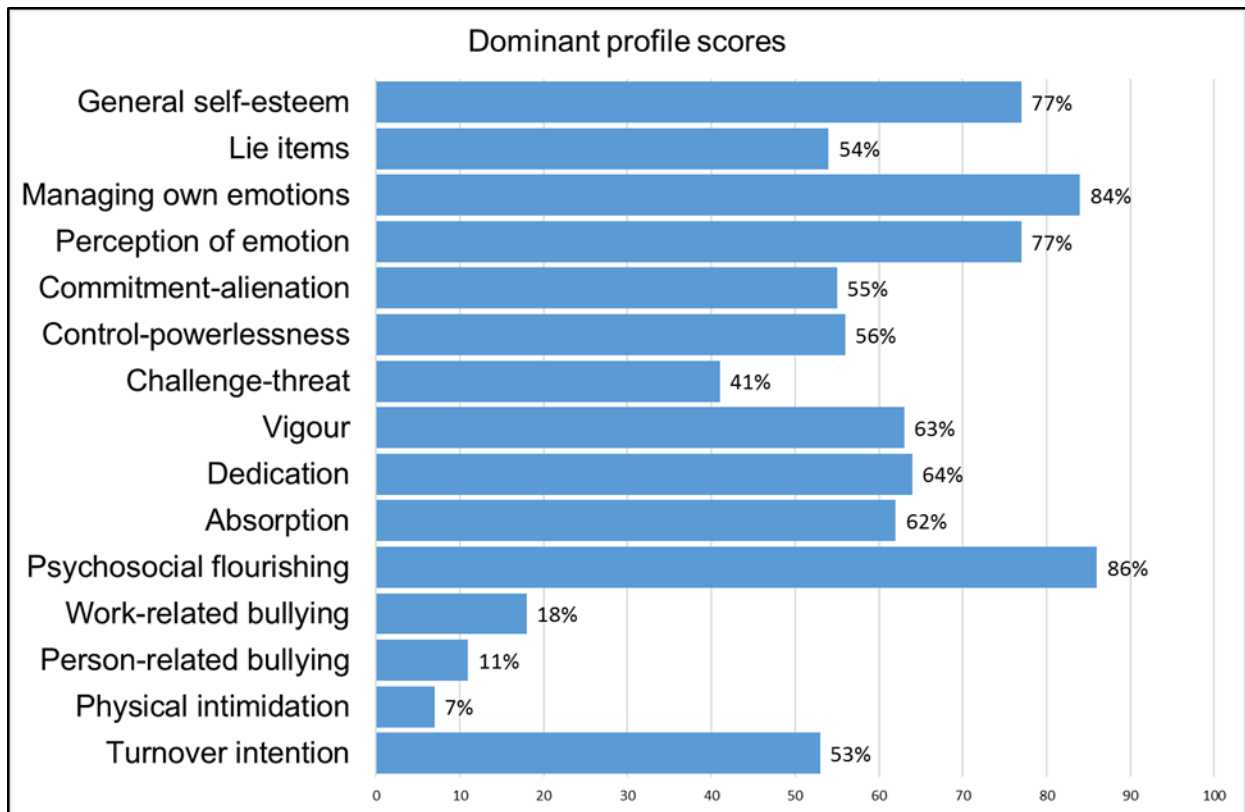
Figure 6.1: Dominant profile scores

6.2   CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

The correlational statistics are utilised to investigate the direction and magnitude of the association between the research variables and to determine whether the results provided adequate evidence in support of research hypotheses H1.

H1: There are statistically significant positive interrelationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

6.2.1   Relationship between the independent (workplace bullying) and dependent construct (turnover intention) variables

The relationship between the research variables was calculated by means of Pearson product-moment correlations in order to identify the magnitude and direction of the relationship between each of the variables of each instrument. Table 6.16 shows the correlations among the biographical, independent and dependent variables.

Table 6.16

Bivariate Correlations of the Biographical, Independent (Workplace Bullying) and Dependent (Turnover Intention) Variables

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Age	-	-	-	-	-					
2	Gender	-	-	-	-	-					
3	Race	-	-	-	**-**	-					
4	Tenure	-	-	-	**-**	-					
5	Job level	-	-	-	-	-					
6	NAQ-R overall scale (IV)	**-.17****	-.08	-.04	-.01	**.13***	-				
7	Work-related bullying	**-.17****	-.07	-.04	.01	**.15****	**.89****	-			
8	Person-related bullying	**-.15****	.09	-04	-.02	**.11***	**.96****	**.74****	-		
9	Physical intimidation	**-.12***	**-.11***	-.02	-.02	.04	**.82****	**.60****	**.79****	-	
10	Overall TIS scale (DV)	**-.24****	-.08	**.11***	.00	**.13***	**.40****	**.45****	**.34****	**.24****	-

Notes: N = 373. ***p ≤ .001 **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ 0.05 Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface.

6.2.1.1 Correlations between biographical variables and the scale variables

As shown in Table 6.16, a number of significant and negative bi-variate relationships were observed between age, NAQ-R and the overall TIS variables. Significant negative bi-variate relationships were observed between age with the overall NAQ-R scale ($r ≤ -.17$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .01$), work-related bullying ($r ≤ -.17$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .01$), person-related bullying ($r ≤ -.15$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .01$), physical intimidation ($r ≤ -.12$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .05$), and overall TIS ($r ≤ -.24$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .01$).

The results (Table 6.16) indicate that gender only correlated negatively and significantly with the physical intimidation variable ($r ≤ -.11$, small practical effect size, $p ≤ .05$). In addition, race only correlated positively and significantly with the overall TIS ($r ≤ .11$; small practical effect size; $p ≤ .05$).

However, no significant bi-variate relationships were found between tenure with any NAQ-R scale variables or with the overall TIS.

The results (Table 6.16) indicated that job level correlated positively and significantly with workplace bullying and turnover intention, with the exception of the physical intimidation variable. A significant positive bi-variate relationship was evident between job level with the NAQ-R overall scale ($r \leq .13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$), work-related bullying ($r \leq .15$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), person-related bullying ($r \leq .11$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$) and the overall TIS ($r \leq .13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$).

6.2.1.2   Correlations among each scale

In terms of the bi-variate correlations, Table 6.16 shows that the correlations among the three NAQ-R variables have ranged between $r \geq .60 \leq .79$ ($p \leq .01$; large practical effect size). All the variables correlated positively and moderately ($r \geq .82 \leq .96$; $p \leq .01$; large practical effect size) with the overall NAQ-R construct.

6.2.1.3   Correlations between workplace bullying (NAQ-R) and turnover intention (TIS)

Significant positive bi-variate relationships were observed between all the NAQ-R variables and the overall TIS. The results indicated that the overall TIS positively and significantly correlated with the overall NAQ-R scale ($r \leq .40$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), work-related bullying ($r \leq .45$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), person-related bullying ($r \leq .34$; medium practical effect size; $p \leq .01$), and physical intimidation ($r \leq .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Overall, the results showed significant correlations between the biographical variables and the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables, which were small in practical effect size, with the exception of tenure where no significant correlations could be found.

6.2.2 Relationship between the mediating and dependent variables

Table 6.17 shows the correlations among the biographical, independent, mediating and dependent variables.

Table 6.17

Bivariate Correlations of the Biographical, Mediating (Self-esteem, Emotional Intelligence, Hardiness, Work Engagement, Psychosocial Flourishing) and Dependent (Turnover Intention) Variables

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
1	Age	-	-	-	-	-																				
2	Gender	-	-	-	-	-																				
3	Race	-	-	-	**-**	-																				
4	Tenure	-	-	-	**-**	-																				
5	Job level	-	-	-	-	-																				
6	CFSEI2-AD overall scale (MV)	-.01	**-.20****	-.10	-.07	**-.21****	-																			
7	General self-esteem	.03	**-.20****	**.11***	-.06	**-.26****	**.91****	-																		
8	Social self-esteem	-.02	**-.18****	.07	-02	**-.12***	**.64****	**.52****	-																	
9	Personal self-esteem	.01	**-.18****	.10	-.06	**.15****	**.84****	**.75****	**.41****	-																
10	Lie items	**-.10***	**.15****	-.08	.01	**.12***	**-.20****	**-.46****	**-.24****	**-.43****	-															
11	AES overall scale (MV)	.01	.04	**.14****	-.07	-.10	**.55****	**.57****	**.44****	**.45****	**-.31****															
12	Perception of emotion	.00	**.10***	.05	-.10	-.10	**.42****	**.45****	**.33****	**.36****	**-.26****	**.86****	-													
13	Managing own emotions	-.01	-.08	**.13****	-.02	-.08	**.67****	**.67****	**.46****	**.59****	**-.32****	**.85****	**.57****	-												
14	Managing others emotions	.01	.10	**.18****	-.06	-.09	**.38****	**.41****	**.38****	**.29****	**-.26****	**.87****	**.68****	**.65****	-											
15	Utilisation of emotion	-.04	.02	**.13***	-.04	-.05	**.33****	**.36****	**.28****	**.24****	**-.17****	**.80****	**.54****	**.65****	**.64****	-										

Notes: N = 373. ***p ≤ .001 **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05 Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface.

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
16	PVS-II overall scale (MV)	.02	-.05	.02	-.07	**-.17****	**.53****	**.54****	**.35****	**.47****	**-.25****	**.40****	**.41****	**.40****	**.26****	**.22****	-									
17	Commitment-Alienation	.05	.00	.01	-.05	**-.18****	**.51****	**.54****	**.35****	**.44****	**-.29****	**.41****	**.39****	**.44****	**.26****	**.26****	**.91****	-								
18	Control-Powerlessness	.00	-.08	.04	-.06	**-.15****	**.55****	**.55****	**.35****	**.50****	**-.24****	**.46****	**.43****	**.48****	**.33****	**.24****	**.89****	**.78****	-							
19	Challenge-Threat	-.01	-.07	-01	-.07	-.10	**.32****	**.32****	**.20****	**.29****	**-.13***	**.17****	**.24****	**.14****	.08	.07	**.81****	**.56****	**.55****	-						
20	UWES overall scale (MV)	**.15****	-.04	.04	.04	**-.15****	**.28****	**.32****	**.22****	**.26****	**-.25****	**.30****	**.25****	**.32****	**.21****	**.23****	**.40****	**.51****	**.32****	**.19****	-					
21	Vigour	**.13****	-.08	.06	.02	**-.15****	**.35****	**.38****	**.27****	**.33****	**-.27****	**.36****	**.30****	**.39****	**.26****	**.26****	**.44****	**.53****	**.38****	**.21****	**.96****	-				
22	Dedication	**.15****	-.02	.02	.04	**-.13***	**.26****	**.29****	**.19****	**.23****	**-.21****	**.25****	**.19****	**.29****	**.17****	**.18****	**.38****	**.50****	**.31****	**.18****	**.94****	**.87****	-			
23	Absorption	**.15****	-.01	.03	.03	**-.13***	**.20****	**.25****	**.17****	**.18****	**-.22****	**.25****	**.21****	**.24****	**.17****	**.20****	**.32****	**.43****	**.24****	**.15****	**.95****	**.85****	**.83****	-		
24	Overall FS scale (MV)	.01	.03	**.16****	-.06	-.08	**.58****	**.60****	**.46****	**.50****	**-.32****	**.61****	**.46****	**.66****	**.49****	**.45****	**.45****	**.51****	**.45****	**.19****	**.46****	**.51****	**.43****	**.37****	-	
25	Overall TIS (DV)	**-.24****	-.08	**.11***	.00	**.13***	**-.14****	**-.18****	-.03	**-.17****	**.18****	-.10	-.04	**-.17****	-.05	-.06	**-.18****	**-.34****	**-.14****	.03	**-.47****	**-.43****	**-.53****	**-.40****	**-.21****	-

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \le .001$ **$p \le .01$ *$p \le .05$ Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface.

6.2.2.1 Correlations between biographical variables and the scale variables

As shown in Table 6.17, significant positive bi-variate relationships were observed between age with the overall UWES ($r \le .15$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), vigour ($r \le .13$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), dedication ($r = .15$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$) and absorption ($r \le -.24$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$) and significantly and negatively with the lie items dimension ($r \le -.10$, small practical effect size, $p \le .05$) and the overall TIS ($r \le -.24$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant and negative bi-variate relationships between gender with the overall CFSEI2-AD scale ($r \le -.20$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), general self-esteem ($r \le -.20$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), social self-esteem ($r \le -.18$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), personal self-esteem ($r \le -.18$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$) and significantly and positively correlated with the lie items ($r \le .15$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$) and perception of emotion ($r \le .10$, small practical effect size, $p \le .05$).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between race with general self-esteem ($r \le .11$, small practical effect size, $p \le .05$), the overall AES ($r \le .14$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), managing own emotions ($r \le .13$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), managing others emotions ($r \le .18$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), utilisation of emotion ($r \le .13$, small practical effect size, $p \le .05$) and the overall FS ($r \le .16$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$) and the overall TIS ($r \le .11$, small practical effect size, $p \le .05$). Suggesting that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \le .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated no significant bi-variate correlations between tenure with any of the wellbeing-related variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention.

Significant negative bi-variate correlations were evident between job level with the overall CFSEI2-AD scale, general self-esteem, the overall PVS-II scale, commitment – alienation, control – powerlessness, the overall UWES, vigour ($r \ge -.15 \le -.26$; small practical effect size; $p \le .01$), social self-esteem, dedication and absorption ($r \ge -.12 \le -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \le .05$). Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between job level and personal self-esteem ($r \le .15$, small practical effect size, $p \le .01$), lie items and the overall TIS ($r \ge .12 \le .13$; small effect size; $p \le .05$).

6.2.2.2 Correlations among the variables of each scale

In terms of the bi-variate correlations, Table 6.17 shows that the correlations among the four CFSEI2-AD variables ranged between $r \geq -.24 \leq .75$ ($p \leq .01$; small to large practical effect size), suggesting that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). All the variables correlated positively and moderately ($r \geq .64 \leq .91$; $p \leq .01$; large practical effect size) with the overall CFSEI2-AD construct, with the exception of the lie items dimension, which correlated negatively and moderately ($r \geq -.24 \leq -.46$; $p \leq .01$; small to medium practical effect size) with the overall CFSEI2-AD construct.

The bi-variate correlations among the four AES variables (Table 6.17) ranged between $r \geq .54 \leq .68$ ($p \leq .01$; large practical effect size). All the variables correlated positively and moderately ($r \geq .80 \leq .87$; $p \leq .01$; large practical effect size) with the overall AES construct, confirming the overall construct validity of the AES.

The bi-variate correlations among the three PVS-II variables (Table 6.17) ranged between $r \geq .55 \leq .78$ ($p \leq .01$; large practical effect size), suggesting that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). All the variables correlated positively and moderately ($r \geq .81 \leq .91$; $p \leq .01$; large practical effect size) with the overall PVS-II construct, confirming the overall construct validity of the PVS-II.

The bi-variate correlations among the three UWES variables (Table 6.17) ranged between $r \geq .83 \leq .87$ ($p \leq .01$; large practical effect size). All the variables correlated positively and moderately ($r \geq .94 \leq .96$; $p \leq .01$; large practical effect size) with the overall UWES construct, confirming the overall construct validity of the UWES.

6.2.2.3 Correlations between psychological wellbeing-related constructs (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention

Overall, Table 6.17 shows that the CFSEI2-AD variables correlated significantly and negatively with total self-esteem, general self-esteem, personal self-esteem and total turnover intention (TIS) ($r \geq -.14 \leq -.18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). No correlation was evident between the social self-esteem variable and overall turnover intention. The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

A significant negative correlation was evident between managing own emotions (emotional intelligence variable) and overall turnover intention (TIS) ($r \leq$ -.17; small practical effect size; $p \leq$ .01). No correlations were evident between overall emotional intelligence, the perception of emotion, managing others emotions, utilisation of emotion variables and overall turnover intention. The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq$ .85) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant negative correlations were observed between total hardiness (PVS-II), commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness hardiness variables and overall turnover intention (TIS) ($r \geq$ -.14 $\leq$ -.34; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq$ .01). No significant correlation could be found between the challenge – threat hardiness variable and overall turnover intention. The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq$ .85) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated that overall work engagement, the vigour, dedication and absorption work engagement variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall turnover intention ($r \geq$ -.40 $\leq$ -.53; moderate to large practical effect size; $p \leq$ .01). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq$ .85) (Hair et al., 2010).

A significant negative correlation was evident between overall psychosocial flourishing and overall turnover intention ($r \leq$ -.21; small practical effect size; $p \leq$ .01).

Overall, the results showed significant correlations between the biographical variables with the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention, which were small in practical effect size. However, no significant correlations could be found with the biographical variable of tenure.

6.2.2.4   *Correlations between psychological wellbeing-related constructs (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing)*

Overall, Table 6.17 shows that the total CFSEI2-AD, total AES, total PVS-II, total UWES and total FS variables correlated significantly and positively with one another ($r \geq$ .28 $\leq$ .61; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq$ .01). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq$ .85) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD scale dimensions) with the perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotion (AES dimensions) ($r \geq .28 \leq .61$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). In addition, significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between the lie items (self-esteem dimension) and all the AES dimensions ($r \geq -.17 \leq -.32$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant positive bi-variate correlations between general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD scale dimensions) with commitment-alienation, control – powerlessness and challenge – threat (PVS-II scale dimensions) ($r \geq .20 \leq .55$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). On the other hand, lie items (CFSEI2-AD scale dimension) indicated negative bi-variate correlations with all the PVS-II scale dimensions ($r \geq -.13 \leq -.29$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD scale dimensions) with vigour, dedication and absorption (UWES dimensions) ($r \geq .17 \leq .38$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). In addition, significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between the lie items (self-esteem dimension) and all the UWES dimensions ($r \geq -.21 \leq -.27$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant positive bi-variate correlations between general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD scale dimensions) with the overall FS ($r \geq .46 \leq .60$; moderate to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). On the other hand, lie items (CFSEI2-AD scale dimension) indicated a negative bi-variate correlation with the FS dimensions ($r \leq -.32$; moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotion (AES dimensions) with commitment – alienation and control – powerlessness (PVS-II scale

dimensions) ($r \geq .24 \leq .48$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). There were significant positive bi-variate correlations evident between challenge-threat (PVS-II dimension) with perception of emotion ($r \leq .24$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and managing own emotions (AES dimensions) ($r \leq .14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). No correlations were evident between the challenge – threat (PVS-II scale dimension) with managing others emotions and the utilisation of emotion (AES dimensions).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotion (AES dimensions) with vigour, dedication and absorption (UWES dimensions) ($r \geq .17 \leq .39$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant positive bi-variate correlations between perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotion (AES dimensions) with the overall FS ($r \geq .45 \leq .66$; moderate to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

There were significant positive bi-variate correlations evident between commitment – alienation, control – powerlessness and challenge-threat (PVS-II scale dimensions) with vigour, dedication and absorption (UWES dimensions) ($r \geq .15 \leq .53$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant positive bi-variate correlations were evident between commitment-alienation, control – powerlessness and challenge – threat (PVS-II scale dimensions) with the overall FS ($r \geq .19 \leq .51$; small to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggests that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant positive bi-variate correlations between vigour, dedication and absorption (UWES dimensions) with the overall FS ($r \geq .37 \leq .51$; moderate to large practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Overall, the results showed significant correlations between the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), which were small to large in practical effect size.

6.2.3 Relationship between the independent and mediating construct variables

Table 6.18 shows the correlations among the independent and mediating variables.

Table 6.18

Bivariate Correlations of the Independent (Workplace Bullying) and Mediating (Self-esteem, Emotional Intelligence, Hardiness, Work Engagement, Psychosocial Flourishing) Variables

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
1	NAQ-R overall scale (IV)	-																						
2	Work-related bullying	.89**	-																					
3	Person-related bullying	.96**	.74**	-																				
4	Physical intimidation	.82**	.60**	.79**																				
5	CFSEI2-AD overall scale (MV)	-.23**	-.21**	-.23**	-.13*	-																		
6	General self-esteem	-.23**	-.21**	-.23**	-.14**	.91**	-																	
7	Social self-esteem	-.12*	-.13*	-.12*	.00	.64**	.52**	-																
8	Personal self-esteem	-.27**	-.25**	-.26**	-.18**	.84**	.75**	.41**	-															
9	Lie items	.18**	.19**	.16**	.12*	-.20**	-.46**	-.24**	-.43**															
10	AES overall scale (MV)	-.16**	-.16**	-.15**	-.13**	.55**	.57**	.44**	.45**	-.31**														
11	Perception of emotion	-.18**	-.14**	-.18**	-.16**	.42**	.45**	.33**	.36**	-.26**	.86**	-												
12	Managing own emotions	-.19**	-.18**	-.17**	-.14**	.67**	.67**	.46**	.59**	-.32**	.85**	.57**	-											

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
13	Managing others emotions	-.13*	-.16**	-.10	-.08	.38**	.41**	.38**	.29**	-.26**	.87**	.68**	.65**											
14	Utilisation of emotion	.00	-.02	.02	-.02	.33**	.36**	.28**	.24**	-.17**	.80**	.54**	.65**	.64**										
15	PVS-II overall scale (MV)	-.38**	-.32**	-.37**	-.34**	.53**	.54**	.35**	.47**	-.25**	.40**	.41**	.40**	.26**	.22**									
16	Commitment-Alienation	-.43**	-.39**	-.40**	-.36**	.51**	.54**	.35**	.44**	-.29**	.41**	.39**	.44**	.26**	.26**	.91**								
17	Control-Powerlessness	-.43**	-.37**	-.41**	-.38**	.55**	.55**	.35**	.50**	-.24**	.46**	.43**	.48**	.33**	.24**	.89**	.78**							
18	Challenge-Threat	-.13*	-.08	-.15**	-.13*	.32**	.32**	.20**	.29**	-.13*	.17**	.24**	.14**	.08	.07	.81**	.56**	.55**						
19	UWES overall scale (MV)	-.32**	-.32**	-.29**	-.21**	.28**	.32**	.22**	.26**	-.25**	.30**	.25**	.32**	.21**	.23**	.40**	.51**	.32**	.19**					
20	Vigour	-.31**	-.31**	-.28**	-.21**	.35**	.38**	.27**	.33**	-.27**	.36**	.30**	.39**	.26**	.26**	.44**	.53**	.38**	.21**	.96**				
21	Dedication	-.33**	-.35**	-.30**	-.22**	.26**	.29**	.19**	.23**	-.21**	.25**	.19**	.29**	.17**	.18**	.38**	.50**	.31**	.18**	.94**	.87**			
22	Absorption	-.27**	-.27**	-.25**	-.17**	.20**	.25**	.17**	.18**	-.22**	.25**	.21**	.24**	.17**	.20**	.32**	.43**	.24**	.15**	.95**	.85**	.83**		
23	Overall FS scale (MV)	-.22**	-.22**	-.20**	-.18**	.58**	.60**	.46**	.50**	-.32**	.61**	.46**	.66**	.49**	.45**	.45**	.51**	.45**	.19**	.46**	.51**	.43**	.37**	

Notes: N = 373. ***p ≤ .001 **p ≤ .01 *p ≤ .05 Significant statistical correlations are shown in boldface.

Correlations between workplace bullying and psychological wellbeing-related constructs (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing)

<u>Correlations between workplace bullying and self-esteem</u>

Table 6.18 shows that overall workplace bullying (NAQ-R) variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall self-esteem CFSEI2-AD, general self-esteem, personal self-esteem ($r \geq -.23 \leq -.27$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and social self-esteem ($r \leq -.12$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). A significant positive bi-variate correlation was evident between overall workplace bullying and the lie items self-esteem variable ($r \leq .18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between work-related bullying and overall self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD), general self-esteem, personal self-esteem ($r \geq -.21 \leq -.25$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and social self-esteem ($r \leq -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). A significant positive bi-variate correlation was evident between work-related bullying and the lie items self-esteem variable ($r \leq .19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between person-related bullying and overall self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD), general self-esteem, personal self-esteem ($r \geq -.23 \leq -.26$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and social self-esteem ($r \leq -.12$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). A significant positive bi-variate correlation was evident between person-related bullying and the lie items self-esteem variable ($r \leq .16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between physical intimidation and general self-esteem, personal self-esteem ($r \geq -.13 \leq -.14$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and overall self-esteem (CFSEI2-AD) ($r \leq -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). A significant positive bivariate correlation was evident between work-related bullying and the lie items self-esteem variable ($r \leq .12$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). No significant correlation could be found between the physical intimidation bullying variable and social self-esteem.

Table 6.18 shows that overall workplace bullying (NAQ-R) variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall emotional intelligence (AES), perception of emotion, managing own emotions ($r \geq -.16 \leq -.19$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and managing others' emotions ($r \leq -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). No significant correlation could be found between overall workplace bullying and the utilisation of emotion variable.

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between work-related bullying and overall emotional intelligence (AES), perception of emotion, managing own emotions, and managing others emotions ($r \geq -.14 \leq -.18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). No significant correlation could be found between work-related bullying and the utilisation of emotion variable.

Significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between person-related bullying and overall emotional intelligence (AES), perception of emotion, managing own emotions ($r \geq -.15 \leq -.18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and managing others' emotions ($r \leq -.10$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). No significant correlation could be found between person-related bullying and the utilisation of emotion variable.

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between physical intimidation and overall emotional intelligence (AES), perception of emotion and managing own emotions ($r \geq -.13 \leq -.16$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). The range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010). No significant correlation could be found among the physical intimidation bullying variable and managing others' emotions and the utilisation of emotion variables.

Correlations between workplace bullying and hardiness
Table 6.18 shows that overall workplace bullying (NAQ-R) variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall hardiness (PVS-II), commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness ($r \geq -.38 \leq -.43$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and challenge-threat ($r \leq -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between work-related bullying and overall hardiness (PVS-II), commitment-alienation and control-powerlessness ($r \geq -.32 \leq -.39$; moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). No significant correlation could be found between work-related bullying and the challenge-threat hardiness variable.

Significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between person-related bullying and overall hardiness (PVS-II), commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness and challenge-threat ($r \geq -.15 \leq -.41$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between physical intimidation and overall hardiness (PVS-II), commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness ($r \geq -.34 \leq -.38$; moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$) and challenge-threat ($r \leq -.13$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .05$). Overall, the range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

Correlations between workplace bullying and work engagement
Table 6.18 shows that overall workplace bullying (NAQ-R) variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall work engagement (UWES), vigour, dedication and absorption ($r \geq -.27 \leq -.33$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between work-related bullying and overall work engagement (UWES), vigour, dedication and absorption ($r \geq -.27 \leq -.35$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

Significant negative bivariate correlations were observed between person-related bullying and overall work engagement (UWES), vigour, dedication and absorption ($r \geq -.25 \leq -.30$; small to moderate practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between physical intimidation and overall work engagement (UWES), vigour, dedication and absorption ($r \geq -.17 \leq -.22$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Overall, the range of the r values suggested that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

<u>Correlations between workplace bullying and psychosocial flourishing</u>

Table 6.18 shows that overall workplace bullying (NAQ-R) variables correlated significantly and negatively with overall psychosocial flourishing ($r \leq -.22$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between work-related bullying and overall psychosocial flourishing ($r \leq -.22$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

Significant negative bi-variate correlations were observed between person-related bullying and overall psychosocial flourishing ($r \leq -.20$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$).

The results (Table 6.18) indicated significant and negative bi-variate correlations between physical intimidation and overall psychosocial flourishing ($r \leq -.18$; small practical effect size; $p \leq .01$). Overall, the range of the r values suggest that the values were below the threshold value for multi-collinearity concerns ($r \leq .85$) (Hair et al., 2010).

The results obtained for the correlation analyses yielded supportive evidence for research hypothesis H1: There is statistically significant positive interrelationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Core conclusions:

- There were significant positive bi-variate relationships evident between the independent variable (workplace bullying) and dependent variable (turnover intention), which were small to moderate in practical effect size; $p \leq .01$.
- On the other hand, there were significant negative bi-variate relationships observed between the mediating variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and the dependent variable (turnover

intention), which were small in practical effect size; $p \leq .01$.

- There were no correlations evident between the social self-esteem, overall emotional intelligence, perception of emotion, managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotion and the challenge-threat hardiness dimensions with the overall turnover intention variable.

- Only one dimension of emotional intelligence (managing own emotions) correlated with turnover intention.

- Significant negative bi-variate relationships were evident between the independent (workplace bullying) and mediating (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) variables, which were small in practical effect size. With the exception of the self-esteem lie items dimension, which correlated significantly positively with the workplace bullying variables (also small in practical effect size).

- However, no significant correlations were evident between the physical intimidation bullying dimension with the social self-esteem, managing others' emotions and the utilisation of emotion variables.

- There were no significant correlations observed between the workplace bullying variables with the utilisation of emotion variable.

- No significant correlation was evident between the work-related bullying variable with the challenge-threat hardiness variable.

- Overall, the results showed that the significant correlations between workplace bullying, wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention were small to medium in practical effect size.

Biographical variables:

- There were significant negative bi-variate relationships between age with all the workplace bullying variables, lie items (self-esteem) dimension and turnover intention, which were small in practical effect size.

- As shown in Table 6.17, significant positive bi-variate relationships were observed between age with all the work engagement variables, which were small in practical effect size.

- No significant correlations were evident between age with emotional intelligence, hardiness and psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables).

- The results (Table 6.17) indicated significant and negative bi-variate relationships between gender with physical intimidation (workplace bullying dimension), overall self-esteem, general self-esteem, social self-esteem and personal self-esteem.

- Significant and positive correlations were evident between gender with lie items (self-esteem dimension) and perception of emotion (emotional intelligence dimension), which were small in practical effect size.

- However, there were no correlations evident between gender with turnover intention, hardiness and psychosocial flourishing.

- There were significant positive bi-variate relationships between race with turnover intention, general self-esteem, overall emotional intelligence, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotions and psychosocial flourishing, which were small in practical effect size.

- No significant correlations were observed between race with workplace bullying, hardiness and work engagement.

- As shown in Table 6.16 and Table 6.17, there were no significant bi-variate correlations between tenure with any of the wellbeing-related variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying or turnover intention.

- There were significant positive bi-variate relationships between job level with overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying, person-related bullying, personal self-esteem, lie items and turnover intention, which were small in practical effect size.

- Significant negative bi-variate correlations were evident between job level with overall self-esteem, general self-esteem, social self-esteem, overall hardiness, commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness, overall work engagement, vigour, dedication and absorption.

6.3   INFERENTIAL (MULTIVARIATE) STATISTICS

This section comprises four stages to report and interpret the inferential statistics, namely:

Stage 1: Canonical correlation

Stage 2: Mediation modelling

Stage 3: Multiple regression analysis

Stage 4: Tests for significant mean differences

The first stage of inferential statistics involved assessing the multivariate relationships between the CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS variables in order to

establish an overall profile of the relationship between the variables. Canonical correlations were therefore conducted to test H2 and H3.

H2: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

H3: The significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

6.3.1 Canonical correlations

Canonical correlation analyses were conducted to assess the overall relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables (research hypothesis H2). Canonical correlation analysis was also useful in testing research hypothesis H3 (the significant intercorrelations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile).

Canonical correlation analyses were considered relevant and valuable because the canonical analysis limits the chances of committing type I errors. The statistical analyses entailed exploring relationships between two composite sets of multiple variables (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), the canonical correlations or loadings assess the magnitude of the canonical relationship (between a canonical variate and its singular variables in a set of variables, i.e. within a set of variable to variate correlations). A stringent cut-off criterion was set for interpreting canonical loadings ($Rc \geq .40$). The analysis of the canonical loadings assisted in establishing the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes that contributed the most in explaining the variance in the overall psychological wellbeing canonical construct variate, including the psychological wellbeing variables that contributed the most in explaining the variance in the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables.

Table 6.19

Canonical Correlation Analysis: Overall Model Fit Statistics Relating the Psychological Wellbeing-Related Dispositional Attributes (Self-esteem, Emotional Intelligence, Hardiness, Work Engagement and Psychosocial Flourishing), Workplace Bullying and Turnover Intention

Canonical function	Measures of overall model fit for canonical correlation analysis				
	Overall canonical correlation (Rc)	Overall squared canonical correlation (Rc^2)	Eigenvalue	F statistics	Probability (p)
1	.65	.42	0.7184	5.29	<.0001***
2	.42	.18	0.2145	2.61	<.0001***
3	.28	.08	0.0861	1.57	0.03*
Multivariate tests of significance					
Statistics	Value		Approximate F statistic	Probability(p)	
Wilks's lambda	0.425		5.29	<.0001***	
Pillai's trace	0.711		4.81	<.0001***	
Hotelling-Lawley trace	1.057		5.81	<.0001***	
Roy's greatest root	0.718		15.98	<.0001***	

Notes: N = 373 ***$p ≤ 0.001$; **$p ≤ 0.01$; *$p ≤ 0.05$

Rc^2 ≤ .12 (small practical effect size); Rc^2 ≥ .13 ≤ .25 (moderate practical effect size); Rc^2 ≥ .26 (large practical effect size)

The canonical function clarifies the relationship between the two canonical variates (the variate for the composite set of independent variables and the variate for the composite set of dependent variables). Wilks's lambda chi-square test was used to test for the significance of the overall canonical correlation between the independent latent variables (the composite set of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) and the dependent latent variables (workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables) of a canonical function. In an effort to counteract the probability of a type I error, the significance value to interpret the results was set at the 95% confidence interval level (Fp ≤ .05). Moreover, the Wilks' Lambda r^2 type effect size (yielded by 1-.λ) was utilised to determine the practical significance of the findings (Cohen, 1992).

The redundancy index was also considered in determining the magnitude of the overall relationships (correlational) between the two variates of a canonical function. Hair et al. (2010) posited that the redundancy index was also useful to determine practical significance

of the predictive ability of the canonical relationship. The interpretations of the squared canonical correlation (Rc^2) values were based on the following effect sizes in line with guidelines set by Cohen (1992): a large practical effect: $Rc^2 \geq .26$; medium practical effect: $Rc^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$; small practical effect: $Rc^2 \leq .12$.

Table 6.19 shows that the full model r^2 type's effect size (yielded by 1-.λ: 1-.425) was $r^2 = .58$ (large practical effect; $Fp = .001$), indicating that the full model explained a substantial proportion (approximately 58%) of the variance shared between the two canonical variate sets. Table 6.19 further shows that the variables of the two canonical variates of the first function accounted for 42% (overall $Rc^2 = .42$; large practical effect) of the data variability. Only the results of the first canonical were, therefore, considered for testing research hypothesis H2. The second function explained only an additional 18% of the variance shared between the two canonical variate sets, and the data variability and the third function only 8%.

The cut-off criterion for factorial loadings ($Rc \geq .40$) was utilised to assess the relative importance of the canonical structure correlations (Hair et al., 2010). It should be noted that only the singular canonical structure correlations (loadings) and the squared canonical structure correlations (loadings) were deliberated upon in the interpretation of the practical significance and importance of the derivation of the two canonical variate constructs. This was attributed to the variability of the canonical weights and multi-collinearity apprehensions (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 6.20 shows that the variables that contributed the most in explaining the overall canonical psychological wellbeing-related construct variate were the three engagement variables (dedication: $Rc = -.84$; vigour: $Rc = -.70$; absorption: $Rc = -.64$), and two of the hardiness variables (commitment-alienation: $Rc = -.68$; control-powerlessness: $Rc = -.44$). Although canonical correlation does not imply causality, the negative direction of the values suggests that the lower the participants' sense of engagement, commitment and control, the greater the likelihood that their overall sense of psychological wellbeing will be lower.

As indicated in Table 6.20, the independent canonical construct variate variables (the composite set of psychological wellbeing-related variable) contributed significantly ($Rc^2 = .21$; moderate practical effect) in explaining the variance in the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables. Using the cut-off criterion of $Rc \geq .40$, Table 6.20 shows that dedication ($Rc^2 = -.54$; 29%; large practical effect), vigour ($Rc^2 = -.45$; 20%; large practical effect), commitment-alienation ($Rc^2 = -.44$; 19%; large practical effect) and absorption ($Rc^2 =$

-.41; 17%; large practical effect) contributed the most in explaining the variance in the workplace bullying and turnover intention canonical variate variables.

The negative direction of the loadings suggests that the higher the sense of alienation (lower commitment), and the lower sense of engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption), the greater the likelihood that the participants' perceptions of bullying and turnover intention will be higher. The results in Table 6.20 showed that the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables were strongly correlated and that workplace-related bullying (Rc = .46; 21%; moderate effect), person-related bullying (Rc = .41; 17%; moderate effect) and turnover intention (Rc = .60; 36%; large effect) significantly explained the variance in the psychological wellbeing variables, implying a significant relation between these two sets of canonical variate construct variables. Turnover intention (Rc = .92) and work-related bullying (Rc = .71) contributed the most in explaining the workplace bullying/turnover intention canonical variate construct.

The results of the canonical correlation analysis suggested that further investigation of the mediation role of the psychological wellbeing-related variables might be a fruitful and useful endeavour.

Table 6.20

Results of the Standardised Canonical Correlation Analysis for the First Canonical Function

Variate/variables	Canonical coefficient (Weight)	Structure coefficient (Canonical Loading) (Rc)	Canonical cross-loadings (Rc)	Squared multiple correlation (Rc^2)
Psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes canonical variate (composite set of latent independent variables)				
General self-esteem	-93.84	-.35	-.23	.05
Social self-esteem	-32.78	-.09	-.06	.004
Personal self-esteem	-64.30	-.37	-.24	.06
Lie items	-43.31	.33	.21	.04
Perception of emotion	.06	-.16	-.10	.01
Managing own emotions	-.01	-.31	-.20	.04
Managing others' emotions	-.10	-.15	-.10	.01
Utilisation of emotion	-.13	-.08	-.05	.003
Commitment-alienation	-.66	-.68	-.44	.19
Control-powerlessness	-.03	-.44	-.29	.08
Challenge-threat	.43	-.05	-.03	.001
Vigour	.19	-.70	-.45	.20
Dedication	-.87	-.84	-.54	.29

Variate/variables	Canonical coefficient (Weight)	Structure coefficient (Canonical Loading) (Rc)	Canonical cross-loadings (Rc)	Squared multiple correlation (Rc^2)
Absorption	.10	-.64	-.41	.17
Psychosocial flourishing	.09	-.39	-.25	.06
Percentage of overall variance of variables explained by their own canonical variables: .19				
Workplace bullying and turnover intention canonical variate (composite set of latent dependent variables)				
Work-related bullying	.59	.71	.46	.21
Person-related bullying	-.24	.63	.41	.17
Physical-intimidation bullying	.07	.54	.35	.12
Turnover intention	.75	.92	.60	.36
Percentage of overall variance of variables explained by their own canonical variables: .51				

Overall model fit measure (function1)
F(p) = 5.29 ($p <$ .0001); df = 64; 1384.2
Wilks's Lambda (λ) =.424
r^2 type effect size: 1-.λ = .58 (large effect)
Overall proportion: Rc^2 = .42 (large effect)
Redundancy index: Rc^2 = .21 (percentage of overall variance in workplace bullying and turnover intention (dependent) canonical construct variables accounted for by the psychological wellbeing-related (independent) canonical construct variables): moderate effect

Note: N = 373

In summary, the canonical statistical procedures indicated work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) as the strongest psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes in explaining a lower sense of psychological wellbeing, and in predicting higher levels of turnover intention and perceptions of bullying, especially work-related bullying.

The results of the canonical correlation analysis provided support for the H2 hypothesis (the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables).

Constructing an overall psychological wellbeing profile

The canonical correlation analysis results were useful in identifying the variables that contributed the most in explaining the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that may potentially constitute the dominant wellbeing profile of the group of participants. Table 6.21 provides an overview of the psychological wellbeing profile that emerged from the canonical correlation analysis.

The canonical correlation analysis showed that the dominant variables that constitute the psychological wellbeing profile of the participants relate to their work engagement (dedication, vigour and absorption) and their commitment (hardiness).

These four variables relate to cognitive, affective and conative behavioural attributes. On a cognitive level, higher levels of vigour and absorption may suggest a stronger sense of mental resiliency as well as a greater focus and involvement in one's work, which can decrease turnover intention and consequently result in fewer perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions. On an affective (emotional) level, higher levels of dedication, absorption and commitment may suggest a stronger feeling of significant work, job satisfaction, and a greater connection with the organisation, which can decrease perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and lower turnover intentions. On a conative (motivational) level, lower levels of vigour and dedication may suggest decreased internal energy and a lower enthusiasm to complete work assignments, which can result in higher turnover intentions and increase perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.

Lower levels of these psychological wellbeing attributes appear to be associated with higher work-related and person-related bullying perceptions and turnover intention. More specifically, the canonical correlation analysis showed that high cognitive perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intention significantly predict lower levels of engagement and commitment (cognitive, emotional and motivational aspects of wellbeing).

When reflecting on the dominant mean profile illustrated in figure 6.1, the participants achieved high levels of general self-esteem, managing own emotions and moderate perception of emotions. Participants scored lower on the challenge-threat, work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation variables. Participants levels of work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and their commitment-alienation levels were moderate. These results differed when compared to the profile of the canonical correlation analysis. The mean score profile of participants did not support the canonical correlation profile.

Participants workplace bullying mean scores (figure 6.1) were relatively lower in relation to their vigour, dedication, absorption (work engagement) and commitment-alienation (hardiness) mean scores, which may indicate that they possessed the necessary psychological resources to effectively cope with incidents of workplace bullying (work-related

387

bullying) or as a result perceived fewer incidents of bullying behaviour in the workplace. Respondents mean scores for turnover intention were similar to their work engagement and commitment-alienation scores (mid-range). This may indicate that they were moderately engaged and relatively committed to their organisations, or felt somewhat alienated in the organisation and may therefore choose to exit or stay with their current organisations.

Table 6.21

Behavioural Elements of the Empirically Manifested Psychological Wellbeing Profile

Wellbeing variable	Variable	Description	Mean scores	Predictive influence on workplace bullying and turnover intention
Cognitive	Vigour	Individuals tend to have higher mental resiliency (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Higher levels of vigour may indicate a stronger sense of mental resiliency, which can result in lower levels of turnover intention and fewer perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.
	Absorption	People who are focused on their work tasks and find it challenging to detach themselves from their work. These individuals seem oblivious of how fast time goes by (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Higher levels of absorption may indicate a stronger focus and higher involvement in one's work, which can result in lower levels of turnover intention and fewer perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.

Wellbeing variable	Variable	Description	Mean scores	Predictive influence on workplace bullying and turnover intention
Affective (emotional)	Dedication	These individuals have a sense of meaningfulness and purpose (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Higher levels of dedication may indicate a stronger feeling of meaningful work, which can result in lower levels of turnover intention and fewer perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.
	Absorption	These employees are gladly absorbed in their work and appear satisfied with their jobs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Low levels of absorption may indicate a stronger sense of job dissatisfaction, which can result in higher levels of turnover intention and increased perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.
	Commitment-alienation	Hardy individuals are extremely attached (committed) to their values, aims and skills (Kobasa, 1982). These individuals display higher levels of commitment to their work and life, and they are continuously enthusiastically involved with people and happenings instead of isolating themselves (Maddi et al., 2012).	Mid-range	Low levels of commitment (or high levels of alienation) may indicate a weaker emotional bond towards their employers, which can result in higher levels of turnover intention and increased perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.

Wellbeing variable	Variable	Description	Mean scores	Predictive influence on workplace bullying and turnover intention
Conative (motivational)	Vigour	Vigour refers to people who have high energy levels and a willingness to devote time and effort to complete tasks despite obstacles (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Low levels of vigour may indicate lower levels of energy and a decreased eagerness to complete work tasks, which can result in higher levels of turnover intention and increased perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.
	Dedication	Dedication signifies people who are passionate, enthusiastic and motivated at work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).	Mid-range	Low levels of dedication may result in higher levels of turnover intention and stronger perceptions of work-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intentions.
Interpersonal (social)		No significant results were found during the canonical statistical procedures.		

The results of the canonical correlation analysis provide support for the H3 hypothesis (the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile).

6.3.2 Mediation modelling

Mediation modelling represented the second stage of the inferential statistical analyses in order to further investigate the dynamics of the manifested psychological wellbeing profile.

This stage tested research hypothesis H4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Mediation modelling, using structural equation modelling (SEM) methods with MPlus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015) and the CALIS procedure in SAS (2013) were performed. The first phase of the mediation modelling procedure involved confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in order to test competing measurement models for each scale before testing the underlying structural mediation model. A marginal value of RMSEA and SRMR for model acceptance is <.10 and a value of ≤ .08 and lower and a CFI value close to ≥ .90 and higher is considered an acceptable fit (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park et al., 2012).

Three competing measurement models were performed for each scale to test the validity of the factor structure for each scale (a model with the relevant original subscale factors for each scale and then a second modified model to see whether the data fit improved when deleting problematic items in each of the measurement scales [using Mplus], and a third modified model [using SAS], which retained only factors in the respective scale that contributed to better data fit). The measurement models are reported in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22

Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Measurement Models of the Scales

Measurement scale	Measurement model 1 (original factor model)	Measurement model 2 (modified factor model) (items with low reliabilities removed)	Measurement model 3 (modified – further refinement factor model)
Culture Free Self-Esteem Inventory (CFSEI2-AD) Construct: self-esteem	Four-factor solution CMIN/df = 3.12*** RMSEA = .07 SRMR = .09 CFI = .68 AIC = 2542.71	Four-factor solution CMIN/df = 2.79*** RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .08 CFI = .70 AIC = 53212.41	Two-factor solution (general self-esteem and personal self-esteem) CMIN/df = 2.87*** RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .09 CFI = .90 AIC = 747.20
Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) Construct: emotional intelligence	Four-factor solution CMIN/df = 2.88*** RMSEA = .07 SRMR = .06 CFI = .81 AIC = 1553.82	Four-factor solution CMIN/df = 2.49*** RMSEA = .05 SRMR = .04 CFI = .86 AIC = 27165.38	Two-factor solution (managing own emotions and perceiving emotions) CMIN/df = 3.00*** RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .06 CFI = .91 AIC = 514.73
Personal Views Survey II (PVS-II) Construct: hardiness	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 3.02*** RMSEA = .07 SRMR = .09 CFI = .59 AIC = 3689.28	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 2.69*** RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .08 CFI = .63 AIC = 41554.68	Three-factor solution (challenge, commitment and control) CMIN/df = 2.22 *** RMSEA = .05 SRMR = .07 CFI = .92 AIC = 646.66

Measurement scale	Measurement model 1 (original factor model)	Measurement model 2 (modified factor model) (items with low reliabilities removed)	Measurement model 3 (modified – further refinement factor model)
Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) Construct: work engagement	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 5.42*** RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .05 CFI = .87 AIC = 1097.65	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 3.33*** RMSEA = .07 SRMR = .05 CFI = .88 AIC = 24512.99	Two-factor solution (dedication and vigour) CMIN/df = 6.35*** RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .05 CFI = .91 AIC = 456.29
Flourishing Scale (FS) Construct: psychosocial flourishing	N/A	One-factor solution CMIN/df = 4.76*** RMSEA = .07 SRMR = .05 CFI = .90 AIC = 24512.99	n/a
Negative Act Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R) Construct: workplace bullying	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 4.88*** RMSEA = .10 SRMR = .06 CFI = .83 AIC = 1099.06	Three-factor solution CMIN/df = 2.70*** RMSEA = .06 SRMR = .06 CFI = .85 AIC = 17845.76	Two-factor solution (work-related bullying and personal bullying) CMIN/df = 2.72*** RMSEA = 0.06 SRMR = .04 CFI = .95 AIC = 422.89

Measurement scale	Measurement model 1 (original factor model)	Measurement model 2 (modified factor model) (items with low reliabilities removed)	Measurement model 3 (modified – further refinement factor model)
Turnover Intention Scale (TIS) Construct: turnover intention	N/A	One-factor solution CMIN/df = 7.28*** RMSEA = .09 SRMR = .03 CFI = .95 AIC = 5859.10	n/a

The next step was to calculate competing structural models to test research hypothesis H4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

This step involved employing again structural equation modelling (SEM) methods with MPlus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015) to assess a multi-level mediation model based on the modified measurement model 2 data for each scale. The multi-level mediation structural model (model including all the psychological wellbeing variables and the workplace bullying and turnover intention variables) obtained poor (unacceptable data fit statistics): CMIN/df = 79.35; p = .000; SRMR = .23; RSMEA = .43; CFI = .50; AIC = 4881.513. of the unacceptable data fit statistics for the multi-level mediation model (including all the psychological wellbeing variables as mediators), it was then decided to run simple mediation models for each psychological construct separately, based on the modified measurement model 3 of the multi-construct scales (best fit data with sub-constructs loading onto the overall scale construct – see Table 6.22). The next section reports the simple mediation models for each psychological construct.

6.3.2.1   Simple mediation models

A simple mediational model with the more stringent bias-corrected (BC) bootstrapping approach, as described by Preacher and Hayes (2008), was calculated to test the mediation effect of each of the five psychological wellbeing mediating variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, and psychosocial flourishing) in the workplace bullying-turnover intention relation. Simple mediation modelling, using IBM SPSS Statistics version 23 (2015) and SAS for Windows (9.4) (2013), were performed.

Since the cross-sectional nature of the research design does not allow for casual inferences from the data analyses (Wu & Zumbo, 2008), correlational inferences were used to identify the extent to which the mediator variables account for the direct and indirect relationship between the independent variable (workplace bullying) and the dependent variable (turnover intention). The focus was therefore placed on examining the magnitude of the direct and indirect effects (standardised path coefficients) between the variables. To establish the unique effect of the mediator variables in each model on the dependent variable (turnover intention), the independent variable (workplace bullying) was controlled for.

To establish the mediating effects of the psychological wellbeing variables, four conditions as suggested by Zhou, Hirst, and Shipton (2012) for significant mediating effects should be met: (1) the independent variable (bullying) is significantly related to the mediator (the relevant psychological wellbeing variable); (2) the independent variable (workplace bullying) is significantly related to the dependent variable (turnover intention); (3) the mediator (relevant psychological wellbeing variable) is significantly related to the dependent variable (turnover intention); and (4) the independent variable (workplace bullying) becomes significantly smaller (partial mediation) when the mediator (relevant psychological wellbeing variable) is held constant in the equation. In addition, the more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval should not include zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002) in order to support the significant indirect effect of the relevant mediator variable.

(i)   Mediation effect of self-esteem

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.23) and met only three of the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects because the mediator (self-esteem) was not significantly related to the dependent variable (turnover intention). As can be seen in Table 6.23, workplace bullying had significant, direct paths to self-esteem (-.23; *p*

≤ .001 – negative pathway) and turnover intention (.39; *p* ≤ .001 – positive pathway). Self-esteem did not have a significant direct path to turnover intention (-.05). Workplace bullying did not have a significant indirect effect on turnover intention as mediated through self-esteem (.01). The stringent bias corrected (BC) bootstrapping 95% CI (confidence interval) included zero indicating a non-significant indirect (mediating) effect.

Table 6.23

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Workplace Bullying on Turnover Intention through Self-esteem

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.39***	.10	.28	.46
Self-esteem (mediator)	-.23***	.05	-.32	-.12
Self-esteem				
Turnover intention	-.05	.10	-.14	.02
Sum of indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via self-esteem	.01	.01	-.01	.03

Notes: N = 373. ***p ≤ .001. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.

(ii)   Mediation effect of emotional intelligence

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.24) and met only three of the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects because the mediator (emotional intelligence) was not significantly related to the dependent variable (turnover intention). As can be seen in Table 6.24, workplace bullying had significant, direct paths to emotional intelligence (-.16; $p \leq$ .001 – negative pathway) and turnover intention (.39; $p \leq$ .001 – positive pathway). Emotional intelligence did not have a significant direct path to turnover intention (-.16). Workplace bullying did not have a significant indirect effect on turnover intention as mediated through emotional intelligence (.01). The stringent bias corrected (BC) bootstrapping 95% CI (confidence interval) included zero indicating a non-significant indirect (mediating) effect.

Table 6.24

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Workplace Bullying on Turnover Intention through Emotional Intelligence

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.39***	.10	.28	.46
Emotional intelligence (mediator)	-.16***	.04	-.28	-.07
Emotional intelligence				
Turnover intention	-.03	.12	-.14	.10
Sum of indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via emotional intelligence	.01	.01	-.02	.03

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq$ .001. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.

(iii)   Mediation effect of hardiness

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.25) and met only three of the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects because the mediator (hardiness) was not significantly related to the dependent variable (turnover intention). As can be seen in Table 6.25, bullying had significant, direct paths to hardiness (-.38; $p \leq$ .001 – negative pathway) and turnover intention (.39; $p \leq$ .001 – positive pathway). Hardiness did not have a significant direct path to turnover intention (-.04). Workplace bullying did not have a significant indirect effect on turnover intention as mediated through hardiness (.01). The stringent bias corrected (BC) bootstrapping 95% CI (confidence interval) included zero indicating a non-significant indirect (mediating) effect.

Table 6.25

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Workplace Bullying on Turnover Intention through Hardiness

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.39***	.11	.28	.47
Hardiness (mediator)	-.38***	.03	-.49	-.27
Hardiness				
Turnover intention	-.04	.18	-.13	.07
Sum of indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via hardiness	.01	.02	-.03	.05

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq$ .001. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.

(iv)   Mediation effect of work engagement

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.26 and figure 6.2) and met all of the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects. As can be seen in Table 6.26 and in figure 6.2, workplace bullying had significant, direct paths to work engagement (-.32; $p \leq .001$ – negative pathway) and turnover intention (.28; $p \leq .001$ – positive pathway). Work engagement had a significant direct path to turnover intention (-.38; $p \leq .001$ – negative pathway).

Workplace bullying also had a significant indirect effect on turnover intention as mediated through work engagement (.12; $p \leq .01$). The independent variable (workplace bullying) became significantly smaller (partial mediation) when the mediator (work engagement) was held constant in the equation. The more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval did not include zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), supporting the significant indirect effect of work engagement (practically significant).

Overall, the results suggest that when perceptions/experiences of bullying are high, turnover intention increases and the level of work engagement is lowered. Lower work engagement significantly increases turnover intention. Work engagement mediated the relationship between perceptions of bullying in the workplace and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying are associated negatively with work engagement which, in turn, is also associated negatively with turnover intention. Those participants with high levels of bullying experiences/perceptions are likely to be less engaged in their jobs. On the other hand, low perceptions of bullying are likely to increase levels of work engagement and lower levels of turnover intention. Higher work engagement (when controlling for the effect of bullying), in turn, is likely to promote lower turnover intention, thus partially reducing the negative effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention.

Table 6.26

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Workplace Bullying on Turnover Intention through Work Engagement

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.28***	.10	.17	.36
Work engagement (mediator)	-.32***	.10	-.43	-.22
Work engagement				
Turnover intention	-.38***	.05	-.48	-.31
Sum of indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via work engagement	.12**	.03	.08	.18

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq$ .001; **$p \leq$ .01. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.
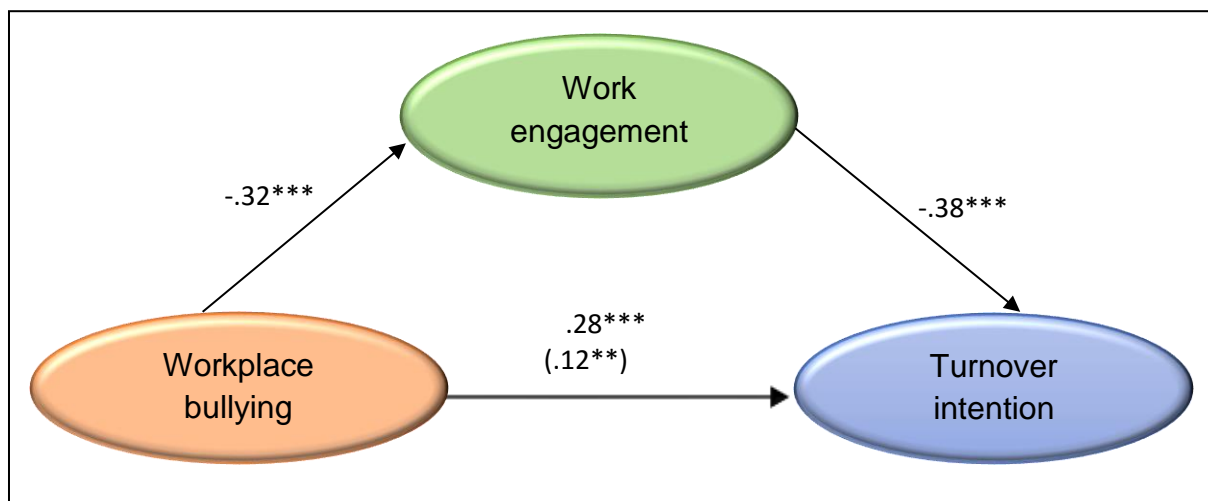
Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of bullying via self-esteem (mediator) on turnover intention. BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at the 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). *N =* 373. ***Standardised path coefficients are significant at *$p \leq$* .001; **Standardised path coefficients are significant at *$p \leq$* .01.

Figure 6.2: Mediating model examining the direct and indirect relation of workplace bullying and turnover intention through the mediating effect of work engagement

(v)   Mediation effect of psychosocial flourishing

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.27 and figure 6.3), and met the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects.

As can be seen in Table 6.27 and in figure 6.3, workplace bullying had significant direct paths to psychosocial flourishing (-.22; $p \leq .001$ – negative pathway) and turnover intention (.37; $p \leq .001$ – positive pathway). Psychosocial flourishing had a significant direct path to turnover intention (-.13; $p \leq .01$ – negative pathway). Workplace bullying also had a significant indirect effect on turnover intention, as mediated through psychosocial flourishing (.03; $p \leq .05$). The independent variable (workplace bullying) became significantly smaller (partial mediation) when the mediator (psychosocial flourishing) was held constant in the equation. The more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval did not include zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), supporting the significant indirect effect of psychosocial flourishing (practically significant).

Overall, the results suggest that when perceptions/experiences of bullying are high, turnover intention increases and the level of psychosocial flourishing is lowered. Lower psychosocial flourishing significantly increases turnover intention. Psychosocial flourishing mediates the relationship between perceptions of bullying in the workplace and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying are associated negatively with psychosocial flourishing, which, in turn, is also associated negatively with turnover intention. Those participants with high levels of bullying experiences/perceptions are likely to flourish less psychosocially at work. On the other hand, low perceptions of bullying are likely to increase levels of psychosocial flourishing and lower levels of turnover intention. Higher psychosocial flourishing (when controlling for the effect of bullying), in turn, is likely to promote lower turnover intention, thus partially reducing the negative effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention.

Table 6.27

Standardised Regression Coefficients of the Variables: Workplace Bullying on Turnover Intention through Psychosocial Flourishing

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.37***	.10	.27	.45
Psychosocial flourishing (mediator)	-.22***	.07	-.32	-.10
Psychosocial flourishing				
Turnover intention	-.13**	.07	-.20	-.001
Sum of indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via psychosocial flourishing	.03*	.01	.01	.05

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq .001$; **$p \leq .01$; *$p \leq .05$. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.
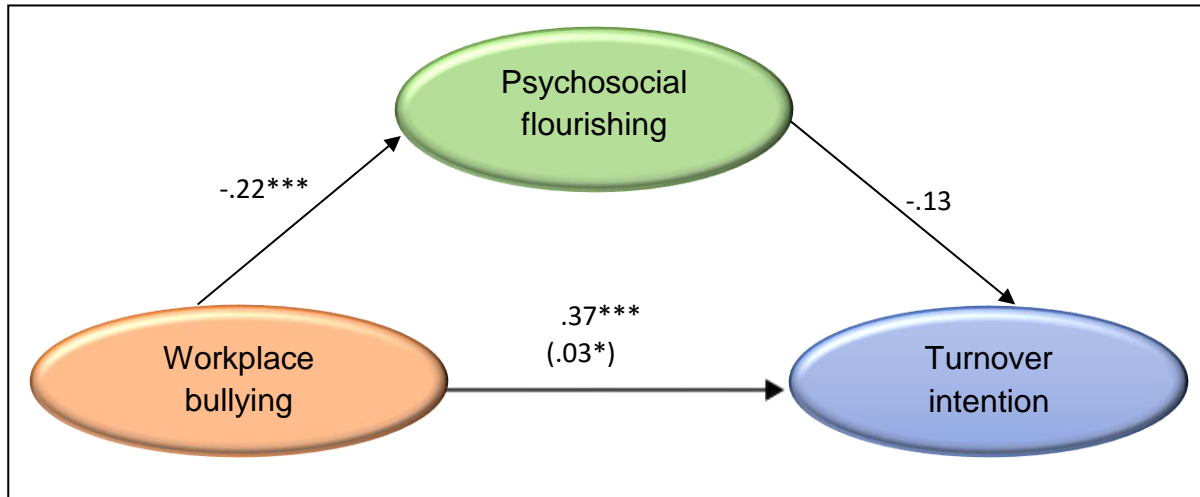
Notes: Values in parentheses represent the indirect effect of bullying via self-esteem (mediator) on turnover intention. BC: bias-corrected bootstrap approximation at the 95% corrected confidence interval (two-sided). *N* = 373. ***Standardised path coefficients are significant at $p \leq .001$; *Standardised path coefficient is significant at $p \leq .05$.

Figure 6.3: Mediating model examining the direct and indirect relation of workplace bullying and turnover intention through the mediating effect of psychosocial flourishing

6.3.2.2   Multi-level mediation model

The results of the simple mediation models informed the measurement model for the multi-level mediation model. Based on the simple mediation models, it was decided to test three competing mediation models, namely:

- Mediation model 1: This model included workplace bullying as overall construct, psychosocial flourishing and work engagement (overall) as mediators, and turnover intention.

- Mediation model 2: This model included a two-factor workplace bullying construct (work-related and person-related bullying loading onto overall workplace bullying), psychosocial flourishing and a two-factor work engagement construct (vigour and dedication loading onto overall work engagement) as mediators, and turnover intention.

- Mediation model 3: This model included a two-factor workplace bullying construct (work-related and person-related bullying loading onto overall workplace bullying), a two-factor work engagement construct (vigour and dedication loading onto overall work engagement as mediators) and turnover intention.

The model statistics of the three models are summarised in Table 6.28. A marginal value of RMSEA and SRMR for model acceptance is <.10 and a value of <.08 and lower and a CFI value close to > .90 and higher is considered an acceptable fit (Hamtiaux et al., 2013; Park et al., 2012). It is evident from Table 6.28 that model 3 obtained the best fit model data.

Table 6.28

Fit Statistics of Competing Mediation Models

Model	CMIN/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	AIC
Model 1	71.27***	.74	.44	.13	97.266
Model 2	19.99***	.93	.23	.15	179.950
Model 3	1.49***	.99	.04	.02	38.473

Notes: CMIN(χ^2) = chi-square; df: degrees of freedom; CFI: comparative fit index; RMSEA: root-mean-square error of approximation; SRMR: standardised root-mean-square residual; AIC: Akaike information criterion. Chi-square/RMSEA significant at *p* = .000.

The summary of the mediation statistics in Table 6.28 shows that model 3 obtained the best comparative fit indices (AIC: 38.473) and showed a good fit with a chi-square value of 1.49; CFI = .99; RMSEA = .04 and SRMR = .02. Further analysis (testing the structural mediation model) was therefore based on this measurement model.

Table 6.29 shows the direct and indirect effects of experiences of workplace bullying on turnover intentions via the psychological wellbeing variable employee engagement (vigour and dedication).

Table 6.29

Direct and Indirect Effects: Workplace Bullying (Work-related and Person-related) on Turnover Intention through Work Engagement (Vigour and Dedication)

Variable	Estimate	SE	Bootstrapping BC 95% CI	
			Lower	Higher
Direct effects workplace bullying				
Turnover intention	.25**	.04	.17	.35
Work-related bullying	1.06**	.02	1.02	1.25
Person-related bullying	.91*	.02	.85	.94
Work engagement	.29**	.06	.19	.41
Work engagement				
Vigour	-.85*	.03	-.89	-.78
Dedication	-1.03**	.03	-1.10	-.99
Turnover intention	.45*	.04	.37	.52
Indirect effects				
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via work engagement	.13**	.03	.08	.20
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via vigour	-.24**	.06	-.36	-.15
Workplace bullying on turnover intention via dedication	-.30**	.05	-.43	-.19

Notes: N = 373. **$p \leq$ .01; *$p \leq$ .05. SE: standard error. BC: bias corrected. CI: confidence interval.

The direction of the mediating effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention was significant (see Table 6.29 and figure 6.4) and met the four conditions suggested by Zhou et al. (2012) for significant mediating effects. Table 6.29 shows that workplace bullying had significant direct positive paths to turnover intention (.25; $p \leq$ .01), work-related bullying (1.06; $p \leq$ .01), person-related bullying (.91; $p \leq$ .05) and work engagement (.29; $p \leq$ .01). In addition, work engagement had significant direct paths to vigour (-.85; $p \leq$ .05 – negative pathway), dedication (-1.03; $p \leq$ .01 – negative pathway) and turnover intention (-45; $p \leq$ .05 – positive pathway).

Workplace bullying had significant indirect effects on turnover intention as mediated through overall work engagement (.13; p ≤ .01 – positive pathway), vigour (-.24; p ≤ .01 – negative pathway) and dedication (-.30; p ≤ .01 – negative pathway). The more reliable bootstrapping bias-corrected 95% confidence interval did not include zero (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), supporting the significant indirect effect of overall work employee engagement (.08 lower limit CI; .20 upper limit CI), vigour (-.36 lower limit CI; -.15 upper limit CI) and dedication (-.43 lower limit CI; -.19 upper limit CI), as practically significant.

Overall, the mediation modelling results suggest that when perceptions/experiences of bullying are high, turnover intention increases and the levels of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication are lowered. Lower overall work engagement, vigour and dedication significantly increase turnover intention. Overall work engagement, vigour and dedication mediated the relationship between perceptions of bullying in the workplace and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying are negatively associated with overall work engagement, vigour and dedication which, in turn, are also negatively associated with turnover intention. Those participants with high levels of bullying experiences/perceptions are likely to be less engaged in their work, work less vigorously and are less dedicated to their jobs. On the other hand, low perceptions of bullying are likely to increase levels of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication, and lower levels of turnover intention. Higher work engagement, vigour and dedication (when controlling for the effect of bullying), in turn, is likely to promote lower turnover intention, thus partially reducing the negative effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention.

Figure 6.4 depicts the mediation model results.
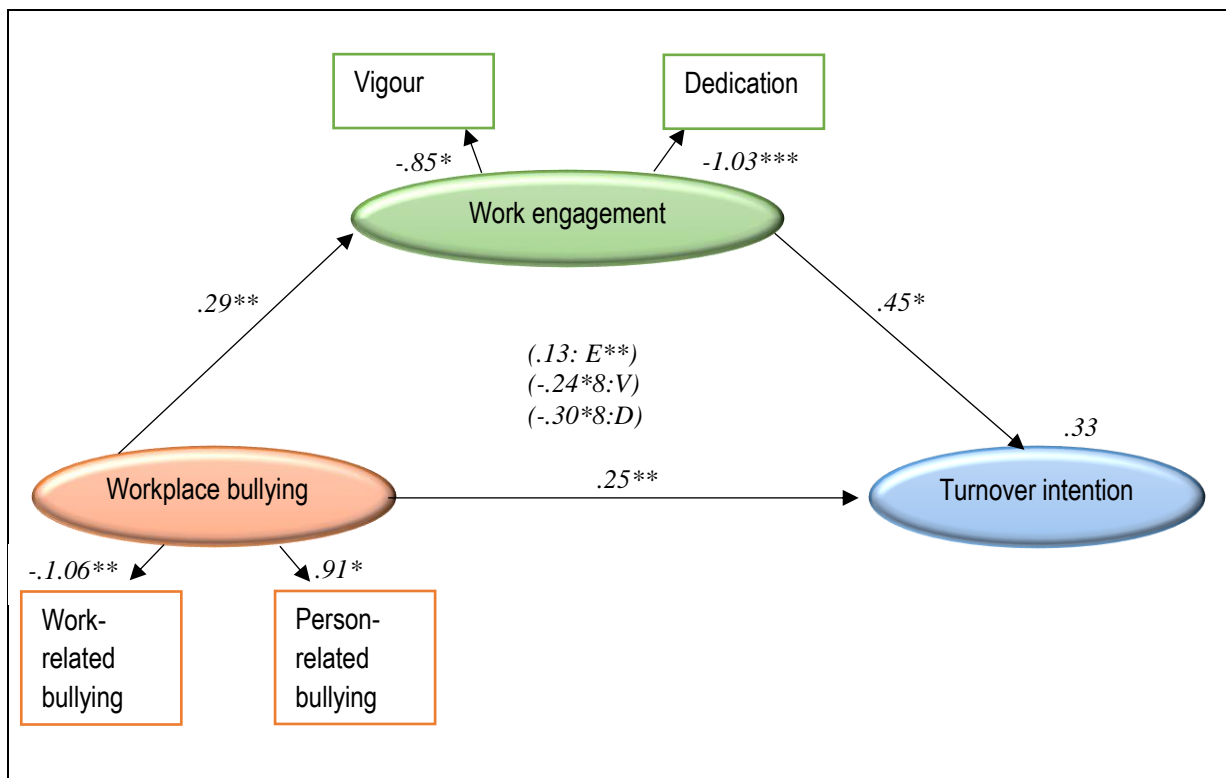
Notes: N = 373   *** $p \leq .00$. ** $p \leq .01$. * $p \leq .05$. Bootstrapping 95% percentile lower and upper limits confidence intervals are shown in brackets. Values in italics are path coefficients (direct effects) identified in the mediation analysis. Values in brackets indicate the indirect effects of the engagement variables. E: overall work engagement; V: vigour; D: dedication.

Figure 6.4: Mediating effect of the psychological dispositional variables employee engagement (vigour and dedication)

The results obtained for the mediation analyses yielded only partial support for research hypothesis H4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

This research hypothesis has assumed that higher levels of turnover intention relate to higher experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying through lower levels of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing).

The results show that experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying (work-related bullying and person-related bullying) significantly predict turnover intention, which, in turn, significantly predicts either high/low levels of work engagement (vigour and dedication) in one's work. Self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness or psychosocial flourishing is not

likely to influence the relationship between experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The statistical procedures assisted in the elimination from a wide range of psychological wellbeing dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing). The strongest mediator in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship was work engagement (vigour and dedication). Thus, work engagement (vigour and dedication) can be seen as the strongest predictors of turnover intention while work-related and person-related bullying are seen as positive predictors of lowered engagement (vigour and dedication) and higher turnover intention.

The results confirm the cognitive, affective and conative aspects relating to engagement as important aspects of psychological wellbeing that influence the relation between individuals' perceptions of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

In summary, as indicated in Table 6.21, the psychological wellbeing profile derived from the canonical correlation analysis has indicated that employees who display higher levels of vigour, absorption, dedication and commitment (lower sense of alienation) may experience a higher sense of psychological wellbeing. As a result, employees may display decreased intentions to leave and may experience/perceive fewer incidents of work-related bullying and person-related bullying. However, through the mediation analysis commitment-alienation (hardiness) and absorption (work engagement) variables have been observed as less strong in relation to vigour and dedication (work engagement), which seem to be the most significant.

Organisational psychologists and human resource professionals should focus their energy on work engagement interventions as core aspects to lower turnover intention when perceptions of bullying are high in order to increase employee wellness.

6.3.3 Multiple regression analysis

A standard multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to determine whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predicted workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention. (This research aim 5 relates to testing research hypothesis H5.)

This stage of the inferential statistical analysis tested research hypothesis H5: Age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

Table 6.30

Multiple Regression of Biographical Variables (Age, Gender, Race, Tenure and Job Level)

Biographical variables	Self-esteem		Emotional intelligence		Hardiness		Work engagement		Psychosocial flourishing		Workplace bullying		Turnover intention	
	ß	t	ß	t	ß	t	ß	t	ß	t	ß	t	ß	t
Age	-.05	-94	.02	.35	-.03	-.56	.09	1.68	.05	.90	-.05	-.88	-.15	-2.77**
Gender	-.17	-3.35**	.07	1.34	-.04	-.75	-.01	-.21	.06	1.16	-.10	-1.99*	-.11	-2.08*
Race	.07	1.44	.21	4.11***	-.04	-.78	.04	.69	.21	4.09***	-.05	-.86	.11	2.06*
Tenure	.03	.56	.03	.48	-.03	-.50	.02	.35	-.03	-.62	-.05	-.84	-.06	-1.09
Job level	-.16	-3.05**	-.10	-1.96*	-.18	-3.35**	-.13	-2.41*	-.13	-2.46*	.11	1.97*	.10	1.95*
Model info														
Fp	5.37***		4.31**		2.59*		2.43*		4.67***		2.02		5.96***	
Adjusted *R²*	.06+		.04+		.02+		.02+		.05+		.01		.06+	

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \le .001$ **$p \le .01$ *$p \le .05$
+$R^2 \le .12$ (small practical effect size) ++ $R^2 \ge .13 \le .25$ (medium practical effect size)
+++$R^2 \ge .26$ (large practical effect size)

Table 6.30 shows that, with the exception of workplace bullying, all the other regression models have been significant ($Fp \le .05$). The significant beta values of the workplace bullying model have therefore not been considered in the interpretation of the findings. Table 6.30 indicates that the significant regression models explain a small ($R^2 \le .06$) practical percentage of variance (Cohen, 1992).

<u>Biographical variables as predictors of self-esteem</u>
The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the self-esteem variable produced a strong statistically significant model ($F = 5.37$; $p \le .001$), accounting for 6% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables gender ($ß = -.17$; $t = -3.35$; $p \le .01$) and job level ($ß = -.16$; $t = -3.05$; $p \le .01$) significantly predicted the construct of self-esteem, with gender accounting for most of the variance in self-esteem. The negative beta values suggested differences among males and females and job level groups.

<u>Biographical variables as predictors of emotional intelligence</u>
The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the emotional intelligence variable produced a statistical significant model ($F = 4.31$; $p \le .01$), accounting for 4% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables race ($ß = .21$; $t = 4.11$; $p \le .001$) and job level ($ß = -.10$; $t = -1.96$; $p \le .05$) predicted emotional intelligence statistically significantly with race accounting for most of the variance in emotional intelligence. The negative beta values suggested differences among the job level groups.

<u>Biographical variables as predictors of hardiness</u>
The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the hardiness variable produced a statistical significant model ($F = 2.59$; $p \le .05$), accounting for 2% (small practical effect size) of the variance. Job level ($ß = -.18$; $t = -3.35$; $p \le .01$) predicted hardiness moderately statistically significantly. The negative beta values suggested differences among the job level groups.

<u>Biographical variables as predictors of work engagement</u>
The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the work engagement variable produced a statistical significant model ($F = 2.43$; $p \le .05$), accounting for 2% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variable job level ($ß = -.13$; $t = -2.41$; $p \le .05$) predicted work engagement statistically significantly. The negative beta values suggested differences among the job level groups.

Biographical variables as predictors of psychosocial flourishing

The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the psychosocial flourishing variable produced a statistical significant model (F = 4.67; $p \leq$ .001), accounting for 5% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables race ($ß$ = .21; t = 4.09; $p \leq$.001) and job level ($ß$ = -.13; t = -2.46; $p \leq$.05) predicted psychosocial flourishing statistically significantly with race accounting for most of the variance in flourishing. The negative beta values suggested differences among the job level groups.

Biographical variables as predictors of turnover intention

The regression of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) upon the turnover intention variable produced a strong statistical significant model (F = 5.96; $p \leq$ .001), accounting for 6% (small practical effect size) of the variance. The biographical variables age ($ß$ = -.15; t = -2.77; $p \leq$.01), gender ($ß$ = -.11; t = -2.08; $p \leq$.05), race ($ß$ = .11; t = 2.06; $p \leq$.05) and job level ($ß$ = .10; t = 1.95; $p \leq$.05) predicted turnover intention statistically significantly with age and job level accounting for most of the variance in turnover intention. The negative values suggested differences among the respective biographical groups.

Overall, the biographical variable, tenure showed no significant regression on any of the research variables.

Conclusions:

As indicated in Table 6.42, the multiple regression analysis indicated that participants' biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) significantly predicted workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

Table 6.31

Summary of the Biographical Variables Influence on the Research Constructs

Biographical variable	Predicted research variable	Significance
Age	Turnover intention	Moderate
Gender	Self-esteem	Small
	Turnover intention	Small
Race	Emotional intelligence	Strong
	Psychosocial flourishing	Strong
	Turnover intention	Small
Tenure	No significant correlations found	
Job level	Self-esteem	Moderate
	Emotional intelligence	Small
	Hardiness	Moderate
	Work engagement	Small
	Workplace bullying	Small
	Turnover intention	Small

The results provided evidence in support of research hypothesis H5: Age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

6.3.4   Reporting of the tests for significant mean differences

The aim of this section is to further investigate whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables). (This research aim relates to testing research hypothesis H6.)

Based on tests for normality, the Kruskal-Wallis test for detecting significant mean differences was conducted to test research hypothesis H6: Individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differ regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Only the significant results in terms of the various variables are reported in this section.

6.3.4.1   Age: Differences in terms of workplace bullying

This section discusses age and its differences in terms of participants' experiences of workplace bullying. Table 6.32 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on age and experiences of workplace bullying, specifically work-related bullying, personal-related bullying, and physical intimidation.

Table 6.32

Descriptive Statistics and Kruskal-Wallis Test on Age and Work-related Bullying, Person-related Bullying and Physical Intimidation (Age – Experiences of Workplace Bullying)

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	*p value*
Age:	40 to 49 years	112	162.04	.50(.52)	2.008	.29	.05*
Workplace	30 to 39 years	110	191.07	.68(.69)			
bullying	40 to 49 years	112	162.04	.50(.52)	3.424	.49	.00**
	17 to 29 years	86	214.92	.81(.73)			

Notes: N = 373. **$p \leq 0.01$; *$p \leq 0.05$.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.32 revealed statistically significant differences in respondents' experiences of workplace bullying across two different age groups (group1: 40 to 49 years and 30 to 39 years, and group 2: 40 to 49 years and 17 to 29 years).

According to the results reported in Table 6.32, the age group 40 to 49 years (*M* = .50; *SD* = .52) scored significantly lower than the age group 30 to 39 years (*M* = .68; *SD* = .69; small practical effect size) and 17 to 29 years (*M* = .81; *SD* = .73; moderate practical effect size) on workplace bullying.

No significant differences were observed between the age groups with regard to the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing).

6.3.4.2   Age: Differences in terms of turnover intention

This section will discuss age and its differences in terms of participants' turnover intentions.

Table 6.33 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on age and participants' intentions to leave.

Table 6.33

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Age and Turnover Intention

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Age: Turnover intention	40 to 49 years	112	183.87	2.61(1.17)	1.973	.70	.05*
	60 years and older	13	121.85	1.89(.85)			
	30 to 39 years	110	191.20	2.72(1.28)	2.204	.76	.03*
	60 years and older	13	121.85	1.89(.85)			
	17 to 29 years	86	221.01	3.10(1.42)	3.105	1.03	.00**
	60 years and older	13	121.85	1.89(.85)			
	40 to 49 years	112	183.87	2.61(1.17)	2.163	.37	.03*
	50 to 59 years	52	144.92	2.17(1.18)			
	30 to 39 years	110	191.20	2.72(1.28)	2.562	.45	.01*
	50 to 59 years	52	144.92	2.17(1.18)			
	17 to 29 years	86	221.01	3.10(1.42)	4.036	.71	.000***
	50 to 59 years	52	144.92	2.17(1.18)			
	40 to 49 years	112	183.87	2.61(1.17)	2.414	.38	.02*
	17 to 29 years	86	221.01	3.10(1.42)			
	30 to 39 years	110	191.20	2.72(1.28)	1.930	.28	.05*
	17 to 29 years	86	221.01	3.10(1.42)			

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq .001$ **$p \leq .01$ *$p \leq 0.05$

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.33 revealed statistically significant differences in respondents' turnover intentions across eight different age groups (group1: 40 to 49 years, and 60 years and older; group 2: 30 to 39 years, and 60 years and older; group 3: 17 to 29 years, and 60 years and older; group 4: 40 to 49 years and 50 to 59 years; group 5: 30 to 39 years and 50 to 59 years; group 6: 17 to 29 years and 50 to 59 years; group 7: 40 to 49 years and 17 to 29 years, and group 8: 30 to 39 years and 17 to 29 years).

According to the results reported in Table 6.33, the age group 17 to 29 years (M = 3.10; SD = 1.42) scored significantly higher than the age group 30 to 39 years (M = 2.72; SD = 1.28; small practical effect size); age group 40 to 49 (M = 2.61; SD = 1.17; small practical effect size); age group 50 to 59 years (M = 2.17; SD = 1.18; moderate practical effect size), and 60 years and older (M = 1.89; SD = .85; large practical effect size) on turnover intention. The early career phase (17 to 29 years) participants scored significantly higher compared to participants of 40 years and older on turnover intention.

The results indicated (Table 6.33) that the age group 30 to 39 years (M = 2.72; SD = 1.28) scored significantly higher than the age group 50 to 59 years (M = 2.17; SD = 1.18), and the age group 60 years and older (M = 1.89; SD = .85) on turnover intention. However, the age group 30 to 39 years (M = 2.72; SD = 1.28) scored significantly lower than the age group 17 to 29 years (M = 3.10; SD = 1.42) on turnover intention. The establishment career phase (30 to 39 years) participants scored significantly higher compared to the older participants and significantly lower than the younger participants on turnover intention.

According to the results reported in Table 6.33, the age group 40 to 49 years (M = 2.61; SD = 1.17) scored significantly higher than the age group 50 to 59 years (M = 2.17; SD = 1.18; small practical effect size) and 60 years and older (M = 1.89; SD = .85; moderate practical effect size) on turnover intention. On the other hand, the results indicated that the age group 40 to 49 scored significantly lower than the age group 17 to 29 years (M = 3.10; SD = 1.42; small practical effect size) on turnover intention. The maintenance career phase (40 to 49 years) participants scored significantly higher than the older participants and significantly lower than the younger participants on turnover intention.

The older age groups, age group 50 to 59 (M = 2.17; SD = 1.18) and age group 60 and older (M = 1.89; SD = .85), scored significantly lower compared to the younger participants on turnover intention.

Table 6.34

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Generational Differences and Turnover Intention

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Generational groups:	Baby boomers	65	140.31	2.11(1.12)	-3.126	.48	.002**
	Generation X	173	189.11	2.68(1.27)			
Turnover intention	Baby boomers	65	140.31	2.11(1.12)	-4.103	.64	.000***
	Generation Y	135	208.78	2.92(1.39)			

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \le .001$; **$p \le .01$.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.34 revealed statistically significant differences in the research participants' turnover intentions across two different generational groups (group1: Baby boomers and Generation X, and group 2: Baby boomers and Generation Y).

According to the results reported in Table 6.34, the generational group Baby boomers (*M* = 2.11; *SD* = 1.12) scored significantly lower than the generational group Generation X (*M* = 2.68; *SD* = 1.27; moderate practical effect size) and the generational group Generation Y (*M* = 2.92; *SD* = 1.39; moderate practical effect size) on turnover intention.

No significant differences were observed between the generational groups with regard to workplace bullying experiences or wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing).

6.3.4.3 Gender: Differences in terms of self-esteem

This section will discuss gender and its differences in terms of participants' levels of self-esteem. Table 6.35 below provides a summary of the Mann-Witney U-test on gender and participants' levels of self-esteem.

Table 6.35

Mann-Witney U-Test on Gender and Self-esteem

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Gender:	Male	138	212.53	4.97(.52)	.866	.42	.001**
Self-esteem	Female	235	172.01	4.72(.65)			

Notes: N = 373. **$p \le .01$.

The Mann Whitney U results and mean scores in Table 6.35 indicate significant differences between the male and female participants with regard to their levels of self-esteem.

According to the results reported in Table 6.35, the male gender group (*M* = 4.97; *SD* = .52) scored significantly slightly higher compared to the female gender group (*M* = 4.72; *SD* = .65; moderate practical effect size) on self-esteem.

No significant differences were observed between the gender groups with regard to workplace bullying experiences, other wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) or turnover intentions.

6.3.4.4   Race: Differences in terms of emotional intelligence

This section will discuss race and its differences in terms of participants' levels of emotional intelligence.

Table 6.36 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on race and participants' levels of emotional intelligence.

Table 6.36

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Race and Emotional Intelligence

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen *d*	*p* value
Race:	White	254	172.35	3.96(.55)	-3.997	.54	.000***
Emotional intelligence	African	80	227.59	4.23(.44)			

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq .001$.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.36 revealed statistically strong significant differences between the white and African race groups with regard to their emotional intelligence levels.

According to the results reported in Table 6.36, the white race group (*M* = 3.96; *SD* = .55) scored significantly lower than the African race group (*M* = 4.23; *SD* = .44; moderate practical effect size) on emotional intelligence.

6.3.4.5   Race: Differences in terms of psychosocial flourishing

This section will discuss race and its differences in terms of participants' levels of psychosocial flourishing.

Table 6.37 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on race and participants levels of psychosocial flourishing.

Table 6.37

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Race and Psychosocial Flourishing

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen *d*	*p* value
Race:	White	254	172.64	5.92(.94)	-3.538	.50	.000***
Psychosocial	African	80	221.38	6.33(.67)			
flourishing							

Notes: N = 373. ***$p \leq$ .001.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.37 revealed statistically strong significant differences between the white and African race groups with regard to their psychosocial flourishing levels.

According to the results reported in Table 6.37, the white race group (*M* = 5.92; *SD* = .94) scored significantly lower than the African race group (*M* = 6.33; *SD* = .67; moderate practical effect size) on psychosocial flourishing.

6.3.4.6   Race: Differences in terms of turnover intention

This section will discuss race and its differences in terms of participants' turnover intentions.

Table 6.38 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on race and participants intentions to leave.

Table 6.38

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Race and Turnover Intention

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Race:	White	254	175.93	2.53(1.29)	-2.818	.37	.01**
Turnover	African	80	214.69	3.03(1.39)			
intention							

Notes: N = 373. **$p \leq .01$.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.38 revealed statistically moderately significant differences between the white and African race groups with regard to their turnover intention levels.

According to the results reported in Table 6.38, the white race group (M = 2.53; SD = 1.29) scored significantly lower than the African race group (M = 3.03; SD = 1.39; small practical effect size) on turnover intention.

No significant differences were observed between the other race groups with regard to emotional intelligence. There were no significant differences evident between the race groups with regard to workplace bullying experiences or the other wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, hardiness and work engagement).

6.3.4.7   Tenure: Differences in terms of turnover intention

This section will discuss tenure and its differences in terms of participants' turnover intentions.

Table 6.39 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on tenure and participants' intentions to leave.

Table 6.39

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Tenure and Turnover Intention

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen *d*	*p* value
Tenure: Turnover intention	Less than 5 years	175	202.48	2.86(1.35)	2.526	.36	.01*
	More than 15 years	79	165.73	2.40(1.22)			

Notes: N = 373. *$p \leq 0.05$*

According to the results reported in Table 6.39, the tenure group less than five years (*M* = 2.86; *SD* = 1.35) scored significantly higher than the tenure group more than 15 years (*M* = 2.40; *SD* = 1.22; small practical effect size) on turnover intention.

No significant differences were observed between the other tenure groups with regard to turnover intentions. There were no significant differences evident between the tenure groups with regard to workplace bullying experiences or the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing).

6.3.4.8   Job level: Differences in terms of self-esteem

This section will discuss job level and its differences in terms of participants' levels of self-esteem.

Table 6.40 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on job level and participants' levels of self-esteem.

Table 6.40

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Job Level and Self-esteem

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Job level: Self-esteem	Trainee/Intern	17	136.94	4.50(.71)	1.972	.53	.05*
	Supervisor	73	194.19	4.85(.62)			
	Trainee/Intern	17	136.94	4.50(.71)	2.678	.76	.01**
	Senior management	72	214.78	4.98(.55)			
	Trainee/Intern	17	136.94	4.50(.71)	2.874	1.02	.00**
	Executive management	15	246.70	5.13(.51)			
	Operational level	196	173.89	4.74(.62)	2.753	.41	.01**
	Senior management	72	214.78	4.98(.55)			
	Operational level	196	173.89	4.74(.62)	2.521	.69	.01*
	Executive management	15	246.70	5.13(.51)			

Notes: N = 373. **$p \leq .01$ *$p \leq 0.05$

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.40 revealed statistically significant differences in respondents' self-esteem across five different job level groups (group1: Trainee/Intern and Supervisor; group 2: Trainee/Intern and Senior management; group 3: Trainee/Intern and Executive management; group 4: Operational level and Senior management and group 5: Operational level and Executive management.

According to the results reported in Table 6.40, the trainee/intern job level group (*M* = 4.50; *SD* = .71) scored significantly lower than the supervisor job level group (*M* = 4.85; *SD* = .62; moderate practical effect size), the senior management job level group (*M* = 4.98; *SD* = .55; moderate practical effect size) and the executive management job level group (*M* = 5.13; *SD* = .51; large practical effect size) on self-esteem.

Operations job level group (*M* = 4.50; *SD* = .71) scored significantly lower compared to the senior management job level group (*M* = 4.98; *SD* = .55; small practical effect size) and the executive management job level group (*M* = 5.13; *SD* = .51; moderate practical effect size) on self-esteem.

The trainee/intern and operational job level groups scored significantly lower compared to the

higher job level groups on self-esteem.

6.3.4.9   Job level: Differences in terms of hardiness

This section will discuss job level and its differences in terms of participants' levels of hardiness.

Table 6.41 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on job level and participants' levels of hardiness.

Table 6.41

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Job Level and Hardiness

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen *d*	*p* value
Job level:	Trainee/Intern	17	168.68	1.94(.41)	2.014	.70	.04*
Hardiness	Executive management	15	245.57	2.21(.36)			
	Operational level	196	171.91	1.96(.39)	2.230	.36	.03*
	Supervisor	73	204.87	2.09(.32)			
	Operational level	196	171.91	1.96(.39)	2.551	.67	.01*
	Executive management	15	245.57	2.21(.36)			

Notes: N = 373. *$p \leq 0.05$

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.41 revealed small statistically significant differences in respondents' turnover intentions across three different job level groups (group1: Trainee/Intern and Executive management; group 2: Operational level and Supervisor and group 3: Operational level and Executive management).

According to the results reported in Table 6.41, the executive job level group (*M* = 2.21; *SD* = .36) scored significantly higher than the trainee/intern job level group (*M* = 4.85; *SD* = .62; moderate practical effect size) and the operational job level group (*M* = 1.96; *SD* = .39; moderate practical effect size) on hardiness.

The operational job level group (*M* = 1.96; *SD* = .39) scored significantly lower than the supervisor job level group (*M* = 2.09; *SD* = .32; small practical effect size) and the executive job level group (*M* = 2.21; *SD* = .36; moderate practical effect size) on hardiness.
The trainee/intern and operational job level groups scored significantly lower compared to the

higher job level groups on hardiness.

6.3.4.10   Job level: Differences in terms of work engagement

This section will discuss job level and its differences in terms of participants' levels of work engagement.

Table 6.42 below provides a summary of the Kruskal-Wallis test on job level and participants' levels of work engagement.

Table 6.42

Kruskal-Wallis Test on Job Level and Work Engagement

Variable	Category	N	Mean rank	Mean (SD)	Standardised test statistic	Cohen d	p value
Job level:	Operational level	196	170.63	4.23(1.28)	3.168	.48	.00**
Work	Senior	72	217.70	4.77(.96)			
engagement	management						

Notes: N = 373. **$p ≤ .01$*.

The pairwise comparison test in Table 6.42 revealed statistically moderately significant differences between the operational level and senior management job level groups with regard to their work engagement levels.

According to the results reported in Table 6.43, the operational job level group (*M* = 4.23; *SD* = 1.28) scored significantly lower than the senior management job level group (*M* = 4.77; *SD* = .96; moderate practical effect size) on work engagement.

No significant differences were observed between the job level groups with regard to the other wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, and psychosocial flourishing). There were no significant differences evident between workplace bullying and the job level groups.

In summary, as indicated in Table 6.43 the tests for significant mean differences indicated that research participants from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differed regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely self-esteem, emotional

intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

Table 6.43

Summary of Significant Mean Differences

Variable	Source of difference	Lowest mean ranking	Highest mean ranking
Workplace bullying	Age	40-49 years	17-29 years
Turnover intention	Age	60 years and older	17-29 years
Self-esteem (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Gender	Female	Male
Emotional intelligence (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Race	White	African
Psychosocial flourishing (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Race	White	African
Turnover intention	Race	White	African
Turnover intention	Tenure	More than 15 years	Less than five years
Self-esteem (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Job level	Trainee/intern	Executive management

Variable	Source of difference	Lowest mean ranking	Highest mean ranking
Hardiness (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Job level	Trainee/intern	Executive management
Work engagement (wellbeing-related dispositional attribute)	Job level	Operational level	Senior management

6.4   INTEGRATION AND DISCUSSION

The research results of the present study are herewith integrated. The results of the biographical profile, descriptive statistics and empirical research aims are discussed.

6.4.1   Biographical profile of the sample and frequencies

The biographical profile showed that participants in the sample were predominantly between 30 to 49 years of age (establishment/maintenance stage), employed white female individuals, working less than five years at their current employer at operational job level, married and in the generation X group in the South African context. The main sample characteristics are illustrated in figure 6.5. The sample results indicated that the major characteristics that should be considered during the interpretation of the empirical results were age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

Males seemed to be under-represented, while the white race group appeared to be over-represented in the sample. This will be taken into account during the interpretation phase.
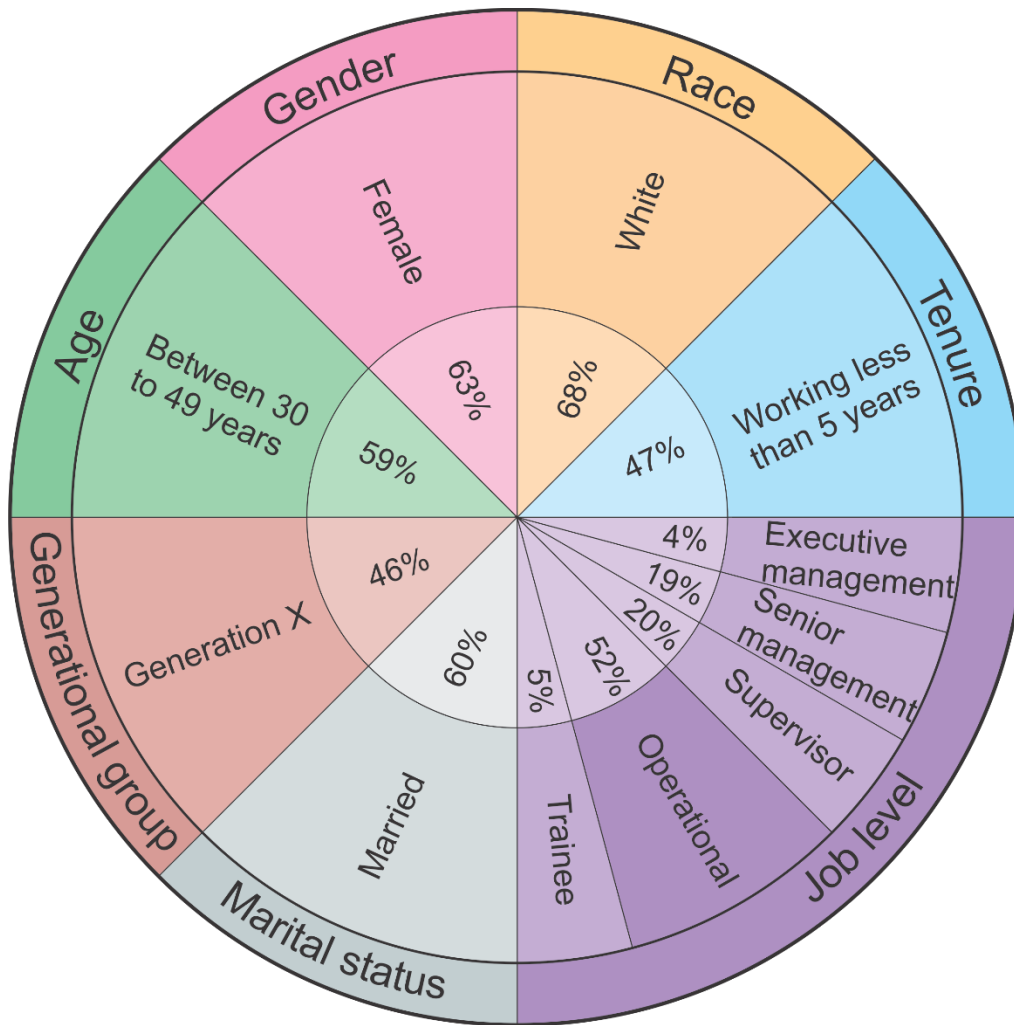
Figure 6.5 The main characteristics of the sample profile

6.4.2 Descriptive statistics: Interpretation of the results (mean scores)

In this section, the mean scores for the psychological wellbeing profile of participants' perception of workplace bullying and participants' turnover intentions are interpreted and discussed. The results reported in Tables 6.9 to 6.15 and figure 6.1 are relevant to this section.

6.4.2.1   Psychological wellbeing profile of participants: Self-esteem

Table 6.9 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. The psychological wellbeing profile revealed that the participants possessed a high level of self-esteem, in particular, a strong general self-esteem. This implied that participants generally had constructive assessments about themselves (Battle, 1992), were able to accept themselves and possessed a positive view about themselves in all areas of life, such as the work and family contexts (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013).

Research findings indicated that high self-esteem might assist individuals to cope with stressful situations more effectively (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wu et al., 2011) and increase their level of psychological wellbeing (Sowislo & Orth, 2013). This implied that participants were more inclined to manage stress efficiently, were successful in life, experienced increased psychological wellbeing (Sowislo & Orth, 2013), and had a lower risk to develop depression (Joiner et al., 1999; Sowislo & Orth, 2013).

Participants also possessed moderate levels of personal self-esteem, social self-esteem and on the lie items dimension. This suggested that participants possessed a relatively strong overall view of themselves and moderate feelings of their own worth (personal self-esteem). Further, the social self-esteem mean scores suggested that participants had moderate positive emotions and perceptions about their quality of relationships with friends, colleagues and partners. The lie items dimension score implied that participants were less defensive and moderately open to disclose self-esteem characteristics that were seen as socially unacceptable (Battle, 1992). However, the results should be interpreted with caution because of the low internal consistency reliability of the social self-esteem and lie items subscales.

6.4.2.2   Psychological wellbeing profile of participants: Emotional intelligence

Table 6.10 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. The psychological wellbeing profile revealed that the participants possessed a high level of emotional intelligence, more specifically, high levels of managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and the utilisation of emotions. This implied that participants had a greater understanding of and reasoning regarding emotions and they also felt in control of their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

According to Qureshi and Raja (2011), participants with high levels of emotional intelligence possess emotional insight, assess emotional circumstances successfully and also have the

428

ability to promote themselves at work. This implies that participants seem more flexible to adjust their thoughts and behaviour when required to do so, and manage their emotions effectively. This ability assists participants to experience more positive feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), which may enhance psychological wellbeing and decrease their mental distress during difficult situations (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kong et al., 2012).

Participants also possessed moderate levels of perception of emotion. This might suggest that they felt relatively capable of recognising different emotions of other individuals. This might assist them in handling interpersonal conflict readily (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011).

6.4.2.3   Psychological wellbeing profile of participants: Hardiness

Table 6.11 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. The psychological wellbeing profile revealed that the participants possessed moderate levels of commitment-alienation and control-powerlessness. This implied that participants felt relatively enthusiastic and committed to their work and life. They were less likely to isolate themselves from their employing organisation, friends and associates. Participants seemed to feel moderately in control of their life (Maddi et al., 2012) and appeared to have the necessary awareness, knowledge and skills to somewhat influence and adjust their life circumstances (Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2008). Also, participants seemed to view obstacles as relatively solvable and in their own control (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Maddi, 2004).

According to Kobasa (1979), high commitment levels of hardiness can assist individuals in experiencing feelings of worth and meaningfulness in their work and life. This implied that participants experienced their work as somewhat meaningful and had relatively satisfactory social relationships.

6.4.2.4   Psychological wellbeing profile of participants: Work engagement

Table 6.12 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. The psychological wellbeing profile revealed that the participants possessed moderate levels of vigour, dedication and absorption. This implied that participants felt relatively engaged in their work. More specifically, participants seemed moderately eager to complete their work tasks successfully (vigour) in a relatively motivated manner (Mendes & Stander, 2011). These individuals appeared reasonably motivated and viewed their work as important (dedication). The moderate absorption mean score suggested that participants seemed relatively focused and involved in their work (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker,

2004). Similarly, research findings of Abraham (2012) confirmed that employees who were engaged in their work were motivated and willing to contribute to the success of their organisations.

Research indicates that engagement can be seen as an indicator of psychological wellbeing (Hansen et al., 2014). This implies that participants experience relative levels of psychological wellbeing.

6.4.2.5 *Psychological wellbeing profile of participants: Psychosocial flourishing*

Table 6.13 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. The psychological wellbeing profile revealed that the participants possessed high levels of psychosocial flourishing. This implied that participants had rewarding relationships, experienced life as meaningful, felt positive towards life in general, were involved in assisting others, and felt they had the necessary skills and competence to contribute to their community (Diener et al., 2010).

Similarly, Keyes (2002) has found that individuals who flourish possess positive feelings, and experience wellbeing on a psychological and social level. According to Keyes (2007), flourishing individuals have constructive feelings most of the time, are successful and are able to have a positive influence on their surrounding environment. This can imply that the participants experience psychological and social wellbeing. In addition, participants may experience positive feelings frequently, and are successful in their work and personal life.

6.4.2.6 *Workplace bullying profile of participants*

Table 6.14 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. Participants had extremely low mean scores on all sub dimensions of workplace bullying. The highest workplace bullying dimension was work-related bullying and the lowest dimension was physical intimidation. This implied that the participants experienced somewhat more bullying incidents associated with their work rather than being physically intimidated at work.

The findings of the current research study imply that participants experience few bullying incidents at work. Alternatively, the findings suggest that participants' psychological wellbeing profile (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, commitment-alienation and control-powerlessness, work engagement, and psychosocial flourishing) could have assisted them in perceiving fewer occurrences of workplace bullying.

Similar research findings indicate that self-esteem (Lee-Flynn et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2011), emotional intelligence (O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011), hardiness (Kardum et al., 2012), work engagement (Hansen et al., 2014) and psychosocial flourishing (Vazi et al., 2013) may act as buffers to protect one against the effects of stress. Consequently, individuals who are able to cope better with stress may view difficult incidents as less threatening (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

6.4.2.7   Turnover intention profile of participants

Table 6.15 and figure 6.1 are applicable to this section. Participants' mean scores were moderately on turnover intention. This implied that participants did not possess strong intentions to leave, nor high intentions to remain with their organisation.

According to Ulrich et al. (2008), employee wellbeing significantly influences voluntary turnover and consequently organisational success. Therefore, the psychological wellbeing profile may assist organisations in decreasing turnover intention.

6.4.2.8   Main findings

The results of the psychological wellbeing profile, as summarised in figure 6.1, suggested that the participants possessed strong positive assessments about themselves (Battle, 1992). They had great insight into and a good understanding of emotions, and felt in control of their own emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In line with research by Maddi et al. (2012), the results suggested that the participants were relatively committed to their work and less inclined to withdraw from their family, friends and the organisation. In addition, participants seemed to feel somewhat in control of their circumstances (Maddi et al., 2012).

The results indicated that the participants were moderately energised and relatively driven to conclude work assignments. They also seemed reasonably dedicated and focused in their work (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The results are consistent with the findings of Diener et al. (2010), which suggest that participants experience a life with purpose and meaning, have positive emotions, and feel capable to assist others and contribute constructively to society.

Finally, it seemed that participants experienced very few workplace bullying incidents. This might suggest that participants were not exposed to many bullying incidents in the workplace. Alternatively, these results might imply that participants were more capable to

cope during the stressful events and consequently did not perceive this type of behaviour as acts of bullying. The results also showed that participants were not strongly inclined to leave, nor stay with their employers.

6.4.2.9 Counter-intuitive findings

Participants scored low on the challenge-threat dimension of hardiness. This may suggest that participants experienced many difficulties (threats) at work or had a lower preference for challenging work tasks. Individuals who viewed a stressful event as a terrifying obstacle rather than a challenge (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Maddi, 2004) could experience more mental distress, which might decrease psychological wellbeing (Eschleman et al., 2010).

6.4.3 Empirical research aim 1: Interpretation of the correlation results

Research aim 1 and Tables 6.16 to 6.18 are of relevance to this section.

Research aim 1 was to assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.

6.4.3.1 The relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention

Table 6.16 is of relevance to this section. The results revealed that the overall workplace bullying construct significantly and positively related to the construct of turnover intention. Workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) significantly and positively predicted participants' turnover intentions. This suggests that employees who end up being targets of bullying behaviour have increased thoughts about leaving their employers. Bullying behaviour that prevents individuals from completing their work tasks (work-related), excessive bantering (person-related) or physical mistreatment at work can influence turnover intentions negatively (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997).

The results imply that participants who are exposed to bullying behaviour in the workplace may display stronger intentions to leave the organisation. The results are consistent with research conducted by Glasø et al. (2011), which revealed that acts of bullying can increase

the target's turnover intentions. Overall, the results reveal that workplace bullying is positively associated with turnover intention.

6.4.3.2   *The relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention*

Table 6.17 is of relevance to this section. All the psychological wellbeing-related attributes were overall significantly related. This suggested that the participants possessed a high sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. In terms of the findings, no significant associations were evident between challenge-threat with managing others' emotions and the utilisation of emotions.

The results revealed that self-esteem (general self-esteem and personal self-esteem) significantly and negatively related to turnover intention. This suggested that participants' self-esteem negatively influenced their intentions to leave. Participants seemed to have positive self-evaluations and felt highly confident, in turn, they appeared to have lower intentions to leave their employers. A possible explanation could be that participants who felt more confident in their abilities to find other work may have less thoughts about leaving during unsatisfactory work circumstances. The results were congruent with research conducted by Arndt and Goldenberg (2002), which revealed that individuals with higher self-esteem had greater confidence and coped more efficiently during difficult life happenings. Overall, the results revealed that self-esteem negatively influenced turnover intention. However, there was no significant relationship evident between social self-esteem and turnover intention.

There was a negative significant relationship evident between managing own emotions and turnover intention. This implied that participants could interpret and utilise positive and negative emotions to control situations, and seemed to have the ability to regulate their own feelings. In turn, they appeared to have decreased intentions to leave their employing organisations. This was confirmed by the research findings of Salovey and Grewal (2005), which indicated that emotionally intelligent individuals could utilise their own feelings to enhance reasoning and problem-solving. These individuals could also adjust their behaviour and emotions to best suit a specific situation (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). The research findings of Adeyemo and Afolabi (2007) and Ajay (2009) confirmed that highly emotional intelligent individuals might have decreased turnover intentions. However, there were no relations evident between overall emotional intelligence, the perception of emotion,

433

managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotion variables and overall turnover intention. Overall, the results revealed that managing own emotions was negatively associated with turnover intention.

The results revealed that hardiness (commitment-alienation and control-powerlessness) was significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. However, no significant correlation could be found between the challenge-threat variable and turnover intention. This implied that participants felt emotionally tied to the organisation and in control of their own successes and failures, and, in turn, they had decreased thoughts of leaving their employers. This was congruent with the research of Bartone et al. (2012) and Ursin and Eriksen (2004) They found that high hardy individuals possessed effective coping strategies and had a more positive mindset toward life rather than expecting the worst. In addition, other research findings indicated that hardy individuals were more inclined to feel in control of what happened to them (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2007). Overall, the results revealed that hardiness was associated negatively with turnover intention.

The findings indicated that work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) was significantly and negatively associated with turnover intention. This implied that participants had a strong sense of work engagement, and in turn, they had decreased turnover intentions. Participants seemed to be involved in their work, focused, energised and eager to contribute to the success of their employing organisations, which resulted in decreased thoughts of leaving. This was in line with the research findings of Mendes and Stander (2011), who found that individuals who were intensely dedicated to their employers tended to have decreased levels of turnover intention. Overall, the results revealed that work engagement was associated negatively with turnover intention.

Lastly, a significant and negative association was evident between psychosocial flourishing and turnover intention. This implied that participants possessed strong levels of emotional, psychological and social wellbeing (Keyes, 2002). These individuals seemed to experience pleasant feelings regularly, appeared to function well and were able to make a positive influence on the lives of others, which, in turn, decreased their intentions to leave the organisations. These results supported the findings of Glasø and Notelaers, (2012) and Rayner et al. (2002), who indicated that individuals' psychological wellbeing could predict their turnover intentions. Overall, the results revealed that psychosocial flourishing was associated negatively with turnover intention.

6.4.3.3   The relationship between the workplace bullying and the psychological wellbeing-related attributes: Self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing

Table 6.18 is of relevance to this section. The research findings revealed that workplace bullying (work-related bullying and person-related bullying) was significantly and negatively related to self-esteem (general, social and personal self-esteem). This could suggest that the participants did not perceive many bullying incidents, since their strong sense of self-esteem (high self-worth) acted as a buffer and decreased the intensity of the bullying behaviour. These results supported the findings of Wu et al. (2011), who found that self-esteem could act as a resource to handle stressful events more effectively. Similarly, Crocker and Park (2004) found that self-esteem might act as a buffer against anxiety. Alternatively, the findings could suggest that participants did not identify bullying associated with their work tasks and offensive comments as bullying. The findings also indicated a significant and positive relationship between workplace bullying and lie items. This suggested that participants indicated their experiences with and exposure to workplace bullying honestly rather than displaying defensiveness. However, no significant correlation could be found between the physical intimidation bullying variable and social self-esteem. Overall, the results revealed that workplace bullying was associated negatively with self-esteem.

The findings have indicated that workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) is significantly and negatively associated with emotional intelligence (perception of emotion, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions). This implies that highly emotionally intelligent participants do not perceive many incidents of bullying behaviour in the workplace. The findings may suggest that participants' ability to observe, process and control their own and others' emotions may influence the manner in which they perceive bullying behaviour in the workplace. Participants appear to observe fewer acts of bullying due to their increased capability to deal with emotions successfully. This is congruent with the research of Gallagher and Vella-Brodrick (2008), and Kong et al. (2012). These authors indicate that emotional intelligence can protect individuals against stressors and increase their psychological wellbeing. Research indicates that emotional intelligence may enable individuals to manage conflict successfully and negotiate effectively (Aliasgari & Farzadnia, 2012). However, no significant correlation has been found between overall workplace bullying and the utilisation of emotion variable. Overall, it seems that workplace bullying is associated negatively with emotional intelligence.

The research findings revealed that workplace bullying (person-related bullying and physical intimidation) was significantly and negatively associated with hardiness (commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness, challenge-threat). This implied that participants experienced fewer workplace bullying occurrences and had a strong sense of hardiness. This could suggest that participants knew their skills and competencies, and had a sense of what they would like to achieve in life. Participants also seemed to feel more in control of what happened in their lives and were more confident to cope with daily stressors (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2007). The results were consistent with research conducted by Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) that stated hardy individuals had more resilience for stress and seemed confident that they could influence their environment positively. Therefore, it seemed that high hardiness participants observed less bullying behaviour in the workplace. However, no significant correlation could be found between work-related bullying and challenge-threat. Overall, it seemed that workplace bullying was associated negatively with hardiness.

The findings suggested that workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) was significantly and negatively related to work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption). This implied that participants with a high sense of work engagement experienced fewer incidents of workplace bullying. Participants seemed to view very few bullying incidents related to their work performance, psychological threats, or the invasion of their space. These individuals also appeared to have a strong emotional attachment with their organisations, which could assist them in coping better with the occurrences of workplace bullying. This was congruent with the research of Rothmann et al. (2011) and Schiffrin and Nelson (2010), which indicated that individuals who possessed effective coping strategies tended to have a strong sense of engagement during strenuous occurrences at work. Thus, it seemed that work engagement acted as a buffer to protect participants during the occurrences of workplace bullying, which, in turn, caused them to perceive only few incidents of bullying behaviour. Overall, it seemed that workplace bullying was associated negatively with work engagement.

The research findings revealed that workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) was significantly and negatively related to psychosocial flourishing. This implied that participants viewed few workplace bullying incidents and had a strong sense of psychosocial flourishing. These individuals seemed to experience few bullying behaviours toward them personally, their work or physically. In addition, participants appeared to feel content and fulfilled with their lives (Huppert & So, 2013). This was in line with the research of Catalino and Fredrickson (2011). These authors indicated that

individuals who had a strong sense of emotional wellbeing tended to enjoy most things in life and were consequently less inclined to experience decreased psychological wellbeing. Thus, it seemed that high psychosocial flourishing individuals might be more capable to cope with stressful events such as bullying, which, in turn, allowed them to view fewer incidents of bullying behaviour. Overall, it seemed that workplace bullying was negatively associated negatively with psychosocial flourishing.

6.4.3.4   Significant findings: Synthesis

In terms of significant findings, a positive relationship was observed between workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) and turnover intention. This suggested that, when workplace bullying was managed effectively in the workplace, it was likely that employees' turnover intentions to leave the organisation would decrease.

Negative relationships have been found between the psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention. These significant relationships suggest when management successfully apply strategies to improve employees' psychological wellbeing, it is probable that their intentions to leave the organisation will be less. In addition, this may be especially beneficial during stressful incidents at work, such as workplace bullying.

The results also suggest negative relationships between workplace bullying and the psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing). These significant relationships suggest individuals can cope more effectively with bullying in the workplace when they possess a strong sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Strategies to improve employees' psychological wellbeing-related attributes are likely to be beneficial for work performance and organisational success. Since employees who possess high psychological wellbeing are likely to display fewer intentions to leave and lower absenteeism, are more dedicated to the organisation and are more likely to be involved in their work tasks. These individuals also seem more likely to display decreased turnover intentions even when they are exposed to bullying behaviour in the workplace.

6.4.4   Interpretation of the canonical correlation results

Tables 6.19 and 6.21 are relevant to this section.

6.4.4.1   Research aim 2

Research aim 2 was to assess the overall statistical relationship of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Overall, it would appear from the findings that the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (vigour, dedication, absorption and commitment-alienation) as a composite set of latent independent variables had contributed significantly in explaining workplace bullying (work-related bullying and person-related bullying) and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables. The canonical correlation results indicated a significant negative direction of the loadings. This implied that participants who experienced a lower sense of commitment (increased feelings of alienation), vigour, dedication and absorption were more likely to perceive bullying behaviour and had a greater probability of having increased thoughts of leaving their employing organisations. Participants who felt emotionally isolated and disconnected from their employers, unsatisfied within their jobs, emotionally drained and struggled to focus on their work, had a higher probability of experiencing workplace bullying more intensely, which, in turn, increased their turnover intentions.

The research findings indicated that workplace-related bullying, person-related bullying and turnover intention significantly explained participants' sense of psychological wellbeing. This suggested that participants who experienced bullying behaviour associated with their work performance were exposed to excessive badgering and had increased thoughts of leaving the organisation would be more likely to possess a decreased sense of psychological wellbeing. Research indicated that bullying behaviour was a threatening and devastating experience. Lutgen-Sandvik (2008) and entailed symptoms such as anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion and feelings of helplessness (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011), which, in turn, resulted in a lower sense of psychological wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).

438

Furthermore, it seemed that work-related bullying and turnover intention contributed the most in explaining the workplace bullying/turnover intention canonical relationship. This implied that participants who experienced more bullying behaviour related to their work tasks and productivity were more inclined to have increased intentions to leave. This was similar to the research of Glasø et al. (2011), which indicated that bullying behaviour could lower employees' job satisfaction and increase their intentions to leave.

6.4.4.2   Main findings: Synthesis

Overall, the results indicated that the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, in particular work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation), contributed significantly in explaining the participants' experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intentions.

The findings suggest that organisations need to be more aware of bullying behaviour in the workplace. Management should also identify and act expeditiously towards bullying behaviour by offering support to targets and have consequences in place for offenders. Organisations that act consistently against workplace bullying will create a climate where employees feel safe, and consequently increase their psychological wellbeing and decrease turnover intentions.

6.4.4.3   Counter-intuitive findings

The wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, in particular self-esteem, emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing, did not significantly contribute to explaining the participants' experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intentions. Previous research showed that self-esteem (Brown, 2010; Zeigler-Hill, 2013) and emotional intelligence (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kong et al., 2012) might protect individuals against the detrimental effects of stressors during difficult circumstances, such as bullying behaviour.

6.4.4.4   Research aim 3

Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

The canonical correlation analysis results were useful in identifying the cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements, which contributed the most to explaining the psychological wellbeing profile of the participants. These elements contributed the most to the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, suggesting that individuals should be developed at a cognitive, affective and conative level in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, lower perceptions of bullying behaviour and decrease turnover intentions.

Table 6.44 indicates the behavioural elements that have been included in the proposed psychological wellbeing profile.

Table 6.44

Behavioural Elements of the Proposed Psychological Wellbeing Profile

Psychological wellbeing-related attributes	Behavioural elements		
	Cognitive	Affective	Conative
Hardiness		Commitment-alienation	
Work engagement	Vigour Absorption	Dedication Absorption	Vigour Dedication

The findings also indicated that vigour, dedication, absorption and commitment-alienation explained participants' overall sense of psychological wellbeing. The canonical correlation results indicated a significant negative direction of the loadings. This implied that participants who had a decreased feeling of work engagement, vigour, dedication, absorption and commitment had a higher tendency to experience a lower sense of psychological wellbeing.

Overall, it would appear from the findings that increasing participants' hardiness (commitment-alienation) and work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) had contributed to their psychological wellbeing, which helped them to better cope with incidents of workplace bullying (work-related bullying and person-related bullying) and lower their intentions to leave. This is congruent with the research of Hansen et al. (2014), which has indicated that individuals who are highly engaged in their organisations are more likely to experience physical and mental wellbeing. Bartone and Hystad (2010) and Maddi (2007) have found that hardy individuals are more likely to view stressors as positive and, therefore, experience increased psychological wellbeing.

6.4.4.5   Main findings: Synthesis

The cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements contributed the most in explaining participants' psychological wellbeing profile. To summarise: organisations may benefit to consider the following:

At a *cognitive level*, participants seem to understand what is expected of them in their work roles and where they are going (Abraham, 2012). These individuals seem focused and determined to complete their work tasks (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Organisations should assist individuals to enhance their work engagement (vigour and absorption) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

At an *affective level*, participants appear to have an emotional bond with their values, goals and competencies (Kobasa, 1982). These individuals also seem to have an emotional connection with their work (Kahn, 1990, 1992). The findings also suggest that participants are involved in and content with their work (Harter et al., 2002). Organisations should increase employees' hardiness (commitment-alienation) and work engagement (dedication and absorption) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

At a *conative level*, participants seem to have an internal energy, which may assist them in coping during difficult circumstances (Frank et al., 2004), such as workplace bullying. They appear motivated to have a positively influence on work performance and organisational survival (Abraham, 2012). Organisations should increase employees' work engagement (vigour and dedication) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

In addition, the canonical correlation results suggest that lower levels of work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) are the strongest psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes in explaining a decreased sense of psychological wellbeing, as well as higher levels of workplace bullying perceptions and turnover intentions.

Overall, it appears from the findings that increasing the participants' sense of employee engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment) contribute to a

stronger sense of wellbeing and this lowers negative experiences of bullying and turnover intention. Organisations may benefit to implement wellness strategies to enhance employees' hardiness and work engagement levels, which may increase their sense of psychological wellbeing. In addition, management need to be aware of the effects of stressors, such as bullying, which may decrease employee motivation, energy and eagerness to be involved in work tasks. Addressing workplace bullying in the workplace may increase feelings of attachment to the organisation. Workplace bullying interventions may also encourage employees to be more focused and positively involved in their work, which may in turn enhance their sense of wellbeing.

6.4.4.6 Counter-intuitive findings

The wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, in particular self-esteem, emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing, did not contribute significantly in explaining the participants' sense of psychological wellbeing. Previous research indicated that low self-esteem individuals were more inclined to suffer from mental distress since they appeared to have fewer coping resources (Orth & Robins, 2013). Individuals who lacked the skills of emotional regulation were more likely to experience burnout and possess a lower sense of psychological wellbeing (Bono & Vey, 2005). Research also indicated that individuals with a low sense of psychosocial flourishing might not function well on psychological and social levels (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010).

The findings indicated that interpersonal behavioural elements did not significantly influence participants' sense of psychological wellbeing. However, the research of Diener and Biswas-Diener (2008), and Diener and Ryan (2009) indicated that individuals who had a strong sense of subjective wellbeing might experience more rewarding interpersonal relationships. Similarly, Diener et al. (2010) found that individuals who flourished psychosocially had supportive and rewarding social interpersonal relationships.

6.4.5 Research aim 4: Interpretation of the mediation modelling results

Research aim 4 was to assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Tables 6.22 to 6.29 and figures 6.2 to 6.4 are of relevance to this section.

442

The results obtained only yielded partial support for the research hypothesis that assumed lower levels of self-esteem emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing related to increased perceptions/experiences of workplace bullying and more intentions to leave.

Simple mediation analyses indicated that work engagement and psychosocial flourishing mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying were negatively associated with work engagement which, in turn, was also negatively associated with turnover intention. This implied that participants who experienced/perceived more workplace bullying incidents were more inclined to have lower levels of work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and more likely to have increased thoughts about leaving the organisations.

Multi-level mediation analysis indicated model 3 as the best fit model. This model included workplace bullying construct (work-related, person-related bullying and overall workplace bullying), work engagement (vigour, dedication and overall work engagement as mediators) and turnover intention. The findings indicated that only work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying are negatively associated with work engagement which, in turn, was also negatively associated with turnover intention. This implied that participants who experienced/perceived more workplace bullying (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying and person-related bullying) incidents were more inclined to have lower levels of work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) and were more likely to have increased thoughts about leaving the organisations. Therefore, work engagement seemed to be a stronger mediator than psychosocial flourishing. Conversely, participants who experienced/perceived fewer workplace bullying behaviour (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying and person-related bullying) were more likely to possess a stronger sense of work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) and had decreased turnover intentions.

The findings suggest that individuals with high levels of bullying experiences/perceptions are likely to be less engaged in their work, work less vigorously and are less dedicated to their jobs. On the other hand, low perceptions of bullying are likely to increase levels of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication, and lower levels of turnover intention. Higher work engagement, vigour and dedication (when controlling for the effect of bullying), in turn, are likely to promote lower turnover intention, thus partially reducing the negative effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention.

The strongest mediator in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship is work engagement (vigour and dedication). Thus, work engagement (vigour and dedication) can be seen as the strongest predictor of turnover intention. This is congruent with the research of Mendes and Stander (2011), and Saks (2006), which indicate that engaged employees tend to possess positive attitudes toward their employer and are more inclined to have lower intentions to leave the organisation.

Overall, is has been found that work engagement (overall engagement, vigour and dedication) mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention. Individuals who are highly engaged in their work, who are internally energised to work and who are dedicated to complete their work tasks are more likely to experience fewer occurrences of workplace bullying and are more inclined to display lower intentions to leave. The findings suggest that work engagement can act as a buffer to protect employees against the negative effects of workplace bullying and lower their turnover intentions.

On the other hand, individuals with a lower sense of work engagement can experience bullying behaviour more intensely and consequently display increased turnover intentions. This is partly similar to the research of Finne et al. (2011), Nielsen et al. (2012) and Reknes et al. (2014), which has indicated that individuals who possess a lower sense of psychological wellbeing may be more inclined to be exposed to, or to experience bullying behaviour. Research findings of Glasø et al. (2011) indicate that bullying behaviour can influence employees' turnover intentions negatively.

The findings indicate that self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness are not likely to influence the relationship between experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intention.

6.4.5.1   Main findings

The main findings showed that work engagement mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention such that high experiences of bullying were associated negatively with work engagement which, in turn, was also negatively associated with turnover intention. It appeared from the results that experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying significantly predicted turnover intention (which, in turn, significantly predicted high/low levels of work engagement (vigour and dedication) in one's work.

Employers should focus on enhancing employees' levels of work engagement (vigour and dedication). The findings could suggest that higher levels of work engagement can assist

employees to cope more effectively with the effects of workplace bullying and would consequently lower their turnover intentions. Organisations should provide a safe work environment by eliminating/reducing acts of bullying, which will consequently enhance employees work engagement. Research indicated that employees who perceived their general work environment as safe and felt protected by management tended to experience increased levels of engagement (May et al., 2004). In addition, organisations should provide a supportive work environment. Employees who perceived the support of management would be more engaged in their work (Plakhotnik, Rocco, & Roberts, 2011; Wollard & Shack, 2011). Management could also increase work engagement by involving employees in the decision making process and providing them with tasks that were more significant (May et al., 2004; Rich et al., 2010).

Employers should also implement the following strategies to enhance work engagement among employees, such as establishing a fair and supportive work culture; aligning job roles with the organisation's vision and mission; offering employees more autonomy to do their work, supporting their career development (Albrecht, 2012), and offering employees career coaching sessions (Clark, 2012). Higher levels of work engagement could assist individuals in managing bullying behaviour more effectively, which might lead to lower turnover intentions. As such, a stronger sense of work engagement might result in decreased perceptions of workplace bullying and lower intentions to seek other employment opportunities.

Organisations could improve the outcomes of turnover intention by managing bullying in the workplace. Management should focus more attention on work-related bullying and person-related bullying that could influence individuals' psychological wellbeing and work performance. Human resource professionals and management should provide clear job descriptions, well-defined role expectations and adequate work resources for task completion. This might assist organisations to prevent/lower the occurrence of bullying and conflict among employees in the workplace (Balducci et al., 2012).

Organisations should also provide training that is relevant to job performance. Development opportunities are associated with decreased turnover intentions (Long & Perumal, 2014). Managers should act truthfully and sincere, since leaders who are perceived by employees as insincere can lead to higher turnover intentions (Greenbaum et al., 2015; Long & Perumal, 2014).

6.4.5.2   Counter-intuitive findings

The findings indicate that self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness are not likely to act as mediators in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship. Previous research suggests that high levels of self-esteem (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Wu et al., 2011), emotional intelligence (Ciarrochi et al., 2002) and hardiness (Bartone, 2000) are associated with more effective coping strategies during the exposure of stress, such as workplace bullying.

6.4.6   Research aim 5: Interpretation of the multiple regression analysis results

Tables 6.30 and 6.31 are relevant to this section.

Research aim 5 was to assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predicted workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

6.4.6.1   Interpretation of the multiple regression analysis

Herewith a discussion of the biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) that significantly influenced workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

(a)   Age

The results indicated that age significantly predicted participants' turnover intentions. The findings suggested participants within the 17 to 29 age group scored significantly higher on turnover intention. This implied that younger participants had stronger intentions to leave their employing organisations. The findings could suggest that younger employees might be more adventurous and eager to seek other employment, and might also find it easier to obtain other job opportunities. Research indicated that older individuals were more likely to be cautious to leave their organisations, since it could be more difficult for them to find other work (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013).

This implied that organisations should remain cognisant that younger participants would require more focused talent retention approaches.

(b)   Gender

The results indicated that gender influenced participants' level of self-esteem. This implied that males had higher levels of self-esteem when compared to females. The findings could suggest that males had more positive self-evaluations and were more accepting of themselves than the female participants. Although males scored the highest on self-esteem, it was interesting to note that the majority of participants were female. Previous research indicated that males tended to possess slightly higher levels of self-esteem (Bachman et al., 2011; Coetzee, 2008).

This finding could suggest that organisations should take gender into account when they developed psychological wellbeing strategies to assist employees to enhance their levels of self-esteem. Increased levels of self-esteem could lower perceptions of bullying behaviour and decrease their intentions to leave the organisation.

The results further indicated turnover intentions for male participants were higher compared to female participants. This implied that male participants had higher intentions to leave the organisations than females. This finding could suggest organisations should take gender into consideration during the establishment of talent retention strategies to lower turnover intention. Overall, gender predicted participants' level of self-esteem and intention to leave.

(c)   Race

The findings indicated that race influenced participants' level of emotional intelligence. The African race group possessed a stronger sense of emotional intelligence when compared to other race groups. This implied that the African race group seemed to facilitate more positive feelings, and could observe, process and manage their emotions more effectively than other race groups.

The results further indicated that participants' level of psychosocial flourishing were influenced by race. The African race group had a stronger sense of psychosocial flourishing when compared to other race groups. This suggested that the African race group was more optimistic, had more rewarding relationships, had a greater belief in their own competence and experienced greater meaning in their lives. It was interesting to note that the majority of participants were within the white race group, although the African race group scored the highest on emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing. A contributing factor might be that the African culture was more focused on supporting one another (ubuntu), which

447

provided them with a greater social support system.

These findings could suggest that organisations should take race into account when they developed psychological wellbeing strategies to assist employees in enhancing their levels of emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing. Increased levels of emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing could lower perceptions of bullying behaviour and decrease their turnover intentions.

The results also revealed that participants within the African race group experienced higher turnover intentions when compared to other race groups. This implied that African participants were more inclined to display intentions to leave their employing organisations. The findings could suggest that organisations should take race into account during the development of talent retention strategies to lower turnover intention. Overall, race predicted participants' level of emotional intelligence, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intentions.

(d) Tenure

In terms of the results, tenure did not act as a significant predictor in the relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, workplace bullying and turnover intention. Previous research showed that tenure predicted work engagement. Employees with higher tenure were more inclined to possess lower levels of work engagement (Robinson, 2007). On the other hand, individuals with less tenure had a higher likelihood to possess a stronger sense of work engagement (Stumpf Jr. et al., 2013).

(e) Job level

The findings revealed that job level influenced participants' level of self-esteem. Participants within the executive management job level group had the highest level of self-esteem when compared to the other job level groups. This implied that executive managers possessed greater self-esteem and had more positive thoughts about themselves. This could be attributed to the fact that most of them completed degrees, and as a result, felt good about themselves. Trainees/interns appeared to have the lowest levels of self-esteem. This could suggest that trainees felt uncertain about their own abilities and competencies, because they were busy with their internships to develop their skills further. Previous research indicated that job level did not seem to influence employees' levels of self-esteem (Orth et al., 2012).

The results indicated that participants' level of emotional intelligence was influenced by job level. Executive management participants had greater levels of emotional intelligence when compared to other job levels. This implied that executive managers were more aware of emotions, could observe and comprehend emotional information, and felt more in control of their emotions. This could be attributed to the fact that these participants had more insight into emotional data since they had possibly developed their emotional skills during their years at various educational institutions.

The findings also revealed that executive management participants had a stronger sense of hardiness when compared to the other job level groups. This implied that executive managers might be more emotionally connected to their organisations rather than to withdraw from their work, associates and friend. Executive managers might be more inclined to be resilient and might feel more in control when they were exposed to stressors in the workplace. These findings could suggest that executive managers had a higher tendency to cope during stressful events. Their strong sense of hardiness might act as a buffer and protected them during the incidence of workplace bullying. Executive managers might have learned how to cope during strenuous life events.

The results indicated that senior management participants experienced higher levels of work engagement when compared to the other job level groups. This implied that senior managers felt more eager, passionate and motivated about their jobs, possessed a greater focus and were more dedicated to complete their work assignments. Previous research indicated that senior management were more inclined to possess higher levels of work engagement (Robinson, 2007).

The findings also indicated that participants within the supervisor group experienced higher levels of psychosocial flourishing when compared to other job level groups. This implies that supervisor participants felt more positive and satisfied with their lives, were more involved in and committed to reach their personal goals and believed in their ability to contribute to society.

Furthermore, participants within the executive management job level group experienced lower levels of turnover intentions when compared to the other job level groups. This suggest that executive managers have fewer thoughts on leaving their employing organisations. This could be attributed to the fact that most of them have settled in their careers and are therefore less inclined to leave their employers.

These findings could suggest that organisations should take job level into account when they developed psychological wellbeing strategies to assist employees in enhancing their levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Increased levels of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) could lower perceptions of bullying behaviour and decrease their turnover intentions. Furthermore, organisations should take job level into consideration during the establishment of talent retention strategies to lower turnover intention. Overall, job level predicted participants' level of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intentions.

6.4.6.2   Main findings

In terms of the multiple regression analysis, age, gender, race and job level were found to influence the relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. Individuals' age, gender, race, and job levels predicted turnover intention which could suggest that organisations should take biographical variables into consideration during their talent retention strategies. Organisations that implement effective talent retention strategies had a better likelihood to lower employees' turnover intentions.

Younger employees seemed to have stronger intentions to leave their organisations. This was congruent with previous research that indicated that older employees were more inclined to display lower turnover intentions (Du Plooy & Roodt, 2013). Moreover, gender and job level influenced participants' level of self-esteem. Similarly, research findings indicated that males tended to possess higher levels of self-esteem (Bachman et al., 2011; Coetzee, 2008). Race and job level predicted participants' level of emotional intelligence as well as their level of psychosocial flourishing. Job level also influenced participants' levels of hardiness, work engagement and their turnover intentions. However, individuals' age, gender, race and job levels did not significantly predict their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying. Tenure did not significantly influence the research variables. On the other hand, previous research suggested that tenure could influence employees' work engagement levels (Robinson, 2007; Stumpf Jr. et al., 2013).

Organisations need to tailor their approach and consider individuals' age, gender, race and job levels when they develop employee wellness strategies. This will enable employers to

assist individuals to enhance their levels of psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), which could lead to decreased turnover intentions.

6.4.7 Research aim 6: Interpretation of the results for tests of significant mean differences

Research aim 6 was to assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differed significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

6.4.7.1 Interpretation of the tests for significant mean differences

Tables 6.32 to 6.43 are of relevance to this section.

(a) Age: Differences in terms of workplace bullying

The results showed that participants within the age group 40 to 49 revealed significantly lower levels of workplace bullying than the younger participants. Younger participants appeared to perceive more incidents of bullying behaviour in the workplace. The findings could suggest that participants between the ages of 40 to 49 years observed only a few incidents of workplace bullying. This was in line with research of Djurkovic et al. (2008), which indicated that younger individuals perceived more bullying behaviour than older employees. This might be attributed to younger participants who might have a higher likelihood to possess a lower sense of psychological wellbeing and were, therefore, more inclined to perceive bullying behaviour.

(b) Age: Differences in terms of turnover intention

The findings suggested that participants within the 17 to 29 age group scored significantly higher on turnover intention. This implied that younger participants had more thoughts about leaving their employing organisations. This was congruent with the research of Kabungaidze and Mahlatshana (2013), which indicated older employees experienced lower intentions to leave.

451

There were also generational differences among participants. Participants within the Baby boomer generational group displayed significantly lower turnover intentions when compared to the other generational groups. This implied that individuals who were born between 1946 and 1964 had more thoughts on leaving their employing organisations. This was congruent with the research of Benson and Brown (2011), which indicated that employees between the age group of 49 and 67 years (Baby Boomers of 1946-1964) had lower turnover intentions compared to the younger employees.

(c)   Gender: Differences in terms of self-esteem

The results revealed that the male participants scored significantly slightly higher on self-esteem compared to female participants. This implied that the male participants had more positive thoughts about themselves, which were more rational and resilient to threats than their counterparts. The research was in line with research done by Bachman et al. (2011) and Coetzee (2008), which indicated males possessed a slightly higher sense of self-esteem than females.

(d)   Race: Differences in terms of emotional intelligence

The findings indicated significant differences between the emotional intelligence levels among participants within the white and African race groups. White participants had significantly lower levels of emotional intelligence when compared to the African participants. This implied that African participants were more in touch with their own feelings, more capable to observe and understand emotions. These findings could suggest that African employees had more emotional insight and could evaluate emotional situations more effectively.

(e)   Race: Differences in terms of psychosocial flourishing

The results suggested that white and African participants significantly differed with regard to their psychosocial flourishing levels. The white participants displayed a significantly lower level of psychosocial flourishing compared to the African participants. This implied that African participants had a higher tendency to experience positive feelings more frequently and managed to function well on a social and psychological level.

These findings could suggest that the current turbulent economy and political uncertainty affected the white participants more negatively than the African participants. African participants might have a stronger sense of psychological wellbeing that protected them during the difficult circumstances.

(f)   Race: Differences in terms of turnover intention

The findings revealed significant differences between the turnover intention levels among participants within the white and African race groups. White participants had lower turnover intentions when compared to the African participants. This implied that white participants had a lower intention to leave their employing organisations. The findings could be attributed to fewer employment opportunities for white participants due to the turbulent economy and the South African employment legislation (Affirmative Action and Employment Equity Act). The legislation was implemented in an attempt to correct unequal employment opportunities of the past for previously disadvantaged race groups. African participants might, therefore, perceive more employment opportunities, which resulted in higher turnover intentions.

(g)   Tenure: Differences in terms of turnover intention

The results revealed significant differences among participants' turnover intention levels. Participants who had less tenure had a higher tendency to experience thoughts of leaving the organisation than participants who displayed greater tenure. This suggested that participants who had worked for less than five years at their current employees displayed significantly higher turnover intentions when compared to participants who had worked for more than 15 years. On the other hand, other research studies indicated that employees who had less tenure displayed lower turnover intentions (Al-Ahmadi, 2014; Stewart et al. 2011).

(h)   Job level: Differences in terms of self-esteem

The findings indicated significant differences the job level groups of participants. Trainee/intern job level participants had a higher tendency to experience lower self-esteem levels than the higher job level groups (supervisor, senior management and executive management). In addition, participants at operational job level had a lower sense of self-esteem than the senior management and executive management job level groups. This implied that participants working at supervisor, senior management and executive management level had stronger levels of self-esteem when compared to the lower job levels.

Thus, management had a higher likelihood to possess more positive self-evaluations and were more open to accept themselves.

(i)   Job level: Differences in terms of hardiness

The findings indicated significant differences between the hardiness levels of participants when compared to job level groups. Executive management participants had significantly higher levels of hardiness when compared to the trainee/intern and operational job level groups. In addition, participants working at operational level had significantly lower levels of hardiness than participants working at supervisor and executive management job levels. This implied that participants working in higher job levels had a higher tendency to experience a stronger sense of hardiness while participants working at lower job levels appeared to have a lower sense of hardiness. The findings could suggest that individuals working at management job levels were more inclined to feel committed to their organisations and in control of their own lives.

(j)   Job level: Differences in terms of work engagement

The findings revealed significant differences between participants within the operational level and senior management job level groups with regard to their work engagement levels. Participants working at operational job level had significantly lower levels of work engagement than the senior management participants. This implied that individuals working in lower job levels tended to have a lower sense of work engagement. The research was in line with Robinson (2007), which indicated that employees working at management job levels usually possessed stronger work engagement levels. The findings could suggest that participants working in lower job levels had a higher tendency to feel less enthusiastic and motivated toward their jobs, and less involved in their work.

6.4.7.2   Main findings

In terms of the tests for significant mean differences, younger participants perceived more bullying behaviour in the workplace and had higher intentions to leave. The results could suggest that participants experienced higher turnover intentions due to their increased observations of workplace bullying. With regard to gender, male participants seemed to possess a higher sense of self-esteem than their counterparts. In terms of race, African participants appeared to have higher levels of emotional intelligence, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intentions than the white participants. The tenure results revealed that

participants working for less than five years at their current employer had higher turnover intentions. In terms of job level, participants in leadership roles seemed more inclined to possess a higher sense of self-esteem, hardiness and work engagement than participants working on lower job levels. The results could suggest that participants in leadership roles had the opportunity to develop and enhance their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, hardiness and work engagement) during their management training.

Overall, it appeared from the findings that biographical differences needed more consideration during the development of wellness strategies and talent retention interventions. This would assist organisations to enhance employees psychological wellbeing and improve turnover intention outcomes.

6.4.8 Synthesis: Empirically manifested psychological wellbeing profile

The central hypothesis of this study was that the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing) would significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation, when controlling for bullying, age, gender, race, tenure and job level. The study further assumed that the overall relationship between the constructs (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and turnover intention) would constitute a psychological profile consisting of cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that might potentially inform employee wellness and retention practices. Furthermore, individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) would differ significantly regarding self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing, workplace bullying and intention to leave the organisation.

The findings revealed that employees' sense of work engagement and psychosocial flourishing mediated the relationship between their perceptions of workplace bullying and their intentions to leave the organisations. The results further indicated that the relationship between employees work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) mediated the relationship between their experiences of workplace bullying (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying and person-related bullying) and their turnover intentions, which constituted the psychological wellbeing profile.

An overview is provided in Figure 6.6 of the empirically manifested psychological wellbeing profile, which can be adopted during employee wellness and talent retention development strategies.
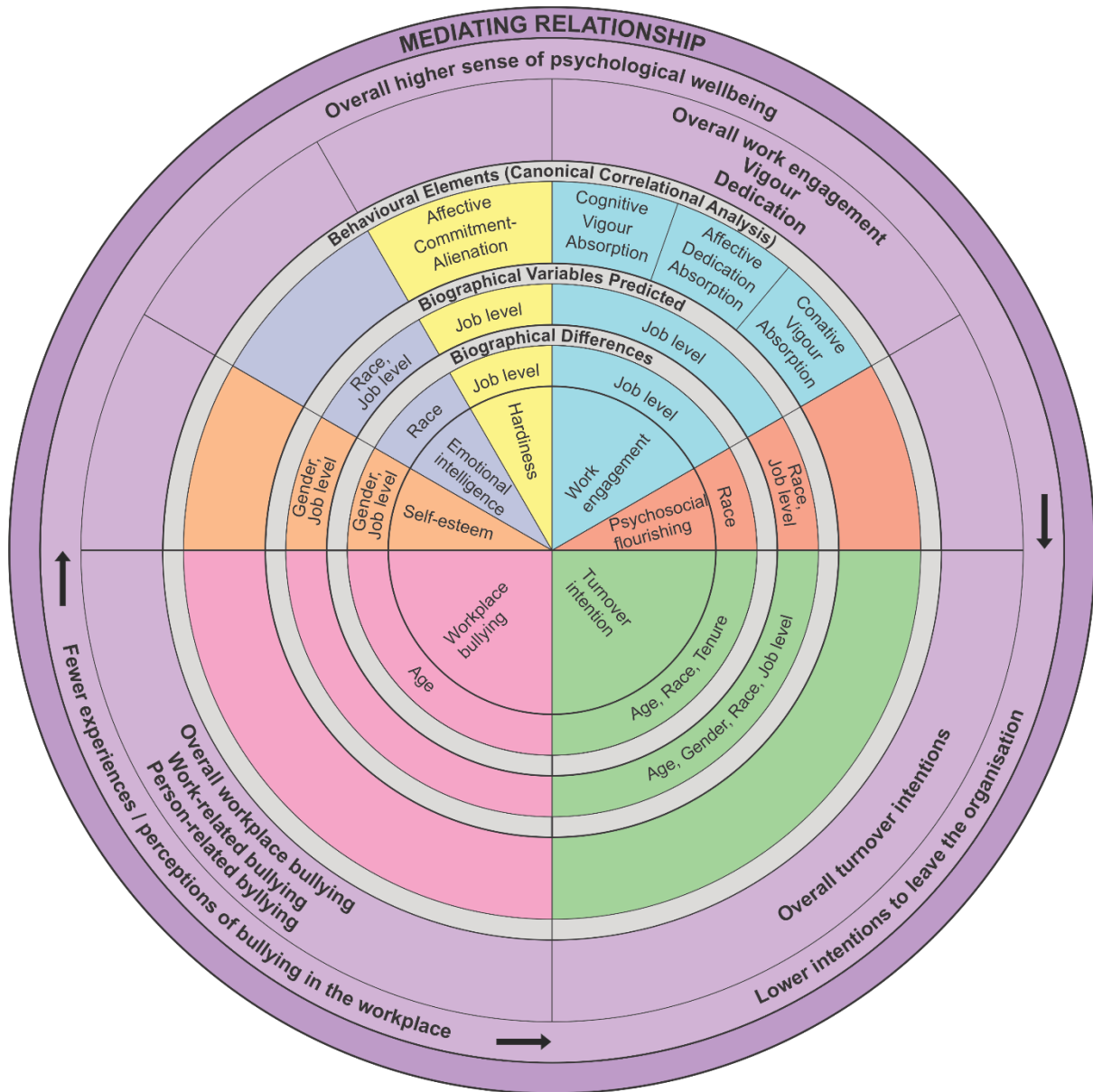
Figure 6.6: Empirically manifested psychological wellbeing profile

The canonical correlational analysis revealed that work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) contributed the most to explaining a decreased sense of psychological wellbeing. In order to enhance employees sense of psychological wellbeing, human resource practitioners and organisational psychologists should consider developing the cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements to promote employee wellness and lower the effects of turnover intention.

456

At a *cognitive level*, vigour and absorption seem essential to enhance employees' sense of psychological wellbeing. Research indicates that employees who are vigorously engaged have mental resiliency to perform well at work and are more involved in their work. (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Highly engaged individuals also seem to have a higher likelihood of experiencing physical and mental wellbeing (Hansen et al., 2014). The findings indicate that participants with a strong sense of work engagement are more inclined to experience lower turnover intentions. The following interventions should assist organisations in promoting employees' work engagement on the cognitive behavioural dimension, which, in turn, could lower employees' intentions to leave.

Organisations need to provide the necessary external resources such as job, organisational and team level resources, as these will enable individuals to perform well in their work. Research indicates that adequate resources are associated with increased work engagement (Albrecht, 2012). Appropriate training and development workshops will allow employees to obtain the necessary knowledge to complete work assignments more effectively. Employees will feel more mentally capable to perform well in their work and this may assist them to work more vigorously, which, in turn, will assist them to remain within the task timeframes. Research suggests that resources may protect individuals against constraints, preserve employee resources and sustain work engagement (Sonnentag et al., 2012). Similarly, employees who have faith in their own capabilities seem to have a higher sense of work engagement.

Human resource professionals should provide clear responsibilities and expectations relevant to the specific occupation. This will allow individuals to know what is required from them, which in turn, should provide them with more enthusiasm and mental focus. Organisations should provide employees with opportunities to have the freedom to develop themselves further which could enhance positive feelings and further promote higher levels vigour and absorption. Research indicates that employees who have faith in their own competencies, view a fit with their occupations and observe similar values to those of their employers are more likely to experience increased absorption in their work (Mendes & Stander, 2011).

At an *affective level*, dedication, absorption and commitment-alienation appear to be core contributing factors to enhance employees' sense of psychological wellbeing. Internal resources such as happiness and optimism appear to influence employees work engagement, and consequently their work performance (Albrecht, 2012). On the other hand, exposure to stress, such as workplace bullying, may cause employees to feel emotionally

exhausted, which, in turn, can increase turnover intentions. Organisations should provide individuals with stress management workshops or individual counselling to improve their coping strategies to cope better with daily stressors at work. This may allow individuals to focus more on their work and have feelings of pride of their work since they will be more capable to manage stressors effectively. Moreover, organisations should train managers to be available to employees for support when needed. Employees are more inclined to be involved and absorbed in their work when they perceive management are compassionate and helpful (Shuck et al., 2011b).

Organisations should offer employees significant or important work. This will enhance employees' sense of meaning and purpose in their work, which will promote feelings of pride and involvement. Thus, significant work will increase employees' work engagement levels (dedication and absorption). On the other hand, job insecurity may reduce feelings of meaning in one's work. Management should clearly communicate job security to employees, which may likely promote feelings of control and commitment. A safe work environment (physically and psychologically) should be enforced and will possibly increase employee engagement (absorption and dedication) (May et al., 2004).

As mentioned previously, organisations should provide the necessary resources to employees to assist them to meet the required job demands. Since insufficient resources can cause employees to experience decreased work engagement, feelings of withdrawal (less involved or leaving the organisation) (Demerouti et al., 2001) or isolation, rather than feeling emotionally committed to the organisation. Interpersonal communication and conflict resolution training should be provided to individuals in leadership roles. This will contribute to a constructive work environment where employees can flourish and they will be more likely to feel motivated and involved in their work. Workplace bullying such as abusive supervision can lower job satisfaction and cause mental strain (Bowling & Michel, 2011; Rodwell et al., 2014). Organisations should provide management with training to identify and effectively manage bullying behaviour in the workplace.

At a *conative level*, vigour and dedication seemed essential to enhance employees' sense of psychological wellbeing. Organisations should provide employees with opportunities to provide some input during decision making. Research indicate that employees who feel that they have a significant impact on their workplace are more likely to feel eager, motivated and excited toward their work (Shuck et al., 2011a). Human resource professionals should provide employees with role clarity, some degree of authority and opportunities for career development. This will most likely promote positive feelings and enhance employees level of

motivation, commitment and involvement in their work.

Organisations should regularly provide employees with new challenges, this will foster work engagement and lower turnover intention (Langelaan et al., 2006). Challenging work will most likely enhance feelings of enthusiasm, excitement and dedication toward employees work. Furthermore, a fair and supportive work culture should be established. Employees work roles should be distinctly aligned with the organisation's vision and mission. Individuals should be given freedom (autonomy) in their work and opportunities for personal and career development. These interventions will promote an eagerness to work, feelings of motivation and engagement in one's work and commitment toward the organisation (Clark, 2012).

Reasonable deadlines and manageable workloads should be provided. Individuals who are continuously exposed to work stress will experience emotional exhaustion and this could lower employees' internal energy (vigour) and work may seem insignificant. This could in turn, cause employees to feel less dedicated to their work. The performance management process should be fair and equitable to all employees. This will most likely enhance employees' engagement and performance (Saks & Gruman, 2011).

Finally, the work environment should enable employees to apply their knowledge and competence in such a manner to achieve job goals with minimal supervision. Negative work conditions can lower employees' energy levels and internal drive (Demerouti et al., 2001).

In terms of biographical variables, the findings revealed that age, gender, race and job level should be considered to promote employee wellness and decrease turnover intentions.

The results indicate that *age* significantly influenced turnover intention. Younger employees experience higher intentions to leave. Organisations can offer employee reward programmes, performance-based bonuses and career development programmes focused on lowering turnover intentions of younger individuals. This may cause employees to feel more valued and that their efforts are appreciated. It is likely that their engagement levels will increase, which, in turn, can lower their turnover intentions. Employers need to consider age in the development of talent retention interventions.

The findings revealed that *gender* significantly predicted self-esteem. Males experienced a higher sense of self-esteem. Organisations should ensure that the personal development plans of females were congruent with their desire to develop lower levels of self-esteem. Workshops on self-esteem could be offered, and coaching programmes for females could be

implemented. Employers could provide individuals with the services of organisational psychologists for individual counselling sessions in order to enhance weaker levels of self-esteem. Organisations needed to consider gender in the development and establishment of employee wellness strategies.

The findings revealed that *race* predicted employees' levels of emotional intelligence, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intentions. White employees experienced a lower sense of emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing. Employers should assess individuals' emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing, and provide feedback to identify areas of development. Feedback on the level of emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing should be aligned with employees' career development plans. Relevant development strategies should be proposed for the identified areas of employees that need improvement. Organisations should provide white employees with workshops, counselling and coaching sessions to improve their emotional intelligence skills and enhance their psychosocial flourishing. Employers could provide employees with the assistance of organisational psychologists to assist them with self-reflection techniques upon receiving feedback to facilitate the discovery and identification of their authentic self.

Individuals can enhance their psychosocial flourishing by engaging more in social activities and to put in some effort to contribute to the wellness of others. Focusing on establishing supportive and rewarding social relationships with others. Individuals should participate more often in activities that is of interest and meaningful to them. Identify personal goals of interest and be more involved and committed in reaching them. These activities will likely promote positive feelings such as optimism and foster a belief of competence in one's own capability.

African employees had higher intentions to leave their employers. Open and frequent communication should be provided to employees. Organisational practices should be fair and equitable to all employees. This is likely to increase feelings of trust toward the organisation and can consequently promote lower turnover intentions. Career mobility opportunities within the organisation need to be provided to African employees. These individuals will most likely perceive the organisation as a supportive entity that is willing to invest in them and could lower their turnover intentions. Organisations should create work environments that makes provision for childcare facilities. Many employees need to travel far to reach their work locations, or loose many hours per month due to traffic while travelling to and from work. This will allow employees with more time for recreational activities or personal development. Employers should take race into account during the development and establishment of employee wellness and talent retention interventions.

The results suggested that employees with lower *tenure* (less than 5 years) were more likely to possess stronger turnover intentions. Although tenure was not found to be a significant predictor of the relationship between employees' level of psychological wellbeing, their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.

The results indicated that *job level* predicted employees sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing and their turnover intentions. Job level appeared to be the most significant predictor of employees psychological wellbeing. The findings indicated that employees working in leadership roles were more inclined to experience stronger levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness. Lower level employees appear more inclined to display decreased levels of work engagement. Organisations should assess employees working in lower job levels to determine their areas for development in the wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing). Interventions should be based on the identified areas for improvement. Organisations can provide workshops, counselling and coaching sessions to employees working in lower level jobs which will enhance their self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Consequently, these interventions will promote and foster positive feelings and confidence among employees. They will be likely to view the organisation as supportive and compassionate about their psychological wellbeing, which in turn, could lower their intentions to leave the organisation.

In terms of self-esteem, managers should focus more on employees' strengths rather than their weaknesses during performance management feedback. Organisations should give individuals specific ways to improve their work performance. Realistic, measurable and attainable work tasks should be provided with reasonable deadlines. Employees who view that they perform well and reach the organisational requirements may be more likely to feel confident and good about themselves. Rewards should be given when organisational goals are reached. This will likely promote feelings of achievement and confidence in their skills and capabilities. In terms of emotional intelligence, training should be focussed on emotional regulations.

In terms of emotional intelligence, the skill to regulate one's feelings is significant for psychological wellbeing, especially when exposed to stressors (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012), such as workplace bullying. Organisation should empower lower level employees with skills to control their own emotions. Emotional regulation is likely to enhance employees psychological wellbeing. Lower level employees should also focus on becoming aware of

their own and other people's emotions. Organisations should provide training sessions, coaching and counselling to teach employees how to observe, interpret and to adjust their behaviour accordingly.

In terms of hardiness, organisations should educate lower level employees about effective coping strategies which can be applied during strenuous situations. Employees should learn self-regulation techniques and ways to improve their attitudes toward life. Hardiness training sessions should be offered with practical examples that can be practised. Employees should be evaluated on their training progress and the feedback should be applied to adjust behaviour where necessary.

In terms of work engagement, management should receive training in order to enhance their interpersonal and conflict resolution skills. Employees who view management as supportive and caring will be more likely to perform well in their work, feel valued and display engagement in their work. In addition, employee engagement will be enhanced by establishing a fair and equitable organisational culture; and by providing distinctive job roles, autonomy, career development sessions.

In terms of psychosocial flourishing, organisations can offer lower level employees with personal development sessions which can to promote a positive attitude and enhance positive thoughts. A safe work environment should be provided. Also, a work culture should be enforced that promotes autonomy, meaningful work, reasonable workloads and clear work content. Management should improve their communication skills to encourage open and effective communication to employees on all job levels. Employees should receive counselling sessions to enhance their self-acceptance. These strategies are likely to enhance positive emotions and provide a sense of psychological wellbeing.

The findings revealed that employees working at lower job levels (operational and trainees/interns) experienced higher intentions to leave the organisations when compared to higher job levels. Open and frequent communication to employees on all job levels could foster increased work engagement and lower turnover intentions. Organisations should provide training and development opportunities for employees on higher job levels to improve their skills and abilities that are relevant for work performance. Employees will be more likely to feel competent about their own capability to perform well which could promote a more optimistic attitude and lower turnover intentions. Opportunities for internal promotion should be offered to create a perception among employees that the organisation values their efforts and support their career advancement. Organisations should offer executive managers

flexible working hours. Flexible working hours will also assist employees to balance their work and family life more effectively. Employees are likely to feel more optimistic, dedicated and committed toward their organisations, which, in turn could lower turnover intentions. Organisations should take job level into account during the development and establishment of employee wellness and talent retention strategies.

An overview of the main biographical characteristics that should be taken into consideration to promote employee wellness and reduce talent retention is provided in Figure 6.7.
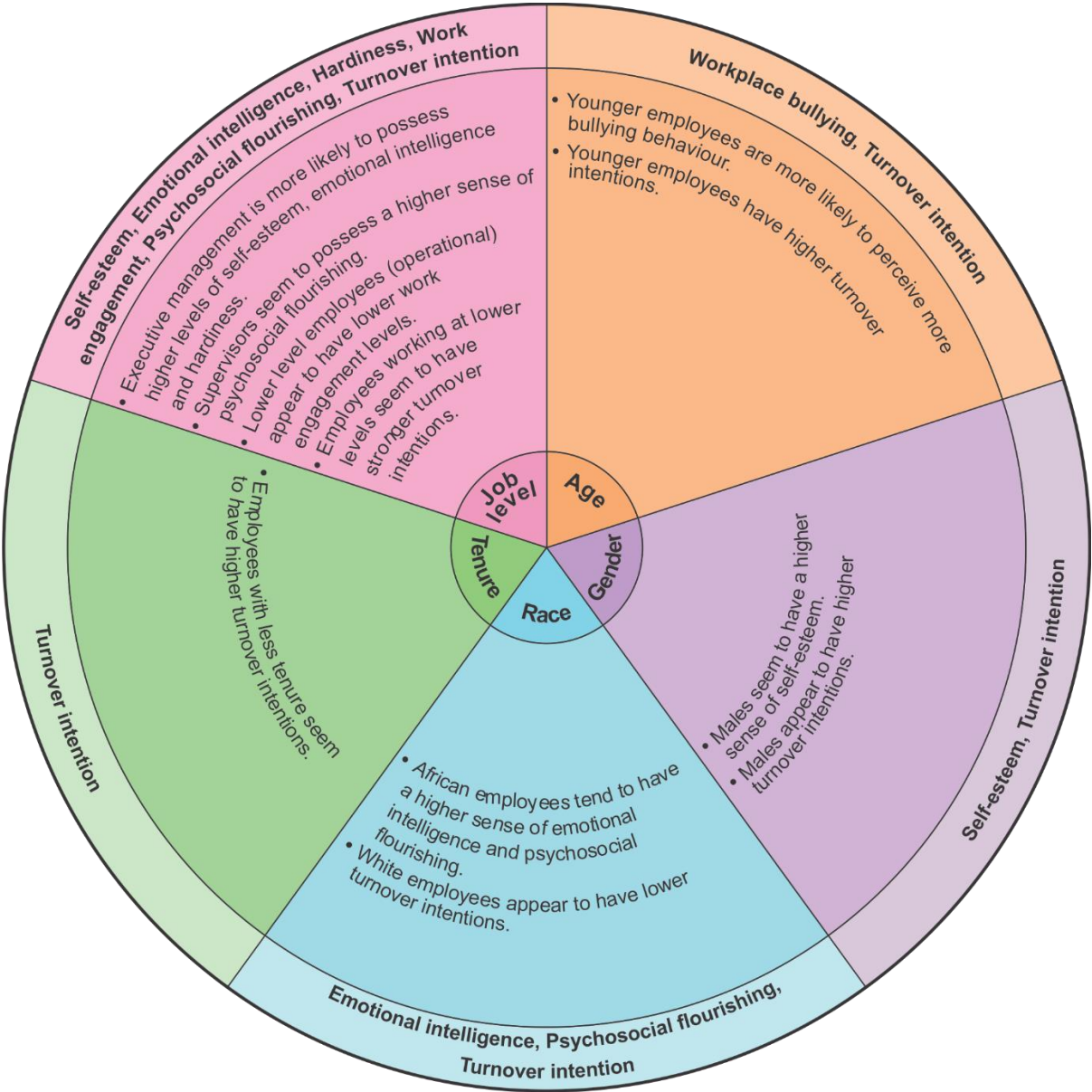
Figure 6.7: Biographical characteristics profile

In summary, the descriptive statistics revealed that the participants had positive self-thoughts, seemed capable to control their own emotions, displayed a strong sense of psychosocial flourishing and appeared to perceive others emotions reasonably. The research participants did not display strong turnover intentions and perceived only a few workplace bullying behaviour.

In terms of the correlational statistics, the findings revealed significant correlations between workplace bullying, wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention, which were small to medium in practical effect size. There were also significant negative bi-variate correlations evident between job level with overall self-esteem, general self-esteem, social self-esteem, overall hardiness, commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness, overall work engagement, vigour, dedication and absorption.

In terms of the inferential statistics, the canonical correlations revealed that work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) were the strongest psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes in explaining a lower sense of psychological wellbeing and in predicting higher levels of turnover intention and perceptions of bullying, especially work-related bullying. The canonical correlation analysis results were also useful in identifying the variables that contributed the most in explaining the cognitive (vigour and absorption), affective (dedication, absorption and commitment-alienation) and conative (vigour and dedication) behavioural elements of the psychological wellbeing profile.

The mediation modelling analysis revealed model 3 as the best fit data model. The results indicated that the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) statistically significantly mediated the relationship between employees' workplace bullying experiences (overall workplace bullying, work-related and person-related bullying) and their turnover intentions.

The multiple regression analysis indicated that participants' biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) significantly predicted workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

The tests for significant mean differences indicated that research participants from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differed regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

Overall, the results revealed supportive evidence for most of the stated research hypotheses, as summarised in Table 6.35 below.

6.4.8.2   Counter-intuitive findings

The findings indicated that self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness did not mediate the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship.

6.4.9   Decisions concerning the research hypotheses

Herewith a summary of the main findings of relevance to the research hypotheses as indicated in Table 6.45.

Table 6.45

Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses

Reaearch aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
Research aim 1: To empirically assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context	H_1: There is a statistically significant positive interrelationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.	Correlation analysis	Yes
Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	H_2: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables are significantly related to workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.	Canonical correlation	Yes

Reaearch aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.	H_3: The significant intercorrelations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.	Thematic analysis based on canonical correlation results and literature review	Yes
Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).	H_4: The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).	Path analysis (mediation modelling)	Yes partially

Reaearch aim	Research hypothesis	Statistical procedures	Supportive evidence provided
Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.	H_5: Age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.	Multiple regression analysis	Yes
Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).	H_6: Individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) statistically significantly differ regarding workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).	Tests for significant mean differences	Yes

6.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided the findings of the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics to examine the nature of the empirical relationships between the psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. Findings of the literature review and the empirical research were interpreted and provided support for the research hypotheses.

The following research aims were achieved:

Research aim 1: To empirically assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.

Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables and workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether the significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

Research aim 4: To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable)

Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

Research aim 6: To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

Chapter 7 will highlight research aim 7, namely to formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals for employee wellness and talent retention practices, and to formulate suggestions for future research in the field.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, research aim 7 is discussed and highlights the recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists, human resource professionals and future research. The chapter also addresses the limitations of the literature review and empirical study. Recommendations are made for the practical application of the findings, and suggestions for future research in the field are provided.

7.1 CONCLUSIONS

This section highlights the conclusions based on the literature review and empirical research according to the research aims, as outlined in chapter 1.

7.1.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The general aim of this research was to investigate and determine whether individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing) significantly mediate the relation between their experiences of bullying and their intention to leave the organisation, when controlling for bullying, age, gender, race, tenure and job level. The research also aimed to investigate and determine the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile (constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), and whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differed significantly regarding these variables. Furthermore, the research aimed to outline the implications of an overall psychological wellbeing profile to inform employee wellness and retention practices in a diverse South African organisational context. The general aims were achieved by focusing on the specific aims of the research.

Conclusions were drawn for each of the specific aims with regard to the relational dynamics between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological wellbeing, bullying behaviour and turnover intention within the context of the 21st century world of work.

The first aim, namely to conceptualise coping behaviour and employee wellness within a bullying work environment in the 21st century talent retention context, was attained in chapter 2.

The literature indicates that employees experience numerous work stressors on a daily basis (Szeto & Dobson, 2013), which have the potential to cause them increased levels of mental distress (Sahin, 2011). Research also indicate a relation between job stress and increased levels of voluntary turnover (Gill et al., 2013). On the basis of the literature review, the following conclusions can be drawn about coping employee wellness within a bullying work environment in the 21st century talent retention context:

(a) Talent retention within the 21st century workplace

- The work environment is increasingly complex and demanding, which makes it more difficult for employers to attract talent and retain talented employees (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione, Perryer, & Pick, 2010).

- High voluntary turnover seems to be a major cause of decreased productivity and negative attitudes in the workplace (James & Mathew, 2012; Kumar & Dhamodaran, 2013).

- A new boundaryless career concept appears to exist between employers and employees where the focus of individual career paths has changed to knowledge development and employability (Becker & Haunschild, 2003; Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Employees seem to search for new work opportunities on a regular basis rather than working for one single employer (Verbruggen, 2012).

- Organisations are progressively forced to compete in a global diverse market (DeSimone & Werner, 2012).

- Baby boomer generation seems to retire, while the generation Y'ers are growing in the workplace. It seems imperative that employers take generational differences into consideration during the development of engagement and talent retention strategies (Gilbert, 2011).

- It appears to be essential for organisations to focus more on employees' psychological wellbeing, since work activities and behaviour in the workplace can cause employees physical and mental exhaustion, which can further result in mental distress and emotional burnout (Scott-Ladd et al., 2010).

- Employees appear to favour personal growth and career development opportunities by offering their efforts in return (Baruch, 2006; Clarke, 2008; Verbruggen, 2012).

(b)   Coping and employee wellness within a bullying work environment

- Interpersonal conflict in the workplace appears to be a great source of stress, which can lower employees' psychological wellbeing (Schat & Frone, 2011; Spector & Bruk-lee, 2008) and may further increase their intentions to leave (Schat & Frone, 2011).

- A coping mechanism for stressful incidents such as workplace bullying is avoidance behaviour. Employees may choose to take more leave. Alternatively, they may decide to exit the organisation in an attempt to cope with the conflict situations (Lewis et al., 2008).

- There appear to be various factors and variables that may influence individuals' turnover intentions such as organisational practices, rewards offered and the employees' perception of the organisation (Chang et al., 2013).

- Decreased psychological wellbeing seems to decrease employee performance, lower organisational productivity, increase absenteeism and turnover intention (Einarsen et al., 2003; O'Connell et al., 2007).

- Workplace bullying appears to influence employees' psychological wellbeing negatively (Nielsen et al., 2010) and consequently, increase their intentions to leave the organisation (Laschinger et al., 2012). Bullying behaviour has the potential of decreasing work quality, productivity, job satisfaction and work engagement (Sanderson et al., 2007).

- Employees with decreased levels of psychological wellbeing seem to experience more interpersonal conflict (Zapf & Einarsen, 2010) and also appear to battle coping effectively with work stressors (Price & Kompier, 2006).

- Adequate resources seem to increase the coping capabilities of individuals and let them feel more in control of their circumstances (Demerouti et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Tims et al., 2013). Resources appear to assist individuals in adjusting more effectively to various changes in the workplace (Demerouti et al., 2014).

It can be concluded that employees who are continuously exposed to work stressors can consequently experience exhaustion and mental distress (Agboola & Jeremiah, 2011), which, in turn, can influence turnover intention negatively (Malik et al., 2010). Factors such as workload, supervision and organisational benefits can contribute to lower psychological wellbeing and higher turnover intentions (Ajala, 2013). However, sufficient resources may enhance psychological wellbeing, which, in turn, can promote motivation and work performance (Demerouti et al., 2014; Schaufeli et al., 2009b; Tims et al., 2013).

Psychological resources may, therefore, act as buffers and protect employees against work stressors, such as bullying and lower turnover intention. Finally, a better comprehension of bullying behaviour may lower the physical and mental strain for employees exposed to bullying (Linton & Power, 2013).

7.1.1.2   Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature.

The second aim, namely to conceptualise the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature, was attained in chapter 3 (psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) and in chapter 4 (workplace bullying and turnover intention).

The following conclusions were drawn:

- Individuals with higher levels of self-esteem are more likely to possess a positive social identity and may feel more secure during interpersonal situations (Battle, 1992; Hewitt, 2002). These individuals are also more inclined to possess positive feelings about their own worth (Brown & Marshall, 2006; Garber & Flynn, 2001; Rosenberg et al., 1995). Employees who believe that they have the capability to control and balance social difficulties and their personal needs (Battle, 1992; Hewitt, 2002) may feel that they can cope more effectively with work stressors (Battle, 1992; Briggs, 1975; Brown, 1993; Garber & Flynn, 2001; Maslow 1970), such as workplace bullying.
- Employees who possess high emotional intelligence tend to appraise and express their feelings more accurately, understand other individuals' feelings better and seem more capable of influencing others. High emotionally intelligent individuals appear more capable of empathy and relate better to other people's feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). These individuals seem able to adjust their thoughts and actions to fit the relevant situation when needed (Ivcevic et al., 2007; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Furthermore, emotionally intelligent individuals may be more inclined to cope with work stressors more effectively (Baron, 1997; Martinez, 1997; O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011; Van Dusseldorp et al., 2011), such as workplace bullying.

- Hardy individuals seem to have the necessary internal strength and drive to transform stressful situations into benefits (Maddi, 2002; 2004). High hardiness employees appear to have a higher likelihood to endure and resolve stressors and view stressful events as challenges rather than disastrous obstacles. These individuals tend to view stressors as solvable instead of things that are impossible to handle. They foster a belief that it is meaningful to participate in the situation instead of avoiding it (Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; Maddi, 2004).

- Highly engaged individuals seem more inclined to display less counterproductive behaviour and perform well (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Shuck et al., 2011a). Employees who are highly engaged in their work are more likely to display physical and mental exertion, and feel emotionally connected to their jobs (Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010). These individuals experience increased levels of energy, have an internal drive and considerable focus in their work to persevere even during stressful circumstances (Bakker et al., 2005; González-Romá et al., 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), such as workplace bullying.

- Highly psychosocial flourishing individuals appear to accept themselves more easily, have purpose and meaning in their lives, establish significant interpersonal relationships, and feel in control of their environment and personal advancement (Ryff, 1989b; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). These individuals tend to experience increased levels of emotional wellbeing (hedonic) and are also more capable of functioning well in all areas of life (eudaimonic) (Huppert & So, 2013; Keyes, 2002). Employees who flourish may be more inclined to cope better with work stressors (Fredrickson, 2001, 2004; Fredrickson & Losada, 2005), such as workplace bullying.

- Employees who view themselves as targets of frequent and relentless acts of bullying behaviour from one or various offenders feel powerless and incapable of protecting themselves against the bullying behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2011). The working conditions become intolerable and strain victims in such a manner that they feel the only available option is to exit the organisation. The offender will only choose another target and therefore, the abusive cycle will start all over again (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003). Targets perceive acts of bullying as unwarranted and unfair (Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008), negatively influencing employees' work performance. The bullying behaviour is either directed at targets' work performance, their person and/or physical space (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001; Einarsen et al., 2003; Einarsen et al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). Work stress, interpersonal conflict and aggressive personality types are likely to act as contributing factors to influence bullying behaviour in the workplace. Personalities of victims may have an impact on their perceptions/experiences of the bullying incidents and may affect their reactions

(Einarsen et al., 2003).

- Individuals who possess increased behavioural intents to leave their current employers (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2008) and have direct objectives to terminate employment seem more likely to display higher turnover intentions. Employees who are intrinsically highly motivated may be more inclined to display lower turnover intentions (Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2010; Kuvaas, 2006). Research indicates that individuals who perceive work as stressful are more likely to display increased levels of turnover intentions (Paillé, 2011).

It can be concluded that the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) may be regarded as personal strengths (internal resources) that may empower individuals to cope more effectively during stressful work situations (Mendes & Stander, 2011), such as workplace bullying. Increased psychological wellbeing may act as a coping resource and consequently lower employees' intentions to leave (Karlowicz & Ternus, 2007; Mendes & Stander, 2011).

7.1.1.3   *Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and to explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.*

The third aim, namely to conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and to clarify this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model was attained in chapter 4.

The literature revealed theoretical relationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention constructs.

Employees who possess a high level of self-esteem appear more likely to have proactive coping strategies (Marock, 2008; Potgieter, 2012). These individuals may therefore be more inclined to cope with work stressors effectively and consequently experience increased mental health (Dolan, 2007; Sowislo & Orth, 2013). Self-esteem may act as a protective

476

shield against stressors (Crocker & Park, 2004), such as workplace bullying. There seems to be a relationship between self-esteem and workplace bullying.

The capability to regulate emotions may allow employees to cope more effectively with stressors (O'Boyle Jr. et al., 2011). Emotional regulation is related to increased mental health (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012) and may act as a buffer to protect employees against work stressors (Ciarrochi et. al., 2002), such as workplace bullying. Emotional intelligence seems to be related to stressors such as workplace bullying.

High hardiness appears to be a personal resource and protect employees during stressful events, particularly in the work context (Kardum et al., 2012). Hardy employees seem to be more inclined to approach difficulties enthusiastically (Maddi, 1990). These individuals appear more capable of managing stressors, since they perceive problems as less frightening and feel that they can manage challenges successfully (Delahaij et al., 2010). Hardy individuals are more likely to experience increased mental health (Hanten et al., 2013; Maddi, 2008). Hardiness appears to be related to stressors such as workplace bullying.

Highly engaged employees appear to have a greater capability to adjust to change, and seem more eager to encounter challenging situations (Langelaan et al., 2006). These individuals seem to be more likely to apply coping strategies effectively during strenuous circumstances (Rothmann et al., 2011), such as workplace bullying. Research indicates that work engagement can decrease the effects of stressors, and subsequently protect employees' physical and psychological wellbeing (Hansen et al., 2014). In addition, employees who have a stronger sense of work engagement are more inclined to display lower levels of turnover intentions (Karlowicz & Ternus, 2007; Galletta et al., 2011; Mendes & Stander, 2011). Work engagement appears to have a relationship with stressors, such as workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Employees who flourish psychosocially appear to be more inclined to experience positive feelings and are more capable of functioning effectively at work (Crum & Salovey, 2013). Research indicates that psychosocial flourishing may act as a shield and protect individuals against stressors (Vazi et al., 2013), such as workplace bullying. Psychosocial flourishing appears to have a relationship with stressors such as workplace bullying.

Employees who are exposed to acts of bullying may choose to either leave (Van Heugton, 2012) or stay at their employing organisations, even though they are dissatisfied with the work circumstances (Hauge et al., 2010). Research indicates that employees who are

subjected to person-related bullying such as social exclusion, are more inclined to display increased levels of turnover intentions as opposed to employees who perceive management as supportive (Renn et al., 2013). Research indicates that increased psychological wellbeing may also lower turnover intention (Amin & Akbar, 2013). There seems to be a relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention, as well as between psychological wellbeing and turnover intention. However, there appears to be a paucity of research on self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing as coping resources in relation to workplace bulling and turnover intention.

7.1.1.4 *Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing); their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, and their turnover intentions.*

The fourth aim, namely to conceptualise the influence of individuals' biographical characteristics on the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, and their turnover intentions was attained in chapter 3 (psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) and in chapter 4 (workplace bullying and turnover intention).

The following conclusions were drawn:

- The development of self-esteem seems to be influenced by gender (Zeigler-Hill & Wallace, 2012), race (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010) and socio-economic factors. More specifically, higher education levels, income and job levels are related to increased levels of self-esteem, while white employees seem to have a lower sense of self-esteem (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Orth et al., 2010) although research with regard to the different generations and self-esteem appeared inconclusive (Sowislo & Orth, 2013).
- The development of emotional intelligence appears to be influenced by age (Charles & Luong, 2013; Charles et al., 2009), gender (Bennie & Huang, 2010), race (Van Rooy et al., 2005), childhood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), socio-cultural factors (Gross et al., 2006; Koydemir et al., 2013) and training (Nelis et al., 2011). Older individuals appear more likely to have a stronger sense of emotional intelligence (Charles & Luong, 2013; Charles et al., 2009). Black individuals seem to have a lower sense of

emotional intelligence (Van Rooy et al., 2005). Children's emotional intelligence development seem to be affected by their parents behaviour during their childhood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Different cultures have diverse manners in which they deal with emotions (Gross et al., 2006; Koydemir et al., 2013). Employees have the potential to develop their sense of emotional intelligence, which, in turn, can promote their level of psychological wellbeing and overall satisfaction (Nelis et al., 2011).

- Hardiness development appears to be influenced by individuals' age (Coetzee, 2008; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010), gender (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009; Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010), race (Maddi & Harvey, 2006) and leadership roles (Bartone, 2012).

- Employees development of work engagement appears to be influenced by age (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Goštautaitė & Bučiūnienė, 2015; Reio Jr. & Sanders-Reio, 2011; Robinson, 2007), gender (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Cifre et al., 2011), race (Volpone et al., 2012), tenure (Stumpf Jr. et al., 2013), job level (Robinson, 2007), work environment (Saks & Gruman, 2011) and leadership (Masibigiri & Nienaber, 2011). Although research with relation to work engagement and age seems inconclusive (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Goštautaitė & Bučiūnienė, 2015; Reio Jr. & Sanders-Reio, 2011; Robinson, 2007). Research with regard to gender and work engagement appears inconsistent (Coetzee & De Villiers, 2010; Cifre, et al., 2011). Employees with less tenure are more inclined to experience higher levels of work engagement (Stumpf Jr. et al., 2013). Also, employees who work in leadership roles are more likely to experience a stronger sense of work engagement (Robinson, 2007).

- The development of psychosocial flourishing seems to be influenced by gender (Ferreira & Coetzee, 2010; Kauppinen, 2010), age (Westerhof & Keyes, 2010), environmental factors (Ng et al., 2009), workplace conditions (Meier et al., 2014; Rethinam & Ismail, 2008), organisational identification (Avanzi et al., 2012) and workaholism (Avanzi et al., 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2009a). Employees working in positive work environments are more likely to experience a strong sense of psychosocial flourishing (Meier et al., 2014; Rethinam & Ismail, 2008). On the other hand, individuals who have a need to work excessively (workaholism) are more inclined to experience stress, which can subsequently lower their psychosocial flourishing levels (Avanzi et al., 2012; Schaufeli et al., 2009a).

- Various factors appear to influence the occurrence and degree of workplace bullying such as biological factors (Nami & Nami, 2011), early life experiences (Nami & Nami, 2011; Smith et al., 2003), early development (Tehrani, 2012), personality (Nami & Nami, 2011; Tehrani, 2012), organisational factors (Nami & Nami, 2012; Oade, 2009),

age (Djurkovic et al., 2008), gender (Finne et al., 2011; Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner et al., 2002), culture and climate (Van de Vliert et al., 2013) and mental distress (Finne et al., 2011).

- Employees' turnover intentions seem to be influenced by age (Kabungaidze & Mahlatshana, 2013), gender (Groeneveld, 2011), tenure (Al-Ahmadi, 2014; Stewart et al. 2011), level of education (Al-Ahmadi, 2014; Borkowski, Amann, Song, & Weiss, 2007; Stewart et al., 2011), work/family influence (Stewart et al., 2011) and the work environment (Takase et al., 2009).

Individuals appear to differ in the manner in which they handle stressful life circumstances as a result of the mentioned variables that seem to influence individuals' development of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. In addition, various variables appear to influence the occurrence and degree of bullying in organisations. Employees' turnover intentions may also differ with regard to the above mentioned variables that may influence their career decisions. Organisational psychologists and human resource practitioners should, therefore, take these variables into consideration during the development and establishment of employee wellness and talent retention strategies.

7.1.1.5   Research aim 5: To propose a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile, based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between constructs for the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The fifth aim, namely to propose a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, was attained in chapter 4 (workplace bullying and turnover intention).

The following conclusions were drawn:

- Individuals with more resources are less vulnerable to resource loss and more likely to attain resources. On the other hand, individuals with fewer resources are more vulnerable and less likely to attain additional resources (Hobfoll, 2011).

- Individuals who exhibit personal resources seem to feel in control and are more inclined to cope effectively with strenuous circumstances (Hobfoll et al., 2003), such as workplace bullying. Personal resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) appear to shield individuals' psychological wellbeing from negative effects caused by stressful situations (Hobfoll, 2002; Wells et al., 1999).

- Coping strategies often utilised by employees' entail avoiding the bully or seeking alternative employment opportunities in order to escape the bullying situation (Aquino & Thau, 2009).

- Employees who are being bullied experience intense symptoms of mental distress (Finne et al., 2011) such as anxiety, fear, poor focus and a negative attitude toward the organisation (Ford, 2013).

- Employees need various mental and behavioural competencies to cope more effectively with life stressors and difficult situations (Aquino & Thau, 2009), such as workplace bullying.

- Research indicates that employees who perceive themselves having the necessary physical, emotional and psychological resources essential for work performance are more inclined to display lower intentions to leave (Shack et al., 2011).

- Employees who are able to cope with stressors expect that they are able to handle the challenging events, and are more likely to envisage a positive outcome based on their own efforts to manage difficult occurrences (Ursin & Erikson, 2010) such as workplace bullying.

Individuals who have a stronger sense of psychological wellbeing may cope more effectively when they experience stressors such as workplace bullying and may, therefore, have a lower tendency to leave the organisation. High levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement and psychosocial flourishing appear to act as personal resources, which may protect individuals during the exposure of bullying behaviour, which, in turn, may lower turnover intentions. Hence, it is proposed that self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing act as personal resources and protect employees psychological wellbeing against the effects of stress caused by workplace bullying.

7.1.1.6   Research aim 6: To identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile, constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

The sixth aim, namely to identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile, constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing was attained in chapter 4 (workplace bullying and turnover intention).

Based on the literature review, a theoretical psychological wellbeing profile, outlining the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes at a cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal level, was developed to inform employee wellness and talent retention practices.

The following conclusions were drawn:

At a *cognitive level*, individuals with a high sense of self-esteem are more inclined to have positive thoughts toward themselves that are rational, realistic and resilient to threat. These individuals seem more capable to accept themselves (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013). High self-esteem appears to protect employees against the detrimental effects of negative occurrences in the workplace (Brown, 2010; Zeigler-Hill, 2013), such as bullying. High emotionally intelligent individuals have a greater ability of perceiving and interpreting their own emotions and those of others. These individuals seem to regulate their emotions and apply emotional data more effectively (Bar-on, 2005), which, in turn, facilitates greater positive feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Hardy individuals appear to be more aware of their ambitions and abilities (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982). Employees who are highly engaged in their work tend to be more aware of their work roles and organisational mission (Abraham, 2012). Individuals with high levels of psychosocial flourishing are more inclined to possess ultimate mental wellbeing (Catalino & Frederickson, 2011), and they seem more capable of focusing on attaining a specific goal (Kabat-Zinn, 1990).

At an *affective level,* high self-esteem individuals seem to have more positive feelings about themselves indicates how individuals feel about themselves, which is part of the self-concept (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). Emotionally intelligent individuals are more inclined to demonstrate optimism. Research also indicates that emotional intelligence can act as a shield and protect employees against negative circumstances, and increase psychological

wellbeing (Gallagher & Vella-Brodrick, 2008; Kong et al., 2012). Hardy individuals appear to feel more in control of life happenings (Escolas et al., 2013; Kobasa, 1982; Maddi, 2007). These individuals also seem to have a strong emotional bond with their goals and skills (Kobasa, 1982). Highly engaged employees are more likely to feel emotionally tied to their jobs (Kahn, 1990, 1992). These individuals also seem to have better quality relationships and empathy toward others (Abraham, 2012). Employees who flourish psychosocially are more inclined to possess positive and optimistic feelings. These individuals tend to experience content and fulfilment with their lives and less mental distress (Catalino & Fredrickson, 2011).

At a *conative level*, it seems that individuals are driven to maintain consistency between their self-esteem and external vies of their personal worth. In the long-term, these balancing efforts can eventually deplete their emotional resources (Lapointe et al., 2011). High levels of self-esteem appear to be personal resources that may protect a person during stressful circumstances. Individuals who have a high sense of hardiness are more likely to perceive difficult situations as challenges rather than threats, and appear to have a positive attitude when dealing with challenging circumstances (Bartone et al., 2009; Kobasa, 1982). Hardiness appears to protect employees during strenuous work occurrences. Highly engaged individuals are more inclined to have a focused energy to reach personal and organisational goals (Macey & Schneider, 2008). These individuals seem more motivated to contribute to the productivity and success of their employers (Abraham, 2012). Emotionally engaged employees seem to have an internal energy that may protect them to persevere during challenging events. Individuals who flourish psychosocially seem more involved and committed to their personal projects (Diener et al., 2010; Younkins, 2011). These individuals are more likely to explore enthusiastically and to be involved in the search for general significance in life (Seligman, 2002).

At an *interpersonal level*, individuals with high self-esteem have similar perceptions with regard to their own worth in relation to others, which, in turn, can promote feeling of confidence and self-control (Stinson et al., 2010). Employees who possess high emotional intelligence are more inclined to control their emotions during social interactions (Goleman et al., 2002) and appear to handle conflict situations better (Aliasgari & Farzadnia, 2012). Individuals who flourish psychosocially are more likely to function well during interpersonal relations (Diener et al., 2010; Keyes, 2002). These individuals are more inclined to be involved in their communities and to make positive contributions in society (Diener et al., 2010).

It can be concluded that organisations should provide employees with training, workshops and counselling sessions to improve their levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Employers should provide employees with counselling sessions, which entail techniques such as self-awareness exercises that can assist them in having more constructive thoughts and positive attitudes. Emotional awareness and regulation skills will allow employees to handle conflict more effectively, and deal more efficiently with their associates and management. Organisations should establish a work environment that provides employees with distinct work roles and clear expectations. Employees should have the opportunity to have their personal resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), abilities and skills assessed. Organisations should also provide the necessary resources to allow employees to enhance their personal resources and improve those skills that are relevant to work performance. A supportive work environment should be established. Management should provide employees with the relevant support and empathy, which, in turn, can promote positive feelings that can possibly increase employees psychological wellbeing.

7.1.1.7   *Research aim 7: To outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices.*

The seventh aim, namely to outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices was achieved in chapter 3 (psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes) and chapter 4 (workplace bullying and turnover intention).

The following conclusions were drawn:

(a)   Practical implications for employee wellness on an individual level

- Employees with high self-esteem may cope more effectively (Arndt & Goldenberg, 2002) during difficult situations. They tend to have greater confidence; therefore, self-esteem may protect their psychological wellbeing during challenging events (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2013) such as workplace bullying.
- High self-esteem is associated with increased relationship fulfilment, job satisfaction, work prestige, compensation and physical wellbeing (Orth et al., 2012).

- Employees with a high sense of emotional intelligence tend to recognise emotions more accurately and experience fewer situations of interpersonal conflict (Ghiabi & Besharat, 2011).
- Effective facilitation of feelings seems to positively influence relationships at work.
- Individuals with low levels of hardiness are more inclined to utilise destructive coping strategies such as alcohol or drug abuse during strenuous circumstances (Bartone et al., 2012). These individuals are more likely to expect the worst and have a sense of helplessness (Bartone et al., 2012; Ursin & Eriksen, 2004).
- Hardy employees are more likely to apply constructive coping strategies and seem to have positive attitudes toward life (Bartone et al., 2012; Ursin & Eriksen, 2004).
- Highly engaged individuals are more likely to apply their job resources successfully and to generate resources to maintain their current engagement levels (Bakker et al., 2011).
- Employees who have a strong sense of engagement seem to experience higher levels of physical and psychological wellbeing, which, in turn, can contribute to a healthy community (Hansen et al., 2014).
- Constructive performance feedback can promote increased psychological wellbeing (Ford et al., 2011).

(b)   *Practical implications for employee wellness on an organisational level*

- A high sense of self-esteem appears to promote employee wellbeing and consequently, organisational performance (Orth et al., 2012).
- Managers who possess emotional intelligence are more likely to promote productivity and performance within the organisation. These individuals are also more inclined to have positive relationships with their subordinates (Farahani et al., 2011; Kerr et al., 2005).
- Hardiness can be applied during the employee selection process, since it is seen as a significant indicator of work performance during stressful situations (Delahaij et al., 2010).
- Individuals with a low sense of hardiness are more likely to be absent from work (Hystad et al., 2011a).
- Highly engaged employees are more likely to experience lower turnover intentions (Mendes & Stander, 2011).
- Highly engaged employees are more inclined to possess physical and mental health (Hansen et al., 2014).

- Employees who have a strong sense of psychological wellbeing are more likely to display lower intentions to leave the organisation (Amin & Akbar, 2013).
- Meaningful work appears to decrease employees' turnover intentions (Chang et al., 2013).
- Increased mental health can promote employees' work performance (Ford et al., 2011). On the other hand, low mental health can have a detrimental effect on employee performance, which, in turn, can increase absenteeism and decrease work performance (Lorenzo, 2013; Plaisier et al., 2010).

(c)   *Practical implications for workplace bullying on an individual level*

- Many individuals may be at risk of being exposed to workplace bullying (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).
- Employees who are exposed to workplace bullying seem more likely to experience lower levels of job satisfaction (Glasø et al., 2011).
- Workplace bullying is perceived by targets and witnesses as dreadful, terrifying and devastating (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008).
- Bullying behaviour can cause symptoms such as anxiety, depression, emotional exhaustion, frustration, decreased focus, lowered self-esteem and feelings of helplessness (Keashly & Neuman, 2005; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011). These symptoms may have a detrimental effect on employees' psychological wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Razzaghian & Shah, 2011) and also decrease their physical wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).
- Over time, the severity of the bullying actions may increase and cause victims to experience stress continuously, leaving them vulnerable and unable to cope with these situations. These individuals tend to have difficulty concentrating on their work (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).
- Employees who are exposed to acts of bullying are more inclined to leave work emotionally drained frequently, and have limited energy and lower levels of organisational commitment (Oade, 2009).

(d)   *Practical implications for workplace bullying on an organisational level*

- Bullying behaviour seems to occur often in the workplace (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).
- Workplace bullying appears to increase employees' intentions to leave the organisation (Glasø et al., 2011).

- Bullying behaviour appears to influence and lower employees' commitment and job satisfaction negatively (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

- Employees who are regularly exposed to bullying behaviour possess a lower sense of wellbeing (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012), which, in turn, can lower their work performance (Razzaghian & Shah, 2011).

(e)   Practical implications for talent retention on an individual level

- Employees who have high turnover intentions may negatively influence their colleagues' turnover behaviour and work performance in general (Hom & Griffeth 1991; Kim et al., 2013).

- Interpersonal conflict in the workplace that is not managed effectively by supervisors can lead to the escalation of conflict (Way et al., 2014).

- Employees who perceive their employers as supportive of their career advancements are likely to have lower turnover intentions (Shuck et al., 2014).

(f)   Practical implications for talent retention on an organisational level

- Increased voluntary turnover can decrease organisational growth and success (Ozolina-Ozola, 2014).

- Effective human resource strategies can send messages to employees of how much they are valued, and may promote positive attitudes among employees. In addition, effective human resource strategies are likely to decrease turnover intentions and reduce expenses related to high voluntary turnover (Garciá-Chas et al., 2014; Wayne et al., 1997).

- Management should support the development of employees through various training and development opportunities, and also encourage individuals to reach their career ambitions, which, in turn, are likely to lower turnover intentions (Shuck et al., 2014).

- A constructive and positive work environment can promote talent retention and organisational success (Ulrich et al., 2008).

It can be concluded that a strong sense of psychological wellbeing may buffer the effects of work stressors. Employees may, therefore, cope more effectively when they are exposed to stressful situations such as workplace bullying. Bullying behaviour in the workplace appears to have detrimental effects on employees' psychological wellbeing and seems to lower their turnover intentions. Workplace bullying seems to have the potential to negatively influence voluntary turnover and work performance. Bullying behaviour in the workplace should be managed proactively and efficiently to ensure organisational survival and success.

7.1.1.8   Research aims 1 to 7

The research aims below were achieved in chapter 2.

Research aim 1: To conceptualise psychological wellbeing, bullying behaviour and turnover intention within the context of the 21st century world of work.

The research aims below were achieved in chapters 3 and 4.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention by means of theoretical models in the literature.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the nature of the theoretical relationship between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention, and to explain this relationship in terms of an integrated theoretical model.

Research aim 4: To conceptualise how individuals' biographical characteristics influence the development of their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing); their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, and their turnover intentions.

Research aim 5: To propose a hypothetical theoretical psychological wellbeing profile, based on the theoretical relationship dynamics between constructs for the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

Research aim 6: To identify the cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements of a psychological wellbeing profile, constituting individuals' self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing.

Research aim 7: To outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices.

7.1.2   Conclusions relating to the empirical study

The empirical aim of this research was to conduct the following five essential aims:

- To empirically assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context. (H1)

- To assess the overall statistical relationship of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables. (H2)

- To empirically assess whether significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile. (H3)

- To empirically assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable). (H4)

- To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention. (H5)

- To assess empirically whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables of workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables, namely self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variable). (H6)

- To formulate recommendations for industrial and organisational psychologists and human resource professionals for employee wellness and talent retention practices, and to formulate suggestions for future research in the field.

Research aim 1: To assess the nature of the statistical interrelationships between the constructs of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions, as manifested in a sample of respondents employed in the South African context.

The empirical results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha1. The following overall conclusion was drawn in this respect:

Conclusion: Individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intentions are significantly related.

Based on the significant relationships that were revealed between the participants' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experiences/ perceptions of workplace bullying and turnover intentions, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

(a)   Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention

- Participants' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying are significantly and positively related to their turnover intentions.
- Workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) is significantly and positively related to participants' turnover intentions.
- Individuals who are exposed to bullying behaviour, which prevents them from completing their work tasks (work-related), acts of bullying directed toward their personalities in the form of excessive bantering or offensive remarks (person-related), and physical mistreatment are likely to have increased turnover intentions.
- Employees who are exposed to bullying behaviour in the workplace are more inclined to demonstrate stronger intentions to leave their employing organisations.
- Organisations that can identify and effectively manage bullying behaviour in the workplace are likely to foster lower turnover intentions.

(b)   Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) and turnover intention.

- Participants' sense of psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) is significantly related to their turnover intentions.

- Participants' self-esteem (general self-esteem and personal self-esteem) is significantly and negatively related to their turnover intentions. However, social self-esteem does not relate to turnover intention.

- Employees who have increased levels of self-esteem are more inclined to have fewer thoughts about leaving their employers. Hence, individuals who have positive self-evaluations and feel highly confident appear more likely to display lower turnover intentions.

- Participants emotional intelligence (managing own emotions) is significantly related to their turnover intentions. However, overall emotional intelligence, the perception of emotion, managing others emotions, utilisation of emotion variables do not relate to overall turnover intention.

- Highly emotionally intelligent individuals appear to interpret and utilise emotions to control situations, and are more likely to have the ability to regulate their own emotions. Consequently, these individuals appear to have decreased turnover intentions.

- Participants' hardiness (commitment-alienation and control-powerlessness) is significantly and negatively related to their turnover intentions. However, there seems to be no relation between challenge-threat and turnover intention.

- Employees who feel emotionally tied to their employers and in control of their own successes and failures are more inclined to display decreased turnover intentions. Hence, hardy individuals appear to have a positive outlook on life, are more likely to utilise effective coping strategies during stressful situations and are more inclined demonstrate fewer intentions to leave.

- Participants' work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) is significantly and negatively related to turnover intention. Employees who have high levels of work engagement are more likely to display decreased turnover intentions.

- Individuals who are involved in their work, focused, energised and eager to contribute to their employing organisations' success have a higher tendency to experience fewer thoughts of leaving.

491

- Participants' sense of psychosocial flourishing is significantly and negatively related to their turnover intentions. Individuals who have a strong sense of emotional, psychological and social wellbeing are more likely to experience pleasant feelings regularly. These individuals appear to function well and are more inclined to make a positive influence on the lives of others and consequently, have a higher likelihood to demonstrate decreased turnover intentions.

- Increased levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing seem to assist individuals to cope more effectively with work stressors such as workplace bullying. These individuals seem more likely to display lower turnover intentions.

(c) Conclusions relating to the empirical relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention.

- Participants' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying (work-related bullying and person-related bullying) are significantly and negatively related to self-esteem (general, social and personal self-esteem).

- Individuals' strong sense of self-esteem (feelings of self-value) appears to act as a buffer and protect them against the intensity of the bullying behaviour in the workplace.

- High levels of self-esteem appear to act as personal resources and allow individuals to cope more effectively with work stressors such as workplace bullying.

- There is a significant and positive relation between workplace bullying and lie items (self-esteem). Participants are more inclined to answer their workplace bullying experiences honestly and are likely to be less defensive about self-esteem items that appear less acceptable in society. However, physical intimidation and social self-esteem are not related.

- Participants' experiences of workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) are significantly and negatively related to emotional intelligence (perception of emotion, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions).

- Individuals who are more capable to observe, process and control their own and others' emotions are more likely to experience workplace bullying as less intense. Employees are more inclined to perceive fewer acts of bullying when they are highly capable to handle emotions successfully.

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492

- A strong sense of emotional intelligence is likely to protect individuals against work stressors such as workplace bullying, and increase their psychological wellbeing. However, there has been no relationship between overall workplace bullying and the utilisation of emotion variable.

- Participants' experiences of workplace bullying (person-related bullying and physical intimidation) are significantly and negatively related to their levels of hardiness (commitment-alienation, control-powerlessness, challenge-threat). Individuals who have a strong sense of hardiness are more likely to perceive fewer workplace bullying behaviour.

- Hardy individuals have more resilience for stress and are more likely to feel confident that they can positively influence their environment. Hardiness, therefore, appears to protect employees against the effects of work stressors such as workplace bullying. However, there has been no relationship between work-related bullying and challenge-threat.

- Participants' experiences of workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) are significantly and negatively related to their work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption). Individuals with a strong sense of work engagement are more inclined to perceive fewer incidents of workplace bullying.

- Highly engaged individuals are more inclined to perceive few bullying incidents associated with their work performance, psychological threats, or the invasion of their personal space.

- Highly engaged individuals are more likely to cope effectively during stressful happenings. Hence, work engagement seems to assist employees to cope better with bullying behaviour. Work engagement appears to protect employees during the occurrences of workplace bullying.

- Participants' experiences of workplace bullying (work-related bullying, person-related bullying and physical intimidation) are significantly and negatively related to their sense of psychosocial flourishing.

- Employees who possess a strong sense of psychosocial flourishing are more likely to perceive fewer incidents of workplace bullying.

- Individuals who flourish psychosocially seem to experience fewer bullying behaviours toward them personally, their work or physically.

- Employees who have a strong sense of emotional wellbeing are more inclined to enjoy most things in life and have a higher tendency to cope with stressful events such as bullying.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that individuals with a strong sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing are more inclined to cope effectively with workplace bullying. Consequently, these individuals are more likely to have fewer intentions to leave. Strategies to improve employees' psychological wellbeing-related attributes is likely to promote work performance and organisational success. In addition, the effective management of bullying behaviour in the workplace are likely to increase employees psychological wellbeing and lower their turnover intentions.

7.1.2.2   *Research aim 2: To assess the overall statistical relationship of the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables between workplace bullying and turnover intention as a composite set of latent dependent variables.*

The empirical results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha2. The following overall conclusion can be drawn in this regard:

Conclusion: Individuals psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) as a composite set of latent independent variables contributed significantly in explaining their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, and their turnover intentions as a composite set of latent dependent variables.

Based on the significant relationships that were revealed the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Participants who experience a lower sense of commitment (increased feelings of alienation), vigour, dedication and absorption are more likely to perceive bullying behaviour and have a greater tendency to display increased turnover intentions.
- On the other hand, participants who feel emotionally isolated and less connected to their employers, experience job dissatisfaction, feel emotionally drained and battle to concentrate on their work have a higher likelihood to experience bullying behaviour more severely and are more likely to demonstrate higher turnover intentions.
- Participants' experiences of workplace-related bullying, person-related bullying and their turnover intentions significantly explained their sense of psychological wellbeing.

- Individuals who experience bullying behaviour related to their work performance and are exposed to excessive badgering, possess increased thoughts on leaving the organisation will be more likely to have a decreased sense of psychological wellbeing.

- Participants' experiences of work-related bullying and their turnover intentions contributed the most in explaining the workplace bullying/turnover intention canonical relationship. Individuals who perceive more bullying behaviour related to their work tasks and productivity are more likely to display increased intentions to leave.

- However, the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, in particular self-esteem, emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing did not significantly contribute in explaining the participants' experiences of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that organisations need to focus on the management of bullying behaviour in the workplace. Management should provide support to targets and have consequences in place for offenders of bullying behaviour. A safe working environment are more likely to increase employees sense of psychological wellbeing and lower their turnover intentions.

7.1.2.3 Research aim 3: To empirically assess whether significant associations between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective, conative and interpersonal behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

The empirical results provided partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha3. The following overall conclusion can be drawn in this regard:

Conclusion: Significant associations exist between self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, which constitute clearly differentiated cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements that constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

The cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements contributed the most in explaining participants' psychological wellbeing profile. Based on the significant relationships that were revealed, the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- Organisations should develop individuals at a cognitive, affective and conative level in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, lower their perceptions of bullying behaviour and decrease their turnover intentions.
- Vigour, dedication, absorption and commitment-alienation explain participants overall sense of psychological wellbeing. Participants' who have a decreased feeling of work engagement, vigour, dedication, absorption and commitment are more likely to experience a lower sense of psychological wellbeing.
- However, the interpersonal behavioural elements did not significantly influence participants' sense of psychological wellbeing.
- Overall, individuals with a strong sense of hardiness (commitment-alienation) and work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) appear to have the necessary personal resources, which will allow them to cope more effectively with workplace bullying incidents and thereby they are more likely to experience increased psychological wellbeing.

At *a cognitive level*, participants seem more likely to be focused and determined to complete their work tasks. These individuals appear to have a better understanding of their responsibilities and the expectations related to their work roles. Organisations should assist individuals to enhance their work engagement (vigour and absorption) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

At *an affective level*, participants appear more inclined to have an emotional bond with their values, goals and competencies, and are more likely to have an emotional connection with their work. These individuals have a higher tendency to experience work satisfaction and to be involved in their work. Organisations should increase employees' hardiness (commitment-alienation) and work engagement (dedication and absorption) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

At *a conative level*, participants seem more likely to have an internal energy, which assisted them to cope more effectively during the exposure of workplace bullying. These individuals are more inclined to have a positive influence on their work performance and the organisation's overall success. Organisations should increase employees' work engagement (vigour and dedication) in order to increase their sense of psychological wellbeing, decrease perceptions of workplace bullying and reduce turnover intentions in the organisations.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that work engagement (vigour, dedication and absorption) and hardiness (commitment-alienation) are the strongest psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes in explaining a lower sense of psychological wellbeing. Organisations may benefit to implement wellness strategies on cognitive (vigour and absorption), affective (commitment, dedication and absorption) and conative (vigour and dedication) behavioural levels to promote employees' hardiness and work engagement levels, which may increase their sense of psychological wellbeing.

7.1.2.4   Research aim 4: To assess whether the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

The empirical results provided partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha4. The overall conclusion, as shown below, can be drawn:

Conclusion: Individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) statistically significantly partially mediate the relationship between workplace bullying (independent variable) and turnover intention (dependent variable).

Model 3 indicates the best fit between the theoretically hypothesised psychological wellbeing profile model and the empirical structural model.

Based on the significant relationships that were revealed the following specific conclusions were drawn:

- The psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (vigour, dedication and overall work engagement) significantly contributed to explaining the participants' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.
- Participants' sense of work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) mediates the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intention such that high experiences/perceptions of bullying are negatively related with work engagement which, in turn, is also negatively related with turnover intention. Individuals who experience/perceive more workplace bullying incidents are more likely to display decreased levels of work engagement (overall work

engagement, vigour and dedication) and more inclined to have increased turnover intentions.

- Conversely, individuals who experience/perceive fewer occurrences of workplace bullying are more likely to possess a stronger sense of work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) and have fewer thoughts about leaving their organisations.

- However, participants' sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness are not likely to influence the relationship between their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.

- The strongest mediator in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relationship was work engagement (vigour and dedication).

Individuals who experience/perceive more workplace bullying behaviour are more likely to be less engaged in their work, work less vigorously and are less dedicated to their jobs. On the other hand, individuals who experience/perceive fewer acts of workplace bullying are more likely to possess increased levels of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication, and are more inclined to display decreased levels of turnover intention. A stronger sense of work engagement, vigour and dedication (when controlling for the effect of bullying), in turn, is likely to promote lower turnover intention, thus partially reducing the negative effect of workplace bullying on turnover intention.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that organisations should focus on enhancing employees' sense of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication. Employees with higher levels of work engagement are more likely to cope effectively with the effects of workplace bullying, which will consequently lower their intentions to leave. Thus, high levels of overall work engagement, vigour and dedication could promote employee wellness and decrease voluntary turnover.

7.1.2.5   Research aim 5: To empirically assess whether age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict workplace bullying, self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and turnover intention.

The empirical results provided partial supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha5. The overall conclusion, as shown below, can be drawn:

Conclusion: Individuals' age, gender, race and job level significantly predict their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, their sense of self-esteem, emotional

intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and their turnover intentions.

- Age significantly predicted participants' turnover intentions. Younger individuals may be more likely to display higher turnover intentions.

- Gender significantly influenced participants' level of self-esteem. Males seem to be more inclined to experience higher levels of self-esteem when compared to females. Although, males scored the highest on self-esteem, it is interesting to note that the majority of participants were female.

- Males are more likely to display higher intentions to leave than females.

- Race predicted participants' level of emotional intelligence. The African employees are more likely to possess a stronger sense of emotional intelligence when compared to other race groups. African individuals seem more inclined to facilitate positive feelings, and are more likely to observe, process and manage their emotions more effectively than other race groups.

- Race predicted participants' levels of psychosocial flourishing. African employees are more likely to possess a stronger sense of psychosocial flourishing when compared to other race groups. African individuals may be more inclined to be optimistic, have more rewarding relationships, display a greater belief in their own competence and experience greater meaning in their lives. It is interesting to note that the majority of participants were within the white race group, although the African race group scored the highest on emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing.

- African employees are also more inclined to display higher turnover intentions when compared to other race groups.

- Job level predicted participants' level of self-esteem. Executive management individuals are more inclined to possess higher levels of self-esteem and are more likely to have positive thoughts about themselves when compared to the other job level groups.

- Job level predicted participants' level of emotional intelligence. Executive management participants are more likely to possess a stronger sense of emotional intelligence when compared to other job levels. Individuals at executive management level have a higher tendency to be aware of emotions, observe and comprehend emotional information, and to feel more in control of their own emotions.

- Job level predicted participants' level of hardiness. Executive management participants are more likely to have increased levels of hardiness when compared to the other job level groups. Employees at executive management level may be more

inclined to feel emotionally connected to their organisations, to display resilience and to feel more in control when they are exposed to work stressors, such as workplace bullying. Their strong sense of hardiness may act as a buffer and protect them during the incidence of workplace bullying.

- Job level predicted participants' levels of work engagement. Senior management participants are more likely to possess a strong sense of work engagement when compared to the other job level groups. Employees working at senior management level are more inclined to feel eager, passionate and motivated about their jobs. These employees are also more likely to possess a greater focus and display higher dedication to complete their work assignments.

- Job level predicted participants' levels of psychosocial flourishing. Employees work at supervisor levels have a higher likelihood to possess a stronger sense of psychosocial flourishing when compared to other job level groups. Supervisor level employees are more likely to feel positive and satisfied with their lives, are more involved in and committed to reach their personal goals and believe more in their own ability to make contributions to society.

- Job level predicted participants' levels of turnover intentions. Executive management individuals are more inclined to experience lower levels of turnover intentions when compared to other job level groups. Their strong sense of psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness) may influence their turnover intentions positively.

- However, tenure did not act as a significant predictor in the relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, workplace bullying and turnover intention. Individuals' age, gender, race and job level did not significantly predict participants' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying.

Based on the findings it can be concluded that organisations should take age, gender, race and job level into account when they develop psychological wellbeing strategies to assist employees to enhance their levels of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing. Increased levels of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), which in turn, could decrease employees' turnover intentions. Furthermore, organisations should take individuals' age, gender, race and job level into consideration during the establishment of talent retention strategies to improve voluntary turnover.

Research aim 6: To empirically assess whether individuals from various biographical groups (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly regarding the variables: workplace bullying (independent variable), the psychological wellbeing-related variables namely: self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, employee engagement, psychosocial flourishing (mediating variables) and turnover intention (dependent variables).

The empirical results provided supportive evidence for research hypothesis Ha6. The overall conclusion as shown below can be drawn:

Conclusion: Significant differences exist between age, gender, race, tenure and job level of individuals' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying, their sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing, and their turnover intentions.

- Younger participants appear more likely to perceive more incidents of bullying behaviour in the workplace.
- Younger participants seem more inclined to display higher turnover intentions.
- Participants within the Baby boomer generational group seem more likely to demonstrate lower turnover intentions when compared to the other generational groups. Individuals who were born between 1946 and 1964 have a higher tendency of contemplating leaving their employing organisations.
- Male participants are more likely to have positive thoughts about themselves and possess a stronger sense of self-esteem than females.
- White participants are more likely to possess a lower sense of emotional intelligence when compared to the African participants. African participants have a higher likelihood of experiencing positive feelings more frequently, and are more likely to function well on a social and psychological level.
- White participants are more likely to demonstrate lower intentions to leave their employing organisations.
- Participants who have worked for less than five years at their current employer are more likely to display higher turnover intentions when compared to participants who have worked for more than 15 years.
- Participants working at supervisor, senior management and executive management levels are more inclined to possess a stronger sense of self-esteem when compared to the lower job levels individuals. Management therefore, have a higher likelihood to have more positive self-evaluations and are more open to accept themselves.

- Participants working in higher job levels are more likely to possess a stronger sense of hardiness, while, participants working in lower job levels are more inclined to possess a lower sense of hardiness.

- Participants working at operational level are more likely to possess lower levels of work engagement than the senior management participants. Individuals working at lower job levels are more inclined to have lower levels of work engagement.

Based on the findings, it can be concluded that organisations should focus more on individuals' biographical differences during the development of wellness strategies and talent retention interventions. This will assist organisations in promoting employee wellness and lower voluntary turnover.

7.1.3 Conclusions relating to the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis, as highlighted in chapter 1, states that individuals' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (constituting self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) will constitute an overall psychological wellbeing profile.

It is proposed that individuals' psychological wellbeing profiles will significantly mediate the effect of their experiences of bullying on their intention to leave the organisation. More specifically, a strong psychological wellbeing profile will significantly reduce the negative effect of bullying experiences on individuals' intentions to leave their organisations. The effect of negative experiences of bullying on strong intentions to leave will be significantly lowered because of the positive psychological strengths embedded in the overall psychological wellbeing profile.

Moreover, individuals from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups may have different levels of psychological wellbeing resources (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement, psychosocial flourishing), and different experiences of workplace bullying and turnover intention. The literature review and empirical study have revealed supportive evidence for the central hypothesis.

7.1.4 Conclusions relating to the field of organisational psychology

The findings derived from the literature review and empirical study contribute to employee wellness and talent retention practices, specifically in the field of organisational psychology.

The literature review has revealed new insight into the manner in which individuals wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions are related.

The study had shed new light on existing literature by providing a better understanding of the manner in which the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) of individuals influence their experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions.

Based on the literature review, a theoretical psychological wellbeing profile has been constructed, indicating the cognitive (vigour and dedication), affective (dedication, absorption and commitment) and conative (vigour and dedication) behavioural elements that organisations need to consider during the development of employee wellness and talent retentions strategies. The conclusions suggest that organisations and organisational psychologists should focus on the different concepts and theoretical models that influence the variables of psychological wellbeing, workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The empirical study has assisted in identifying the variables that contribute most in explaining the psychological wellbeing attributes that act as a buffer in the workplace bullying and turnover intention relation. Work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) seems to be the most significant contributing factor in explaining employees' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying and person-related bullying) and their intentions to leave the organisations. The statistical relationships detected between the wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) have revealed new knowledge in terms of the psychological wellbeing profile, which can be applied for employee wellness and talent retention interventions.

The conclusions reveal that human resource practitioners and organisational psychologists should remain mindful of the strengths and weaknesses of the seven measuring instruments (CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS) applied in the current research study. More specifically, the most valuable measuring instruments in the current research study were the UWES, NAQ-R and the TIS. Organisations need to require the services of trained professionals to ensure that these measuring instruments are properly administered and interpreted in a fair and equitable manner. A supportive and sensitive environment

should be established when feedback is provided to employees. Feedback should be offered to employees in a clear and understandable manner. Organisations should take individuals biographical variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) into consideration, which have been highlighted in the findings of this study, during the development of employee wellness and talent retention strategies.

7.2   LIMITATIONS

The limitations related to the literature review and the empirical study are discussed below.

7.2.1   Limitations of the literature review

The exploratory research on the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention in the South African context has been limited due to the following factors:

- There are numerous psychological wellbeing variables and this study has explored only five wellbeing variables (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) in this study. Therefore, the study cannot provide a holistic indication of the psychological wellbeing factors that potentially impact employee wellness and talent retention strategies in organisations.

- There is a scarcity of research, both in the South African context and internationally, on the relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and talent retention. However, a wide research base exists pertaining to each of the constructs individually. Few research studies have particularly highlighted the relations between these constructs in terms of employee wellness and retention strategies.

7.2.2   Limitations of the empirical study

The findings of the empirical study could be limited due to the generalisability with regard to the characteristics and size of the research sample, and the psychometric properties of the CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS. The following limitations should be taken into consideration:

- The sample consisted of 373 participants. However, a larger sample would have been desirable to establish whether a conclusive relationship exists between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

- The sample mostly represented married white female participants, which limited the generalisability of the results to the broader South African population.

- The measuring instruments (CFSEI2-AD, AES, PVS-II, UWES, FS, NAQ-R and TIS) were reliant on the participants' personal opinions, views and self-awareness, which may have had an effect on the validity of the research findings. The subscales of the CFSEI2-AD (social self-esteem and lie items) revealed low reliabilities and, therefore, limit the interpretation of the findings.

- There are other psychological wellbeing constructs that this study did not take into account, which might have affected the results differently.

- The biographical variables were limited to age, gender, race, tenure and job level. Other biographical variables might have another influence on the research findings.

- The cross-sectional research design that were applied did not allow the researcher to control the research variables and it was not possible to establish causality of the significant relationships. Future research should apply longitudinal designs to study the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and talent retention.

However, despite the mentioned limitations, it can be concluded that the study indicates potential for investigating the variables that influence psychological wellbeing, workplace bullying and turnover intention. The findings revealed promise to promote employee wellness and talent retention practices in the South African organisational context.

7.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the research findings, conclusions and limitations the following recommendations for organisational psychology and further research in the field are outlined below.

7.3.1 Recommendations for the field of organisational psychology

Based on the significant relationships and the findings that were revealed, the following interventions in terms of employee wellness and talent retention are provided.

The following recommendations can be made to promote employee wellness and decrease turnover intention:

7.3.1.1 Psychological wellbeing recommendations

Work engagement interventions

- Organisations should provide a safe work environment by eliminating/reducing acts of bullying, which will consequently enhance employees' work engagement.
- Employers should provide a more supportive work climate.
- Management should involve employees in the decision-making process and provide them with tasks that are of more significance.
- Organisations should establish equitable and fair work practices.
- Human resource professionals should align job roles with the organisation's vision and mission.
- Management should provide employees with more autonomy to do their work.
- Organisations should support employees' career development.
- Employers should make career coaching sessions available to employees to enhance their psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication). Higher levels of work engagement will assist individuals in managing bullying behaviour more effectively, which may lead to lower turnover intentions.
- Organisations should provide employees with training that is relevant to their job performance.
- Managers should act truthfully and sincere, which can contribute to decreased turnover intentions (Greenbaum et al., 2015; Long & Perumal, 2014).
- Managers should provide constructive feedback on employees' performance, which can promote increased psychological wellbeing.

- Organisations should promote employees psychological wellbeing, which in turn, can increase their feelings of vigour, dedication and focus in their work. Increased psychological wellbeing can contribute to job satisfaction, lower absenteeism, increased work performance, organisational productivity, fewer experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and lower intentions to leave the organisation.
- Employers should enforce fair work performance evaluation processes, which can promote work engagement.

At the cognitive behavioural level (vigour and absorption)

- Organisations need to provide the necessary external resources such as job, organisational and team level resources, this will enable individuals to perform well in their work.
- Appropriate training and development workshops will allow employees to obtain the necessary knowledge to complete work assignments more effectively.
- Human resource professionals should provide clear responsibilities and expectations relevant to the specific occupation.
- Organisations should provide employees with opportunities to have the freedom to develop themselves further, which could enhance positive feelings and further promote higher levels vigour and absorption.

At the affective behavioural level (commitment, dedication and absorption)

- Organisations should offer employees with significant or important work.
- Management should clearly communicate job security to employees this may likely promote feelings of control and commitment.
- A safe work environment (physically and psychologically) should be established to lower stress and feelings of anxiety. This will possibly increase employee engagement (absorption and dedication) (May et al., 2004).
- Organisations should provide the necessary resources to employees to assist them to meet the required job demands.
- Employers should enforce a constructive work environment where employees can flourish, and are more likely to feel motivated and involved in their work.
- Organisations should provide management with training to identify and effectively manage bullying behaviour in the workplace.

<u>At the conative behavioural level (vigour and dedication)</u>

- Organisations should regularly provide employees with new challenges, which will foster work engagement and lower turnover intention (Langelaan et al., 2006).

- Employees work roles should be aligned distinctly with the organisation's vision and mission. Individuals should be given freedom (autonomy) in their work, variety of work and opportunities for personal and career development.

- Reasonable deadlines and manageable workloads should be provided. Continuous exposure to work stressors can cause employees to experience emotional exhaustion, which could lower employees' internal energy (vigour) and work may seem insignificant. Consequently, employees can display less dedication to their work.

- Organisations should establish a work environment that enable and promote the practical application of employees' competencies and skills to achieve organisational goals.

7.3.1.2   Workplace bullying recommendations

- Bullying behaviour should be managed effectively in the workplace in order to influence employees' turnover intentions positively.

- Effective workplace bullying strategies can also signal a message to employees that management care and are supportive of their wellbeing, which in turn, can promote enhanced psychological wellbeing.

- Management and human resource professionals need to be more cognisant of bullying behaviour in the workplace. Management should recognise the signs of bullying behaviour and act expeditiously against acts of bullying.

- Organisations should provide employees with coping skills training to reduce the effects of stress and allow employees to cope better with incidence of workplace bullying.

- Workshops and training on communications skills should be offered to equip employees with the necessary skills to handle interpersonal conflict more effectively.

- Organisational psychologists should assess individuals' personality types to ensure a better organisation-person fit during the selection process, which in turn, could lower voluntary turnover and bullying behaviour. Research indicates that work stressors, interpersonal conflict and personality of employees can act as contributing factors for bullying behaviour (Einarsen et al., 2003).

508

- Managers should offer their support to targets and have consequences in place for offenders. Organisations that act consistently against workplace bullying will create a climate where employees feel safe, and consequently, increase their psychological wellbeing and decrease turnover intentions.

- Management need to be mindful of the effects of stressors such as bullying, which may decrease employees' motivation, energy and eagerness to be involved in work tasks.

- Organisations should provide training sessions on workplace bullying that provides management and lower level employees with greater awareness about acts of bullying. Bullying behaviour may become increasingly subtle when organisational practices and legislation are enforced; as such it can become more challenging to recognise bullying behaviour.

- Employees should be made cognisant of the types of bullying behaviour. Furthermore, victims of workplace bullying should be encouraged to report these when they are exposed to these acts.

- Organisations should establish a bullying grievance procedure (Einarsen et al., 2003).

- Potential witnesses should also be sensitised toward bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003). Management should also encourage witnesses of workplace bullying to report these acts. Since the witnesses may feel threatened and may choose to ignore the occurrences of bullying to avoid becoming victims of workplace bullying.

- Organisations should support the victims of bullying as well as in preventing, handling and resolving bullying situations in the workplace.

- Management should listen to targets' complaints of workplace bullying and promptly take action.

- Organisations should develop a bullying policy to inform employees of the behaviour that is accepted and which behaviour will not be tolerated within the organisational culture.

- Employers should enforce a work culture of fair and equal practices and social interactions that entails dignity and respect.

- Counselling and coaching sessions should be available for employees who become targets of workplace bullying.

- Organisational psychologists should assess candidates during the selection process to ensure that their values and personalities are congruent with the organisations' values and culture. This may reduce interpersonal conflict and promote a better person-job fit.

- Organisations could improve the outcomes of turnover intention by managing bullying more effectively in the workplace.

- Management should be aware of the work-related bullying and person-related bullying that could influence individuals' psychological wellbeing and work performance.

- Human resource professionals and management should provide employees with distinctive job descriptions, well-defined role expectations and adequate work resources for task completion. This may assist organisations to prevent/lower the occurrence of bullying and conflict among employees in the workplace (Balducci et al., 2012).

7.3.1.3   *Biographical variables recommendations*

Organisations need to tailor their approach and consider individuals' age, gender, race and job levels when they develop employee wellness strategies. This will enable employers to assist individuals to enhance their levels of psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), which may lead to decreased turnover intentions.

- Younger participants perceive more bullying behaviour in the workplace and have higher intentions to leave. Organisations should focus on the needs of younger participants and provide them with career development opportunities. Employee wellness practices should focus on enhancing younger employees sense of psychological wellbeing, which in return, can promote fewer perceptions of workplace bullying and lower their intentions to leave.

- With regard to gender, male participants seem to have a higher sense of self-esteem than females. Organisations should develop employee wellness programmes that focus on females' sense of self-esteem. Training and workshop sessions should be offered to provide females with knowledge and skills that promote increased levels of self-esteem. Counselling and coaching sessions should be available to female employees to assist them with practical techniques to improve the relevant dimensions of self-esteem. In addition, male participants appear to have higher turnover intention level. Organisations should focus their talent retention strategies to lower male employees' intentions to leave.

- In terms of race, African participants appeared to have higher levels of emotional intelligence, psychosocial flourishing and turnover intentions than the white participants. Organisations should provide white employees with training and

workshops sessions on emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing development. Counselling and coaching sessions should be available to white employees to assist them with practical techniques to improve their emotional intelligence skills and to enhance their levels of psychosocial flourishing. Organisations should focus their talent retention strategies on the African employees and provide interventions such as more autonomy, variety of work, challenging work, work performance incentives and opportunities for career advancement within the organisations.

- In terms of tenure, participants working at the organisations less than five years have higher intentions to leave. Organisations should focus their talent retention strategies on employees with less tenure to influence the outcome of employees' turnover intentions.

- In terms of job level, participants in leadership roles seem to possess a higher sense of self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness than participants working on lower job levels. Organisations should provide workshops and training to lower level employees to assist them in enhancing their self-esteem, emotional intelligence and hardiness levels. Management should offer their support and care to lower level (operational level) employees to foster a supportive work environment, which can contribute to higher levels of engagement. Training and coaching sessions should be offered to employees working on lower job levels to increase their sense of self-esteem and hardiness.

- Supervisors seem to possess a higher sense of psychosocial flourishing. Organisations should focus their employee wellness strategies on the other job levels (executive, senior management and operational job levels) to enhance their levels of mental and social wellbeing.

- Executive management individuals are more likely to demonstrate lower levels of turnover intentions when compared to other job level groups. Organisations should assist employees at lower job levels to manage their work and family life more effectively by providing childcare facilities, flexible work hours, fitness centers and opportunities for personal development. These factors can promote work engagement and psychological wellbeing, which in turn, can lower their intentions to leave. Employers should provide employees who work at lower job levels with opportunities to develop in their careers. Employee wellness and talent retention strategies should be focused on employees working at lower job levels.

Figure 7.1 provides an overview of the recommendations for employee wellness and talent retention are provided.

Different biographical needs
- Enhance younger employees' sense of psychological wellbeing.
- Establish employee wellness programmes to enhance self-esteem levels of females.
- Focus talent retention strategies on males, Africans, employees with less tenure (less than 5 years) and on lower job level employees.
- Provide training and coaching sessions to white employees to enhance emotional intelligence and psychosocial flourishing.
- Management should provide their support to lower level employees to enhance work engagement.
- Employee wellness strategies should be focused on employees who work in lower job levels.

Vigour

Dedication

Work engagement

Mediation effect

Workplace bullying

Turnover intention

Work-related bullying

Person-related bullying

Recommendations for IOP/HR professionals
Work engagement recommendations
- Involve employees during the decision-making process.
- Managers should act truthfully and sincerely.
- Establish fair and equitable work practices.
- Align job roles with the organisation's vision and mission.
- Offer career coaching sessions.
- Provide more job autonomy.
- Provide training relevant to job roles.
- Provide constructive feedback on employees' performance.
- Provide adequate leave to avoid emotional burnout and to promote physical and psychological wellbeing.
- Promote employees' psychological wellbeing.

Recommendations for IOP/HR professionals
Workplace bullying interventions
- Effectively manage workplace bullying and ensure bullying strategies are in place.
- Greater awareness of bullying behaviour and act expeditiously.
- Offer stress management and coping skills training.
- Enhance communication skills to lower interpersonal conflict.
- Do psychometric testing during selection to foster a better organisation-employee fit.
- Support victims of bullying behaviour.
- Ensure consequences for offenders of bullying behaviour.

- Create greater awareness of the effects of work stress, such as workplace bullying.
- Provide training for management to identify types of bullying behaviour.
- Establish a bullying grievance procedure.
- Encourage witnesses to report workplace bullying behaviour.
- Ensure prevention, management and resolvement of bullying behaviour.
- Provide counselling and coaching sessions for victims of workplace bullying.
- Listen to the complaints of victims and take prompt action.

Cognitive behavioural level interventions
- Provide the necessary resources to enable task completion.
- Offer training and workshops for skills development.
- Ensure responsibilities and expectations are clear.
- Provide personal and career development initiatives.

Affective behavioural level interventions
- Provide a safe work environment.
- Ensure a supportive work climate to increase commitment.
- Offer meaningful work.
- Communicate job security.
- Provide management with training on workplace bullying.

Conative behavioural level interventions
- Provide more challenging work.
- Offer variety of work.
- Ensure reasonable deadlines and workloads.
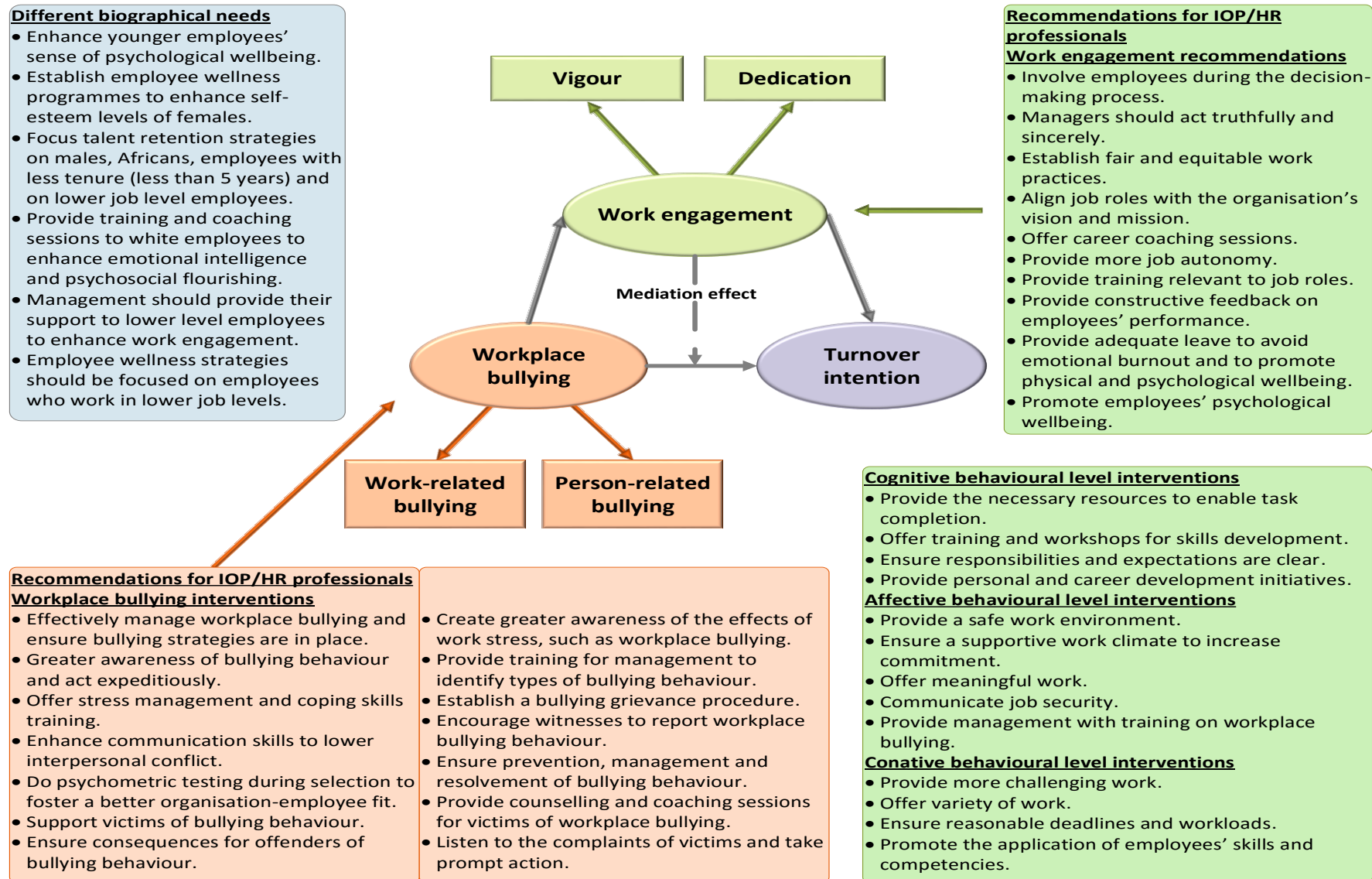- Promote the application of employees' skills and competencies.

Figure 7.1: Overview of the recommendations for employee wellness and talent retention interventions

Assisting individuals to enhance their psychological wellbeing-related attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), and especially work engagement is significant for employee wellness and talent retention interventions. The effective management of bullying behaviour in the workplace can promote employees' psychological wellbeing and lower their intentions to leave. Knowledge of an individual's psychological wellbeing profile, workplace bullying and turnover intentions can foster a better understanding of the behavioural elements that may potentially inform employee wellness and talent retention practices.

7.3.2   Recommendations for future research

The findings of the study indicated a need for further research into exploring the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

The sample comprised predominantly of married white female participants. It is recommended that future research studies use independent samples that represent various biographical factors and occupational groups. A larger sample could ensure a greater biographically representation of the population for future research. This would promote the generalisability of the findings.

The application of both qualitative and quantitative research methods could provide more insight into the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes, workplace bullying and turnover intention. In addition, more psychological wellbeing-related variables should also be included in the exploration of the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention.

This research provided partial insights into the various research factors consisting of psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. Future research would be beneficial to assist organisational psychologists and human resource practitioners to enhance employee wellness and improve talent retention strategies at organisational individual level.

7.4   EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

The study examined the existence of a relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. The findings indicated that there was a relationship between the research variables of this study and that these variables might provide new insight into employee wellness and talent retention practices.

7.4.1   Value added at a theoretical level

The literature review indicated the existence of a relationship between psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. Increased globalisation and the turbulent economy in the South African work environment required organisations to incessantly compete for talented employees. Differences between biographical groups in terms of employees psychological wellbeing and turnover intentions should be taken into account.

From a theoretical level, the literature review should be beneficial and contribute significantly to the development of a theoretical psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention purposes. The literature review indicated that employees' psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing) could act as buffers and protect them against work stressors, such as workplace bullying. Thus, a strong sense of psychological wellbeing might protect employees and they might experience/perceive bullying behaviour as less intense, which in turn, could lower their intentions to leave the organisation.

Based on the literature review, it is concluded that the insights obtained from these findings, specifically the theoretical psychological wellbeing profile and its behavioural elements, can be utilised for organisational wellness and talent retention practices.

7.4.2   Value added at an empirical level

At empirical level, the research study has contributed to the construction of an empirically tested psychological wellbeing profile that may be applied to inform employee wellness and talent retention practices within the South African work environment. The study has broken new ground by jointly studying a range of constructs in one study and through various

statistical procedures, identifying the core variables that contribute most in explaining the role of psychological wellbeing in buffering the relation between workplace bullying and turnover intention in the multi-culturally diverse South African work context.

The research findings suggest that work engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) acts as a buffer and protects employees during the occurrence of workplace bullying (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying and person-related bullying). Employees who are highly engaged in their work may therefore have a stronger sense of psychological wellbeing, which can act as a buffer and protect them during the occurrence of workplace bullying. Employees may therefore experience/perceive bullying behaviour as less intense, which in turn, may lower their turnover intentions.

The empirically tested psychological wellbeing profile has underlined the significant cognitive, affective and conative behavioural elements that should be considered in employee wellness practices. There is a scarcity of research studies into the relationships between the constructs of relevance to this study, especially within the South African context.

This study has revealed that age, gender, race, tenure and job level significantly predict the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. These results add new knowledge, which may inform employee wellness and talent retention practices by considering the individual biographical information.

Based on the empirical findings, it is concluded that this research study is unique in its investigation of the overall and interrelationships between the constructs of relevance to this study. The empirically tested psychological wellbeing profile may be valuable to enhance employee wellness and to retain talented employees in a diverse South African context.

7.4.3   Value added at a practical level

At a practical level, this study proved beneficial since the study revealed significant relationships between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention. More specifically, employee engagement (overall work engagement, vigour and dedication) interventions were found to be the most significant contributing factor in the workplace bullying (overall workplace bullying, work-related bullying

and person-related bullying) and turnover intention relationship. Therefore, organisations needed to focus more on work engagement interventions to assist employees to increase their levels of psychological wellbeing which could lower their perceptions of workplace bullying and, in turn, decrease their turnover intentions. The findings of this study will be useful in informing employee wellness and talent retention practices designed to enhance employees' psychological wellbeing and to promote the retention of valuable employees. Based on the literature review and the empirical results, the study also provided practical recommendations for organisations to enhance employee wellness and promote talent retention.

The research findings have also indicated that organisational interventions should consider biographical factors (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) to enhance psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), monitor workplace bullying and promote lower turnover intentions.

Workplace bullying seems to be a common problem in organisations (Glasø et al., 2011) and there appears to be a great need for further research of bullying behaviour in the workplace (Balducci et al., 2012). Voluntary turnover is an enormous problem for employers due to the costs of selection, recruitment and training involved in the attainment of new employees (Huffman et al., 2014). There appears to be a scarcity of research on the magnitude of bullying behaviour as a predictor of employees' sense of psychological wellbeing (Hauge et al., 2010), and their turnover intentions.

The study has focused on the importance of the manner in which the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes influence employees' experiences/perceptions of workplace bullying and their turnover intentions. The findings of this study have revealed valuable insights for future research in terms of exploring the possibility of preventing the effects of work stressors such as workplace bullying in relation to their intentions to leave the organisations, specifically married white female employees. In addition, the research results contribute significantly to the body of knowledge relating to the factors that influence employee wellness and talent retention within the South African work environment.

In conclusion, the researcher anticipates that the research findings will provide a better understanding into the way that the inter- and overall relationships between the constructs of relevance to the study have contributed to constructing and empirically testing a psychological wellbeing profile. It is hoped that organisational psychologists, human resource professionals and managers will be able to effectively apply the new knowledge in enhancing

employee wellness and talent retention practices within the organisational context. The research findings, conclusions and recommendations should make a positive contribution to the field of industrial and organisational psychology in the South African context.

7.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions and limitations of the study and provided recommendations for practice and future research. The possible limitations of the study were discussed with regard to both the theoretical and the empirical study. Recommendations for future research were highlighted. Finally, an integration of the research was given and the degree to which the results proved to support the relationship between the psychological wellbeing-related dispositional attributes (self-esteem, emotional intelligence, hardiness, work engagement and psychosocial flourishing), workplace bullying and turnover intention variables were highlighted and the manner in which this research contributed to constructing a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention interventions.

In this chapter, the following research aim was attained:

Research aim 7: to outline the implications of a psychological wellbeing profile for employee wellness and talent retention practices.

This finalises the research project.

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