Workplace Bullying and its Effect on Employee Well-Being in Ghana's Oil and Gas Industry

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In memory of those I lost on this journey…

my father, Philip Alan Sikpa Kumako;

my dear wife, Valerie Naa Djanwaa Otoo Kumako;

and daughter, Klenam Kumako.

“For whether we live, we live unto the Lord; and whether we die, we die unto the Lord: whether we live therefore, or die, we are the Lord’s”.
-Romans 14: 8

REST IN PEACE

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Abstract

The World Health Organization (2017) asserts that changes in the world of work have resulted in new risks to employee health and safety. The focus of occupational health and safety professionals has evolved beyond physical risks, and now includes psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying. Workplace bullying is an extreme social stressor that has the potential to affect victims, witnesses, co-workers, significant others, the organisation itself and society. Whilst much is known about this phenomenon in other parts of the world, very little research effort has examined workplace bullying in Sub-Saharan African countries such as Ghana. Accordingly, this thesis aimed at understanding the lived experiences of employees in the nascent oil and gas industry in Ghana. Furthermore, this research sought to apply the Job Demands-Resources model to workplace bullying and test an adapted theoretical model based on Einarsen et al.'s (2011) comprehensive model of workplace bullying.

To this end, a mixed methods design was adopted using employees from the upstream, midstream and downstream operations within Ghana's oil and gas industry. The qualitative study used data from in-depth semi-structured interviews with fifteen employees across the oil and gas sector in Ghana. In the three quantitative studies, three hundred and twenty-six employees responded to both online and paper-based questionnaires.

Results of this research indicate that work-related bullying behaviours are more common than person-related bullying in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. Additionally, aspects of Ghanaian culture, unequal distribution of power, supervisors' perceived job insecurity as well as perceived racial discrimination were identified as causes of workplace bullying. This study also found that employees reported psychological distress, mistakes and errors, poor work attitudes, and turnover intentions as a result of bullying at work. Furthermore, recreational activities and social support as well as religious coping were identified as resources available to employees and used to deal with workplace bullying.

Job demands (work pace and workload) and resources (job control and supervisor social support) were associated with workplace bullying. Results

again showed that the interaction of some specific job demands, and resources was related to workplace bullying. Moreover, psychological capital and religiosity respectively moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Finally, psychological well-being mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement, burnout and job satisfaction respectively.

Workplace bullying is pervasive in Ghana's oil and gas industry and occupational health and safety professionals should seek to reduce specific job demands and increase specific job resources. Organisations in Ghana can aid the development of psychological capital through training to enhance employee well-being whilst understanding coping mechanisms such as religiosity. Additionally, organisations should implement anti-bullying policies and procedures fairly and ensure a psychologically safe work environment.

Findings from this thesis are integrated and further discussed in the final chapter. The limitations of the various studies are critically analysed with recommendations for future studies. Additionally, the implications of the findings for theory and practice, especially in Ghanaian organisations, are highlighted.

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“Education is the great engine of personal development…It is what we make out of what we have, not what we are given, that separates one person from another”.

“It always seems impossible until it is done”.

Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela

Lawyer, Politician, Statesman and Nobel Peace Prize Laureate

(*1918-2013)*

Chapter 1 Workplace Bullying

1.1 Background

According to the World Health Organization, it is morally and ethically necessary that employers ensure that workers have the right to healthy and safe work in a conducive work environment that supports a socially and economically productive life (WHO, 1994). The World Health Organization defines a state of health as not only the absence of disease, but a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being (WHO, 1986). As such, a healthy environment at work is characterised by the lack of harmful conditions as well as the presence of health-promoting actions (WHO, 2007). Consequently, a key focus of occupational health and safety policy worldwide is the reduction of all hazards that can be risky for employee health and well-being. Indeed, International Labour Organization (ILO) statistics show that occupational disease is the most prevalent danger faced by employees accounting for over 2 million deaths yearly (ILO, 2011). The past two decades have seen an increase in awareness and recognition with regards the associations between working conditions, health, and productivity. Education, enforcement of legislation and policies, and training of occupational health and safety professionals has led to better prospects for ensuring healthy workplaces and improved health and well-being of workers (WHO, 2006).

The nature of work and the working environment have significant influence on employee health (Marmot & Wilkinson, 2006). In recent decades, globalisation has led to significant changes in the world of work that are closely linked to the organisation and management of work (EU-OSHA, 2007). Teleworking and increased use of information and communication technology (ICT) in the workplace, outsourcing, subcontracting, shift working, self-regulated work and teamwork are among some of the changes brought about by globalisation. Additionally, improved communication tools and changing technology have improved the efficiency of work. However, these new employment patterns, rapidly changing work arrangements and conditions have created new global health threats that pose a challenge to the protection and promotion of the health and safety of workers (WHO, 2017).

Consequently, one of such risks in the field of occupational health and safety are psychosocial risks at work (EU-OSHA, 2007). Psychosocial risks are related to work-related stress and are key challenges to occupational health and safety in contemporary organisations (EU-OSHA, 2007). The International Labour Organization (ILO, 1986) defines psychosocial risks as resulting from interactions among job content, management and work organisation, including environmental and organisational conditions, on the one hand, and employees' competencies and needs on the other. Cox and Griffiths (2005) further define psychosocial risk factors as those aspects of work design and the organisation and management of work, and their social and environment contexts, which have the potential for causing psychological, social and physical harm. The key aspects of the psychosocial work environment identified in the literature include job content, workload and work pace, work schedule, control, environment and equipment, organisational culture and function, interpersonal relationships at work (including bullying), role in organisation, career development and the home-work interface (Leka, Griffiths & Cox, 2003). An employee's perception and experience of these aspects may have a hazardous influence on their health and well-being, in the case where these aspects are not managed well in an organisation. However, they can also have a positive influence in terms of improved work engagement, productivity and work quality, if they are properly managed (Leka, Griffiths & Cox, 2003; Leka & Jain, 2010). Psychosocial risks have increasingly become critical in evaluating the work environment in organisations (Leka & Jain, 2010). Indeed, the ISO 10075 series of standards covers psychosocial risks under the heading of ergonomic principles related to mental workload (WHO, 2017).

Psychosocial risks are a major challenge for the management of health and safety in contemporary organisations and are related to pervasive workplace issues as workplace harassment, violence and bullying (Vartia, 2008). One of such psychosocial risks that has received much attention in the literature is workplace bullying. Workplace bullying involves forms of interpersonal aggression and mistreatment from organisational actors (colleagues, supervisors, subordinates) persistently and over time and is a form of organisational violence that negatively affects the health and well-being of the

individual as well as creates a 'toxic' work environment (Bowie, Fisher, & Cooper, 2005; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). Due to the centrality of work to an individual's life, identity, and well-being, systematic negative acts at work directed towards any individual may present grave consequences with regards physical and mental health. As such, workplace bullying is a negative social stressor experienced by employees and has been found to be associated with chronic fatigue, psychological, physical and psychosomatic symptoms, insomnia, general stress, and mental stress reactions in victims and witnesses (Hogh, Mikkelsen & Hansen, 2011).

Indeed, the total cost of bullying (high absenteeism and turnover, low productivity, medical and legal fees) for organisations in the UK in 2007 was estimated to be approximately £13.75billion (Giga, Hoel & Lewis, 2008). Additionally, Hollis (2015) found that between US$2,805 and US$12,630 was lost per employee per year due to lost time (approximately 4 hours weekly) because of bullying. Japson (2012) as cited in Cowan (2018) found that US organisations lost $227 billion because of lost productivity (presenteeism and absenteeism) and a further $117 billion due to medical leave and disability costs linked to workplace bullying. A recent UK report by the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitrary Service (ACAS, 2015), indicates that the costs of workplace bullying to the UK economy including bullying-related sickness absence, loss of productivity and staff turnover was £18 billion a year.

Workplace bullying is a growing problem in contemporary organisations. The incidence and prevalence of bullying is increasing and widespread in today's organisations (Ortega, Hogh, Pejtersen, & Olsen, 2009; Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009). There is consensus in the literature that most employees are either directly (target/victim) or indirectly (witnesses) affected by bullying at work (Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Lewis, 2006; Rayner, Hoel, & Cooper, 2001; Roscigno, et al., 2009). Bullying at work is present across organisational types and sizes (Daniel, 2009; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). Other researchers (e.g., Glendinning, 2001; Gouveia, 2007; Thomas, 2010) indicate that between 80 and 90 percent of all employees will experience these negative acts in their professional careers. Results of the Sixth European Working Conditions survey (2017), indicate that 2% of the workforce was

exposed to physical violence, and 5% to bullying and/or harassment at work over the past 12 months.

Research evidence from safety critical organisations (SCOs), i.e. organisations operating in environments with a high potential for risks and hazards (Eid et al., 2011), shows that workers operating in such work environments, including offshore installations, report higher levels of stress and health problems than do workers in general (Nielsen et al., 2013). In the Ghanaian oil and gas industry, the nature of bullying and its frequency may lead to poor employee psychological health and well-being and can be very costly to organisations as well as the environment (for offshore work). This research thus aims at exploring the experience of workplace bullying in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. To this end, a mixed methods design was adopted. The qualitative study aimed to understand the lived experiences of workers in this sector using in-depth semi-structured interviews. The three quantitative studies sought to empirically test the antecedents and consequences of workplace bullying in the oil and gas sector of Ghana.

Theoretical models of workplace bullying are presented and evaluated in Chapter 2 leading to justification for the theoretical model guiding the studies in this thesis. Chapter 3 provides justification for the choice of a mixed methods design as well as ethical issues encountered and addressed in this research. Qualitative findings are presented in Chapter 4 with the results of three quantitative studies discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6. Finally, the concluding chapter (Chapter 7) integrates the findings of the qualitative and quantitative studies to further our understanding of bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

The remaining parts of this chapter present a broad overview of workplace bullying including its key concepts and consequences. This is followed by a discussion of the research context by delving into issues related to the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Additionally, the compelling rationale/arguments necessitating the conduct of this research are outlined as well as the aims of the research. This chapter concludes with a summary of the structure of this thesis.

1.2 Workplace bullying: one concept, different labels

The past 20 years have seen an increase in research into bullying and harassment at work. This interest in the subject area has focussed on behaviours not of a sexual and racial orientation but rather of a non-physical nature. This surge in research into workplace bullying has cut across various continents. Starting from the Scandinavian countries, e.g. Finland (Salin, 2006, 2015; Vartia, 2001), Norway (Glambek, Nielsen, Gjerstad & Einarsen, 2018; Matthiesen, 2006), and Sweden (Conway et al., 2017; Leymann, 1996), research in workplace bullying has spread across Europe e.g. Austria (Niedl, 1995), Belgium (Baillien, Griep, Vander Elst, & De Witte, 2018; van den Broeck, Baillen & De Witte, 2016), Denmark (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001), England (Coyne, 2017; Giga et al., 2008; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Illing et al., 2016; Woodrow & Guest, 2014), Germany (Loerbroks et al., 2015; Zapf & Einarsen, 2003), Ireland (Mannix McNamara, Fitzpatrick, MacCurtain, & O'Brien, 2018; O'Moore, Seigne, McGuire, & Smith, 1998; Sheehan, Barker, & Rayner, 1999), Netherland (Verkuil, Atasayi & Molendijk, 2015), Portugal (Cowie et al., 2000; Norton et al., 2017) and Wales (Lewis & Gunn, 2007; Mawdsley & Lewis, 2017; Owoyemi & Sheehan, 2011). Beyond Europe, studies have been conducted in Australia (Farr-Wharton et al., 2017; McCarthy, Mayhew, Barker & Sheehan, 2003), the United States of America (Glendinng, 2001; Goodboy, Martin, Knight, & Long, 2017; Keashly, Hunter, & Harvey, 1997), Canada (O'Donnell & MacIntosh, 2016), South Korea (Seo, Leather & Coyne, 2012), India (D`Cruz, 2014; Gupta, Bakhshi & Einarsen, 2017), Uganda (Casimir, McCormack, Djurkovic & Nsubuga-Kyobe, 2012), South Africa (Jacobs & De Wet, 2015) among others.

Various labels have been used to describe the negative, pervasive and anti-social behaviours that are related to frequent abuse of power usually by a higher power individual (i.e. the perpetrator), towards a lower power individual (i.e. the victim), over a period resulting in various negative outcomes to the victim, witnesses and the organisation. Labels used to describe this phenomenon include bullying (Lewis, 1999), harassment (Bjorkqvist, Osterman & Hjelt-Back, 1994; McMahon, 2000), non-sexual harassment (Zapf & Einarsen, 2001), mobbing (Leymann, 1990; Zapf, 1999), workplace violence (Atkinson,

2000), psycho-terror (Heine, 1995), emotional abuse (Keashly, 2001; Noring, 2000), victimisation (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997), psychological harassment (Luzio-Lockett, 1995), workplace aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996; Quine 2011), incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), moral harassment (Di Martino et al., 2003), non-sexual negative interpersonal behaviours (Keashly et al.,1994), etc.

Brodsky (1976) was one of the earliest researchers to describe hostile workplace behaviours typical of workplace harassment. According to Brodsky, workplace harassment is evidenced in frightening or intimidating treatment of an individual by another individual or group with the aim of frustrating, annoying or provoking a reaction from the harassed individual (Brodsky, 1976). Robinson and Bennett (1995) define workplace violence as voluntary behaviour by an individual towards another individual that is incongruent with organisational norms and which can threaten the affected individual's well-being as well as the organisation. Workplace aggression describes efforts by individuals to intentionally cause psychological and/or physical harm to individuals or organisations with whom they are working or have worked (Baron & Neuman, 1996). Richman et al. (1999) assert that generalised workplace abuse is characterised by psychologically demeaning and discriminatory relationships that are non-sexual in nature but violate employees' psychological, physical, and/or professional integrities.

Another term used to describe hostile workplace behaviours is workplace incivility. This term according to Anderson and Pearson (1999) includes subtle counterproductive behaviours that violate organisations' norms of respect and are aimed at harming another person and may include rude and discourteous behaviours and a disregard of the victim. Keashly (2001) aptly describes these behaviours as emotional abuse at work. To Keashly, emotional abuse at work results in an employee's negative sense of self and a feeling of incompetence as a worker and person. This comes about through repeated, negative and hostile non-verbal, verbal and non-physical interactions at work.

Workplace victimisation describes a situation where an employee perceives that another employee within the organisation has momentarily or over time acted in a way that is physically, psychologically or emotionally

harmful to him/her (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004). Waldron (2009) further asserts that emotional tyranny in organisations is perpetuated by people in higher positions who use emotions in a manner that is perceived to be controlling, unfair, destructive and intimidating to other organisational members in lower positions.

Workplace bullying goes beyond workplace incivility and is a distinct form of interpersonal aggression at work marked by the intensity, power disparity, frequency and duration of the negative acts (Lutgen-Sandvik, Tracy & Alberts, 2007). Namie and Namie (2000) offer a more detailed conceptualisation of workplace bullying to include a desire of the bully to control the target by deliberately and repeatedly mistreating the target. They further argue that all types of mistreatment at work if perceived as hurtful by the target, whether intended or not, constitute workplace bullying.

As the conceptualisation of workplace bullying has evolved over time, so has the focus of what constitutes bullying behaviour. Indeed, research now focusses on incidence of more subtle negative behaviours that are psychological in nature rather than overt physical violence or aggression (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Olender-Russo, 2009). These negative bullying acts are perpetuated against an individual persistently and over prolonged periods. Such negative acts characteristic of workplace bullying includes work overload, constant criticism, denial of accomplishments, gossip, lack of voice, blaming, and social exclusion, among others (Olender-Russo, 2009; Roscigno, et al., 2009). It must be noted that acts of bullying may start as psychological harassment because of interpersonal conflict but may quickly escalate into physical acts of violence or abuse (Aquino & Lamertz, 2001).

The International Labour Organization defines bullying to include any incident in which a person is abused, threatened or assaulted in circumstances relating to their work. These behaviours would originate from customers, or co-workers at any level of the organisation. This definition would include all forms of harassment, bullying, intimidation, physical threats-assaults, robbery and other intrusive behaviours (Cobb, 2012). Some reviews have tried to find a common framework to understand the conceptual overlaps and interconnections necessary to synthesize these various constructs. There

seems to be some agreement on these negative acts. These behaviours may be direct and include verbal aggression, or indirect (subtle) like social exclusion. They seek to block the fulfilment of psychological needs at work and involve people with different power or status in the organisation. In a comprehensive review of workplace bullying and harassment, Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf and Cooper (2011) offer a definition of workplace bullying as:

> *"Bullying at work means harassing, offending, or socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's work. In order for bullying to be applied to a particular, activity, interaction or process, the bullying behaviour has to occur repeatedly and regularly (e.g., weekly) and over a period of time (e.g., about six months). Bullying is an escalating process in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position and becomes the target of systematic social acts. A conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is an isolated event or if two parties of approximately equal strength are in conflict" (p. 22).*

A key commonality across the various definitions of negative acts at work is that these behaviours are unwanted by the victim and as such distressing. The acts are not single events but occur repeatedly over a period. There is also a noticeable power disparity between the bully (perpetrator) and target (victim; Berlingieri, 2015; Einarsen et al., 2011). Whilst some conceptualizations are silent on this power differential, others consider it to be downward only where the bully is a superior, or ranging from downward (supervisor as bully), upward (subordinate as bully) or cross-level co-bullying/horizontal (a colleague as the bully; D'Cruz, 2015).

1.2.1 Prevalence

A key consideration in the literature on workplace bullying is the notion of conceptualising this complex concept either as a discrete event or as a pattern of events. This implies a consideration of the possibility of events occurring either in isolation/independently or as a series of continuous negative behaviours (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011). According to Einarsen et al. (2011), a central criterion for a negative and unwanted act to be considered as bullying, it must be repeated continuously (i.e. a permanent state) towards the employee

(victim) rather than a series of isolated episodic events. Indeed, most definitions of workplace bullying, and related constructs include '… repetitive hostile behaviours and link increased frequency to negative impact' (Keashly & Jagatic, 2011, p49). This means that the experience of bullying at work is not an isolated episode but involves persistent and repeated negative acts being directed towards one or more employees over a period. This seems to differentiate workplace bullying from isolated conflicts at work with the latter being an everyday occurrence in most human interactions including those at work. This is captured succinctly in most definitions of bullying – as unwanted, continuous, frequent and debilitating incidence of hostile negative acts at work (Branch et al., 2013; Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009; Einarsen et al., 2011; Lewis, Sheehan, & Davies, 2008).

Indeed, Leymann (1990) asserts that the negative acts that characterise bullying are typical of daily life. However, these negative events may be considered workplace bullying when they occur regularly (i.e. frequency) and persistently (i.e. duration) and tend to cause humiliation and harm (Branch et al., 2013). In addition to the duration and frequency of these negative acts, several factors are likely to result in misery, anxiety, and suffering as do the negative acts themselves. Some of these factors include the frequency of the negative acts, the inescapable interactions inherent in organisational functioning, situational factors with regards to power disparity and the victim's attributions concerning the intentions of the perpetrator (Einarsen,1999). Consequently, workplace bullying research focuses on various negative and unwanted acts of a non-physical form (does not include sexual harassment) by various organisational actors that are perpetuated frequently and over time and may result in psychological, physical, personal or organisational harm (Einarsen et al, 2011).

There seems to be some confusion in the literature as to the criteria for frequency for an act to be considered as bullying (Zapf & Einarsen, 2005). Leymann (1990, 1996) argues that for a negative act to be termed as bullying, it must occur repeatedly at least once a week for at least six months. Other researchers have criticised these stringent criteria as arbitrary and difficult to apply (Einarsen et al., 2011). Mikkelsen and Einarsen (2001) conceptualise

bullying to include exposure to at least two negative acts. To other researchers, the individual should have been exposed to negative acts ‘now and then’ or ‘weekly’ over a six months duration for the negative acts to be considered as bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel &Cooper, 2000).

Despite this limitation, workplace bullying is common and widespread across Europe and the U.S.A. (Ortega et al., 2009; Thomas, 2010). In Europe, estimates indicate that 4.2% of the entire workforce and 5.6% of hospitality employees had been victims of bullying (Ariza-Montes, Arjona-Fuentes, Law, & Han, 2017). Similarly, Hollis (2015) revealed that in the 18 months prior to data collection, 62% of higher education administrators in the USA had been victims or witnesses of workplace bullying.

Another study found that between 3% and 4% of employees may experience serious/severe bullying (i.e. weekly or more frequently), and somewhere between 9% and 15% may experience occasional bullying (i.e. now and then). Additionally, between 10% and 20% (or even higher) of employees may occasionally be confronted with unwanted behaviours at work that fall outside the strict definition of bullying (Zapf et al., 2011). Notelaers et al. (2006) study of 6,175 Belgian employees responding to an 18-item NAQ-R used Latent class cluster analysis to identify 6 classes of respondents based on their frequency of exposure to bullying behaviours. Indeed, analysis showed that 3% of the sample experienced severe bullying with high exposure to different work and person related bullying behaviours daily and weekly. Thirty-five (35) percent of the sample did not experience any bullying behaviour in the 6 months before data collection with an estimated 28% of the sample experiencing negative and unwanted work-related acts that were not considered bullying occasionally. In a related study of 5,288 UK employees, Einarsen et al. (2009) using similar analysis identified 7 groups of respondents with 5% reporting severe bullying on a weekly or more frequent basis. With regards the intensity of these negative acts, Namie (2003) asserts that negative and aggressive acts at work may also be conceptualised to operate on a spectrum ranging from 1 to 10. According to Namie (2003), ‘Incivilities range from 1 to 3, while bullying covers mild to severe interference with the accomplishment of legitimate business interests, reflecting

scores of 4 to 9. The highest score is reserved for battery and homicide which grind work completely to a halt' (p. 1).

These estimates are affected by the method of measurement and specific sectors studied (Giga et al., 2008). Indeed, Zapf et al. (2011) assert that prevalence rates are measured by three methods. Participants may be presented with a precise definition of workplace bullying and asked to indicate if they have experienced bullying behaviours within a particular time frame (i.e. the self-labelling method; Einarsen & Skogstad 1996; Hoel et al., 2001; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001), or by using a questionnaire consisting of a list of bullying behaviours (behavioural experience method; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001) or by using both methods (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018).

Results from a meta-analysis showed that the method of measuring bullying affected the prevalence rates. Indeed, when using the self-labelling method, providing a definition of bullying revealed an average prevalence of 11.3% whereas an average prevalence of 18.1% was found when no definition of bullying was given. Additionally, the behavioural experience method indicated an average prevalence of 14.8% (Nielsen et al., 2010).

Other factors that can influence prevalence rates of bullying include occupation (Niedhammer, David, &Degioanni, 2007), geographical location where the study was conducted (Nielsen et al., 2010) and demographic factors (e.g., gender; Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004; Salin, 2003; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002). In this regard, Ortega et al.'s (2009) study of Danish employees revealed that unlike supervisors and managers, unskilled workers had the highest prevalence of workplace bullying. Indeed, female-dominated client focussed jobs as well as male-dominated jobs involving working with objects (e.g. equipments) reported higher prevalence of workplace bullying in comparison to other jobs. Additionally, large male-dominated industrial organisations reported high prevalence rates in Norway (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996).

There is also some disagreement with regards the duration of workplace bulling behaviours. When viewed from the European tradition, even minor interpersonal conflicts at work may be termed as mobbing or bullying (Zapf et

al., 2011). Evidence from empirical studies show that bullying is a persistent and prolonged conflict. Within the literature on workplace bullying and interpersonal conflict, there are various perspectives that attempt to explain their relationship. Some researchers (e.g. de Dreu, Van Dierendonck, & Dijkstra, 2004) have viewed workplace bullying as synonymous to interpersonal conflict implying that the former is a type/form of the latter. In this regard, the definition of conflict is expanded to reflect a negative impact on at least one party involved (Raver, 2013). As such, applying a conflict lens in understanding workplace bullying, Zapf and Gross (2001, p. 499) assert that workplace bullying reflects a "long-lasting and badly managed conflicts". Additionally, workplace bullying is characterised by "destructive conflicts going beyond the point of no return" (Hoel, Rayner, & Cooper, 1999, p. 221).

A contrasting perspective differentiates between workplace bullying and interpersonal conflict as separate constructs (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010). In this regard, interpersonal conflicts are one of numerous antecedents of bullying at work (Baillien et al., 2014; Leymann, 1996). Indeed, researchers have differentiated between interpersonal bullying (i.e. quarrels and highly escalated conflicts at work leading to bullying; Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009) and intrapersonal bullying (i.e. venting anger and frustration on a colleague, subordinate or superior; Baillien et al., 2009). Einarsen (1999) referred to these forms of workplace bullying as either dispute-related or predatory bullying.

Vartia and Hyyti (2002) found that 53% of males and 66% of females had experienced acts of bullying for more than two years in a sample of Finnish prison officers. Studies in Germany (Meschkutat et al., 2002), Norway (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996) and Sweden (Leymann, 1996) indicate that the average duration of bullying for victims was 15, 18, and 16 months, respectively. Additionally, 39% of victims of bullying had experienced these negative acts for more than two years (Hoel & Cooper, 2000) whilst 29% of respondents had been bullied for two to five years and as many as 30% for over five years in Vartia's (2001) study. Recently, an NHS staff survey (2015) in the UK using a sample size of 299,000 found that 16% of healthcare employees had been

bullied by co-workers with 13% of employees experiencing bullying by managers over the last 12 months.

1.2.2 Power

A central theme inherent in the bullying definition is the imbalance of power between the victim and perpetrator resulting in the victim experiencing persistent and frequent negative acts at work (Einarsen et al., 2009; Hodson, Roscigno, & Lopez, 2006). Most victims report being at the receiving end of bullying behaviours including personal attacks, gossip, teasing, work overload, constant criticisms amongst others (Einarsen, 1999). These behaviours are typically perpetuated by superiors against the victim consistently over a period (Rayner et al., 2002) or by a group of colleagues (D`Cruz, 2015).

As such, negative acts are not considered bullying if the parties involved are of equal power. Lewis, Sheehan and Davies (2008) indicate that a differentiating criterion between general conflict and workplace bullying, is that with the latter the target/victim is unable to retaliate and ends up in an inferior or submissive position. Consequently, a key implication of this is that the victim has a reduced capacity to respond or defend themselves (Baillien, Escartín, Gross & Zapf, 2017; Keashly & Nowell, 2011).

In this regard, some researchers (Einarsen et al., 2011; Hoel & Cooper, 2007; Hutchinson & Jackson, 2015; Roscigno, et al., 2009) have identified power differential between feuding parties related to resources, privileges, rights, and authority. Indeed, job status is indicated as a key source of the imbalance of power in many reports of workplace bullying (McGinley, 2008; Roscigno, et al., 2009). According to Einarsen et al. (2011), the power imbalance may reflect aspects of the formal power structure and hierarchy within an organisation. This is typical when the bully or perpetrator occupies a higher/superior position on the organisational chart.

Hoel and Cooper (2000) have also indicated the possibility that power may be based on superior expertise, knowledge, influence or experience. As such, power imbalance can equally result from other situational, individual or social characteristics and may occur among peers (Salin, 2003). Thus, the victim's relationship with the perpetrator in terms of economic physical, social,

or psychological dependence may define the power imbalance (Niedl, 1995). It is common to have employees depend on their superiors for numerous outcomes at work and therefore not surprising that superiors tend to be identified as bullies (Einarsen et al., 2011). Indeed, some American researchers (e.g., Ortega et al., 2009) have found evidence that between 50% and 70% of all bullying cases were perpetuated by the victims' superior at work (i.e. managers and/or supervisors).

1.2.3 Intention

Einarsen et al.'s (2011) definition of workplace bullying suggests a component of intention to harm through pre-meditated or deliberate action. This conceptualisation is an extension of workplace aggression definitions that include behaviours intended to harm the target and not those accidental behaviours that were not intended to harm anyone (Anderson & Bushman 2002). As such, though intent is not explicitly identified as a necessary element of workplace bullying or any interpersonal conflict, researchers largely agree that some level of subjectivity is involved in the actual or perceived intent to harm, inherent in the bullying process (Baillien et al., 2017; Einarsen et al., 2011).

However, there is some disagreement with regards the intentionality of negative acts perpetuated against a target of workplace bullying. In this regard, some researchers have argued that bullying may involve passive conformity to norms of bullying at work and may not include a deliberate or pre-meditated decision to harm (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Indeed, abusive supervisors may be acting out of indifference rather than deliberate hostility intended to harm the individual (Tepper, 2000). Interestingly, Ferris et al. (2007), in their study of destructive leadership, assert that unethical but politically skillful leaders may adopt bullying as a deliberate tool to stimulate conformity and better performance among low-maturity subordinates, rather than to harm them. This does not imply that harm is not caused but the perception of intent is at best, ambiguous. Indeed, Keashly (2001) found that intent was not a significant element in victims' experience of feeling abused. Baillien et al. (2017) emphasise this when they argue that "One problem of intentionality is that it is unclear to what it actually relates: it could, for example, be intertwined in the entire bullying process, be part of a particular bullying act or defined by the

actual harm towards the victim and whether or not this is beneficial for the perpetrator" (p. 873). To clarify this, Einarsen et al. (2011) indicate that there exists a methodological (measurement) limitation as most workplace bullying (including aggression) studies do not explicitly measure actual or perceived intent. In this regard, negative acts at work that are studied seem to encompass an element of intentionality implicit in the behaviours studied.

A more plausible explanation is that due to the prolonged and persistent nature of workplace bullying, it is unlikely that the perpetrator will not be conscious to the negative consequences of this severe interpersonal conflict to the bullied individual (Einarsen et al., 2011; Zapf et al., 2011). Indeed, the severity of the negative acts in terms of frequency, duration, patterns, etc. are indicated in the attribution of intention to harm by researchers and bullied employees as well (Baillien et al., 2017; Hershcovis & Barling, 2008). Einarsen et al. (2011) argue that even if harm was not intended, the extent that these acts of bullying persist suggest that perpetrators are complicit in enacting harm to the victim. As such, most victims attribute the experienced negative behaviours as related to an intention to harm based on their perceptions of the event (Vartia, 1996; Zapf, 1999). In making sense of their lived experiences at work, longer spells of workplace bullying are recognised as deliberate, planned and intentional systematic anti-social behaviours by the perpetrator and not an inadvertent action (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Wotman, 1990; Zapf & Einarsen, 2005).

In a recent study, Baillien et al. (2017) using a questionnaire and an event-based diary, found significant differences between victims' and non-victim's perceptions of negative intentions in the conflict incidents. Indeed, not only did victims perceive more negative intentions but they also attributed such behaviours to be negative, intentional and malicious whereas non-victims attributed conflict to an accident or a positive intention that did not go well. Both groups however, agreed that the conflict incidents were because of careless and impulsive behaviour by the perpetrator.

1.2.4 Bullying types

Workplace bullying has also been broadly categorised as either work-related or person-related (Einarsen, 1999). Person-related bullying includes unwanted teasing, spreading rumours, social exclusion and ignoring of one's opinion. Deliberate attempts by an individual to frustrate the performance of another's work are characteristic of work-related bullying. This includes excessive workloads and unreasonable deadlines. Perhaps, the worst form of work-related bullying behaviour involves not assigning any work at all to the victim (Einarsen, 1999). Indeed, Einarsen asserts that work-related bullying behaviour alone is not enough to be classified as bullying behaviour as some employees report unmanageable or excessive workload and unwarranted persistent monitoring (i.e. work-related bullying behaviours) but do not consider themselves as victims/targets of bullying. This implies that a person's subjective evaluation of unwanted and repeated behaviour as bullying may be dependent on the negative behaviour being perceived as hostile and targeted at oneself with no opportunity for one to defend themselves in the unavoidable interactions at work (Niedl ,1995). As such, subjective differences may exist in employees' perception and evaluation of a situation as an act of bullying. In this regard, incidences of negative behaviour at work that may be serious enough for one employee to warrant a formal complaint may be considered as mildly offensive by another employee (Einarsen et al., 2011). Consequently, subjective appraisal (i.e. an individuals' cognitive and emotional appraisal) may play an important role in the variability in the perceptions of various bullying behaviours.

Researchers have grouped bullying behaviours into five categories namely "threat to professional status (e.g., belittling opinion, public professional humiliation, accusation regarding lack of effort); threat to personal standing (e.g., name-calling, insults, intimidation, devaluing with reference to age); isolation (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, withholding of information); overwork (e.g., undue pressure, impossible deadlines, unnecessary disruptions); and destabilization (e.g., failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks, removal of responsibility, repeated reminders of blunders, setting up to fail)" (Rayner & Hoel, 1997, p. 183).

Zapf (1999) also identifies five categories of negative acts of bullying perpetuated against individuals. Work-related bullying typically involves making the performance of an individual's work more difficult by changing the tasks or work overload. He also identified verbal threats, social isolation, personal attacks and threats of physical violence.

Additionally, Einarsen (1999) introduced the constructs of dispute-related and predatory bullying to expand the viewpoints and to explain the two main scenarios that may give rise to bullying. Highly escalated interpersonal conflicts lead to dispute-related bullying (Zapf & Gross, 2001). The nature of social interactions including those at work may spiral out of control and result in the psychologically and aggressive negative behaviours considered to be bullying. On the other hand, predatory bullying (also referred to as tyranny by Ashforth, 1994), is characterised by the bully abusing power by perpetuating negative acts towards a victim who did not provoke the bullying behaviour but whose perceived weakness is being exploited by the bully. As such, the victim finds himself or herself accidentally in a situation with the perpetrator and is unjustifiably bullied into compliance (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2010).

Matthiesen et al.'s (2010) analysis of various negative behaviours at work revealed nine sub-types. These are predatory bullying, dispute-related bullying, humour-oriented bullying, bullying of workplace newcomers, sexual harassment, scapegoating, retaliation from whistleblowing, work-related stalking and the judicial derelicts (secondary bullying). These more specific sub-types may be conceptualised according to Buss' (1961) categorisation as physical or verbal, active or passive, and direct or indirect.

In a study to test the psychometric properties of the revised Negative Acts Questionnaire, Einarsen, Hoel and Notelaers (2009) found evidence for three factors that correlated highly with each other. As such, in addition to work-related and person-related bullying (Einarsen, 1999), a third bullying type known as physically intimidating bullying emerged from analysis of the data.

1.3 Consequences of workplace bullying

Workplace bullying has been considered as a psychosocial risk and a stressor in the work environment. However, workplace bullying differs from other stressors experienced by employees in the organisation, as the negative, persistent and unwanted aggressive acts inherent in workplace bullying tend to frustrate the needs for belonging and psychological safety in the organisation (Nielsen et al., 2016). The inability to satisfy these basic psychological and human needs may be very distressing to the target of workplace bullying. Furthermore, as Leymann (1990) asserts, the continuous frustration of basic needs coupled with the pervasive exposure to negative acts towards targets may result in a depletion of the target employee's coping resources. This may lead to an employee being overwhelmed with core job requirements and tasks. As such, a target/victim of workplace bullying may be affected by a conglomeration of factors. These include the characteristics of the bullying experience, the target's appraisal of the event and the ability to cope with the demands of the event (Folkman, 1991). Every individual has a need for some predictability and control of future events. Events such as bullying at work put the target employee in a situation characterised by uncertainty, unpredictability and lack of control with regards the negative acts from perpetrators (superior, colleague or subordinate). This makes the target employee feel helpless and a victim of persistent negative acts (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018).

The consequences of workplace bullying affect the individual target of workplace bullying, the passive onlookers or witnesses as well as the organisations in which the negative behaviour occurs. Research shows that the affected employees or victims of workplace bullying show moderate to severe symptoms of physiological, emotional, psychological, psychosomatic and physical distress (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009; Einarsen & Nielsen, 2014; Roscigno, et al., 2009; Verkuil et al., 2015).

With regards mental health, a meta-analysis and systematic review by Verkuil et al. (2015), revealed statistically significant correlations between bullying and symptoms of anxiety, depression and stress-related psychological complaints. In another study by Ayoko, Callan and Hartel (2003), sixty-two

percent (62%) of the 660 employees from 7 public sector companies responding to an open-ended survey reported high stress reactions to bullying at work. Targets of bullying usually report psychological and psychosomatic symptoms after some months from the onset of bullying. Using open-ended interviews, Hallberg and Strandmark (2006) found that among the 20 victims sampled, targets had difficulty concentrating and showed signs of depression, generalised fear, headaches, etc. which initially were experienced whilst at work but later became chronic.

Furthermore, Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004), in a study of 186 blue-collar employees in a Danish manufacturing company, found that individuals who were frequently exposed to bullying acts at work reported more mental fatigue and psychological stress than non-bullied employees. Bullied employees also reportedly took more absences and sick leave. Matthiesen, Einarsen and Mykletun (2008) found a positive correlation between exposure to negative acts measured with the Negative Acts Qquestionnaire and burnout in a sample of Norwegian restaurant workers. Bilgel, Aytac and Bayrams' (2006) study of public sector workers in Turkey also found a correlation between workplace bullying and job-related stress, depression and anxiety adopting a 20-item inventory and a self-label of bullying based on the given definition. Other researchers have also found associations between bullying at work and psychosomatic symptoms (Jaradat, Nielsen, & Bast-Pettersen, 2018), emotional exhaustion and burnout (Neto, Ferreira, Martinez, & Ferreira, 2017), depression and anxiety (Chang, Su, & Mizanur, 2018).

Additionally, Vartia's (2001) study of 949 municipal employees revealed that victims or targets of workplace bullying reported more mental stress and general stress reactions as well as low self-confidence compared to employees who had not reported being bullied. In a similar study to examine the effects of bullying on mental and physical well-being, researchers used a sample of 5,338 employees from 70 British organisations in the public, private and voluntary sectors. Data was collected using behavioural experience of bullying as well as self-labelling of bullying. Results indicated that employees who labelled their experience as bullying suffered more negative physical and mental health outcomes than those who were not bullied. Also, there was a stronger

correlation between frequency of negative acts (behavioural experience) and health effects than self-report (self-labelling) and negative health effects (Hoel, Faragher & Cooper, 2004).

The effects of prolonged workplace bullying may linger on and lead to long-term health and well-being challenges. As such, victims and witnesses may suffer symptoms of post-traumatic stress long after the negative behaviour ceases though it may not develop into post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). “PTSD is an anxiety disorder characterized by a constellation of symptoms thought to result from exposure to one or more traumatic events” (Rodríguez-Muñoz, Moreno-Jiménez, Sanz Vergel, & Garrosa Hernández, 2010, p. 2617). Indeed, Rodriguez-Munoz et al. (2010) assert that symptoms of PTSD are “. . . highly prevalent among victims of bullying” (p. 2630). In this regard, Nielsen, Tangen et al.’s (2015) meta-analysis, revealed a significant positive mean correlation between bullying at work and a global score on symptoms of post-traumatic stress.

Hansen, Høgh, Garde, and Persson (2014) in a longitudinal study of 3,382 respondents at time 1 and a follow-up study of 1,671 respondents two years later, measured poor quality of sleep, disturbed sleep and awakening problems among victims and witnesses of workplace bullying. They found that when compared to non-victims and non-witnesses, bullied employees and witnesses reported more sleep difficulties. With regards the intensity of bullying behaviours, occasionally bullied employees and witnesses at baseline reported less sleep difficulties than frequently bullied employees and witnesses. Additionally, Hansen, Høgh and Garde (2009) investigated the link between workplace bullying and outcomes such as sleep disruptions and mental health. They found that victims or targets of bullying experienced more disruption to sleep patterns, somatic symptoms and a diminished general health across gender and age groups as compared to employees who were not bullied. These findings are consistent with previous research. For example, results from Rafnsdottir and Tomasson’s (2004) study indicate that targets of workplace bullying are more likely to report sleep difficulties as compared to employees who are not bullied. Additionally, Notelaars, Einarsen, De Witte and Vermunt (2006) found similar results of a lower sleep quality in a sample of employees

who reported being targets of bullying when compared to those who were not targets.

Over the past ten years or so, the focus of bullying researchers has evolved to include longitudinal studies to establish long-term (e.g., 5–7 years; Einarsen & Nielsen, 2015) as well as short-term (e.g., 2 years; Hansen et al., 2014) time-lagged relationships among workplace bullying and employees' health and well-being respectively. Some of these long-term effects on the health and well-being of victims and witnesses because of workplace bullying include suicidal ideation (Nielsen, Nielsen, et al., 2015), poor mental health (Rugulies et al., 2012), reduced basic psychological needs and functioning (Trépanier, Fernet, & Austin, 2016), chronic neck pain (Kääriä et al., 2012), headaches (Tynes, Johannessen, & Sterud, 2013), and fibromyalgia (Kivimäki et al., 2004), among others.

Workplace bullying also affects the organisation in which bullying occurs. Employees exposed to workplace bullying and other negative acts at work may be more likely to be absent from work due to sickness (Warshaw & Messite, 1996). Indeed, Suadicani, Olesen, Bonde, and Gyntelberg (2014) using data on sickness absence from various organisations' salary databases found that of the 1,809 hospital employees sampled, 20% had high absence (i.e. minimum 14 days sickness absence) in the preceding year with workplace bullying being associated with this absence from work. Ortega, Christensen, Høgh, Rugulies, and Borg (2011) also found that workplace bullying was associated with registered sickness absence.

Additionally, Hoel and Cooper (2000) in a study of 5,288 employees across sectors in the United Kingdom revealed that employees who were currently being bullied were found to report the highest absenteeism due to sickness than the other 3 groups. Those previously bullied were next most affected followed by employees who witnessed bullying only. Employees who were neither bullied nor witnessed bullying were least affected. The same pattern of results was found for employees in relation to mental and physical health, turnover intentions, organisational commitment, job satisfaction as well as productivity.

Furthermore, Kivimaki, Elovainio and Vahtera (2000) found a strong relationship between absenteeism due to sickness and workplace bullying in a sample of Finnish hospital workers. Records of employee sickness records were matched with the organisations' records on absence. Analysis revealed that the risk of sickness absence (certified medically) was 1.5 times higher for employees who had been bullied than for employees who had not been targeted. Two percent of variance in total sickness absenteeism was accounted for by workplace bullying and this translated to a cost of £125,000 annually to the organisation. In addition, Agervold and Mikkelsen (2004) found that bullied employees reported statistically significant more sick leave than non-bullied employees did.

O'Connell, Calvert and Watson (2007) in a survey of a nationally representative sample of 3,500 public and private sector employees in Ireland found that in 25% of all organisations sampled that reported having bullying as a problem, workplace bullying had a minor effect on absenteeism whilst 12.5% of these organisations reported that workplace bullying had a moderate or major impact. Twenty percent (20%) of employees in the survey had taken leave due to sickness as a direct consequence of bullying at work. In a similar study by Vartia (2001) using a sample of 949 Finnish municipal employees, 18% of bullied employees reported that they had absented themselves from work once or several times because of bullying. In another study of 1,100 English nurses, 8% of bullied nurses had taken time off work because of bullying (Quine, 2001).

Some studies have reported even higher percentages of bullied employees taking sick leave because of bullying (UNISON, 1997, 2000). In one study, among employees who reported being bullied and taking time off work, 29% were absent for more than 30 days and 13% for more than 60 days (UNISON, 2000). Steer and Rhodes (1978) conceptualise absenteeism as being a product of the motivation of the individual to be at work and the opportunity or possibility of being present at work.

Persistent and prolonged exposure to negative acts at work may a risk factor for disability retirement (Berthelsen et al., 2011; Glambek, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2015). Indeed, Nielsen, Emberland, and Knardahl's (2017) study of 14,501 employees in Norway revealed that bullying was significantly associated

with an increased risk of disability retirement with a hazard ratio of 1.55. Data was obtained from an official registry over a 10-year follow up period. When compared to non-bullied employees of the same gender, bullied men and women were more likely to suffer a disability with women having the higher risk.

The relationship between workplace bullying and productivity is another point of interest. Bassman (1992) asserts that bullying at work influences innovation, creativity, commitment and job satisfaction. It is plausible to argue that a reduction in these organisational variables may lead to a reduction in productivity. Perhaps owing to the difficulty in measuring productivity, studies on the relationship between workplace bullying and productivity are sparse and inconclusive. Using self-report measures of perceived reduction in productivity/performance because of bullying, Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen and Hellesoy (1994) found that 27% of respondents from the Norwegian Trade Unions reported a reduction in efficiency as a result of workplace bullying. Additionally, Hoel and Cooper (2000) found that 32.5% of employees sampled agreed that bullying at work negatively affected individuals, which led to reduced performance. Yildirim's (2009) quantitative study of 268 female Turkish nurses revealed that bullying behaviours also had a negative effect on the victims' job performance as manifested by low energy levels, job commitment and motivation. Additionally, workplace bullying has been associated with more workplace errors (Paice & Smith, 2009) and loss of creative ability (MacIntosh, 2005).

With regards work attitudes, workplace bullying is associated with job insecurity and turnover intention (Glambek, Matthiesen, Hetland, & Einarsen, 2014) and actual turnover (Høgh, Hoel, & Carneiro, 2011). Employees who reported workplace bullying had lower job satisfaction, poor morale, and decreased commitment (Creasy & Carnes, 2017; Gardner & Johnson, 2001; MacIntosh, 2005; Namie, 2003).

For example, in a large study of 2,539 Norwegian employees, Hauge, Skogstad and Einarsen (2007) found that job satisfaction had a very strong negative correlation with bullying giving support for earlier findings that employees exposed to bullying at work report less satisfaction with their job in comparison to employees who are not exposed to bullying (Vartia & Hyyti, 2002).

A further analysis of Hauge et al. 's (2007) findings, indicated that bystanders who witnessed bullying were more dissatisfied with their job than employees who neither witnessed or were victims of bullying (non-involved) or perpetrators. Targets of workplace bullying, and bully/targets also scored lower on job satisfaction than the witnesses/bystander group.

Furthermore, Quine (1999) found similar results in a study of UK NHS community-trust employees with employees who had experienced workplace bullying indicating very low job satisfaction. The significant negative correlation between exposure to bullying and satisfaction with one's job has been found in studies of assistant nurses and workers in the marine-engineering sector (Einarsen, Matthiesen & Skogstad, 1998; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997). Poor work attitudes may negatively affect the existing culture within the organisation (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011) and contribute to a 'toxic' organisational culture (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). This is plausible as workplace bullying results in reduced teamwork (Baillien et al., 2009; Gardner & Johnson, 2001) and poor interpersonal relationship with colleagues and supervisors (Glaso, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2009; MacIntosh, 2005).

According to Giga et al., (2008), there are indirect and direct costs of workplace bullying. Whilst indirect costs relate to lost productivity, downtime, lost opportunity and poor quality of work life, direct costs are of more interest to organisations as they affect the bottom line – finances. Indeed, research (e.g., Gardner & Johnson, 2001; MacIntosh, 2005) reveals that the cost of health plans and compensation claims increased because of workplace bullying. Additionally, costs of recruiting and selecting new employees after increased turnover due to workplace bullying is burdensome on organisations (Chapell & Di Martino, 2006; Gardner & Johnson, 2001; Namie, 2003, 2007). In terms of direct financial costs in the UK, Giga et al., (2008) estimate that in 2007, the cost to society of work-related stress was £4.55 billion with workplace bullying accounting for £682.5 million of this amount. Additionally, Giga and colleagues estimate that lost days because of workplace bullying related absenteeism was 33.5 million days with approximately 200,000 employees thought to have quit their organisations in 2007. Consequently, the overall cost of bullying including productivity costs, bullying related absenteeism and turnover was estimated as

£13.75 billion in the UK in 2007. As such, workplace bullying is not only negative for the organisation's productivity and reputation but very costly in financial terms.

1.4 Workplace bullying in the oil and gas industry

Some studies have focussed on psychosocial risk in the oil and gas industry. However, only a few have addressed the specific issue of workplace bullying. For example, Nielsen, Tvedt and Matthiesen (2013) in a 2-wave longitudinal study of predictors of psychological distress in a purposive sample of Continental Shelf workers in Norway, found that 8-9% of employees suffered psychological distress with workplace bullying and poor leadership respectively being the strongest predictors of psychological distress. Additionally, Reknes, Harris and Einarsen (2018) hypothesised that hardiness served as a resilience factor that may moderate the relationship between the experience of workplace bullying and mental health outcomes (i.e. depression and anxiety). A sample of 275 employees in the Norwegian oil and gas industry completed the online questionnaires. Results indicate that whilst levels of hardiness did not buffer the relationship between bullying and depression, hardiness moderated the relationship between bullying and anxiety. Indeed, low levels of hardiness resulted in the strengthening of the bullying – anxiety relationship: an enhancing effect. On the other hand, high levels of hardiness buffered the relationship between workplace bullying and anxiety among the employees.

The psychosocial work environment in the oil and gas industry has also been of concern to researchers. Bergh, Hinna, Leka and Zwetsloot's (2018) analysis of quantitative and qualitative data using the Psychosocial Risk Management Approach, showed that offshore and onshore workers differed with regards symptoms of work-related stress and psychosocial factors. Furthermore, job demands, and resources respectively were significantly associated with work-related stress. Additionally, Bjerkan (2011) in a cross-sectional study of 414 offshore and onshore workers in Norway revealed that employees in the offshore environment perceived their work environment as more hazardous compared to onshore employees.

With regards offshore workers, Chen, Wong and Yu (2009) found that nine facets of occupational stress including interpersonal relationships at work were associated with mental health and accounted for approximately 20% of the total variance in a sample of 561 Chinese offshore workers. Additionally, low social support, high quantitative job demands and high scores on dissatisfaction with the home-work interface respectively were associated with mental distress in a sample of 1336 Norwegian offshore workers. Furthermore, male employees reported poorer mental health than females (Ljosa, Tyssen, & Lau, 2011).

Sneddon, Mearns and Flin (2013) assert that the nature of work in offshore installations may relate to negative consequences such as high stress, reduced wellbeing, sleep deprivation, fatigue and exhaustion. Nwaogazie and Ekwemuka's (2015) study of oil and gas companies in Port Harcourt, Nigeria revealed that employees experienced high stress related to roles and demand, work control/autonomy, organisational culture and relationship and support. Additionally, Ghobrial, El-din and Shenouda (2015) found that work control, workload, and work-life balance were pertinent issues related to stress in an oil and gas company in Egypt.

The psychosocial work environment may affect safety behaviours of employees in the oil and gas industry. Indeed, Bergh et al. (2014) found that a poor psychosocial work environment was related to hydrocarbon leaks on offshore platforms. Findings from a study by Mathisen and Bergh (2016) using 653 offshore workers from two platforms, indicate that emotional exhaustion was related to impaired engagement, which was in turn is associated with increases in action errors and violations. As such, psychological and not physiological factors better explained action errors and violations. Similar results have been found in other work settings. Indeed, studies in a construction industry (Goldenhar, Williams & Swanson, 2003) and in a farm (Glasscock, Rasmussen, Carstensen, & Hansen, 2006) showed significant correlations between several stressors and safe work practices. Additionally, Ramvi (2003) found that the psychosocial work environment as indicated by the quality of social interactions was related to commitment to safety in two offshore installations.

Management of psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying is important to help create a psychologically and physically safe work environment in offshore oil and gas settings. To this end, Bergh, Hinna, Leka and Zwetsloot (2016) piloted a tool for auditing the psychosocial work environment in the oil and gas industry in Norway to monitor systems for risk management and also appraising employee mental health and well-being. Understanding these psychosocial risks including workplace bullying in the oil and gas sector and implementing measures for early identification and management is vital for ensuring positive outcomes for the employee, organisation and environment (Bjerkan, 2010).

1.5 Research context

The studies in this thesis are set in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. This is a relative new sector in Ghana. Indeed, it was not until 2007 that Ghana discovered oil in commercial quantities after decades of exploration. Three main sectors of operation in the oil and gas industry are the downstream, midstream and upstream. Exploration and production make up the upstream operations; the midstream involves transportation of the oil and gas, with refining, processing, distribution and marketing of petroleum products, being the focus of downstream activity (Sakyi et al., 2012). The historical journey of Ghana's oil and gas exploration is summarised in the following section.

1.5.1 History of oil and gas exploration in Ghana

According to the Petroleum Commission of Ghana (2018), exploration of oil in Ghana (then called Gold Coast) commenced sometime around 1896 in the onshore Tano Basin by the West African Oil and Fuel Company. Their best effort resulted in some insignificant results as their second well produced a paltry 5 Barrels per Day (BPD). Following this, Societe Francaise de Petrole, a French exploration company produced some 7 BPD in one of the six wells drilled between 1909 and 1913. Some further exploration was done between 1923 and 1925 by the African and Eastern Trade Corporation who were more successful after discovery of light crude, heavy crude and gas in their wells. However, these

were not in commercial quantities. Prior to independence in 1957, the Tano license was obtained by the Gulf Oil Company.

There was increased activity in oil and gas exploration post-independence. Exploration activities in the Accra/Keta Basins as well as the Volta Basin was done primarily by Romanian and Soviet Geo-Scientists between 1960 and 1966. Following the overthrow of the constitutionally elected government of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah in 1966, these scientists had to leave Ghana. Though they might have failed at discovering oil and gas in commercial quantities, their effort provided vital and timely data for subsequent exploration activities.

In 1967, oil and gas exploration shifted from onshore to offshore exploration. Foreign companies were invited to purchase 3-year licenses to explore for oil and gas in the continental shelf. These companies were required to drill wells of significant depth within 18-months of signing the Petroleum Agreement. Signal/Amoco Group discovered the Saltpond Oil Field (Devonian Section) in 1970 with first production of oil in 1978 operated by Agri-Petco. Due to increased interest in exploration activity, Phillips Petroleum drilled the first deep-water well named the South Dixcove -1X in the offshore Cape Three Points in 1978.

The passage of the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) Law 64 led to the establishment of Ghana's National Oil Company called Ghana National Petroleum Corporation (GNPC) in 1983. Their mandate was to expedite the operation (i.e. exploration, development, production and disposal) of Ghana's own petroleum resources to reduce an over-reliance on imported crude oil. To this end, the Petroleum [Exploration and Production] Law, 1984, PNDC Law 84, was passed to regulate the exploitation of Ghana's oil and gas resources. Thus, the GNPC began operations in 1985. Accordingly, GNPC entered into several agreements with reputable international oil and gas companies including Amoco, Atlantic Richfield Corporation (ARCO), and Diamond Shamrock (Onshore Keta). Additionally, there was considerable support from the Canadian and Japanese governments to help the GNPC acquire extensive offshore 2D seismic data. This led to further exploration and drilling of wells in the Tano and Cape Three Points Basins. In the early 2000s,

several companies including Kosmos Energy, Hess Corporation and Tullow Oil, acquired exploration and production rights for deep-water exploration.

1.5.2 The oil and gas industry in Ghana – Current operations

In June of 2007, Ghana discovered high quality oil in commercial quantities in the Jubilee Field in the West Cape Three Points and Deepwater Tano blocks. This significant find with a potential of 700 million barrels of oil (MMbo) and 800 billion cubic feet (Bcf) of gas was discovered by Kosmos Energy, a US oil and gas company (Skaten, 2018). First oil was produced from the Jubilee Field in December 2010. In March 2009, the Tweneboa, Enyenra and Ntomme (TEN) fields with an estimated 240 MMbo and 396 Bcf of gas was discovered only 3nm east of Jubilee field and started production in August 2016. Another production field, the Sankofa, Gye, and Nyame field with an estimated 500 MMbo and 1.45 trillion cubic feet of gas started production in May 2017. In October 2017, the government approved a development plan for drilling the Mahogany and Teak fields (Greater Jubilee field) with an additional estimate of 60 MMbo and 100 Bcf of gas when production starts. Additionally, since 2007, there have been twenty-four other discoveries in the offshore Western Basin (see Fig. 1-1).

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana accedes ownership of all minerals in its natural state as property of the Republic of Ghana, held in trust by the President for the people of Ghana (Article 257(6)). However, in 2004, the Government of Ghana sold rights to offshore blocks in the form of rents to various companies. International Oil Companies that currently operate in Ghana include Kosmos Energy, Tullow, Anadarko, Sabre Oil & Gas Holdings, Hess Corporation, Vitol Upstream, Eni, AGM Petroleum Cola Natural Resources Limited, Medea Development Ltd, A-Z Petroleum Products Ghana Limited, ECO Atlantic Oil & Gas Limited etc.

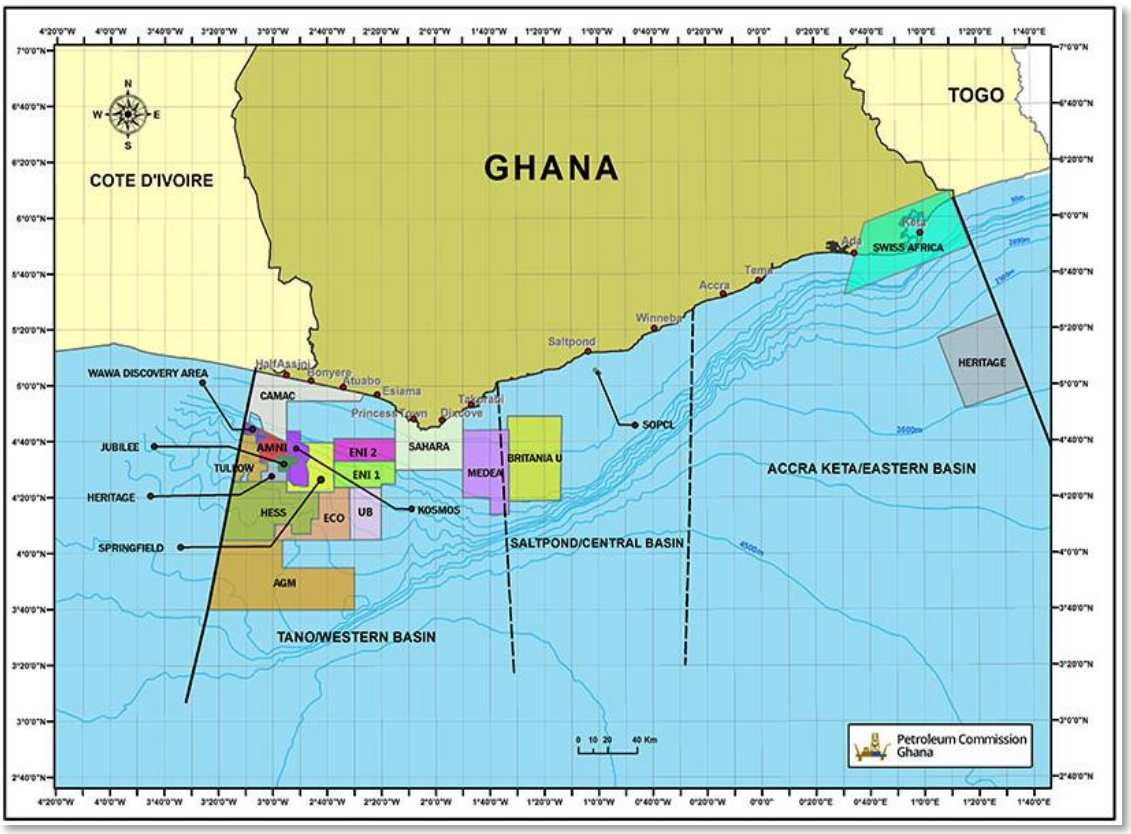


Fig 1-1: Ghana's offshore activity map (Petroleum Commission Ghana, 2018)

These companies have different ownership shares of each oil field. Currently, the Jubilee field partners are Tullow Oil Ghana (35.48%), Kosmos Energy (24.08%), Anadarko (24.08%), GNPC (13.64%), and Petro SA (2.73%). The TEN fields are operated by Tullow Oil Ghana (47.18%) with partners Kosmos Energy (17%), Anadarko (17%), GNPC (15%), and Petro SA (3.82%). The field is operated by Eni (44.44%) with partners Vitol (35.56%) and GNPC (20%) according to Skaten (2018).

According to the Ministry of Finance Ghana (2016), receipts from crude oil liftings for 2016, which accrued from the 30th (lifted in December 2015) to the 34th Jubilee liftings was US$207.79 million (GH₵811.68 million) with a total petroleum receipts (including proceeds from Jubilee liftings and other petroleum receipts) of US$247.18 million (GH₵972.55 million). This 2016 figure showed a decline from petroleum revenue from 2015 due to reduced production (faulty equipment) and world prices of crude respectively. The 2017 half-year report by the Bank of Ghana indicates that Ghana realized US$191.32 million in oil and

gas revenue. According to Ghana's Ministry of Communications (2016), it is estimated that since 2010, the oil and gas sector has employed over 7,000 Ghanaian workers.

1.5.3 Legal context – Oil and gas industry in Ghana

Since the discovery of oil and gas in commercial quantities in 2007, a lot has changed with regards the regulatory framework guiding the industry. Indeed, Ablo (2015) asserts that many new laws have been formulated and others replaced to ensure accountability, transparency, sustainability of the environment and judicious use of rents. The old laws including the Ghana National Petroleum Corporation Act 1983 (PNDC Law 64), Petroleum Exploration and Production Act 1984 (PNDC Law 84), and Petroleum Income Tax Law 1987 (PNDC Law 188) constituted the old legal framework. With the passage of the Petroleum Commission Act 2011 (Act 821), the Petroleum Commission Ghana was established to regulate, manage and co-ordinate all activities in the upstream oil and gas industry in Ghana. Additionally, the Petroleum Revenue Management Act 2011 (Act 815), and the Petroleum Revenue Management (Amendment) Act 2015 (Act 893) provide a legislative framework for organising, apportioning and managing oil and gas revenues in Ghana. The Petroleum Exploration and Production Act 2016 (Act 919) has since replaced the Petroleum Exploration and Production Act (PNDCL 84).

Other important legislation that guides the oil and gas industry includes the Petroleum (Local Content and Local Participation) Regulations 2013 (L.I. 2204), Petroleum Commission Fees and Charges Regulations (L.I. 222), Petroleum Income Tax Law 1987 (PNDCL 188), Petroleum Exploration and Production-Data Management Regulation, 2017 (L.I. 2257), Petroleum Exploration and Production - HSE Regulations 2017 (L.I. 2258), National Petroleum Authority Act, 2005 (Act 691) etc.

1.5.4 Health, Safety & Environment (HSE) management in the oil and gas industry in Ghana

In upstream onshore and offshore operations, HSE is regulated by the Petroleum Commission Ghana. The focus of their activities is to maintain high

standards with regards safety, security and the environment and to ensure the well-being of employees, communities and the environment.

Various regulations exist that focus on health, safety and the environment in the oil and gas industry. Whilst there is no specific environmental law relating to the oil and gas industry, a lot of existing legislation can be referenced with regards the environment. This includes the Environmental Protection Agency Act 1994 (Act 490), Ghana Maritime Authority Act 2002 (Act 630), Environmental Assessment Regulation 1999, the Wetland Management (Ramsar sites) Regulation 1999, Maritime Zones (Delimitation) Law 1986 (PNDCL 159), Oil in Navigable Waters Act 1964 (Act 235), Wild Reserves Regulations 1971 (L.I. 740), Wildlife Conservation Regulations 1971 (L.I. 685) etc.

Additionally, Ghana has ratified numerous treaties, conventions and multi-lateral agreements that are vital for oil and gas operations and the environment including the United Nations Convention on the Laws of the Sea 1982, the International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships (MARPOL Convention 73/78), the Convention on Biological Diversity 1992, the International Convention for the Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region 1981 (Abidjan Convention) etc. These legislations are enforced by the Petroleum Commission, the Ghana Navy and the Environmental Protection Agency, Ghana.

According to Amponsah-Tawiah and Dartey-Baah (2011), successive governments in Ghana have failed to show commitment with regards occupational health and safety policies. Indeed, they assert that of over 70 conventions/recommendations of the ILO that are occupational safety and health (OSH) related, only ten (i.e. Conventions 45, 81, 89, 90, 103, 115, 119, 120, 147 & 148) have been ratified by the government of Ghana. This low priority given to OSH in Ghana is detrimental to ensuring employee well-being. The situation is not so different in the oil and gas industry. Indeed, whilst numerous pieces of legislation exist with regards physical safety in upstream operations, there is little focus on stress and psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying in this legislation. A critical look at some of these pieces of legislation will help

understand the lack of prioritisation of issues of psychosocial risks at work. Aspects of these pieces of legislation relating to safety and health are quoted and presented in the following section:

Labour Act 2003 (Act 651)

Section 10 – Rights of a worker

The rights of a worker include the right to

(a) work under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions;

Section 118 – General health and safety conditions

(1) It is the duty of an employer to ensure that every worker employed by him or her works under satisfactory, safe and healthy conditions.

(2) Without limiting the scope of subsection (1), an employer shall

(a) provide and maintain at the workplace, plant and system of work that are safe and without risk to health;

(b) ensure the safety and absence of risks to health in connection with use, handling, storage and transport of articles and substances;

(h) prevent accidents and injury to health arising out of, connected with, or occurring in the course of, work by minimizing the causes of hazards inherent in the working environment.

Labour Regulations 2007 (L.I. 1833)

Section 18 – Occupational safety and health at work

(1) An employer shall take appropriate measures to safeguard the health and safety of employees.

(2) An employer of business premises where:

(a) an occupational accident or disease occurs, or

(b) an employee dies or is incapacitated from work as a result of an accident or disease shall report to the Chief Labour Officer or the Inspector of Factories if the accident or disease occurs during or in the course of the employment of the employee.

(3) An employer shall ensure that the business environment is not rendered unsafe by the business operations.

Workmen's Compensation Act, 1987 (PNDCL 187)

The Workmen's Compensation Law 1987 guarantees compensation to an employee as a result of a job-related accident or disease. In the event of death from such incidences, compensation is payable to dependents through the courts.

Section 31 – Occupational diseases

Occupational Disease is where the disease is due to the nature of the employment, compensation is payable if it is contracted 12 months prior to the workman's incapacity but no compensation is payable for incapacity or death if the disease comes more than 12 months after the employee has ceased to be employed by the employer who must pay the compensation.

Factories, Offices and Shops Act 1970 (Act 32) ***[As amended by the Factories, Offices and Shops (Amendment) Law, 1991 (PNDCL 275), s.1(m)]***

The health and welfare provisions are contained in *Sections 13-30*

Section 34 – Safe Means of Access and Safe Place of Employment.

(1) There shall, so far as is reasonably practicable, be provided and maintained safe means of access to every place at which any person has at any time to work, and every such place shall, so far as is reasonably practicable, be made and kept safe for any person working there.

Petroleum (Exploration and Production; Health, Safety and Environment) Regulations, 2017 (L.I. 2258)

Sections 116 to 146 relate to health and safety in the working environment.

Section 116 – Occupational health management

(1) A contractor, sub-contractor, licensee, the Corporation or any other person engaged in a petroleum activity shall take reasonable steps to promote good health and prevent illness and injury…

Section 121 – Organisation of work

(1) A contractor, sub-contractor, licensee, the Corporation or any other person engaged in a petroleum activity shall ensure that work is organised so as to prevent hazardous exposure and adverse physical and psychological strains on the employee, and to reduce the probability of error that can lead to hazard and accident situations.

(5) The contractor, sub-contractor, licensee, the Corporation or any other person engaged in a petroleum activity shall reduce excessive workloads and risks of injury and accidents based on assessment and competence and capabilities of the employee.

Section 123 – Psychosocial aspects

(1) A contractor, sub-contractor, licensee, the Corporation or any other person engaged in a petroleum activity shall ensure a good psychosocial work environment by considering conditions to improve the health, safety and welfare of the employee.

(2) Special emphasis shall be accorded to the interaction between requirements for work performance, the perception of the employees of control over their own work and social support in the work environment.

Indeed, the passing of the Petroleum HSE regulations 2017 is timely and vital to the reduction and management of psychosocial risks at work. Addressing specific aspects of the psychosocial work environment such as work organisation, workload and stress in a comprehensive regulation guiding the oil and gas industry indicates an awareness and recognition of their role in OSH management. Thus, this may be the much-needed shift of priority from only issues of the physical work environment to include the psychosocial work environment. Consequently, the benefits of a well-managed physical and psychosocial work environment will improve prospects for the employees, organisation and environment can be maximised.

Whilst some of the other Ghanaian legislation address health and safety concerns, the terms are used broadly and vaguely without any emphasis on psychosocial safety except the recently passed Petroleum HSE regulations of 2017. Additionally, even when the psychosocial work environment is captured,

as in the Petroleum HSE regulations 2017, there are no uniform standards to guide OSH operations in the industry. Additionally, various organisations have various policies that address psychosocial risks such as harassment and violence at work. However, just like the legislation mentioned, these are not specific to cover negative acts at work that are prolonged, persistent and classified as workplace bullying.

1.6 The current study

The focus of occupational health and safety initiatives in the oil and gas industry has traditionally been on physical, biological and chemical hazards, and injuries at work while work organisation and management, or the psychosocial work environment, are still largely neglected (Bergh et al., 2014) and their causes and consequences still insufficiently understood and researched in developing economies like Ghana (Kortum & Leka, 2014).

Dealing with psychosocial risks such as bullying is even more problematic since the distinction between the physical and psychosocial work environment is blurred and as such it can be difficult for it to be included appropriately in legislation and identified by OSH professionals (Amponsah-Tawiah & Dartey-Baah, 2011). Though some legislation like the Petroleum HSE regulations 2017 have some sections dealing with the psychosocial work environment, the emphasis of most sections is on the physical work environment. Issues such as workplace bullying are not properly understood and conceptualised and as such no definite and decisive measures have been put in place to deal with bullying at work beyond company policies. Indeed, developing countries including Ghana have done very little in terms of occupational health and safety in general and the psychosocial work environment owing to lack of resources, political will, monitoring and enforcement of existing laws respectively (Kortum & Leka, 2014). Additionally, Ekore (2007) posits that there is a general lack of awareness among employees in developing countries such as Ghana with regards psychosocial hazards such as bullying in the workplace.

Bullying at work occurs universally. However, a myriad of factors may influence the perception of these negative behaviours across different countries. One of such factors is culture (Salin et al., 2018). Extending Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions and the GLOBE study of over 17,000 middle managers in 62 regions across the world (House et al., 2004) to workplace bullying, it is plausible to argue that the conceptualisation, perception and experience of workplace bullying may differ across cultures. In this regard, behaviours identified as bullying by victims may be a function of values based on legal, cultural and socio-economic contexts. To this end, Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque, and House (2006), assert that the extent to which behaviours are deemed as acceptable and legitimate is based on ones' value and belief system. Consequently, behaviours that may be perceived as negative acts of bullying may differ across cultures (Fox, 2012).

Since bullying research began, most research has been based in Europe and the USA with very little research attention on African countries such as Ghana. Though some recent work has started looking at the possibility that culture may influence the perception and experience of workplace bullying (e.g., Omari & Paull, 2016; Power et al., 2013; Salin et al., 2018), much more work is needed especially in sub-Saharan countries such as Ghana. The high in-group collectivism and power distance characteristic of a collectivist culture like Ghana differs from other cultures in which much work on bullying has been done. For example, Nordic Europe (individualistic cultures) has low scores on power distance and in-group collectivism and as such may experience and react to bullying differently (Gupta, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002).

Indeed, Salin et al. (2018) in a qualitative study found that whilst social exclusion was highlighted as an important form of bullying at work by participants from Europe, participants from Asia, Africa, and USA did not generally have a problem with social exclusion. Additionally, Samnani (2013) has argued that employees' cultural values may influence their sense making and interpretation of ambiguous and unwanted negative behaviour as well as their response to such behaviour. Similarly, Lian, Ferris and Brown (2012) found that abusive supervision is less likely to be interpreted as negative and interpersonally unfair by employees in high power distance cultures. Thus,

culture may play a role in the experience of workplace bullying. Additionally, other socio-cultural factors unique to the Ghanaian such as high religiosity and social support respectively may influence one's value system and thus their perception and experience of workplace bullying (Gyekye, 2003).

Typically, work in the oil and gas industry involves on-shore as well as offshore operations. Since the discovery of oil and gas in commercial quantities in Ghana in 2007, there has been an influx of companies in this sector into the country. The growing number of multi-national companies in the oil and gas sector has changed the nature of work for the Ghanaian worker consistent with how offshore work operates. Whilst working in onshore operations comes with some challenges, much attention has focussed on the offshore work in this industry across the globe. Indeed, Deacon et al. (2010, p. 803) have described offshore work as "among the harshest and most stressful work environments in the world". This could be because of the physical and psychosocial stressors that are inherent in the work environment. Some of these hazards include environmental and climatic agents, hazardous production and drilling operations, noise, vessel motion, harmful chemicals, heavy physical work, cramped accommodation, lack of privacy, and isolated location (Parkes, 2012). These negative stressors may potentially have adverse implications for health and safety (Bjerkan, 2010).

Additionally, intensive work patterns and possible interpersonal conflicts including bullying may occur in the offshore environment (Nielsen et al., 2013). As such, both working onshore and offshore respectively may predispose an employee to be a victim of bullying. Consequently, understanding employees' experience of workplace bullying in the oil and gas industry in Ghana is not only timely but necessary to help formulate and implement policies and legislation with a preventive focus. Thus, bullying may be a critical psychosocial risk in Ghana's oil and gas industry as it has serious implications for the health and well-being of the employees, the reputation and productivity of the organisation as well as the sustainability of the environment.

Furthermore, the limited workplace bullying research in sub-Saharan African contexts have failed to use robust methodologies combining methods to present a more holistic picture of the experience of the bullying phenomenon in

such cultures. While systematic in-depth semi-structured interviews (qualitative methodology) is beneficial to explore the experience of workplace bullying (Salin et al., 2018), a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies is needed to further our understanding of workplace bullying research (Bryman, 2015).

Given the current lack of attention to workplace bulling and other psychosocial risks in Ghana, the nature of work in the oil and gas industry and socio-cultural factors that may influence the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana, this thesis used a mixed method design and had the following as its aims:

a) To understand employees' experience of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry;
b) To examine what specific job demands and resources are associated with workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry
c) To explore the role of personal resources in the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being;
d) To explore how workplace bullying is related to individual and organisational outcomes.

1.7 The structure of this thesis

This thesis is presented in seven chapters. Chapter 1 has presented an overview of workplace bullying including key concepts and consequences on the individual, organisation and society. This was followed by the presentation of the research context, compelling rationale for this research as well as the aims of this thesis.

Chapter 2 presents some models of workplace bullying leading to a review of the extant literature on workplace bullying and theoretical justifications and arguments for the empirical studies in this thesis.

Chapter 3 outlines the justifications for the methodology used in this study. Explanations for various methodological decisions in the thesis are further presented.

Chapter 4 presents the findings from the qualitative study which employed in-depth semi-structured interviews to explore employees' lived experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

Chapter 5 presents the final analytical model to be tested quantitatively taking into account findings from the qualitative study. Additionally, preliminary analysis for the quantitative phase including a test of the psychometric properties of the bullying questionnaire used in this research is presented.

Chapter 6 presents the results of the three quantitative studies. Study one explored the antecedents of workplace bullying by examining the relationship between job demands and resources respectively and workplace bullying. Study two tested if personal variables moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Finally, study three tested if psychological well-being mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and outcomes.

Chapter 7 integrates qualitative findings and quantitative results in a holistic discussion of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. The final research model is also presented. Limitations of the study and recommendations for future research as well as implications for policy and practice are discussed. The next chapter presents some relevant models of workplace bullying that seek to explain the process of bullying as well as a review of the literature related to the aims of the research studies in this thesis.

Chapter 2 Some Models applied to Workplace Bullying

2.1 Introduction

Various models have attempted to explain the complex social phenomenon of workplace bullying. Workplace bullying has been reported to be caused by a myriad of factors depending on the level of analysis and the focus of the researcher. The focus may be on the perpetrator, target or both as well as organisational and contextual factors that may be responsible for the occurrence and perpetuation of workplace bullying.

Some key models that have attempted to explain workplace bullying are discussed and evaluated in the following review. The conflict escalation model (Glasl, 1994), the relational model of workplace victimization (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004), work environment hypothesis (Leymann, 1993) and the job demand-control model (Karasek, 1979) are presented and analysed. The Job Demands - Resources (JD-R; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) model is identified as an appropriate and robust theoretical framework to help explain the report of bullying from targets and perpetrators. Additionally, Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model of workplace bullying is reviewed as a comprehensive theoretical model to explain the antecedents and consequences of workplace bullying. Finally, the theoretical justifications for the model to be tested in the quantitative studies will be presented.

2.2 Conflict escalation model

Conflicts are important aspects of organisational functioning. Whilst some conflicts may be beneficial to organisations resulting in increased performance, organisational learning and innovation (de Dreu, Harinck & Van Vianen, 1999), others may be destructive to the organisation and the individuals involved. As discussed in section 1.2.1, workplace bullying may result from dispute-related or interpersonal conflict and may have very negative consequences on the individual as well as the organisation (Baillien et al., 2009, Einarsen, 1999).

The conflict escalation model by Glasl (1994) explains how conflicts in the organisation between individuals may escalate into bullying through nine stages and in three phases (Fig. 2-1). What might have begun as a difference in opinion or interpersonal conflict may spiral and develop into very negative acts and aggressive behaviours aimed at hurting the weaker individual who in most cases is the one with lower power. The person with lower power then becomes defenceless and may experience feelings of victimisation. The escalation of conflict begins with attempts to cooperate from both parties. If the conflict remains unsolved, there is further deterioration of the situation. Both parties now cease to communicate, interpersonal tension increases, there is a focus on attacking the individual and not the issue, and there are attempts to seek coalitions and a concern to protect one's reputation. This may further escalate into disrespect for each other, moral outrage and open hostility. Threats are made and followed up with negative and aggressive behaviour with the aim of hurting or destroying the opponent.

Einarsen et al. (2016) assert that bullying can be conceptualised as extreme episodes of interpersonal conflict at work (Zapf & Einarsen, 2005). The target or victim experiences these negative acts over a prolonged period from supervisors, peers or subordinates and gets overwhelmed as the bullying acts escalate (Einarsen et al., 2011; Olweus, 1994; van de Vliert, Einarsen, & Nielsen, 2013). In a study in Germany, researchers found that over 50% of victims of bullying reported that events escalated like the Glasl model of conflict escalation (Zapf & Gross, 2001). Ciby and Raya (2014) found evidence for the role of an escalation of interpersonal conflict among employees as a source of workplace bullying using qualitative methodology. Similarly, a study by Ramely and Ahmad (2017) using quantitative methodology found that escalation of conflicts experienced by cleaners led to bullying behaviour. These conflicts according to these researchers may occur either due to personal issues such as internal competition, jealousy and egoism or due to work-related issues.

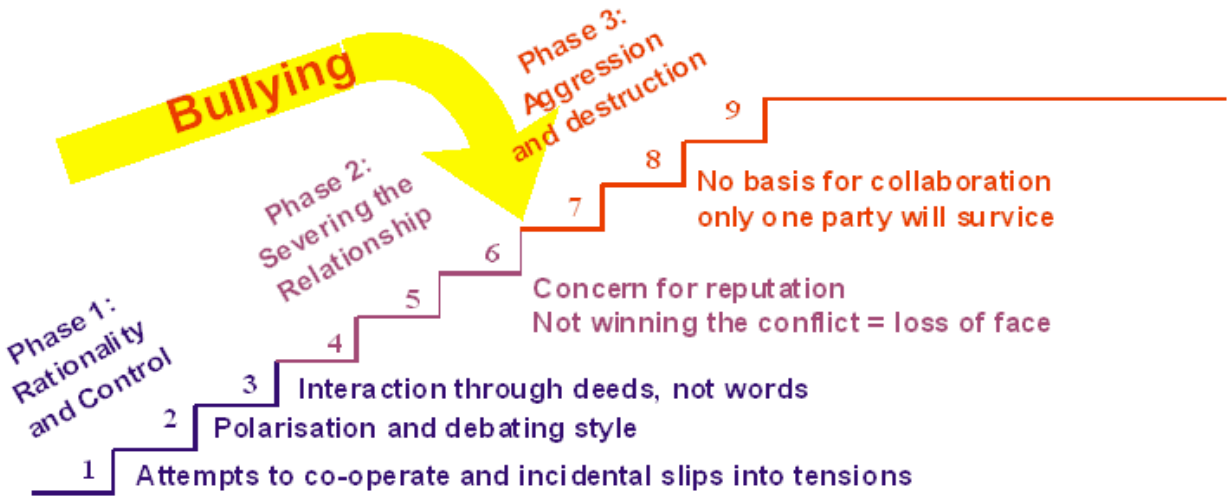


Fig 2-1: Glasl (1994) conflict escalation model, adapted from Zapf & Gross, 2001

This model offers an explanatory framework for the perpetuation of workplace bullying. It offers a hope for intervention and preventive strategies to stop workplace conflicts from escalating into workplace bullying. However, it fails to provide an explanatory mechanism for how these conflicts may start. It considers conflict-related bullying but does not explain the origins of predatory bullying (Branch et al., 2013).

2.3 Relational model of workplace victimisation

This model focusses on the interchangeable and dynamic interactions between the victim, perpetrator and the context (organisational factors). Aquino and Lamertz (2004) avoid the contraptions of victim blaming and try to capture the possibility that in an organisational setting, there are no pure perpetrators or pure victims. Aquino and Lamertz (2004) aptly explain this when they assert, “a person who perceives himself or herself to be a victim during one social encounter may retaliate in a later encounter, thereby enacting a perpetrator role” (p. 1025). A major assertion of this model is that as roles change in an organisation, the label of victim or perpetrator also changes.

Extending the understanding of the theories of labelling and social attribution, this model posits that individuals conform to behavioural expectations or norms associated with status roles or labels in a dyadic

relationship. Consistent with the scripts associated with that role, individuals may label themselves and be labelled by others. As such, when there is an individual who acts as a perpetrator of negative acts and behaviours consistent with workplace bullying definitions towards another individual, the individual who is at the receiving end of such negative acts will accept and act the relational role of a victim. For the role of a perpetrator to be enacted, there must be a corresponding counter role of a victim within the dyadic relationship (see Fig. 2-2). These behaviours are then reinforced by cueing responses that are perceived as acceptable for a role.

The relational model of workplace victimisation further explains that victimisation is role performance by different actors in the organisation. Actors who play the provocative victim role or the submissive victim role may be because of their responses to other role cues by other social actors with whom they interact and who adopt a domineering perpetrator role or a reactive perpetrator role. According to Aquino and Lamertz (2004), the dynamic interactions between the actors of these various roles may lead to episodic or institutionalised victimisation. Institutionalised victimisation is a result of endogenous factors leading to a persistent and negative pattern of aggression directed towards an individual by another organisational member and they each take over roles and behaviours consistent with their status as victims or perpetrators.

Episodic victimisation on the other hand is triggered by exogenous factors and describes harmful negative acts that are a response to situational and contextual factors and not a part of a repeated established pattern of negative behaviours.

Whilst this model may be useful in explaining the importance of social roles in the labelling of individuals as victims or perpetrators taking into consideration contextual factors, the definition of victimisation in this model is highly subjective. The heavy reliance on self-reports or self-labelling as a victim, risks categorizing any organisational member who reports being harmed as a victim. This is incongruous with well-accepted objective definitions of workplace bullying e.g. Einarsen et al. (2011). However, this model is effective in explaining how factors such as social power, social capital and organisational culture can

moderate the likelihood of victimisation within an organisation (Branch et al., 2013).



Fig 2-2: Victimisation in the context of role relationships and organisational structure (Aquino & Lamertz, 2004, p. 1024)

Lian, Ferris, Morrison, and Brown's (2014) study showed that abusive supervision and employee counterproductive behaviour were reciprocally related over a 6-month period. On the contrary, over a 20-month time lag, counterproductive behaviour predicted abusive supervision in the sample, but the reciprocal relationship was nonsignificant. Furthermore, Simon, Hurst, Kelley and Judge (2015) using 224 employees and 6 waves of data showed that reciprocal relationships exist between abusive supervision and both supervisor-directed avoidance and supervisor-directed counterproductive behaviour. They found that whilst the abusive supervision – avoidance relationship was partially mediated by fear, anger partially mediated the abusive supervision—counterproductive behaviour relationship.

2.4 Work environment hypothesis

This model is oriented against the view that the personality of the victim is the cause of workplace bullying. Adopting a situational outlook to the causes

of workplace bullying, Leymann (1993) strongly posits that aspects of the organisation related to work design, leadership and the management practices within an organisation best explains workplace bulling. He emphasises the psychosocial work environment as a major contributory factor to bullying thus the model is also referred to as the work environment hypothesis. According to Leymann (1993) four factors are responsible for triggering bullying behaviours at work. They are:

a) Deficiencies in the design of work
b) Deficiencies in leadership behaviour
c) Socially exposed position of the victim
d) Low departmental morale from managers and employees

Some aspects of the psychosocial work environment that are critical to the onset of bullying include high job demands and workload, lack of job control, low influence, lack of work centrality, poor management and leadership style, poor social contact, poor social climate and lack of role clarity among others (Agervold, 2009; Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Baillien, Rodriguez-Munoz, De Witte, et al., 2011; Balducci, Fraccaroli & Schaufeli, 2011).

Research evidence suggests that a poor psychosocial working environment will foster bullying (Goodboy et al., 2016; Hoel & Salin, 2003; Leymann, 1996). In an organisation where various aspects of the psychosocial work environment are deficient, there is the possibility of conflicts to arise. Due to poor leadership style and lack of effective controls including formal rewards and punishment systems, this conflict may deteriorate into bullying and thereby affect an already deficient work environment. Leymann argues that the organisation, which is the social context in which bullying occurs, is responsible for setting the right organisational climate and environment for employees to work characterised by systems and controls that regulate appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. As such, workplace bullying is the result of a breakdown of the structure and systems of the work environment. Arguing against the personality of employees as being the trigger for bullying at work (e.g., Bowling et al., 2010; Coyne et al., 2000; Lind et al., 2009; Nielsen, Glaso & Einarsen, 2017), Leymann posits that irrespective of the personality of the

employee, an efficient psychosocial work environment will discourage or deter acts that are against organisational norms.

Indeed, research shows that mobbing affects an employee's health and well-being and has negative consequences on the organisation as well (Figueiredo-Ferraz, Gil-Monte, & Olivares-Faúndez, 2015). About aspects of the psychosocial work environment, recent research findings suggest a strong relationship between high level of workload and workplace bullying following organisational changes in Italy after recent economic and financial downturn (Spagnoli & Balducci, 2017). Additionally, in a study by Agervold and Gemzoë (2004), they found significant differences in ratings of the various dimensions of the psychosocial work environment in bullied and non-bullied employees. Interviewed victims of bullying in Ireland identified their leaders as authoritarian, and the psychosocial work environment as highly stressful and competitive with an unfriendly climate (O'Moore et al. 1998). Agervold's (2009) study of 898 employees in local social security offices indicates that work departments that reported high workplace bullying also reported high work pressure, high work demands, role conflict, autocratic leadership style and lack of role clarity. Similarly, Skogstad, Torsheim and Einarsen (2011) found support for the work environment hypothesis at the group level of analysis. They found that social climate in the department, role demands, and leadership behaviour were strongly correlated with negative acts and bullying in the department. Thus, a relationship between workplace bullying and a poor psychosocial work environment exists at both the individual and group/departmental level.

Einarsen, Raknes and Matthiessen (1994) in a large study of Norwegian members of several trade unions reported a high level of role conflict in victims and observers of bullying. Participants also reported leadership deficiencies and a lack of control of their work tasks. These findings are consistent with Vartia (1996) who found that both victims and observers of bullying experienced similar characteristics of their work environment, which were deficient. These include poor dissemination of information, poor involvement in organisational processes and decisions as well as autocratic superiors.

As such, the work environment hypothesis focusses on aspects of the work context that can trigger bullying. This model is adequate in explaining the

onset of bullying at work but may be deficient in its ability to account for the role of personality and other individual factors in predicting workplace bullying.

2.5 Job demand-control model

Workplace bullying is considered a significant psychosocial risk that affects employees. The link between workplace bullying and stress in terms of antecedents and consequences makes workplace bullying a debilitating stressor faced by employees. The job demand-control model of Karasek (1979) concerns the role of job demands conceptualized as workload (work pace and work quantity) and job autonomy (an indicator of control) in predicting strain in employees. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job strain '*is the result of a disturbance of the equilibrium between the demands employees are exposed to and the resources they have at their disposal' (p.310).* Thus, strain results when an employee exerts additional effort at their job role whilst concurrently faced with increased negative job demands. The job demand–control model predicts that a) workload correlates positively with strain – high workload leads to strain, b) job autonomy is negatively correlated with strain – high job autonomy leads to reduced strain, and c) the synergistic interaction of workload and job autonomy may result in increased or reduced strain. With regards the interactive effect of workload and job autonomy on strain, job autonomy acts as a buffer such that the negative relationship between workload and strain is stronger under conditions of low job autonomy when job autonomy is high. This model thus posits that high strain jobs characterised by high workload may not be detrimental to the health of employees if paired with effective coping mechanisms of having job control including high autonomy and decision latitude on the job. As such, the healthiest jobs for employees may be those jobs high on job autonomy.

Related to the work environment hypothesis, and linking this model to workplace bullying, Baillen, Neyens, De Witte and De Cuyper (2009) proposed a three-way model in which workload and job autonomy are considered as antecedents of job strain, which correlates with bullying. They identified and explained two separate paths by which the job demand-control model explains

the process of workplace bullying for targets and perpetrators. Job characteristics that are deficient may lead to high strain and employees may feel frustrated and helpless. This poor state of mental health may lead to violations of organisational and work-related norms of behaviour. In response to this violation of norms by an employee, other organisational members may then react negatively and aggressively towards the employee resulting in the employee being targeted for bullying. Meanwhile, the poor job characteristics also mean the employee loses control of their decision latitude and other resources. The employee will feel helpless and accept the target status and offers little or no resistance to negative, persistent and unwanted acts typical of workplace bullying (Baillen, De Cuyper & De Witte, 2011a). Additionally, from the perpetrator's perspective and consistent with theories of aggression, poor and deficient job characteristics may result in negative feelings and conflict between employees. The perpetrator of workplace bullying copes with this situation by aggressively attacking or carrying out negative acts repeatedly and over a period towards fellow employees.

Baillen et al. (2011b) in a study of 320 Belgian employees at two separate times (6-month time lag) tested the central hypotheses of Karasek's job demand-control model in relation to targets and perpetrators. They found that for targets, workload and job autonomy at Time 1 were positively and negatively related to being a target at Time 2 respectively. For perpetrators, the positive relationship between workload at Time 1 and being a perpetrator at Time 2 was moderated by job autonomy at Time 1. Thus, they established two main effects of workload and job autonomy respectively on being a target of bullying. No main effects were found in relation to being a perpetrator. However, there was an interactive effect of workload and job autonomy about being a perpetrator. This implies that employees who experience high workloads and low resources, i.e. job autonomy, may result in high strain, which may result in the perpetrator letting out his frustrations by bullying another employee.

A stressful work environment may therefore create conditions for workplace bullying to be perpetuated. Indeed, research shows that role ambiguity, role conflict, excessive and incompatible work demands, poor physical working environment, and social climate are significant predictors of

bullying (Balducci et al., 2012; Notelaers et al., 2012; Reknes et al., 2014; Salin, 2015; Skogstad et al., 2011). In response to criticisms regarding the omission of very relevant job characteristics such as social support, the Job Demand-Control-Support model (JDCS; Johnson & Hall, 1988) was developed to include social support.

Goodboy et al. (2017) sought to explain workplace bullying as a symptom of high-strain employment using the JDCS model. They found that workplace bullying was associated with job dissatisfaction, job stress, and anxiety. Consistent with theoretical predictions of the JDCS model, Goodboy and colleagues found support for the hypothesis that employees in organisations characterised by a combination of high psychological demands, low control, and low supervisor social support more likely to be victims of bullying. Furthermore, they found a significant buffering three-way interaction between demands, control, and support. In a related study to test the three-way interaction of the JDCS model, Tuckey, Dollard, Hosking, and Winefield (2009) found that job demands and job support, but not job control, were significant predictors of workplace bullying in a sample of Australian police officers. They did not find support for the 3-way interaction hypothesis, but this could be explained by their conceptualisation of support (i.e. they measured job support and not social support).

Overall, Karasek's model as well the JDCS model are relevant in explaining workplace bullying and offer paths for prevention of workplace bullying which include manageable workloads, high control and social support. However, they have been criticized for their simplicity in explaining job strain and bullying. One major critique regards the job characteristics captured by the model (workload, job autonomy and later social support). The argument is related to the complexity of work and organisations in the 21st century where a myriad of factors, not limited to workload and job autonomy, may be responsible for high strain in employees. These factors may include colleague and supervisor support, role clarity, emotional demands and feedback among others (Bakker & Demerouti, 2006).

2.6 The job demands – resources model

To merge earlier research traditions on stress and motivation, the job demands–resources model (JD-R) is a theoretical framework that was developed in the early 21st century to complement Karasek's (1979) job demand–control model of job stress. Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli (2001) proposed the first JD-R model. This model is parsimonious in nature and comprises of job demands, job resources, disengagement and burnout. Demerouti et al. (2001) defined job demands as "those physical, social, or organisational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (p. 501). Some of these job demands include shift work, job insecurity, time pressure, workload etc. Job resources on the other hand "refer to those physical, psychological, social or organisational aspects of the job that are either/or a. functional in achieving work goals b. reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs c. stimulate personal growth, learning and development (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501). Examples of these factors that protect the health of individuals include role clarity, supervisor support, feedback etc.

A basic tenet of the JD-R model is that each occupation or job has its specific risks and protective factors that are related to job-related stress. The model predicts that under conditions of excessive job demands, the employee may be over-tasked and may lead to prolonged activation. This will lead to exhaustion (a component of burnout). When job resources are lacking, it precludes that organisational goals are achieved, and work demands met. This will make employees disengage from their work. Under conditions of high job demands and low resources, the burnout syndrome characterised by both exhaustion and disengagement affect employees.

Different job demands, and resources interact and influence the negative effect of job demands on burnout. Indeed, research has shown that the negative effect of job demands on burnout was weaker when employees perceived more job resources and the negative effect of job demands on burnout was stronger when job resources were limited respectively (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003).

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) introduced a revised version of the JD-R model (Fig 2-3). They included engagement to the original model thus including a positive state as a variant to burnout. They posited that burnout mediated the relationship between job demands and health outcomes. Work engagement also mediated the relationship between job resources and withdrawal behaviour.

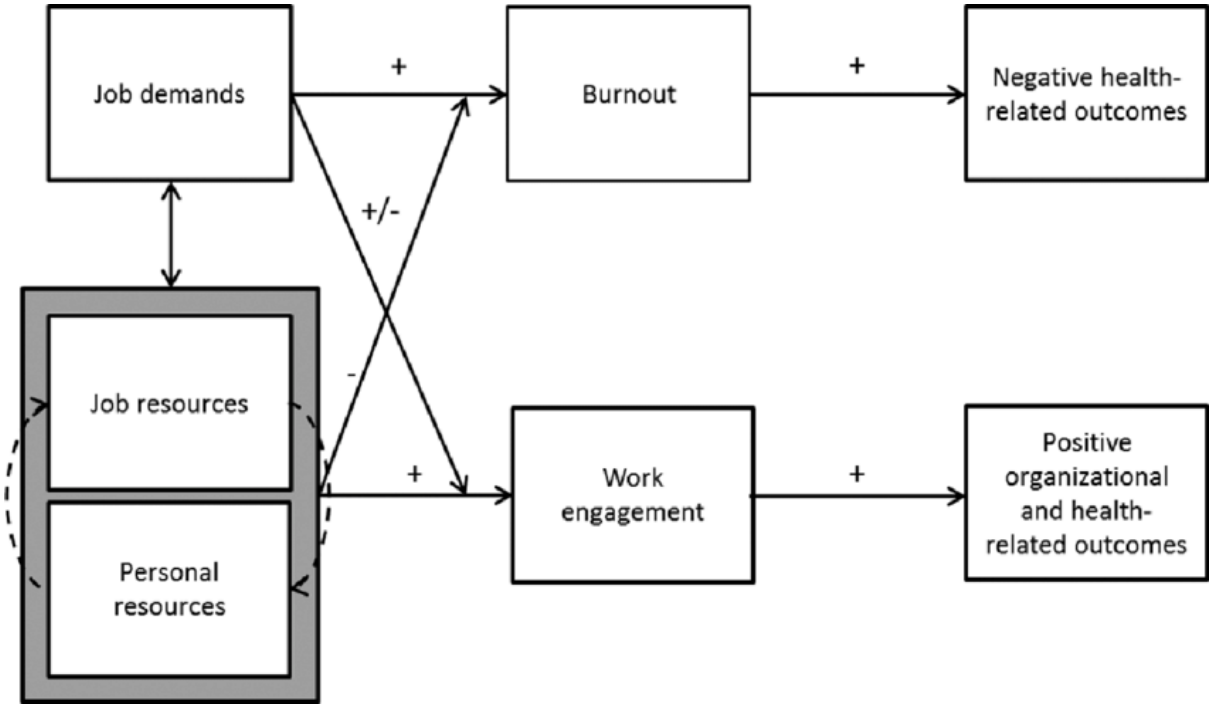


Fig 2-3: Job Demands-Resources (JDR) model based on Schaufeli (2004), Bakker, and Demerouti (2008)

In this revised model, two processes were described. The health impairment process results from demanding jobs that deplete the cognitive and physical resources of the employee. This will lead to burnout if sustained for a long time with little or no recovery time in between. Burnout will then lead to health problems like psychosomatic illness, depression, cardiovascular disease etc. The motivational process functions in relation to job resources. Demerouti and Bakker (2011) have posited that the definition of job resources implies intrinsic and extrinsic motivational roles. Consistent with De Witte and Lens (2008), and Deci, and Ryan (2000), job resources satisfy the intrinsic basic human needs for competence, autonomy and relatedness. Feedback on work done from supervisors may increase an employee's confidence and result in

learning. Such an employee may feel motivated and competent. Extrinsically, job resources provide the capacity to deal with high job demands and employees may even exert their efforts into extra-role behaviours consistent with the Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989).

A central tenet of the COR theory (Hobfoll 1989, 2001) is that individuals strive to protect, gain and preserve resources not only in response to stress but also to be well equipped with a 'reservoir of sustaining resources for times of future need' (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018, p104). As such, when resources are not limited and are readily available to employees, they may have positive emotions that may expand their thought – action repertoire and may lead to the performance of other actions at work than they normally do (Hobfoll et al., 2018).

With regards workplace bullying and the JD-R model, Van den Broeck, Baillien and Witte (2010), in a study of 745 Flemish employees, found support for the interactive effect of job demands and job resources in the prediction of perpetrators' reports of bullying. Specifically, when job resources were high, job demands correlated positively to perpetrators' reports of bullying. Additionally, there was a significant positive relationship between job demands and targets' reports of bullying, while job resources related negatively to targets' reports of bullying. Emotional exhaustion was found to mediate these relationships.

The JD-R model is a 'one model fits all' model in that it offers a heuristic to organise various variables than a specific model as the various job demands and resources are represented differently by different researchers. There is also the argument about the motivating role of certain job demands. This has led to Crawford, Le Pine and Rich (2010) distinguishing between two types of job demands: challenges and hindrances. They found that hindrances were negatively associated with engagement whereas challenges were positively related to engagement. However, the JD-R model has a broad applicability to various occupational groups and flexible enough to capture various job demands and resources. Its ability to explain the dual processes of health impairment and motivation makes it attractive and practical to occupational health psychologists who are interested in the health of employees as well as

human resource professionals who are interested in motivating employees to achieve organisational goals.

2.7 Comprehensive model of workplace bullying

Einarsen and colleagues proposed a comprehensive model for the study and management of bullying at work. The model is prescriptive and informed by previous research by Einarsen and his colleagues (Einarsen, 1999, 2000; Einarsen, Raknes & Matthiesen, 1994; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). The model distinguishes between the 'nature and causes of bullying behaviour as exhibited by the alleged offender from the nature and causes of the perceptions made by the victim of these behaviours' (Einarsen, 2000, p.11). It also differentiates between the victim's perception of being exposed to bullying behaviour and the reactions that result from it (Fig 2-4).

The model posits that bullying behaviour as exhibited by the perpetrator is because of individual, situational and contextual factors that predispose the perpetrator to act aggressively as well an absence of organisational inhibitors that deter bullying in the organisation. Brodsky (1976) argues that despite a personality disposition of the perpetrator towards aggression, the bully may only be successful in bullying other employees if the organisational culture and environment permits, tolerate and/or reward such negative acts. The prevailing national culture and the socioeconomic environment in the country in which the company operates also affects the actual act of bullying. Conceptualizing at the societal level, factors such as the changing nature of work, job insecurity, increasing number of work hours, unbearable workload, among others, may lead to stress of both the perpetrator and victim of bullying.

Einarsen further asserts that the personality of the victim may not necessarily lead to bullying behaviour by the perpetrator but is very relevant in understanding the vulnerability of the victim to persistent negative acts of bullying. Organisational action in terms of availability of policy on bullying, the pervading organisational culture and the organisation's intolerance for acts of bullying may also be important in shaping the victim's perception of the bullying behaviour.

According to Einarsen and colleagues, the bullying as perceived by the victim leads to emotional and behavioural reactions. The victim's ability to cope with the bullying is moderated by organisational and individual inhibitive factors as well as organisational level support systems and the personality orientation of the victim towards coping. Einarsen thus describes the latter part of the model to include an individual, subjective and reactive focus. An employee who is exposed to bullying and who does not cope effectively may have immediate reactions that could in the long term have devastating effects on the individual and the organisation.

This framework acknowledges the dynamic interactions among the victim, perpetrator and the organisation. In the process of bullying, the reaction of the victims and the consequences to the victim's health and well-being and to the organisation may alter the behaviour of the perpetrator, the personal characteristics of the victim as well as the response of the organisation to acts of bullying (Einarsen et al., 2011).

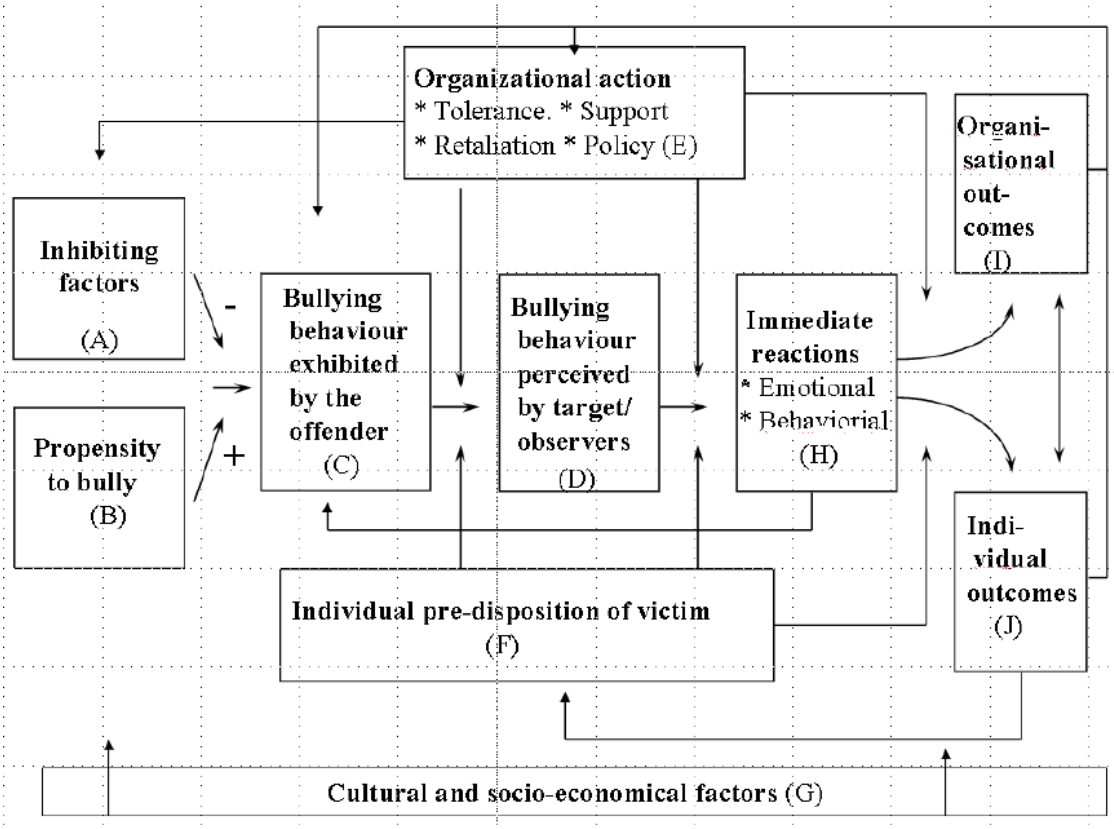


Fig 2-4: Einarsen et al. (2011) Comprehensive model of workplace bullying

Whilst, Einarsen et al.'s model is a prescriptive model that seeks to organise the –predictors and consequences of workplace bullying from the perspective of perpetrators, victims and witnesses, no study was found that directly tested the whole model. However, various researchers have explored different parts of this model. The following sections review some empirical evidence from the literature related to different aspects of Einarsen et al.'s model.

2.7.1 Job demands and resources as antecedents of workplace bullying

As discussed earlier, the JD-R model does not focus on specific demands and resources that are associated with an outcome making it applicable to a very broad range of job demands and resources. Thus, numerous specific job demands and resources may be linked to workplace bullying. Following from Einarsen et al.'s prescriptive model, job demands, and resources are posited as antecedents of workplace bulling as experienced by the target/victim. To decide on which specific job demands and job resources to be explored in this study, a review of the literature on job demands and resources with regards workplace bullying is necessary.

Previous studies (e.g., Balducci et al., 2012; Salin & Hoel, 2011) have demonstrated that work conditions and the environment influences workplace bullying. Leymann (1996) asserts that deleterious work environmental factors allow for bullying to flourish as without it other factors may have minimal effect on the behaviour. Hua et al. (2016) found a significant relationship between workplace bullying and psychosocial work environment. They suggested adjusting certain work conditions including job demands, job control and social capital to reduce harassment and bullying behaviours at work. Crucial to the work condition and environment is job demand. Baillien et al. (2011) analysed the components of job demand to include workload, irregular work tasks and work relationships.

Lewis, Megicks and Jones (2017) using data from national survey on employment rights found that work demands made on employees relate positively with bullying behaviours. Hua et al. (2016) made similar findings.

According to Baillien et al. (2011), high job demands with low control is regarded as a job stressor, whilst having higher control over ones' job attenuates the negative effect of job demands. Similarly, it was demonstrated that employees who engaged in jobs that are psychologically demanding coupled with low control and supervisor support reported more bullying experiences (Goodboy et al., 2017). The job demands assume such forms as excessive workload and a very fast work pace. However, Goodboy et al. (2017) observed that there may be a reciprocal spiral relationship between demanding/stressful job conditions and workplace bullying; that is bullying may act as both a source and consequence of stress. Notelaers et al. (2012) have provided some links between high strain and demanding jobs and the risk of an individual becoming target of bullying. In such situations also, Baillien et al. (2011) identified that the employee can become a perpetrator instead thereby perpetuating a work environment characterised by bullying.

Studies on job insecurity and bullying (e.g., Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2007) to a large extent show significant but weak associations between the two variables. Survey findings revealed that the interaction of high workloads and perceptions of job insecurity significantly predicted workplace bullying. They observed that this occurs particularly after an organisational change (Spagnoli, Balducci & Balducci, 2017). Sverke et al. (2002) have explained that most employees that feel insecure about their jobs tend to exhibit higher withdrawal behaviours and according to Bowling and Beehr (2006), this makes them potential targets for bullies. The authors found higher turnover intentions, non-compliant job behaviours and poor performance as some outcomes of job insecurity. Employees exhibiting these behaviours are considered as safe or easy targets as they may give bullies a reason to bully. Hoel and Salin (2003) additionally explained that job insecurity erodes/neutralises the resistance power of the employee against bullying acts at work.

Examining the empirical link between job insecurity and bullying through the lenses of perpetrators, Berkowitz (1989) using the revised frustration-aggression hypotheses explained that feelings of job insecurity among perpetrators (perhaps by those at management and supervisory positions) pushes them to bully subordinates in order to reduce their frustrations. Similar

explanations were given by Hinduja (2007) in his general strain theory to explain the link between job insecurity and bullying. According to Ashforth (1994), the perpetrators job insecurity could stem from such factors as failure to meet set targets and environmental ambiguity.

Social support on the job is characterised by helpful relations with supervisors and co-workers (Karasek & Theorell, 1990, p. 291). Support at different levels is very crucial to the life of an individual in an organisation. There is however, evidence to suggest that support from co-workers and friends of bullied victims will be withdrawn as the co-workers are often drawn into the 'role of bystander victim' (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2011). Hua et al. (2016) found a negative association between workplace social support and workplace bullying. Similarly, Lewis, et al. (2017) established negative associations between employee autonomy, manager and peer support, as well as role clarity and harassment behaviours at work.

Studies on social support and bullying among military and paramilitary organisations revealed that perceived organisational social support related significantly with bullying defined as intimidation and personal attacks. The constructs (bullying and organisational support) interacted to explain a good amount of variance (28%) in psychological well-being of the personnel (Brunetto et al., 2017). This evidence points to a significant influence of social support on how bullying affects the well-being of personnel. Additionally, significant moderating relationships were found between workplace bullying and turnover intention (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2008) that occurs because of poor psychological well-being. Cassidy, McLaughlin and McDowell (2014) found that social support mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and well-being as well as workplace bullying and ill-being.

Bernstein (2013) explained that in the context of workplace bullying, social support of different forms and from different sources, helps bolster the self-esteem of targets/victims. Support from the organisation serves as support against which an employee's frustrations from bullying acts could be displaced and helps with the resolution of the bullying. The support helps reduce (moderate) the anxiety that comes with bullying experience (Bernstein, 2013). Several researchers (e.g., Quine, 2011; Rodwell et al., 2013; Trépanier et al.,

2016) have corroborated this. For instance, Quine (2011) found that high social support lowers the level of depression in the face of bullying among nurses in the UK.

Finchilescu, Bernstein, and Chihambakwe (2018) recently found similar relationships among nurses in Zimbabwe. Their study found a significant moderation effect of social support in the relationship between bullying and mental well-being of employees. The researchers (Finchilescu, et al., 2018) acknowledged understaffing and lack of basic resources for work in the organisation prior to measuring the bullying behaviours. These could be considered as excessive workload on the nurses, which constitutes bullying. It can therefore be argued that the social support may simply be buffering the workload factors but not the bullying behaviours. According to Van den Brande et al. (2016), active focus coping (problem focused coping) involving seeking social support helps to decrease (buffer) the association between work stressors and exposure to bullying.

Qualitative evidence (Keashly, 2001) has also revealed that emotional abuse policies and resolution procedures moderate the relationship between the negative act and its effects on victims. These emotional abuse policies and resolution structures within the organisation may be considered an organisational source of social support. According to Keashly (2001), the support attenuates the effect of the abuse by increasing coping resources. Similarly, Schat and Kelloway (2003) found that instrumental support (e.g., support from co-workers and managers to complete tasks) and informational support (e.g., training employees on how to deal with aggressive acts at work) reduced the effect of workplace violence on the emotional well-being of employees. It has also been shown that organisational resources of all forms (e.g., financial and social) moderates the relationships between bullying and several work outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction and turnover intentions) that define well-being (Quine, 2001). Employees who reported lower levels of availability of the organisational resources also reported greater negative bullying experiences (Quine, 2001).

Central to job resources and the psychosocial work environment in recent times is the role of social capital (Pihl, Albertsen, Hogh, & Andersen, 2017).

Organisational social capital describes the social relations and ties that connects employees and their jobs (Kiss, De Meester, Kristensen, & Braeckman, 2014; Kristensen, 2010). It entails social networks and shared norms (Sabatini, 2009). Empirical evidence (Kouvonen, et al. 2008; Oksanen, et al., 2008) has linked low organisational social capital with poor psychological health. The resource (social capital) has been found to relate to bullying at work in diverse ways. Findings by Svendsen and Svendsen, 2006 (cited in Pihl et al., 2017) indicate that social capital acts as buffer that prevents ambiguous actions and roles to be perceived as bullying. They explained that high social capital is characterised by trust among employees and this reduces 'speculations of negative intentions behind actions' (Pihl et al., 2017, p. 538). However, low social capital has been found to increase the risk of bullying (Baillien, Neyens, & De Witte, 2008). Further investigations by Pihl et al. (2017) on the social capital and bullying relationship revealed that different forms of low social capital (horizontal and vertical) increased the likelihood of both self-reported and observed bullying at the work place. The relationship was however found to be bi-directional (reciprocal).

2.7.2 Workplace bullying and psychological well-being

Workplace bullying is an extreme occupational stressor that may affect the target employee's psychological well-being. Psychological well-being is operationalised to reflect an individual's general state of mind including positive affective states and optimal functioning with regards one's social life (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryff, 1989). Ryff (1989) further found six distinct dimensions of psychological well-being: these are purpose in life, autonomy, personal growth, self-acceptance environmental mastery, and positive relations with others. Psychological well-being may be understood from a hedonic perspective which focusses on positive feelings like happiness or from a eudemonic perspective grounded in psychology with a focus on self-actualisation and self-determination, as well as personal fulfillment from a fully functioning individual (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Research has shown that individuals with good psychological well-being have both positive psychological functioning as well as subjective positive feelings (Page & Vella-Brodrick, 2009; Ryff & Keyes, 1995).

Employee psychological well-being may affect the organisation, as employees need positive mental health to be able to perform their job roles and achieve organisational goals. Extending arguments from the job demands-resources model, research has shown that the negative effect of job demands on burnout (a state of poor psychological health) was weaker when employees perceived more job resources whilst the negative effect of job demands on burnout was stronger when job resources were limited (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003). Indeed, Vella-Brodrick and Page (2009) found that employees' exposure to stressors such as high job demands (excessive demands from superiors and work overload) as well as low job resources (interpersonal conflict and bullying from subordinates, colleagues and superiors) has negative consequences for employee health and well-being. Vartia (2001) also found significant reduction in witnesses and bullied employees' psychological well-being. Consequently, high psychological well-being is associated with less absenteeism and higher productivity (Harter, Schmidt, & Keyes, 2003).

Research shows that the affected employees or victims of workplace bullying show moderate to severe symptoms of physiological, emotional, psychological, psychosomatic and physical distress (Aquino & Thau, 2009; Baillien, Neyens, De Witte, & De Cuyper, 2009; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Roscigno, Lopez, & Hodson, 2009). According to Lewis, Sheehan and Davies (2008) symptoms of psychological distress include posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), irritability, anxiety and depression whilst physiological symptoms include reduced self-esteem and self-worth, burnout, shame, guilt, and emotional exhaustion. Physical symptoms like pain and fatigue and psychosomatic problems including sleep disorders and victimisation may also occur. These various symptoms may result in self-hatred, suicidal ideation and suicide (Leymann, 1992; Thylefors, 1987).

Workplace bullying has been found to have adverse consequences on employees'/victims' mental health (e.g., Vega & Comer, 2005; Verkuil et al., 2015). Among a cross section of Norwegian employees, those working in environments characterised by bullying behaviours were found to be more likely to exhibit psychological distress (Einarsen & Nielsen, 2014). According to

Kivimaki et al. (2003), workplace bulling always remains a significant predictor of poor psychological well-being such as higher levels of depression irrespective of socio-demographic status of age, income and education. Similarly, higher anxiety levels were also found for bullied victims than the non-bullied by several researchers (e.g., Einarsen & Nielsen, 2014; Quine, 1999).

It has been demonstrated that the consequences of bullying on a victim's psychological well-being often linger on long after the bullying behaviour ceases. Hallberg and Strandmark (2006) found, through a qualitative enquiry, that victims of workplace bullying often express the feeling of being "marked for life" (p. 112). This feeling, they explained, slows the recovery process for the victims. This has been corroborated by other researchers (e.g., Balducci et al., 2009; Rodríguez-Munoz et al., 2010; Tehrani, 2004), who found workplace bullying as a significant risk factor for post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Finne et al. (2011) have also demonstrated the long-term effects of bullying on psychological health through longitudinal studies. They found the effect of bullying on victims' mental distress to be significant two years after their experiences. It is also evident that it is not only the victim that suffers the long-term adverse consequences on psychological well-being but also individuals who witness bullying equally suffer a similar fate (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Among nurses, workplace bullying has been found to affect their professional well-being through decreasing engagement, work motivation and quality of work life (Laschinger et al., 2012; Trepanier et al., 2013). Additionally, Goodboy et al. (2017) found among American employees that bullying experiences correlated positively with job stress and anxiety.

Other researchers (e.g., Lee & Brotheridge, 2006; Rodríguez-Muñoz, Notelaers, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2011) have found that bullying affects the well-being of individuals by first reducing the coping resources, creating worry and the need for recovery. According to Lee and Brotheridge (2006), belittlement identified as a form of bullying predicted self-blaming and the feeling of inadequacy in one's abilities. This in turn predicted symptoms of burnout including emotional exhaustion, cynicism and poor professional efficacy. Thus, workplace bullying may have disastrous consequences on employees' psychological health and well-being in the short and long term.

2.7.3 Moderators of workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship

The current model also proposed that some variables would moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological outcomes. Schaufeli and Taris (2014) assert that due to the interaction of personal and environmental factors in determining behaviour, it is necessary that the JD-R model evolved over time to include personal resources. However, there seems to be confusion in the literature as to how to integrate these personal resources into the JD-R model.

According to Schaufeli and Taris (2014), personal resources have been considered to:

a) directly impact well-being
b) moderate the relationship between job characteristics and well-being
c) mediate the relationship between job characteristics and well-being
d) influence the perception of job characteristics
e) act as a third variable in explaining perceptions of job characteristics and/or employee well-being.

As such, workplace bullying is viewed as a demand or stressor characteristic of the job which has the potential to lead to negative consequences such as low psychological well-being. Consequently, when extended to the prescriptive model of Einarsen and colleagues (2011; Fig. 2-4), personal resources may moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being (a proximal outcome). In the current theoretical model, personal resources, which include social support, religiosity and power distance, were included as variables that moderate the workplace bullying-well-being relationship. These variables are considered important aspects of Ghanaian society and may serve as third variables that could help explain the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. For example, Ghanaians are considered very religious people as their belief in a Supreme Being is central to every aspect of life with about 95% of Ghanaians engaging in religious activity weekly (Max-Wirth, 2018). Indeed, for Ghanaians religious faith and beliefs as well as religious participation constitute the

fundamental source of their sense of social identity, destiny and values (Max-Wirth, 2018). As such, religiosity is signified by a personal relationship with the Supreme Being and may serve as an additional resource that may help deal with life's challenges. Thus, religiosity is included as a potential personal support in this model.

Furthermore, social support is conceptualised in the current study as the availability and perception of social support from family, friends or significant others, which may include work colleagues (Zimet et al., 1988). This differs from the social support at work, which is central to the job demands-resources model. With the JD-R model, social support is from supervisor, colleagues, subordinates and from the organisation but may not include social support external to the organisation and its members. Ghana is considered a collectivist culture and as such society is described from the social and collective aspects of the self-concept with a focus on the family (nuclear and extended) and strong life-long emotional ties (LeFebvre & Franke, 2013). As such, social support may act as a very important personal resource that may alleviate the negative effects of workplace bullying on employee well-being and has been included in the model to be tested.

Adopting a positive psychology approach, the model posits that the negative effect of workplace bullying on psychological well-being will be reduced when the personal resources (social support and religiosity) are high as compared to when they are low. Additionally, power distance (a dimension of culture) was explored as a moderator of the bullying-well-being relationship as Ghana is considered a high-power distance society according to Hofstede (1980).

2.7.3.1 Religiosity

Different definitions have been offered for religion in the literature. Religion is seen as devotion to institutionalised or personalised belief in a Divine being or higher power and a commitment to practises and rituals focussed on that higher power through identification with religious sects, traditions and denominations (Probst & Strand, 2010). In the current study, religiosity is defined as strength of religious faith (Plante, Vallaeys, Sherman & Wallston,

2002). This has also been referred to as intrinsic religiosity. Koenig and Büssing (2010, p. 80) assert that intrinsic religiosity is the "*degree of personal religious commitment or motivation…. involves pursuing religion as an ultimate end in itself*". According to Allport and Ross (1967, p. 434) intrinsically religious people are "*persons with this orientation find their master motive in religion. Other needs, strong as they may be, are regarded as of less ultimate significance, and they are, so far as possible, brought into harmony with the religious beliefs and prescriptions. Having embraced a creed, the individual endeavours to internalize it and follow it fully. It is in this sense that he lives his religion*".

There has been increased interest in explaining the mechanism by which religion buffers the experience, interpretation and response to positive and negative life events and how this contributes to psychological adjustment. Indeed, there have been different schools of thought by psychologists with regards the specific role of religion in ensuring well-being. Allport (1950) and Jung (1993) argue that religion improves psychological well-being by providing meaning and permanence amid uncertainty. As such, religion is viewed as a resource for managing and coping with potentially threatening or stressful organisational events including workplace bullying. Other researchers (e.g. Schreurs et al., 2014) found that religion acts as a demand exacerbating negative organisational experiences and causing harm to psychological functioning.

Religiosity has been found to be significantly associated with better psychological well-being (Fabricatore et al., 2004; Myers & Diener, 1995). Similarly, religious and spiritual practices have been found to be effective mechanisms for coping with stressful situations such as work overload and exhaustion among employees (Arnetz et al., 2013). Religious values help attenuate the effect of workplace stress and promote better psychological well-being (Arnetz et al., 2013). Pargament (2001) in his seminal theory on religiosity, explains that religious coping provides mechanisms for emotional regulation, searching for meaning, receiving social support and feeling in control following traumatic experiences which may include bullying (ter Kuile & Ehring, 2014).

Specifically related to bullying, several researchers (e.g., Azizan & Razlina, 2015; Kraus & Hamzah, 2009) have shown that religiosity and

spiritually moderate the effects of bullying and negative acts on employees' work attitudes. For instance, Azizan and Razlina (2015) found that religious individuals or people with religious personalities were more likely to have positive job attitudes in the face of workplace incivility. The study showed a significant moderating effect of a religious personality trait in the relationship between incivility in the work place and work attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment).

Among Muslims, Kraus and Hamzah (2009) explained that having an Islamic personality that represents the manifestation of an individual's worldview helps resolve the effect of workplace incivility. The Islamic personality promotes forgiveness and reconciliation that buffers the effect of incivility (Hafiz & Hafiz, 2014). Khan, Sabri, and Nasir (2016) have also investigated the moderating role of workplace spirituality in the relationship between workplace bullying and employee productivity. The findings indicated a negative effect of workplace bullying on productivity. However, workplace spirituality moderated the effect of the bullying to improve employee productivity. Workplace spirituality was defined as comprising one's inner life and awareness of God's supervision, which is like religiosity (Kinjerski & Skrypnek, 2006; Roscigno et al., 2012). Thus, in times of adversity or high stress, religion may provide the comfort, strength and hope to restore and maintain health and well-being. In the current study, religiosity was examined as a personal variable that could moderate the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship.

2.7.3.2 Social Support

Social support has been defined as "an exchange of resources between at least two individuals perceived by the provider or recipient to be intended to enhance the well-being of the recipient" (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984, p. 13). Tardy (1985) further asserts that defining social support should include disposition (availability vs. utilisation of support services), direction (support given or received), nature (description or evaluation of support received), content (form of support) and network (source of support).

Djurkovic, et al. (2008) have found that support from co-workers is vital in reducing the negative impact of bullying. Furthermore, bullied employees

report less support from co-workers (Hansen et al., 2006). Additionally, evidence from stress research indicates that social support is both a mediator and moderator of stress and individual and organisational outcomes respectively (Cassidy, 2011). Indeed, among non-working class adolescents, family social support buffered the effect of bullying on psychological distress (Bhui, Silva, Harding, & Stansfeld, 2017). Although this was found outside the organisational context, the influence can be generalised across situations. Not much research evidence exists with regards non-work related social support and workplace bullying.

When considered as a personal resource, social support from family, friends and significant others is available to an individual based on the quality of relationships outside the workplace. As such, in a society like Ghana an individual may benefit from a well-defined social support system including from spouse, children, parents, cousins, uncles, aunts, religious leaders etc. who may offer support to deal with negative incidences as bullying at work. Thus, social support was investigated as a moderator of the workplace bullying and psychological well-being relationship.

There has been a distinction between actual social support and perceived social support in the literature with the two correlating weakly with each other (Barrera, 1986; Schwarzer & Leppin, 1991). Some studies have shown that only perceived social support (an individual difference variable) has an impact on desired outcomes (Taylor, 2011). Consequently, in the current study, perceived social support was measured and comprises support from family, friends (co-workers inclusive) and significant others.

2.7.3.3 Power distance

Culture has been conceptualised differently by various researchers. Culture is defined as the "*collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another*" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 9). This implies that culture is "*a system of collectively held values*" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 24) and has been described as the software of the mind (Hofstede, 1980). Culture is defined as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from

common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House & Javidan, 2004, p. 15). Thus, culture creates shared cognitive structures (e.g. implicit theories) among a specific group and thus specific values, attitudes, and behaviours have a common interpretation within a specific culture.

Hofstede (1980) using survey questionnaires in two separate data collections between 1967 and 1973, measured societal values using employees of all subsidiaries of a giant multi-national firm in 66 countries. Analysis of individual responses from 40 out of the 66 countries resulted in a representation of values that was most typical and widely shared within country-specific samples. Theoretical reasoning and statistical analysis revealed four bi-polar dimensions by which national cultures can be distinguished when country-level means were factor analysed. These are:

a) Power distance;
b) Uncertainty avoidance;
c) Individualism and collectivism; and
d) Masculinity and femininity.

After a study (Hofstede & Bond, 1988) of students in 23 countries, using a survey questionnaire initially developed with Chinese employees and managers, Hofstede added a fifth dimension to his model called long term orientation (LTO) or Confucian dynamism (Hofstede, 2001). He later identified a sixth cultural dimension: indulgence versus restraint based on a world values survey data analysis of 93 representative samples of national populations. Thus, the other two dimensions included are:

a) Long term orientation
b) Indulgence and restraint

The Global leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004) builds on previous work by Hofstede (1980, 1984, 2001) by studying 62 societies across the world with a focus on managers and their organisations to ascertain cultural differences. Using questionnaires as well as interviews, focus groups, and content analysis, a sample of about 17,000 managers from 951

companies were used in the study. The study derived nine core dimensions of culture with six of these based on Hofstede's (2001) categorization of cultural dimensions. These are assertiveness, performance orientation, humane orientation, in-group collectivism, future orientation, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism and gender egalitarianism.

There have been many criticisms of Hofstede's work in the literature. Some scholars questioned the representativeness of the samples used in reflecting the population of the respective countries (Triandis, 1996; McSweeney, 2002). Baskerville (2003) argued that representing nations with culture could prevent the comprehension of intra-cultural differences within nations. Indeed, she posits that there are 81 'cultures' in 32 countries in Western Europe and 98 different 'cultures' in 48 countries in Africa (Baskerville, 2003). Furthermore, McSweeney's (2002) critic that the findings from the early 1970s are outdated was refuted by Hofstede (2001) who argues that if any differences exist they will be minimal as national cultural value systems remain stable over time.

Hofstede's framework is highly parsimonious and offers a useful framework for studying cultures as evidenced by the high level of convergence with other approaches for measuring culture (e.g. Schwartz, 1994; Triandis, 1996; Trompenaars, 1997). The GLOBE research, though not without criticisms, has been used as an important and practical framework in assessing many organisational behaviours which include organisational citizenship behaviours (Euwema, Wendt & van Emmerik, 2007), leadership behaviours (House et al, 2004; Raskovic & Krzisnik, 2010), flexible work and turnover (Stavrov & Kilaniotis, 2010) among others. More importantly, researchers using data from the GLOBE research have found utility of the data in studying clusters of countries (Gupta, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002) or studying specific nations (Jacobson, Hood & Van Buren III, 2014).

According to Hofstede and Bond (1984), power distance is the degree to which societal members accept the unequal distribution of power and authority in relationships as well as social inequality. In the workplace, power distance can be experienced as the extent to which supervisors/superiors influence employees, with employees abiding to authoritarian norms and doing what they

are told. Research shows that companies in such high power distance cultures have centralised management and decision making characterised by bureaucracies, less delegation of authority and an autocratic structure when compared to low power distance cultures. Employees are expected to be committed, loyal and accept instructions from superiors without questioning (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Hofstede, 1980; Ueno & Sekaran, 1992).

Organisations with high human orientation (low power distance) are those where fairness, generosity, caring and kindness to one another are more likely to disapprove of bullying behaviours (House & Javidan, 2004). This is because high human oriented cultures emphasise the need for those in authority to establish an atmosphere of care and equality with subordinates (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). The evidence base for the role of power distance in organisations on bullying appears contradictory. Some researchers (e.g., Einarsen & Raknes 1997; Hoel, Cooper & Faragher 2001) have found that that both supervisors/managers and subordinates experience bullying equally. Other researchers (e.g., Salin, 2001) have also found that subordinates report more experience of bullying than managers and supervisors occupying higher hierarchical levels.

It is plausible that a consequence of high power distance in workplace relationships is that downward bullying is tolerated by those involved directly (i.e. perpetrator and target). Casimir et al. (2012) examined if the magnitude of the indirect effect of downward bullying on physical symptoms via negative affect is moderated by culture. They hypothesised that the indirect effect of downward bullying on physical symptoms via negative affect will be stronger in Australia (low power distance) than in Uganda (high power distance) due to differences in attitudes to formal authority at work. Results indicated that whilst the Ugandan sample reported higher levels of downward bullying compared to the Australian sample, interestingly the two samples reported similar levels of negative affect because of being bullied. The substantive conclusion therefore is that the Ugandan sample is less sensitive to being bullied than is the Australian sample in that the Ugandan sample reported higher levels of bullying but attributed similar levels of negative affect to being bullied as the Australian sample.

Additionally, Casimir and colleagues concluded that the observed differences in the effects of downward bullying on negative affect were attributable to 'cultural differences in both attitude to authority and leadership styles' (p. 424). Power et al. (2013) in a cross-cultural study of 14 countries found differences in acceptability of workplace bullying across cultures. Across all cultures, physically intimidating bullying was less acceptable than work-related bullying. The Confucian Asia culture (high performance orientation) had a greater tolerance for bullying making working place bullying more acceptable in comparison to Sub-Saharan Africa (high humane orientation) culture. As such, culture may play an important role with regards the experience and effects of workplace bullying.

Ghana is largely a high power distance culture but with the advent of multinational firms in the oil and gas industry, it is plausible to posit that employers may seek employees who match their expectations with regard how they view authority. Furthermore, with the world increasingly becoming a global village, some employees with vast experience working across the world may display traits indicative of a low power distance orientation. As such, power distance may serve as a third variable that may moderate the effect of workplace bullying on psychological well-being.

2.7.4 Psychological well-being as a mediator between workplace bullying and outcomes

Consistent with predictions of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model, various individual and organisational outcomes were tested as distal outcomes of workplace bullying. The mechanism of workplace bullying effects on these outcomes is hypothesised to be indirect and mediated through psychological well-being. The outcomes studied include burnout and engagement (individual outcomes) and organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions (organisational outcomes).

Burnout is characterised by cynicism (i.e., a negative, callous, and cynical attitude towards one's job), lack of professional efficacy (i.e., the tendency to evaluate one's work negatively) and emotional exhaustion (i.e., the draining of emotional resources) in response to prolonged occupational stress

(Gonzalez-Roma´ et al., 2006). Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter (2001; p. 397) define burnout as "*a prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job*".

Extending arguments discussed earlier and related to the job demands-resources model, the health impairment process is linked directly to burnout in employees. Job demands, which include work overload, stress, physical and emotional demands and other psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying, may deplete mental and physical resources available to an employee. This may result in emotional exhaustion and health problems (Demerouti et al., 2000; Leiter, 1993).

Work engagement is "*a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption. Vigour is characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties. Dedication is characterized by a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge. Absorption is characterized by being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, where time passes quickly, and one has difficulty detaching oneself from work*" (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002, pp. 74–75).

Similarly, the JD-R model posits a motivational process in which job resources are critical in activating a positive affective motivational state, work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Thus, high engagement on the part of employees may trigger and sustain desired organisational outcomes such as increased organisational commitment and performance and low sickness absence.

Ketchand and Strawser (2001, p. 222) define organisational commitment as ''*the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation*''. Arguing for the conceptualisation of organisational commitment as a multidimensional construct rather than a singular one, Allen and Meyer (1996) have viewed organisational commitment as a psychological link between the employee and his or her organisation that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation. Organisational

commitment consists of continuance, affective and normative commitment respectively. In continuance commitment, the employee's decision to stay on with the organisation is based on a calculation about the cost of leaving the organisation. According to Allen and Meyer (1996), affective commitment is characterised by employees' emotional attachment to, involvement in and identification with the organisation. Staying with the organisation because of a rational process of evaluating pressures to behave in a manner consistent with organisational goals and interest is called normative commitment.

Research into stress and other psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying has shown that there is a positive relationship between stress on the job and continuance commitment (Glazer & Beehr, 2005). Furthermore, difficulties in workplace relationships, such as being bullied, had an adverse influence on employee commitments toward professional and organisational values (Lewis, 2006). There is a strong negative relationship between affective commitment and bullying behaviour owing to the emotional reaction of being bullied (Hoel & Cooper, 2000; McCormack et al., 2006).

Turnover intentions are conceptualised as a voluntary, conscious and deliberate willingness on the part of an employee to leave an organisation and is measured with reference to a period. Turnover intentions may result from 'push' or 'pull' factors. According to Hogh et al. (2011), pull factors result from the ease of movement in terms of perception of available jobs or current labour market conditions whereas push factors reflect perceived desirability of movement. Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) assert that turnover intentions, just like thinking of quitting and intent to search for alternative employment, are withdrawal cognitions. It must be noted that most employees may have an intention to leave an organisation but may never actually carry through the decision.

A positive affective individual reaction to one's work is termed job satisfaction. Locke (1976) define job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state ensuing from a subjective appraisal of one's job experiences. Job satisfaction has been found to correlate with employee health (Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005), safe working conditions (Barling, Kelloway, & Iverson, 2003) and job performance (Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001).

2.7.4.1 Workplace bullying, well-being and outcomes

The relationship between workplace bullying, individual, and organisational outcomes respectively has been documented in the literature. The argument put forward in this study is that the effect of workplace bullying on outcomes is mediated by psychological well-being. As such, workplace bullying (a job demand) may affect an employee's well-being proximally and this may then translate to negative and/or positive outcomes for the individual and the organisation consistent with Einarsen et al.'s model and the JD-R model. In this study, the individual outcomes explored are work engagement and burnout. Organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions were organisational outcome variables of interest in the current study.

There is substantial empirical evidence that workplace bullying has deleterious psychological implications for both victims' work attitudes and health (Hoel et al., 2011; Hogh et al., 2011). For example, using a longitudinal 2-wave study, Rodriquez-Munoz, Baillien, De Witte, Moreno-Jimenez, and Pastor (2009) found statistically significant and negative relationships between workplace bullying and job satisfaction. They concluded that workplace bullying was an antecedent of job-related (negative) well-being, such that negative acts at work could deplete the victims' psychological resources and reduce their engagement at work. Similarly, Trepanier, Fernet, and Austin's (2014) cross-sectional study of 1179 Canadian public sector nurses, indicated statistically significant relationships between workplace bullying and work engagement and burnout respectively. Additionally, workplace bullying was a statistically significant negative predictor of psychological needs for competence, relatedness and autonomy. Furthermore, Chen et al.'s (2013) study revealed that incivility was significantly and negatively correlated with work engagement. Other studies have revealed that workplace bullying negatively predicts job satisfaction (Giorgi et al., 2015; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Quine, 2003). Additionally, turnover intention has been found to be high for employees experiencing workplace bullying (Berthelsen et al., 2012; Djurkovic et al., 2004; Houshmand et al., 2012).

Despite these findings, much attention has not been given to the psychological factors that underlie the relationship between workplace bullying and negative work outcomes (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). The focus has been

on the linear relationships between bullying, individual, and organisational outcomes respectively. According to Rai and Agarwal (2018), this development has led to an oversimplification of the workplace bullying phenomenon. Rigotti (2009) assert that mood and attitudes do not change in a linear fashion, but certain psychological factors may underlie such changes. The underlying psychological mechanisms can entail factors such as emotional states and psychological well-being. Glasø et al. (2011) for instance, have suggested that the emotions of the victims and how their affect towards bullying experiences influences their work attitudes can help throw more light on the underlying explanatory mechanisms. As such, this section attempts to synthesise pieces of evidence on the mediating role of different psychological well-being variables in the relationship between workplace bullying, and organisational, and individual outcomes respectively.

Vignoli, Guglielmi, Balducci, and Bonfiglioli (2015) investigated the processes that links bullying to negative health outcomes. The role of job strain was considered as a mediating factor. Findings indicated that job-related strain mediates the relationship between organisational bullying and negative health outcomes such as musculoskeletal disorders. Coyne et al. (2017) studied the relationship between cyberbullying, mental strain and job satisfaction. The role of negative affect and interpersonal justice in the relation was additionally examined. An indirect relationship was observed for bullying and job outcomes through negative affect. The negative affect in the context of the study defines the state of psychological well-being of the participants. Additionally, interpersonal justice, which represents a psychological response to perceived fairness, was also found to mediate the relationship between the cyberbullying and job satisfaction (Coyne et al., 2017).

Additionally, negative affectivity has also been found to mediate the workplace bullying and health outcomes relationship (Djurkovic, McCormack & Casimir, 2004; Mikkelsen & Einarsen 2002). Negative affectivity according to Kane and Montgommery (1998) is a subjective emotional experience that is attributable to stress. Based on self-determination theory, Trepanier et al. (2013) found that workplace bullying negatively affects psychological health at work (higher burnout and lower work engagement) via lack of need satisfaction. The

findings revealed that bullying at work negatively predicted work engagement through lack of psychological need satisfaction (i.e. autonomy, competence and relatedness). Furthermore, workplace bullying also positively predicted burnout, via need for autonomy.

To provide new insights into the relationships between different sub-types of bullying and negative job outcomes, Magee, Gordon, Robinson, Caputi, and Oades (2017) through a 12-month prospective study, found a link between different types of bullying and absenteeism. Indirect associations were found between bullying and absenteeism via health impairment and work engagement. The self-reported health status measure used by the researchers assessed both mental and physical health. Specifically, there was an indirect effect of task-related bullying on absenteeism through poor mental health. Similar mediating relationships were found for occasional bullying and absenteeism via psychological well-being (Magee et al., 2017).

It can be concluded from the above study that the pathways that underlie the links between bullying and job outcomes such as absenteeism are varied depending on the type of bullying experience or behaviour. According to Schaufeli et al. (2009), the indicators of poor psychological well-being including burnout, depression and anxiety are the major contributors of employee absenteeism following a bullying experience.

The mediating role of effective implementation of anti-bullying policies in organisations in the relationship between bullying and job outcomes has been the focus of some researchers (e.g., Sheehan, McCabe, & Garavan, 2018) in recent times. In a recent study, the relationship between workplace bullying and job outcomes (job satisfaction and turnover intentions) among healthcare staff were investigated along with the mediating role of anti-bullying policy implementation. The mediated moderation model suggested that anti-bullying policies linked bullying with job outcomes (Sheehan, McCabe, & Garavan, 2018). Additionally, effectively implemented policies attenuated the effect of bullying on negative job outcomes (Bentley et al., 2012).

Even though effectively implemented anti-bullying policy is not a direct psychological health construct, it acts to promote healthy psychological well-

being that in turn influences positive organisational outcomes. These policies, according to Sparrow and Makram (2015), serve a 'protection and preservation' function that reduces the propensity of workplace bullying occurring. Coyle-Shapiro and Conway (2004) drawing on social exchange theory, explained that the implementation of the bullying policy is psychologically satisfying and will therefore bring about positive job outcomes.

A cross-lagged mediation model conducted on longitudinal bullying data by Maidaniuc-Chirila and Treadway (2016) revealed bullying acts predicted job strain via passive coping strategies (e.g., mental disengagement). Similarly, Maidaniuc-Chiril and Constantin (2015) found substantial evidence that passive coping techniques (that promote psychological well-being including denial and work engagement) mediated the effect of workplace bullying on job strain. In line with the explanation offered by Lazarus (1993), passive coping was considered as a behaviour that changes with time and situation but not as a trait. In a situation of bullying, the coping strategy employed therefore determines whether the individual will be strained or not. To further corroborate these findings, it has been found that bullying negatively influences an individual's psychological well-being through ineffective coping (Lee & Brotheridge, 2006) and negative affect (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2004) which in turn predicted emotional exhaustion and burnout. In a study among bus drivers, Glasø, Bele, Nielsen, and Einarsen (2011) identified that workplace bullying predicted higher turnover intentions but via job engagement and satisfaction (indicators of psychological well-being).

According to Neto, Ferreira, Martinez, and Ferreira (2017), some researchers (e.g., Tuckey & Neall, 2014) proposed an indirect effect of workplace bullying on job outcomes through emotional exhaustion. It was found that emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between bullying and work outcomes of optimism and self-efficacy. Conservation of resource theory (Hobfoll, 2001) holds that an individual will experience much distress when a non-conducive work environment threatens his personal resources. The feeling of distress is often accompanied with increased negative affect and decreased positive affect that defines their psychological well-being (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004).

In this regard, Neto, Ferreira, Martinez, and Ferreira (2017) identified that the variables emotional exhaustion and psychological well-being explained both direct and indirect paths between workplace bullying and psychosomatic symptoms. They maintained that the indirect relationship was found because according to recovery theory (Meijman & Mulder, 1998), burnout effects will make individuals spend their energies recovering from bullying experiences that reduces their concentration on their job roles.

In a study by Goodboy et al. (2017) to examine the motivational mechanisms responsible for the negative effect of workplace bullying on engagement, 234 full time employees were studied. Results indicated that workplace bullying had a significant negative effect on work engagement through denial of employees' basic psychological needs and their intrinsic motivation to work. As such, employees get disengaged from their work by negative acts of bullying which erodes their need for relatedness and autonomy resulting in low work motivation.

Park and Ono (2017) investigated the links between workplace bullying experiences on work engagement and health outcomes. In the study, job insecurity was treated as an explanatory variable (intervening variable) of bullying-outcome relationships. Specifically, it was found that perception of job insecurity unfolds via interpersonal interactions in which unpleasant experiences such as bullying, and victimisation make employees less valued in the organisation. Using the latent factor approach, their mediation model revealed that workplace bullying decreased employee work engagement while it increased their health outcomes indirectly through high levels of perceived job insecurity (Park & Ono, 2017). Given this result, it can be concluded that perceived job insecurity was identified as an underlying psychological mechanism in the bullying-work outcome relationship.

Another psychological well-being variable that was found to explain the underlying mechanisms of bullying-outcome relationships is psychological contract breach/violation. Salin and Notelaers (2017) examined the relationship between workplace bullying and employee turnover intentions. They proposed that the relationship would be mediated by psychological contract breach/violations. Psychological contract violation occurs when an employee

perceived a failure on the part of the employer to fulfil certain expected mutual obligations. Morrison and Robinson (1997) have explained that the perceived breach and violation represents cognitive awareness and emotional experience that emanate from the feeling of betrayal. This feeling of betrayal (psychological breach) may be considered an indicator of psychological well-being. The failure to uphold the tenets of the psychological contract has been found to have negative impact on employee work attitudes including reduced job satisfaction, poorer organisational commitment and higher turnover intentions among others (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

Exposure to bullying, especially in the absence of policies to deal with such behaviours in the organisation, may result in employees' perception of a failure on the part of management to fulfil such psychological contract obligations. Salin and Notelaers (2017) argued that the perception of psychological contract violation forms an important aspect of bullying experiences, as they are crucial in explaining the links and underlying mechanisms of workplace bullying and negative work outcome relationships. To illustrate this, Salin and Notelaers (2017) found that perceived psychological contract breach partially mediated the relationship as hypothesised. There was a stronger mediation effect for participants who reported more 'benevolent behaviours' indicating a stronger perceived psychological contract breach. Similarly, the highly benevolent suffered more detrimental effect from the experience of bullying.

In a related study, Glasø and Notelaers (2012) studied the role of emotional experiences as mediators in the relationship between workplace bullying and work attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intentions). Rooted in the affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the study revealed a partial mediation effect for the relationships. This further emphasises the crucial role of emotions, which is a by-product of psychological well-being in the study of the underlying mechanisms of bullying effects.

Different emotional states (both positive and negative) were found to directly relate to workplace bullying (e.g., Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Glasø, Løkke

Vie, Holmdal & Einarsen, 2011). For example, stressful events have been linked to negative emotional experiences among white-collar workers (van Eck, Nicolson & Berkhof, 1998). Similarly, Brotheridge and Lee (2010) found a significant decrease in levels of happiness in targets and victims of workplace bullying.

Some other researchers have investigated the role of the 'affective experiences' or the emotional experiences illustrated above as potential mediators in the relationship between workplace bullying and different job outcomes. For example, Penhaligon, Louis, and Restubog (2009) examined the mediating effect of 'perceived rejection' in the relationship between workgroup mistreatment and affective job outcomes including 'depression and organisational based self-esteem'. It was found that perceived rejection mediated the relationships. The same study was replicated among Danish factory workers and like the previous finding, negative affect partially mediated the relationship between bullying experiences in the factory and self-reported health problems (Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2002). Additionally, Glasø et al. (2011) demonstrated that personality traits and emotions of bullied victims partially mediated the relationship between exposure to bullying and work attitudes (job satisfaction and turnover intentions). However, some contrasting findings have been identified in the literature. For instance, in a Norwegian study (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2004) a non-significant mediating effect was found for positive and negative affect in the relationship between workplace bullying and health outcomes.

2.8 Theoretical model

Following from the foregoing arguments, the theoretical model to be tested in the quantitative studies is presented in Fig 2-5. As discussed earlier, it is an adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) comprehensive model of workplace bullying and aspects of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). The model explores the role of job demands and resources as antecedents of workplace bullying consistent with the JD-R model. Specific job demands, and resources will be examined as antecedents of workplace bullying. However, the choice of

these demands and resources will be informed by the qualitative findings as the plethora of possible factors documented in the literature (see den Brande et al., 2016; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) made it difficult to propose a sound argument for why various factors were chosen. Additionally, workplace bullying is viewed as a predictor of psychological well-being proximally. Furthermore, the explanation of various moderators and mediators of bullying and other proximal and distal outcomes are of interest in this model.

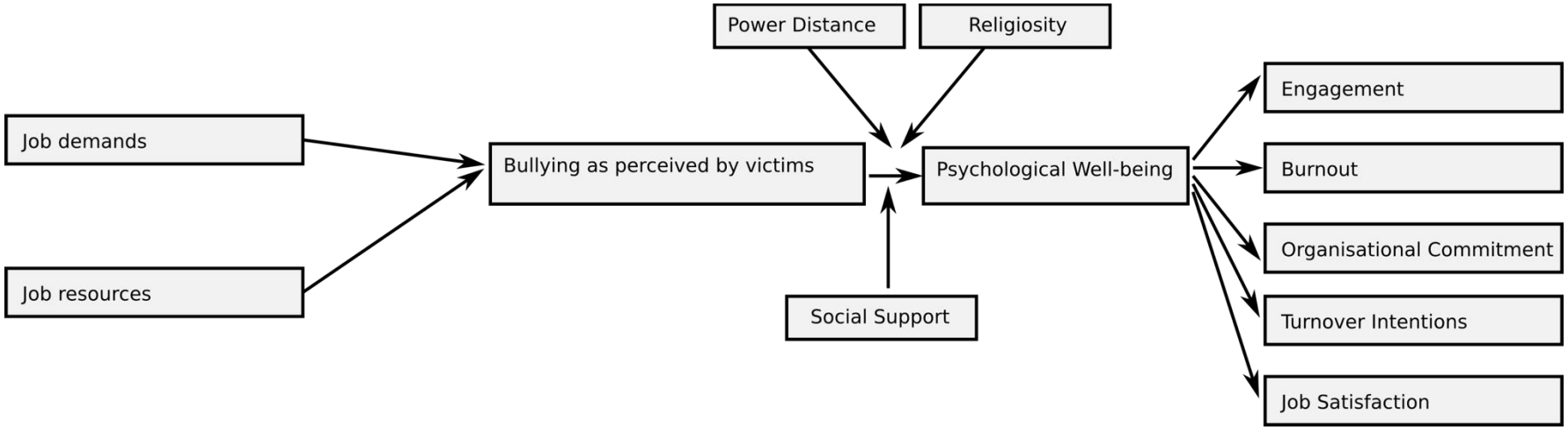


Fig 2-5: Theoretical model for the quantitative study

2.9 Research questions

The research questions addressed in the current research are as follows:

a) What are employees' experiences of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry? (Qualitative)
b) What factors are related to workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry? (Quantitative)
c) How do personal factors account for the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being? (Quantitative)
d) Is workplace bullying related to individual and organisational outcomes? (Quantitative)

Existing models of workplace bullying have highlighted various explanatory paths through which workplace bullying is initiated, perpetuated and exacerbated in organisations. The various factors that are posited to affect workplace bullying and the proximal and distal consequences of bullying behaviour have been captured in the model by Einarsen et al. (2011), adopted in this research and explained in Chapter 2 of this thesis. Whilst this model may offer a robust theoretical explanation of workplace bullying, much more research is needed to test it across different cultures and organisational settings. As such, the current study seeks to test this model in the oil and gas industry particularly in a high-power distant culture such as Ghana.

2.10 Conclusion

This chapter examined models of workplace bullying with a critical awareness regarding their utility in explaining the mechanism by which bullying behaviour is initiated and perpetuated. Five models were reviewed based on their significance and explanatory ability of bullying behaviour at work. This review of these models has informed the selection and adoption of the theoretical model underpinning this thesis. This model is a basic adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model with job demands and resources included as antecedents of workplace bullying. Furthermore, aspects of the JD-R model have been extended to the model in the current study to help explain the relationship among workplace bullying and other variables in Einarsen et al.'s

model. This theoretical model will be revisited based on the findings of the qualitative study (Chapter 4) and the final model will be tested in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 of this thesis.

The next chapter will be a discussion of the methodology used in this research. Adopting a mixed methods approach, the reasoning that informed the choice of specific methods will be analysed and discussed.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Social science research is mainly driven by two major paradigms: positivism and constructivism. Within these paradigms, the positivists subscribe more to quantitative approaches while the constructivists usually employ qualitative methods (Punch, 2013). A researcher's critical understanding of the assumptions underlying both paradigms is vital to take a position as to what constitutes sound and reliable research (Morse, 2016). Madill, Jordan and Shirley (2000) explained that there are different epistemological frameworks underlying our choices of research approaches and data analyses, to meet the criteria of objectivity and reliability in our findings. Explanation of the philosophical basis of these two main paradigms adopted in the present study is therefore necessary. The chapter outlines the research questions, the major methods and paradigms employed in research, and the basis of the choices made for the present research. Finally, an overview of the empirical studies designed to answer the research questions is presented.

The following sections of the chapter present the methodology for the present study. The full mixed methods approach along with its qualitative and quantitative components are explained followed by a description of the research paradigms within qualitative and quantitative approaches, data sources and analysis strategies for each method. Information on the ethical issues involved in the studies and how they were dealt with during the research process are also presented.

3.2 Research approach – Mixed methods

The present research adopted the mixed methods approach; combining qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative study explored the experience of the phenomenon of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry while the quantitative study examined the impact of workplace bullying on employee well-being and organisational outcomes in Ghana's oil and gas industry. The mixed methods approach was sequential with the quantitative

study drawing on findings from the earlier qualitative study in its design and implementation. This approach was desirable considering the unexplored nature of the phenomenon of bullying in the oil and gas industry in Ghana and the applied empirical focus of the research.

As such, in the current study, the overall research design followed a *sequential time* orientation and *parallel* sample relationship. These are explained in more details in Section 3.3. Furthermore, the data collection proceeded with an equal weight mixed method design with QUAL→QUAN (Bryman, 2015). The sequential time orientation indicates that the data collection for the qualitative study preceded the quantitative phase. Bryman (2015) asserts that decisions regarding priority are related to the importance and choice of a quantitative or a qualitative method as the main data-collection tool or if both are given the same priority. Furthermore, the sequence decision has to do with the nature of precedence of the methods (i.e. which method comes first?). The sound logic underlying the decision to use a sequential orientation is because of the qualitative study being focussed on understanding the experience of workplace bullying in a Ghanaian context. Researchers have emphasised the need to use qualitative studies to explore people's social realities and lived experiences (Lewis ,1998) especially when the concept under investigation is relatively new and complex (Smith, 1999) as in the current study. As such, the qualitative study was done first, to provide contextual understanding coupled with uncovering expansive relationships among study variables to be tested empirically in a survey. It also aimed to identify factors/variables related to workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry that could then be tested empirically in the quantitative study (Bryman, 2015).

In mixed methods research, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected, analyzed and interpreted within the same study to investigate the same phenomenon (Bryman, 2015; Maxwell, 2005). The approach is advantageous in considering and analyzing different dimensions of a phenomenon that have practical implications for the organisation (Cameron, 2011; Cameron & Molina-Azorín, 2010; Hurmerinta-Peltomäki & Nummela,

2006; Molina-Azorín, 2012). It has also been found to be gaining more acceptance among researchers in development studies (Bamberger, 2000).

3.2.1 The qualitative-quantitative duality and the mixed method

According to Creswell (2014), within the qualitative method researchers make claims primarily based on the constructivist perspective. They assume that there is no single reality but several which are socially constructed based on the experiences of the researcher. In the process of conducting the research, the researcher and the participants of the study are interactively linked (Manhas & Oberle, 2015). A major focus of the qualitative researcher is to collect open-ended data and analyse them by either drawing overarching themes from the data or building theory from it (Bryman, 2015). The most common methods within the approach are document analysis, interviews, focus group discussions, and observations (Dalal & Priya, 2016). Thematic and content analyses, grounded theory, phenomenology and narrative analysis are some common data analysis techniques within the qualitative approach (Merriam, 2002).

Unlike qualitative research, “a quantitative approach is one in which the investigator primarily uses post-positivist claims for developing knowledge (e.g. cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories)” (Creswell, 2013, p. 205). Quantitative researchers propose that social observations are treated as separate from the observer. They believe that research enquiries should be observer, context and time free, i.e. objective (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Moser & Kalton, 2017). With objectivity in mind, the researcher can observe a phenomenon without influencing it or being influenced by it (Tashakkori, & Creswell, 2007). Within quantitative research, numerical data is collected with the primary aim of identifying relationships among variables and/or establishing causal links among variables.

In this regard, Greene (2008) asserts that the prospect of combining the different approaches and the sound logic underlying such a decision has been a challenging undertaking in the theory of mixed methods. Mixed methods can be defined as “research in which the investigator collects, analyses data and integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and

quantitative approaches and methods in a single study" (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007, p. 223). Mixed methods designs are similar to conducting a qualitative mini-study and a quantitative mini-study in one overall research study. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argued that to be considered a mixed-methods design, the findings and conclusions must be integrated in a complementary fashion at some point of the research process. The question that arises, however, is about whether one approach is superior to the other and whether their incompatibility will allow their combination in one research considering their different epistemological and ontological assumptions (Cameron & Molina-Azorín, 2010). Despite these concerns, the mixed methods approach assumes that the quantitative and qualitative techniques can effectively be combined in a single study since they are complementary, and both aim at understanding differ aspects of behaviour or phenomena (Bryman, 2012; Maxwell, 2005).

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) the mixed method can be considered as the third methodological approach. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) have stated that the evolution of mixed methods as a separate methodology is rooted in the philosophy of pragmatism because of its practical orientation. To further explain the dynamics of the mixed methods as a separate methodological paradigm, Johnson et al. (2007) propose a qualitative-quantitative continuum.

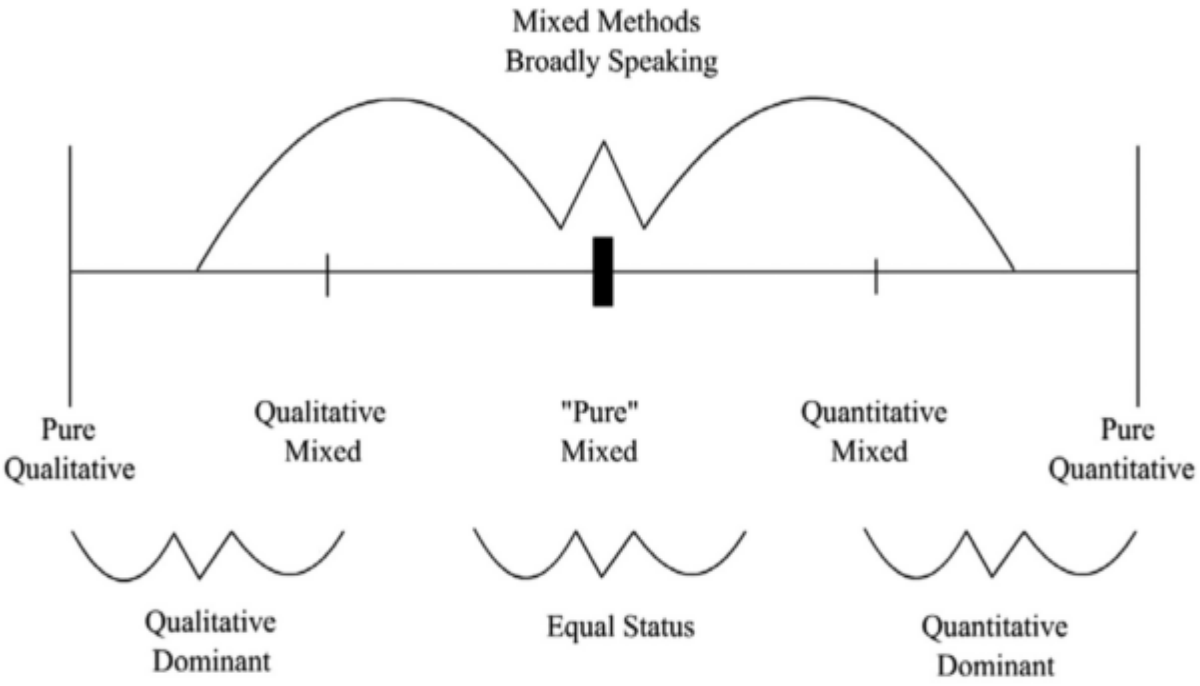


Fig 3-1: A qualitative-quantitative continuum (Johnson et al., 2007)

The continuum as shown in Fig 3-1 portrays mixed methods as integrating several overlapping qualitative and quantitative techniques in combinations. The indication, by moving through the continuum, is that research can be dominated by qualitative or quantitative methods but is still considered as mixed methods. To illustrate this, a quantitative researcher may want to include qualitative methods into his/her mainly quantitative study (quantitative dominant), or vice versa (qualitative dominant). Whatever the case is as far as both quantitative and qualitative techniques are combined to any degree one cannot consider the design as a single/mono method (Bryman, 2015).

A further observation of the continuum in Fig 3-1 shows (shown in center) that there is a pure mix method design which does not have a principal approach. Consequently, it treats both qualitative and quantitative techniques as equally important. In this thesis, the approach was a pure mixed method. The thesis had research questions that used a quantitative and qualitative approach and the data and findings complement each other to present an overall experience of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry as well as the role of other variables related to workplace bullying.

The decision to implement this study using a mixed methods approach was informed by the unique perspectives that a combination of qualitative and quantitative research presents above the use of each individual approach. It must be noted that the use of mixed methods is not sacrosanct and does present some methodological positives and negatives.

Various criticism against the use of mixed methods approach has been documented in the literature. For example, Smith and Heshusius (1986) have argued that the epistemological and ontological positions in which qualitative and quantitative research are grounded present incompatible positions about the nature of knowledge and social reality and as such cannot be studied together. Furthermore, other researchers (e.g. Morgan, 1998 as cited in Bryman, 2012, p. 629) have described "quantitative and qualitative research… as paradigms … in which epistemological assumptions, values, and methods are inextricably intertwined and are incompatible between paradigms". This implies that a combination of quantitative and qualitative approach in a mixed methods study is superficial since paradigms are irreconcilable and incommensurable. Notwithstanding the foregoing arguments, Bryman (2015) asserts that the notion that quantitative and qualitative research respectively present a set of fixed epistemological and ontological implications is untenable and difficult to sustain.

Using mixed methods for the current research was advantageous in several ways. Multiple viewpoints and perspectives were considered in analysing the main concept (bullying) under investigation (Greene, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001). Consequently, both the qualitative and the quantitative data were integrated at a point (Chapter 7) and this helped to interpret and better understand the complex reality of bullying and its implications since there is a paucity of research into workplace bullying in Ghana. Cresswell and Tashakkori (2009) have highlighted the need to link both qualitative and quantitative findings when they assert that… "The expectation is that by the end of the manuscript, conclusions gleaned from the two strands are integrated to provide a fuller understanding of the phenomenon under study" (p. 108). Additionally, the researcher was able to refer to the qualitative phase during the quantitative

phase to re-read results in the context of the whole research (Malina, Nørreklit, & Selto, 2011).

Additionally, in the context of the present research, the literature (e.g., Collins, Onwuegbuzie, & Sutton, 2006; Greene et al., 2001; Salehi & Golafshani, 2010) has identified several advantages of the use of mixed methods. According to Doyle, Brady and Byrne (2009) there are several rationales for undertaking mixed methods. Collins et al. (2006) have proposed four main reasons for using the mixed methods design. These are instrument fidelity (maximising instrument utility), significance enhancement (maximising interpretation), treatment integrity (assessing fidelity), and participant enrichment (optimising the sample). Additionally, Green (1989 as cited in Doyle, Brady, & Byrne, 2009, p. 178) identified eight of these which include: "triangulation, completeness, offsetting weaknesses and providing stronger inference, answering different research questions, explanation of findings, illustration of data, hypotheses development and testing, and instrument development and testing". These were important considerations in deciding on the mixed methods design in the current study.

Considering these justifications, the major aim of adopting the mixed methods design for the present study is that a complete picture of the phenomenon of workplace bullying being investigated could not be revealed by one approach. Each method provided unique data that are considered very important in understanding the concept under investigation. Furthermore, the two methodologies sought to answer different sets of questions that interrogate different aspects of the same issue of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Consequently, the goal of the qualitative study was to provide a sense of context in terms of understanding the experience of bullying in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Similarly, the general purpose of the quantitative study was to examine the actual impact of bullying on the psychological well-being of employees in the oil and gas industry with a view of identifying possible determinants of workplace bullying and other important variables in the bullying – well-being relationship. As such, the researcher was conscious of these methodological issues in deciding to integrate qualitative and quantitative methods in the mixed methods design adopted for this research. An analysis of

the specific research paradigms employed in qualitative and quantitative research are discussed in the next section.

3.2.2 Research paradigms

The term paradigm refers to “a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, how results should be interpreted” (Bryman, 2012, p. 630). It is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action (Mertens, 1998). The way a researcher understands and chooses paradigms has significant implications for the design of a study as it influences the research methods adopted in the study.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), what defines a paradigm in research are the ontological, epistemological and methodological questions. The ontological asks “*what is the nature of reality? ... or what can be known?”* The epistemological asks: “*what is the nature of knowledge and the relationship between the knower and the would-be known? … or how do we know?*” while the methodological asks “*how the knower can go about obtaining the desired knowledge and understandings*” (Stevenson & Cooper, 1997).

Several paradigms exist in psychological research which include; i) positivism/post-positivism, ii) interpretative/constructivist and iii) the emancipatory paradigms (Mertens, 1998). Of the three, the dominant two often adopted by researchers are the positivism and/or the constructivist approaches. The divide among researchers with regards to the nature of sound research, and how human behaviour can be explained revolves around these two paradigms. In the following sections, the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions of positivism and constructivism respectively are reviewed.

3.2.2.1 Positivism/Post-positivism

Social science research and by extension research in occupational psychology mostly relies on the positivist paradigm.

The philosophical roots of positivism can be found in the rationalistic and empiricist philosophy of Aristotle, Locke, Comte and Kant (Mertens, 1998). The

ontological assumption of the positivism paradigm is that “there is an objective truth existing in the world, which can be revealed through the scientific method where the focus is on measuring relationships between variables systematically and statistically” (Cassell & Symon, 1994, p. 19). These researchers further argue that the nature of reality in positivism hinges on an understanding that the social world is experienced as autonomous of an individual's perception of it. Consequently, the focus is that “measurement is reliable, valid and generalizable in a clear prediction of cause and effect relationships" (Cassell & Symon, 1994, p. 44).

Positivists advocate for the use of natural scientific methods in conducting research (Bryman, 2015). Within this paradigm, the researcher and the subject of the study are independent of each other (Hassan, 2016). This belief has been modified by the post-positivists who argue that the theories, hypotheses and knowledge possessed by researchers could have a strong influence on their observations (Reinchardt & Rallis, 1994).

Qualitative methods can be used within the positivist paradigm. However, quantitative methods tend to be predominant (Dalal & Priya, 2016). Within the positivist paradigm, experimental designs are often employed to explain human behaviour while quasi-experimental methods are used on the field when random assignment of subjects is not possible. As such, quantitative research uses a research strategy that underscores quantification in the collection and analysis of research data. Within these methods causal relationships are established between two variables X and Y. The aim of researchers utilising the positivist paradigm is to generalise findings from a representative sample to a larger population (Fosnot, 2013). Quantitative surveys are positivist in nature (Bryman, 2015). Survey researchers are interested in understanding and explaining the causes of a phenomenon by examining variations in the variable of study across cases studied. Furthermore, other variables that are linked to the variable of interest are identified and causal inferences can be made.

3.2.2.2 Constructivism/Interpretivism

Constructivism involves the lived experiences of actors in making sense of the world around them. It includes a subjective interpretation of a person's experience.

Qualitative methods first developed as an anti-positivist movement in the 1970s which is far more recent than quantitative methods (Tesch, 1990). The movement rejected the idea of objective reality in explaining human behaviour (Tesch, 1990). According to Eichelberger (1989), constructivism developed from phenomenology and hermeneutics philosophies championed by German researchers. Hermeneutics is concerned with making interpretations from, or trying to explain, a phenomenon subjectively. Within this paradigm, reality is socially constructed and construed which may be devoid of objectivity. Within the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm, researchers see a "complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it" (Schwandt, 1994, p. 221). Schwandt explained that actors/researchers in particular places and at specific times construct meaning from phenomena by engaging in prolonged and complex social interactions with the people in those particular places. During such studies, the researcher's mental constructions and perceptions of reality may continue to change (Mertens, 1998).

Unlike the positivist paradigm, the researcher and the participant in the constructivist paradigm often influence each other during the interaction process. Within the paradigm, the idea of objectivity in making observations is replaced by confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is assumed that observations, interpretations and conclusions reside in the people therefore data can be traced back to its source and the logic used to arrive at knowledge can be made explicit in the narrative.

The most common methods of gathering data within these paradigms are qualitative methods, including interviews, observations, and document analysis (Dalal & Priya, 2016). Due to the implications of multiple relativities in qualitative methods, research questions are not explicitly established prior to starting the study, instead they evolve and change as the study progresses (Mertens, 1998). Theories generated through the approach are generated and grounded in the

richness of data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Research questions and hypotheses in the positivist paradigm are usually theory driven but with the constructivist paradigm, the study may begin with loosely defined research questions or hypotheses. While the quantitative approach attempts to establish causal relationships, natural events shape each other within the qualitative approach and multi-directionality in terms of relationships can be found. Generalisability is not one of the major considerations of qualitative research but rather focuses on tentative explanations based on one group of participants or a single subject at a specific time and/or place. Some researchers have observed that the use of the constructivist paradigm is not particularly popular in occupational psychology. This according to Valsiner (2000) has become a subject of unnecessary disputes among researchers.

One key feature of qualitative research that enhances its credibility is reflexivity. Stevenson and Cooper (1997) explained that one way by which the soundness of a qualitative research can be evaluated is reflexivity. Reflexivity enables researchers to consider whether their own involvement in the process has enhanced or detracted the 'findings' (Bryman, 2012). Keeping a reflective journal throughout the process is one of the recommended ways of achieving reflexivity (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Even though the participant keeping a reflective journal has been criticised and considered as inappropriate among some quantitative researchers, their arguments can best be described as a misunderstanding of the concept of reflexivity. What is crucial is that the reflexivity process provides some form of assessment about whether the study has been constructed thoughtfully or just routinely applied. Sherrard (1997, p. 133) suggested that researchers safeguard against "unchecked subjectivity in qualitative research". Considering this, Yin (2015) recommends that all steps of data collection, analysis and the grounds of interpretations be reported. Furthermore, Yin argues that neither of the paradigms (positivist approaches nor constructivist perspective) is better than the other.

Considering the tenets of the positivist paradigm, it could be argued that the paradigm of constructivism is complementary while others consider it as a direct opposite (Fosnot, 2013). As a critique, it has been argued that findings within the constructivist methodology lack reliability and validity, therefore

findings cannot be generalised to the larger community. Creswell (2014) suggested that instead of considering the opposition between the two paradigms, they should rather be viewed as two possible ways by which a research can be effectively conducted. Because constructivists focus more on interpretation of data, it is important, they adopt very rigorous data collection and analysis methods to ensure the validity and credibility of their findings (Creswell, 2014; Stevenson & Cooper, 1997; Yin, 2015).

3.2.2.3 Choice of paradigm in this study

While attempting to select a paradigm for the current study, the researcher was confronted with the question of whether multiple paradigms can be used in the same study. It can be argued that it is almost impossible to use different paradigms in the same piece of research due to differences in logic. While objective reality can be established within one paradigm the same cannot be said of the other. Guba and Lincoln (1994) have stated that the two paradigms are mutually exclusive and incompatible. They, however, suggested the use of a new all-in-one approach that looks at every aspect of a research as a matter of degree than from a dualist view. In fact, one of the early views by Outwaite (1987) proposed the `realist paradigm' that links social sciences and common-sense knowledge.

The disagreement about using an approach that bridges the divide between the positivists and the constructivist perspectives rages on (Bryman, 2015). Stevenson and Cooper (1997) argue that such a stance is the worst position to take. They explained that quantitative and qualitative research are based on different philosophically irreconcilable inquiry positions. It is, therefore, not proper to try reconciling the non-reconcilable, rather what should be done is to find common grounds that define good research.

Morse (2016), however, argues that many researchers combine quantitative and qualitative methods, which shows that a merger of paradigms is feasible. In the present study, there is a need to explore the individual experiences of workplace bullying in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Furthermore, a need to test predictors of bullying, proximal and distal outcomes of workplace bullying as well as other relevant variables in these relationships

necessitated the use of robust methods borne out of a combination of different research paradigms. To answer these questions, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is necessary. Interviews, and a survey design using questionnaires were, therefore, some of the strategies used.

The researcher positioned himself within the post-positivist paradigm using primarily quantitative techniques to survey a larger number of employees which was preceded by qualitative methods to explore the phenomenon of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Post-positivist research seeks a balance between positivist and constructivist approaches by using multiple methods that are suitable to answer the research question. As such, this critical realism position posits that the biases and limitations of any one method may be balanced by strengths of the other methods (george). A rigorous approach in collecting and analysing data was utilised. With the qualitative aspect, there were independent external coders to cross-validate the findings and to establish inter-rater consensus. This ensured the reliability and validity of the qualitative investigation. Additionally, the quantitative study was carefully designed to enhance the reliability and validity of research findings. The research process was carried out in two stages; qualitative followed by quantitative. The specific justifications for why the mixed methods study was set out in the way it was conducted in this study is explained in the following section.

3.3 Building a mixed methods design

A mixed methods research design puts a responsibility on the researcher to carefully think through the decisions underlying the conceptualisation, design, implementation, analysis and reporting of research. As such, key decisions must be made at each stage that affects the mixed methods design. The basis of these decisions is time orientation (concurrent vs. sequential), and level of mixing (partially mixed vs. fully mixed) with an emphasis on the various approaches (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009). According to Byman (2015), when it comes to combining and representing qualitative and quantitative research in the same study, there are several different ways of implementing this aim.

However, the decision to use a mixed methods design does not necessarily make it superior to mono-method research as it is a matter of choice and research aims.

At the data collection stage, Bryman (2015) proposes two criteria for choosing a mixed data collection. Time orientation and relationship of the qualitative and quantitative data are key determinants of the decision-making process. Time orientation refers to the moment in time when the qualitative and quantitative phases occur. The qualitative and quantitative phases can occur sequentially (i.e. one after the other) or concurrently (at the same point in time). Furthermore, Bryman has proposed a classification of mix methods according to sequence and priority as shown in Fig 3-2. According to Bryman (2015), the priority decision seeks to address the question of importance with regards the use of quantitative or a qualitative method as the main data-collection tool or if there is an equal use of both. Furthermore, the sequence decision has to do with the nature of precedence of the methods (i.e. which method comes first?).

The nine possible types of combination of priority and sequence are presented in Fig 3-2. To illustrate this further, Bryman (2012, p. 362) asserts that “upper case indicates priority—for example, QUAL indicates that the qualitative component was the main data-collection approach; lower case indicates a more subsidiary role—for example, qual. Arrows refer to the sequence—for example, QUAN→qual means that the collection of quantitative data was the main data-collection approach and that the collection of these quantitative data was undertaken before the qualitative data, which occupy a subsidiary role. The + simply means that the collection of the quantitative and the qualitative data was conducted more or less, concurrently”.

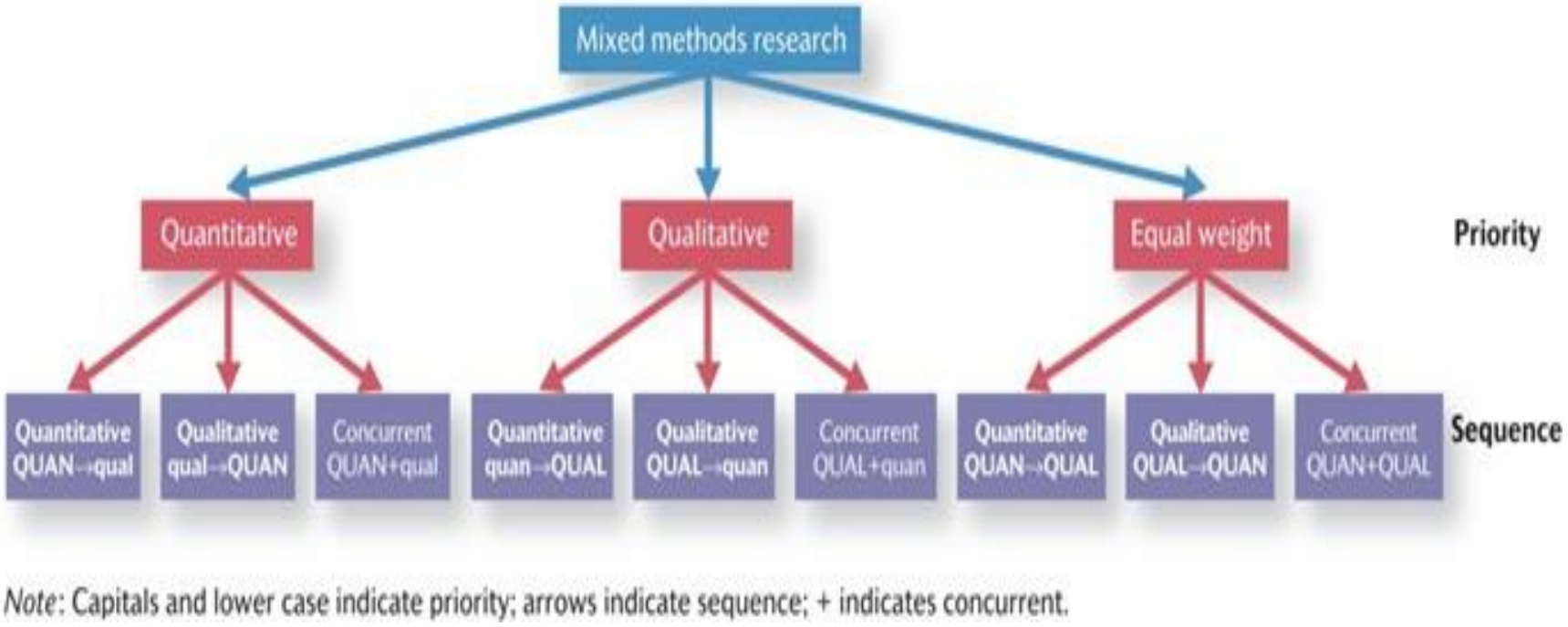


Fig 3-2: Priority and sequence classifications in mixed method design (Bryman, 2015)

Furthermore, Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) in explaining the origin of research data and the relationship of the qualitative and quantitative samples, categorise four types of relationships to explain this point. These are parallel relationship (heterogeneous samples from a homogenous population), identical relationship (homogenous sample members participate in both phases), multilevel relationship (heterogeneous sets of study samples from heterogeneous levels), and nested relationship (sample members in one study are a subset of those participating in another).

Consequently, in the current study, the overall research design followed a *sequential time* orientation and *parallel* sample relationship. Furthermore, the data collection proceeded with an equal weight mixed method design with QUAL→QUAN (Bryman, 2015). The sequential time orientation indicates that the data collection for the qualitative study preceded the quantitative phase. The sound logic underlying the decision to use a sequential orientation is as a result of the qualitative study being focussed on understanding the experience of workplace bullying in a Ghanaian context. It also aimed to identify factors/variables related to workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry that could then be tested empirically in the quantitative study. As such, the qualitative study was implemented first to provide contextual understanding coupled with uncovering expansive relationships among study variables to be tested empirically in a survey.

Additionally, each study used different data sources in a *parallel* sample relationship. In line with the parallel framework, this thesis included two sets of study samples from the same population. The qualitative study is based on semi-structured interviews with workers in offshore and onshore operations in the oil and gas industry. The quantitative studies are based on paper and online surveys with participants drawn from organisations (upstream, midstream and downstream) across the oil and gas industry in Ghana.

The time orientation and the methods relationship criteria depend on the purpose of the study (Greene et al., 2001) and the way in which quantitative and qualitative research are combined (Bryman, 2015). Different classes of common purposes that impact the research design have been suggested in the literature

(Doyle et al., 2009; Gray, 2014; Greene et al., 1989; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). The scheme by Greene et al. (1989) is perhaps the most widely used classification. Following from content analysis of mixed method articles, this scheme designates five classifications/justifications for combining qualitative and quantitative research in a mixed methods design. These are development, triangulation, initiation, expansion, and complementarity. Development relies on only the sequential time orientation to develop a method from the results of another study. Studies aimed at triangulation rely on only the concurrent time orientation to search for corroboration, correspondence, and convergence of findings from the different methods (Greene et al., 1989). Initiation may use both the sequential and the concurrent time orientations to resolve apparent ambiguities and contradictions, develop new perspectives and frameworks and reformulate questions or results from one method with questions or results from the other method (Creswell, 2013; Gray, 2014). With the expansion purpose, only the sequential time orientation is used to extend the depth and range of the investigation by using different methods. Complementarity uses the sequential, the concurrent or both time orientations to explain different dimensions of a phenomenon (Creswell, 2013; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007).

The classifications have implications for selecting the design for the current study. In this regard, this thesis adopted the pure mixed methods (equal status) approach with a sequential time orientation (QUAL→QUANT) and a complementary purpose. In lieu of the consideration that the study aims to contribute and strengthen the theoretical links between bullying and psychological well-being at work by testing an adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s model, following a qualitative study to understand the experience of workplace bullying, the study has a complementary purpose. This implies that the results of the qualitative phase augmented (informed) the quantitative phase and the quantitative results provided some empirical support and validation for qualitative findings as well. As such, the qualitative and quantitative methodologies were used sequentially in a complementary fashion.

3.4 Quality criteria for mixed methods

The accuracy and quality of inferences drawn from mixed methods research must be evaluated based on the extent to which the study incorporates and represents both approaches; qualitative and quantitative. Considering this perspective, the quality criteria to use is the traditional reliability and validity of findings applied to both approaches (Bryman, 2015; Creswell, 2014). In the quantitative design, reliability and validity is expressed in statistical terms (Neuman, 2016). But under the qualitative approach, reliability and validity are assessed through conceptual clarity and rigor (Houghton, Casey, Shaw, & Murphy, 2013). These require the use of verification techniques taking into consideration the philosophical assumptions underlying the approaches (Morse, 2016).

Unlike the positivist paradigm that relies on validity and reliability to judge quantitative research, different language is used by constructivists to demonstrate quality in qualitative research. This has been discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1986) who suggest “credibility as an analog to internal validity, transferability as an analog to external validity, dependability as an analog to reliability, and confirmability as an analog to objectivity”. In combination they view these criteria as addressing “trustworthiness, itself a parallel to the term rigor” (p. 76-77). Furthermore, Tracy (2010) also proposed an eight-point conceptualization of key quality markers to serve as best practices to guide qualitative research. As such in the current study, credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability were key to maintaining methodological rigor with the qualitative data guided by best practices suggested by Tracy (2010).

3.4.1 Credibility

Credibility of this study was ensured by prolonged engagement (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), investigator triangulation (Polit & Beck, 2004), member checking (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and data saturation (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013).

Prolonged engagement required the researcher to devote a lot of time on the field to appreciate the sub-culture and social setting within this work environment. Furthermore, by becoming more familiar to the participants, there

was a good rapport and development of trust between the researcher and the participants. This was very necessary as it made participants more comfortable to share their experiences. Furthermore, prolonged engagement facilitated the co-construction of meaning between researcher and participant and allowed an appreciation of context.

Analyst or investigator triangulation was employed in reviewing themes that reflected the initial codes generated. This process was more collaborative than competitive as the aim was to allow other researchers to illuminate the researcher to other viewpoints or possible latent interpretations to the data. Furthermore, member checking was followed through to ensure credibility of the findings. Whilst interviewing participants, the researcher used probes and cross-checks to enhance his understanding of participant experiences. Additionally, the initial thematic framework was discussed with 3 out of the 15 participants to ascertain if themes were reflective of their experiences. As such, these participants examined the adequacy of data and initial thematic framework to endorse specific aspects of the data. A participant challenged a sub-theme as he did not believe the interpretation reflected his narrative. As such the researcher sought clarity from him and an appropriate modification to the sub-theme was agreed considering the overall reported data.

Data saturation is reached when the ability to obtain additional new information has been attained (Guest et al., 2006), when further coding is no longer feasible (Guest et al., 2006) and when there is enough information to replicate the study (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013; Walker, 2012). In the current study, data saturation was reached after 12 interviews as no new patterns or themes emerged after reviewing the 12th transcript. The researcher, however, continued with the final 3 interviews as they had been earlier arranged.

3.4.2 Transferability

Lewis and Ritchie (2003) assert that transferability to other settings is contingent on the similarity between the "sending context", i.e. the context in which the research was conducted, and the "receiving contexts", i.e. the contexts to which the research findings are to be applied (p. 268). Similar to

external validity considerations in quantitative research, the researcher needs to provide thick description by providing concise reports of phenomena and context so that the findings' transferability can be assessed. Transferability was ensured using thick descriptions. As discussed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), the phenomenon under study (workplace bullying) as well as the contextual information were described in enough detail to allow for the conclusions drawn from this study to be transferable or generalisable to other work settings and employees.

3.4.3 Dependability

Creswell (1998) asserts that an inquiry audit or external audit is a good criterion to ensure dependability of qualitative research findings. This process involves an external audit of the entire qualitative process by experts independent of the study. The current study was written up and a first draft was submitted to a peer-reviewed qualitative research-focussed journal for publication. Though the paper was rejected, the two reviewers provided very detailed feedback on the process and product of the qualitative study. This inquiry audit by two researchers (external auditors) evaluated whether the findings, interpretations and conclusions were supported by the data. They generally agreed on the good quality of the research but needed more information (which was not provided due to restricted word limit) to fully assess the work and pass it for publication. However, their concerns regarding the theoretical underpinnings of the study were looked into and improved in the write-up of this study.

3.4.4 Confirmability

The external audit process and investigator triangulation all contributed to the confirmability of the qualitative research process. Furthermore, reflexivity and an audit trail were used to enhance the quality of the research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). An audit trail allowed a transparent description of the entire qualitative research process. This was followed through from the commencement of the study through the development of interview schedule, piloting, data collection, raw data management, transcription, analysis and write-

up of findings. This information was carefully documented and the rationale for each decision made in the research process was discussed.

Reflexivity is a very important consideration in qualitative research. Reflexivity for a researcher involves an understanding of one's own values, attitudes, and biases in qualitative inquiry and how these can influence the research process (Bryman & Cassell, 2006). As such, the researcher must separate his partialities/prejudices in gaining profound insight into the research, by keeping the focus on the research and its participants. In the current study, the researcher kept a reflexive journal with regular entries that were reviewed after each interview and prior to subsequent interviews. The researcher's feelings, thoughts, fears and confusions were recorded and reflected upon to improve the process of the qualitative inquiry. These scribblings were cathartic and very private.

In conclusion, Bryman, Becker and Sempik (2008) identified three quality criteria that many researchers consider as most appropriate for mixed methods. They stated that the use of a mixed method should be pertinent to the research questions under investigation in the first place (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Secondly, there should be absolute transparency in the procedures adopted in the studies (Bryman, 2012) and finally findings made from mixed methods need to be combined at some point but not treated as separate qualitative and quantitative findings (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

According to Greene (2008), the above elements cannot replace the formal reliability and validity criteria within the approaches. Instead, they serve as some evaluation criteria for judging the level of integration of the methods. As discussed earlier, the quality criteria for the qualitative approach employed in the qualitative study included member checking (Thomas & Magilvy, 2011), prolonged engagement (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), independent coding, and researcher validation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) and sample appropriateness/saturation (Dibley, 2011). Similarly, the reliability and validity measures including internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were applied to the quantitative phase. Other quality criteria were further applied based on the data

sources within each approach. These are discussed in detail in the following sections and further within each study in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.5 Data sources

As discussed earlier, the studies in this thesis proceeded using a mixed method design with the qualitative study preceding the quantitative study. Data was obtained from multiple sources and these sources are examined in detail next. An evaluation of the considerations in making these choices as well as the pros and cons of obtaining data with these methods are further analysed.

3.5.1 Qualitative data sources

The qualitative phase represented by study one (Chapter 4) involved only one source: semi-structured interviews.

3.5.1.1 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are a variant of the structured interview used in qualitative research. This kind of interview differs from the structured interview as it involves the interviewer asking several open-ended questions from an interview guide but having the flexibility to vary the sequence of questions. Unlike structured interview questions, the questions are usually somewhat more general than specific. Furthermore, the interviewer enjoys the flexibility and latitude to probe (i.e. ask further questions outside the interview guide) when the interviewee's responses are significant (Bryman, 2015).

In the qualitative study of this thesis, fifteen (15) semi-structured interviews with employees across the Ghanaian oil and gas industry were conducted. This study aimed at understanding the lived experiences of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. Different modes of using semi-structured interviews have been identified in the literature. Indeed, Bryman (2015) has identified computer-assisted interviews, telephone interviews, video-conference, as well as face-to face (personal) interviews. The qualitative study used a face-to-face approach to interviewing.

The one-to-one interactions between the interviewer and the interviewee in a face-to-face semi-structured interview is advantageous over other methods of interviewing. Hair, Money, Samouel and Page (2007) assert that semi-structured interviews are useful when the topic to be discussed is sensitive and there is a need to identify key sources of difficulties for respondents. Additionally, it enables the researcher/interviewer to identify salient attributes of a situation as well as novel ideas.

Rowley (2012) suggested that semi-structured interviews are most useful when the study relates to understanding attitudes, experiences, values, opinions and/or processes. Stephens (2007) explained further that semi-structured interviews offer the researcher the opportunity to gain first-hand information on the personal experiences of interviewees. The qualitative study is particularly interested in the lived experiences of Ghanaian oil and gas workers with regards workplace bullying. Furthermore, Rowley (2012) asserts that semi-structured interviews are most suitable in situations where the subject matter has been under-researched. In the context of this study, although there are previous studies and models on the phenomenon of workplace bullying (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2011), not much research has been done in sub-Saharan countries like Ghana and, the oil and gas industry. Consequently, semi-structured interviews are useful to gather data with an exploratory purpose.

Finally, face-to face semi-structured interviews are more suitable when the interviewees might mistrust the managers and/or researchers and may be unwilling to discuss work-related issues using any other mode (Rowley, 2012). This is discussed in more detail in a later section. An added advantage is that the face-to-face interviews also present an opportunity for the researcher to focus on verbal cues, personal dispositions and mannerisms when responding to sensitive personal issues that may be of relevance for this study and help evaluate truthfulness/validity and urgency (Hair et al., 2007).

There are some drawbacks with semi-structured interviews that deserve to be mentioned. These challenges are present in the design, implementation and analyses of qualitative research using semi-structured interviews. For instance, interviewees may present inaccurate information in response to

questions asked. The researcher may be unable to validate every single information raised by confirming with other employees known to the interviewee as this raises ethical issues or even by participant observation as this may be impractical or impossible. However, this concern is beyond the control of the researcher. In this regard, Rubin and Rubin (2012) assert that if the interviewee feels at ease with the interviewer, the chances of getting a more accurate portrayal is more likely. Additionally, King and Horrocks (2012) argue that within the constructivist perspective, reality or knowledge "at different times and places there will be different and often contradictory interpretations of the same phenomena" (p. 22).

Additionally, Morris (2015) indicates that as a consequence to being unable to draw a random sample of interviewees, data obtained cannot be generalised to the population. Furthermore, a lot of effort and time is needed to set up interviews and to transcribe interview data as the large volume of data that may be generated for analyses could be laborious for the researcher. Additionally, an untrained interviewer may 'contaminate' the process with their prejudices, stereotypes, appearances and/or perceptions which may alter the interviewees' response though the extent and nature of this effect in inconclusive in the literature and are likely to vary from context to context (Bryman, 2015).

A key priority for a researcher is to increase the quality of the interview data and the validity of the interview process. Consequently, careful attention to the development of the interview guide and mastering the skill of interviewing contributes to achieving these aims. Developing an appropriate interview guide can help to achieve a comfortable interaction with participants and to reach data-driven conclusions (Dilley, 2000). To this end, much effort is needed to study background information in terms of previous literature and models as well as the interview population. Qu and Dumay (2011) emphasize the importance of this by indicating that the researcher is obligated to be knowledgeable with regards the subject matter to ask relevant and informed questions.

As such, the interview guide used in the qualitative study was developed after extensive engagement with the literature review and existing models on

workplace bullying (e.g., Einarsen et al., 2011). The details of its development, the interviewees and the process of recruiting participants are presented in Chapter 4. Additionally, the interview process was also carefully structured. The researcher attended a training course on research interviewing skills at the University of Nottingham. The course provided some theoretical guidance on interviewing in qualitative research as well as practical video examples of good and bad interviewing skills. Furthermore, the inter-relationships between the interview process, transcription and analyses were highlighted. This prepared the researcher with the necessary skills to conduct a semi-structured interview with participants. The skills were further reflected on after the pilot study for the qualitative study and improvements made prior to qualitative data collection. These are discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

3.5.2 Quantitative data sources

The quantitative phase was based on a combination of an online/web and paper survey designed for this thesis. The combination of the two surveys into the mixed mode quantitative design (web based and paper survey) was advantageous. This is because the mixed mode helps compensate for the weakness of each individual mode (web based and paper survey) at an affordable cost. That is, within the mixed mode there is an explicit trade-off between cost and errors in coverage and sampling (de Leeuw, 2005). Specific instructions were given to employees to choose to complete either of the surveys (i.e. web-based or paper) but not both. This was monitored by the researcher. The survey examined the effect of workplace bullying on psychological well-being for workers in the oil and gas sector. The survey was made up of items from standardized and well-established scales for measuring the various variables under study. The survey instruments are described in detail in Chapter 5 and presented in Appendix 2. The typical characteristics and arguments for choosing this method are explained in the next section.

3.6.2.1 Paper-based survey

Four hundred and fifty (450) paper questionnaires were distributed to workers across the oil and gas industry in Ghana. A total of 216 participants

responded to and returned the paper version of the questionnaire. They were drawn from companies in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. These organisations are mainly located in Accra, Tema and Takoradi. The majority of participants were conveniently selected (based on availability and willingness to participate). Institutional approval was sought from the human resource departments of the organisations prior to distributing survey questionnaires. Initial contacts were made with some participants through their heads of departments. Management helped identify employees who had been with the company for a minimum period of 6 months and as such were eligible to take part in the study. Questionnaires were then distributed to participants who preferred the paper survey to the online version. This was done within their respective departments.

The paper-based survey enabled the researcher to meet a cross section of the participants. This offered some of them the opportunity to seek further clarifications about the study. Although it has been widely acknowledged that paper surveys are costlier and time consuming (Sax, Gilmartin & Bryant, 2003) their major advantage is the potential to reduce coverage bias and non-probability sampling error (Biemer & Lyberg, 2003).

3.5.2.1 Online survey

A total of 300 employees and managers were invited to take part in the study with only 110 fully completing the questionnaire via the online version of the questionnaire. The strategies suggested by Sheehan (2002) guided the distribution of the survey. According to Sheehan, online questionnaires can be distributed electronically by enclosing the questionnaire in email messages to the respondents, introducing respondents to the hyperlink of the online survey through a participant information sheet to their emails or making a specific request for respondents on a hosted webpage designed for the study. In the current research, the link to the survey was hosted on the Bristol Online Surveys (BOS) platform and the survey link made available on the participant information sheet which HR managers forwarded to their staff, who met the inclusion criteria, via emails once organisational permission was granted. Employees who completed the online survey did not fill out the paper version.

There is documented evidence of the merits and demerits of using the online surveys in comparison to other forms such as the paper survey/questionnaire (e.g., Couper, 2000; Duffy, Smith, Terhanian, & Bremer, 2005; Sheehan, 2002; Tenforde, Sainani, & Fredericson, 2010; van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Unlike the paper surveys, a relatively larger number of potential participants can be reached in the shortest time using online surveys. It additionally has the advantage of providing an opportunity for multiple question formats, provision of direct connectivity to databases, and often guarantees the confidentiality and anonymity of responses.

To derive the maximum benefit from the online medium in the current study, the recommendations by Evans and Mathur (2005) were applied. The authors suggested online surveys are most suitable for covering wider geographical areas and larger populations to access larger samples. Also, best suited for online surveys is when a potential participant list is available and when there are multiple samples to be surveyed. In the current study, even though geographical coverage was not of interest to the researcher, the multiplicity of the sample (employees) in various organisations across the oil and gas industry in Ghana and the targeted sample size made the recommendations most applicable.

In its implementation, online surveys are often exposed to sampling bias as the researcher does not have much control over the sample selection (van Selm & Jankowski, 2006). Participants usually select themselves based on the criteria set out by the researcher. In the current study, the criteria were clearly stated. As such, following recommendations by Einarsen et al. (2011), only participants who had worked with the organisation for more than 6 months could continue responding to the survey. This was set up as the second page in the online survey after the introductory page. If a participant indicated that they had worked with the company for a period exceeding 6 months, they could continue to the next page and complete the survey.

Another limitation of the use of online surveys is the higher probability of coverage error (Sheehan, 2002). Getting random samples from the population and for that matter those with access to the internet in the case of the present

study is problematic to voluntary participation (Aşan & Ayhan, 2013). There may be limited access to the potential participants through the online medium as only those with internet facilities can effectively participate. Additionally, probability sampling techniques are not often suitable for online surveys so calculating sampling errors is usually a challenge (Couper, 2000). Taking these challenges into account, non-probability sampling techniques (i.e., convenient sampling) was adopted in the study.

The implications of the coverage and the sampling error are that they affect the response rate and sample representativeness (Sheehan, 2002). With online surveys, response rates are often lower compared to paper versions (Handweck, Carson, & Blackwell, 2000) and this in turn affects representativeness (Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000). Several mitigating strategies were devised to increase the response rate in the study. A number of researchers (e.g., Cook et al., 2000; Göritz & Crutzen, 2012; Sánchez-Fernández, Muñoz-Leiva, & Montoro-Ríos, 2012) have found that frequent reminders and contacts, personal correspondences and pre-survey contacts are most effective in increasing response rates in online surveys. Other authors (e.g., Evans & Mathur, 2005; Shannon, Johnson, Searcy, & Lott, 2002) have suggested quality criteria of conciseness, clarity and ease of access to increase the response rate of the online surveys. The survey was concise with clear and short instructions. For the purposes of privacy and confidentiality, a secured online platform (Bristol Online) was used. Furthermore, HR managers and the researcher followed up to remind participants to complete the survey. This was done through personal interactions and via email.

3.6 Ethical considerations

The current study was guided by ethical principles as outlined by the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), Code of Human Research Ethics (2010), Ethics Guidelines for Internet-mediated Research (2013), as well as the Data Protection Act (1998). Ethical approval was granted by the Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics

Committee of the University of Nottingham, UK. Some important ethical issues that were prioritised in this study are discussed in the following sections.

3.6.1 Data protection

From data collection, analysis to the conclusion of this study, data generated from participants was handled with strict confidentiality. All data was secured and stored according to the provisions of the Data Protection Act (1998) throughout various stages of data collection, analysis, reporting and archiving in the research process. Access to research data was limited only to the researchers involved in this research. In accordance with the policy of the University of Nottingham, on completion of the study, the data will be kept on an encrypted database at the University for seven years. At all times during this period, the data will be secured, and confidentiality safeguarded until the expiration of the seven years after which the data will be securely disposed of.

In line with the Ethics Guidelines for Internet-mediated Research of the British Psychological Society (2017), responses from participants who responded via the online questionnaire were safe-guarded. Anticipated difficulties in ensuring appropriate levels of control over research environment and procedures were addressed in the study design and implementation. The link to the online questionnaire was made available only to employees of the various organisations who had been invited to take part in the study. Additionally, they were instructed not to forward the link to other employees.

3.6.2 Privacy

Participants in this study were assured that their responses will be held in confidentiality and their responses anonymous. The researcher ensured that no information was provided by participants that will directly link them to their responses. This was especially important for participants who responded via online questionnaire. As such, only demographic information that are relevant to the analysis of data were sought from participants. Threats to anonymity/confidentiality were thus reduced to the minimum in this study. Organisations from which participants were sampled were made to understand, during the process of seeking permission to conduct the research, that the study

was purely for academic purposes and as such no specific analysis with regard employees will be available to them. However, results findings and its implications could be made available to companies on completion of the study. To ensure transparency, participants who were eligible to take part in the study were provided with the participation information sheet (see Appendix 1 and 2 for details). Two copies of the consent form (see Appendix 1 and 2 for details) were read and signed by participants prior to data collection. Participants kept a copy of the consent form and returned one to the researcher.

3.7.3 Self determination

As indicated by the British Psychological Society (2017), the current study addressed important ethical considerations including "*ensuring scientific value (maximising benefits) and taking steps to protect participants from any adverse effects arising from the research. Such steps may include gaining valid consent, ensuring anonymity and confidentiality (to minimise harm) and maintaining appropriate levels of control over the research process (to help maximise benefits and minimise harm)*" (p. 18).

Participants were informed that the study was purely for academic purposes and that their participation is entirely voluntary. They were no inducements to take part in the study. Participants were asked not to answer any question that they found uncomfortable or too sensitive. However, the researcher did not expect any psychological distress, anxiety, humiliation or pain to the participants from taking part in the study. Notwithstanding this, participants were made aware that they could withdraw from the study at any time during the interview without offering any explanation. Furthermore, the researcher had the permission of a registered Clinical psychologist to signpost any individual who showed distress to them for counselling and/or therapy. Participants were debriefed (See Appendix 1 and 2 for details) at the end of the interviews and on completing the questionnaire.

3.7 Issues in doing sensitive research – Reflections

The dilemma faced by researchers when conducting research into topics that could potentially be distressing to participants was not absent in the current study that dealt with a sensitive issue like workplace bullying. Dixon-Smith, James, Kippen and Liamputtong (1996) argue that conducting qualitative research into sensitive topics such as workplace bullying may be very distressing for both the researcher and research participant. Indeed, asking participants to re-live traumatic events may be counter-productive due to the negative emotions it may elicit. In the current qualitative study, the researcher positioned himself as a professional and subject-matter expect. Furthermore, there was a Clinical psychologist who was readily available if a need arose. Participants were more willing to share their experiences after this assurance.

Nevertheless, the issue of some mistrust for managers and the researcher cannot be discounted. Indeed, Hinkin and Holtom (2009) have identified trust in the organisation and/or researcher as an important contextual factor that may influence participants' willingness to participate in a survey. Employees in Ghana are generally exposed to organisational research from within the organisation. However, when bullying is the topic under study from a researcher external to the organisation, the situation may be different. Employees may feel that their responses may be revealed, and the work group may be punished by managers if the feedback is negative.

The researcher in the current study had to deal with the associated apathy during the conduct of the quantitative study as most employees were reluctant to take part in the study. As such, the quantitative study took much longer than was anticipated. With the qualitative study, the opposite was true. The qualitative data was collected in the latter part of 2014, when the workers in the oil and gas industry had embarked on a strike to protest pay inequalities between local and expatriate workers across the industry in Ghana. This strike had been going on for over 6 weeks prior to data collection. Consequently, any effort to get access to employees through the respective organisations was futile. Eventually, the researcher had to get permission from the workers' union to engage their members. As such, employees who were interviewed felt

aggrieved about a sense of distributive injustice and were more willing to speak up about issues relating to workplace bullying. However, the researcher has no reason to believe these issues might have affected the results of either the qualitative or quantitative research.

Another concern for the researcher was the general disposition of interviewees in the qualitative study with regards issues of bullying at work. Indeed, the cultural orientations in the Ghanaian society that reinforces high power distance between managers and subordinates was evident in the interactions with employees. Most employees seemed comfortable with the unequal distribution of power and performing their role in the organisational context provided it ensured their continuous stay with their organisations and a reliable income to cater for their families. For example, most interviewees did not have a problem with person-related bullying and only mentioned work-related bullying episodes. Even with further probing and subtle prompting, most interviewees still focussed on work-related bullying even though they were mistreated in a personal way including being shouted at, ignored etc.

An additional concern with the quantitative survey was the length of the questionnaire. Testing the prescriptive model of Einarsen and colleagues presented a unique challenge to the researcher owing to the multitude of variables contained in the model. The researcher aimed to use only questionnaires that were valid, reliable and widely established standardised tools for measuring the variables of interest. As such, whilst the researcher made every effort to identify shorter versions of these standardised questionnaires that had good psychometric properties, some scales were still very long. Indeed, the seventeen (17) variables tested in the final analytical model had a total of one hundred and ten (110) items. This might have led to participant fatigue and/or non-participation. This was evidenced by the fact that, a lot more people opened the first page of the online questionnaire but did not continue beyond the introductory page.

Even for those who completed the questionnaire, the researcher has no evidence to prove that they honestly responded to the items on the questionnaire or even that they were attentive to the questions and their

responses. On reflection, following recommendations by Desimone, Harms and Desimone (2015) some bogus/instructed items could have been introduced into the survey to assist in identifying insufficient-effort/inattentive respondents. However, this would have made the questionnaire even longer. Nevertheless, considering the detailed participant information sheets and consent forms as well as the interest the topic of workplace bullying generated, the researcher is confident that the responses reflected the lived realities of the participants.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter entails a review of the fundamental issues of paradigm selection that confronts every researcher in the process of designing any form of study. The fundamental question that every researcher needs to answer is: which paradigms are adequate to answer the research questions? The present study positions itself within both the constructivist and the positivist paradigm by combining qualitative and quantitative approaches in a mixed methods design. As such, the post-positivist orientation combined both research paradigms along with their respective methodologies and were deemed suitable and appropriate to answer the research questions. The methodological considerations outlined and the justifications for their adoption helped further our understanding of the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Furthermore, the quantitative study built on the qualitative findings to examine the predictors of workplace bullying, its effect on psychological well-being as well as the role of intervening variables in the bullying – well-being relationship.

In the next three chapters, the studies conducted in this thesis are discussed in detail. As such, Chapter 4 focuses on the first study which is a qualitative exploration of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

Chapter 4 Workplace Bullying in Ghana: A Qualitative Exploration in the Oil and Gas Industry

4.1 Introduction

The surge in the interest in workplace bullying has been highlighted in literature reviewed in previous chapters. Research evidence suggests that workplace bullying is a pervasive organisational reality that is detrimental to the health and well-being of employees as well as to the employing organisation. The experience of workplace bullying and what behaviours may be considered bullying may be influenced by the cultural orientation of the country or even the organisation.

Most of the published literature on workplace bullying comes from Europe and the United States of America. As such, most of what we know about the concept is based on European and American organisational settings. Following from Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions, it is possible that workplace bullying is conceptualised, perceived and experienced differently across different countries and cultures. For example, whilst 'bullying' is the preferred term used in countries like the United Kingdom, Scandinavian countries use the term 'mobbing' (Einarsen et al., 2011). These two terms although similar have unique differences in the behaviours they represent. Whilst in Scandinavian countries, mobbing is perpetrated by colleagues (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996; Vartia & Hyyti, 2002), in the UK bullying is mostly perpetrated by employees in senior positions (Hoel et al., 2001; Rayner, 1997; UNISON, 1997). Thus, even within European countries, there seem to exist differences in the experience of this negative act at work.

Hofstede's cultural dimensions (1980) indicate that based on differences in cultural orientation, similar negative behaviours experienced by people in distinct cultures could be perceived differently. This can result from the prevailing standings on various cultural dimensions as well as culturally specific patterns of cognition. As such, certain behaviours that may not be tolerated in a culture or country may be normal and acceptable in another. Indeed, Casimir, McCormack, Djurkovic and Nsubuga-Kyobe (2012), in their study of Australian

and Ugandan samples, showed that culture plays a key role in workplace bullying and its effects on targets. Additionally, a report by the Norwegian Petroleum Safety Authority (2010) indicated that workplace bullying is a real problem in the offshore petroleum industry.

As mentioned previously, specific values, attitudes, and behaviours have a common interpretation within specific cultures, including the experience, prevalence and impact of workplace bullying. Indeed, Power et al. (2013) in a cross-cultural study of 14 countries found differences in acceptability of workplace bullying across cultures. One way of understanding culture is through the lens of its members' attitudes towards authority. According to Hofstede and Bond (1984), power distance is the degree to which societal members accept the unequal distribution of power and authority in relationships as well as social inequality. At work, this can be understood as the extent to which supervisors/superiors influence employees, with employees abiding to authoritarian norms. Research shows that companies in such high power distance cultures have centralised management and decision making characterised by less delegation of authority and an autocratic structure. Employees are expected to be committed, loyal and accept instructions from superiors without questioning (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Hofstede, 1980; Ueno & Sekaran, 1992).

Thus, *power distance* as well as *in-group collectivism* (the extent to which members of society express loyalty, pride, and cohesiveness in their families and organisations; Hofstede et al., 1984), are central in the current study to understand the context in Ghana. Ghana is a largely collectivist culture that falls within the sub-Saharan Africa cluster which scores high on in-group collectivism and power distance whereas most of the seminal work in workplace bullying research was done in countries within the Nordic Europe (individualistic cultures) cluster characterised by low scores on in-group collectivism and power distance (Gupta, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002). In comparing participants from these two distinct cultures, Casimir et al. (2012) found that Ugandan teachers (high in-group collectivism and power distance) reported being subjected to more

workplace bullying than a comparable sample in Australia (low scores on in-group collectivism and power distance).

Since the discovery of oil and gas in commercial quantities in Ghana in 2007, there has been an influx of multinational companies into the upstream, midstream and downstream sub-sectors in the country, which are considered safety critical organisations (SCO), that is companies potentially exposed to high risks and hazards in the work environment (Eid et al., 2011). There is legislation to ensure proper representation of the Ghanaian worker at all levels of organisations in this sector (Petroleum Commission Act, 2011 (Act 821) of Ghana, and the Petroleum regulations, 2013). However, there is a marked disparity of worker demographics within management in offshore operations due to the lack of technical expertise of local staff which is required for operations on the rigs as well as oil/gas platforms. Indeed, many more Ghanaian professionals are being trained to perform such specialised tasks, but currently most supervisory/managerial positions are held by non-Ghanaian (expatriate) workers with most Ghanaian employees working as subordinates in the offshore operations. However, the situation is different within onshore operations with a lot of Ghanaians holding top managerial/executive positions (Ablo, 2012). Research into SCOs shows that employees working offshore report higher levels of anxiety, stress, workload and sleep disturbances/problems than their colleagues working onshore (Parkes, 1998; Ross, 2009). As such, offshore and onshore work may create situations where workplace bullying may fester. Therefore, this study had as its main objective an in-depth understanding of the experience of workplace bullying among Ghanaian workers.

Stemming from the constructivist paradigm of constructing meaning from people's lived experiences, the current study lends itself to a theoretical framework that is very important in organisation studies but has been infrequently applied in workplace bullying research. Weick's (1995) sense making theory highlights the interplay between action and interpretation. This perspective offers explanation about how individuals understand and construct their reality by trying to make sense of ambiguous situations they experience. They interpret the new situation and make meaning of their experiences. In a

bullying situation, the persistent negative behaviours experienced by victims/targets may be very distressing and make no sense (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2008). This triggers a survival mechanism to make sense of the situation to reduce the uncertainty and restore some balance. Indeed, Zabrodska, Ellwood, Zaeemdar and Mudrak (2016) in a study of hostility in academia found different experiences for targets and perpetrators of workplace bullying as they made sense of the bullying situation. The reality constructed from sense making preserved the power differentials between victims and perpetrators and contributed to an escalation of bullying. Vickers (2007) further showed that the workplace bullying experience was fundamentally 'an act of sense making' (p. 223). Additionally, Olson-Buchannan and Boswell (2008) found that people's interpretation of specific trigger situations as mistreatment or otherwise is determined by a process of sense making.

As such, this study draws on Weick's (1995) sense making theory to understand the experiences of employees in Ghana's oil and gas industry through the lenses of their lived experiences and the meanings they construct from these experiences.

This chapter details the research approach as well as the design used for this study. The strategies employed in collecting and analysing data for this study are also discussed. Findings from the study are then presented as well as implications for the quantitative study to follow the current study.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Research approach

Bullying at work is a very complex phenomenon owing to the subjectivity inherent in its experience and perception. According to Liefooghe and Olafsson (1999), the person experiencing bullying behaviour is not a passive receiver and as such there is a need to understand the context in which the behaviour occurs. This implies that the perception, experience and report of workplace bullying must be understood through the 'active filter' of the person who is bullied. What factors within the individual, organisation and society influence how bullying is

perceived, experienced and reported? An approach such as qualitative methodology that takes the subjective perceptions of the bullied individual into consideration in understanding the experience of bullying and its effect on the individual, is a robust method to understand the phenomenon.

Lewis (1998) and Miles and Huberman (1994) have also emphasised the importance of understanding the meanings people place on their lived experiences and connecting these meanings to their social world; a typical characteristic of qualitative methodology. Lewis (1998) further amplifies the importance of qualitative methodology in workplace bullying research by asserting that "Another feature of the literature is its heavy reliance on quantitative data … quantitative research methods need to be supplemented by qualitative techniques in order to provide a comprehensive picture of workplace bullying" (p. 94). He further emphasizes that "Quantitative approaches are of little help in identifying the subjective meanings and experiences of the people affected by bullying … the study of workplace bullying is still in its early stages, and little is known about the perceptions, motives, reactions and strategies of the people concerned. Qualitative methods are far more useful for the task of exploring these social realities and social constructs. Furthermore, by allowing people to 'speak for themselves' to a significant extent, qualitative approaches are less likely to fall into the trap of imposing the researcher's values and reactions on to the situations being studied" (Lewis, 1998, p. 98). The utility and appropriateness of the qualitative approach is further acknowledged by Smith (1999) who asserts the importance of using qualitative methodology when the concept under investigation is new and complex and the researchers' overall aim is to better understand the processes involved.

Acknowledging the paucity of research in Ghana in general and the Ghanaian oil and gas sector, with regards to workplace bullying, a method that is suited to explore the nature of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas sector is the qualitative method. Adopting an exploratory approach, the qualitative design will help in understanding the 'what', 'why', 'who', 'when' and 'how' of workplace bullying in Ghana.

As discussed, culture varies across countries; thus, bullying may be experienced differently by people in distinct cultures and this may affect its occurrence, experience and consequences (Casimir et al., 2012). This implies that attempting to build on existing frameworks of workplace bullying using quantitative methodology without a qualitative examination of the phenomenon within the specific national culture in which it occurs will have limited utility in fostering a better understanding of the workplace bullying concept. Thus, this qualitative study is very relevant in understanding bullying from the perspective of a Ghanaian worker prior to any quantitative data collection.

4.2.2 Research method

Data was collected using interviews. Kvale (1996) has stated that "interviews attempt to understand the world from the subject's point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations" (p. 1). Specifically, the semi-structured interview was utilised. This involved the use of a structured question guide which was prepared using previous studies and theories related to bullying as a guide. There was also the added advantage of in-depth questioning to delve deeper into issues arising from the interview. The researcher was careful not to deviate from the interview guide unless when doing so added value and deeper understanding of interviewees' responses. Esterberg (2002) has indicated the advantages of adopting an orientation in interviewing that provides the flexibility for interviewees to respond as they like, permitting the possibility of elaborating further and probing on a thought or idea. As such, the use of semi-structured interviews allowed greater flexibility with regards to the line of questioning for each interviewee, more clarity in relation to the questions, follow-ups where necessary, and more detailed responses.

4.2.3 Population

The population for this study comprised of all workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. This industry comprises of companies in the upstream, midstream and downstream industries. This sector is a fast-growing one since the discovery of oil and gas in Ghana in commercial quantities in 2007. It is

estimated that the oil and gas industry in Ghana currently has over 7,000 employees working in various installations offshore along the Eastern, Central and Western shores of Ghana as well as in corporate offices in Accra, Takoradi and Tema.

4.2.4 Sampling technique and inclusion criteria

The convenience sampling technique and snowball sampling technique were used in selecting the participants for the study. Participants had to have worked within their various organisations for a minimum of 6 months prior to data collection. This is in line with Einarsen et al.'s (2011) definition of workplace bullying which recommends time duration of at least six (6) months for which persistent negative behaviours directed towards an individual can be termed bullying at work. As such, any employee taking part in the study should have worked with the organisation for a minimum period of 6 months. Only participants who met this criterion could take part in the study. Participants who were accessible and met the inclusion criteria for participation were invited to be part of the study.

The researcher did not seek to recruit only victims of workplace bullying but was interested in interviewing any employees within the industry who could provide reliable information to meet the research aims. Consequently, the researcher sought to recruit and interview victims, witnesses as well as perpetrators of workplace bullying. However, the researcher was limited due to the non-cooperation of organisations to grant access to their employees.

Letters of introduction as well as copies of ethical approval from the University were sent to the respective organisations in the oil and gas industry outlining the aims of the research and requesting their support by granting access to all their employees. Additionally, support was sought from the regulator (i.e. Petroleum Commission) to get cooperation from these organisations. Since the oil and gas workers were on strike during that period because of perceived pay disparity with other foreign workers (see section 3.7), there was no response from the regulator and/or organisations after a few weeks. As such, the researcher reached out to the workers union for support in

accessing its members. Access to employees was therefore through the workers union. Whilst this option was deemed necessary to carry on with the research within the time frame, this limited the ability to reach out to a true reflection of the population of workers in the industry. For instance, the industry is comprised of local and foreign workers across all sectors of the industry. However, most foreign (expatriate) workers in the industry do not belong to any workers union and as such the researcher could not sample any expatriate even though they mostly occupy managerial and supervisory positions in offshore operations and may have provided relevant data on the phenomenon of bullying. Additionally, since no access was granted by the organisations directly to interview their employees, the researchers' intention to seek information about perpetrators including employees who had been accused of bullying by other colleagues and interviewing them was not possible.

4.2.5 Pilot study

Prior to data collection, the interview questions were piloted on a sample of three (3) employees (2 onshore and 1 off-shore). This pilot study was deliberately designed to examine the acceptability of the in-depth interview process in terms of the interview schedule/questions as well as the researcher's evaluation of his capability to efficiently conduct the qualitative research (Holloway, 1997; Kim, 2011). As such, the aim of the pilot study was to assess the feasibility of the qualitative study. To this end, the specific aims of the pilot study were:

(1) to assess if the research methods were suitable for employees in the oil and gas industry in Ghana; some of whom are low-skilled with little or no formal education (Ablo, 2012) and

(2) to test the interview schedule/protocol. Furthermore, since the researcher had little significant experience at qualitative research,

(3) to allow a self-evaluation of the researcher's ability to carry through a semi-structured in-depth interview on a sensitive topic as bullying at work. The pilot study also might help

(4) flag any practical and/or methodological issues that could be addressed before the conduct of the main qualitative study.

Participants were conveniently sampled from two organisations in the oil and gas industry. There were no criteria for selection with regards to experience (victim/target, witness/bystander, and perpetrator) with bullying. However, as stated earlier, participants should meet the inclusion criterion of having worked with the organisation for at least 6 months prior to data collection (Einarsen et al., 2011).

Ethical approval was granted by the Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of Nottingham, UK. Participants were given the participant information sheet to peruse and they signed the informed consent forms. Semi-structured in-depth interviews was the method for collecting data. Additionally, the researcher took field notes as well as a reflexive journal. Interviews were done, and audio recorded on a tape recorder and an MP3 player voice recorder. The researcher observed the participants during the interview and observations were written up after the interview. Interviews lasted 30 to 45 minutes each and were conducted in English at a convenient and quiet location after office hours for the 2 onshore workers. The researcher was invited by the off-shore worker to a convenient location close to his home for the interview. Following recommendations by Lincoln and Guba (1985), after each interview, the researcher included a process of member checking as a necessary criterion to enhance credibility. After each interview was concluded, the researcher summarised the experience of the participant with regards bullying and welcomed clarifications, additions and amendments. Furthermore, the researcher in the process of member checking sought out feedback from participants on the entire pilot study. Some of the issues identified and addressed in the pilot study are discussed next.

Bullying research is very sensitive, and the researcher may be faced with a challenge of recruiting participants and getting them to speak up honestly about their experiences. Initial contact with some companies in the oil and gas sector was problematic as they were sceptical about granting permission to interview their staff. This delayed the initial timelines for the research. Employees were assured of confidentiality of their responses and 3 were willing

to take part in the study. They then planned to meet with the researcher subsequently for the interview.

The researcher learned from this experience and anticipated possible difficulties with participant recruitment in the main study. This was particularly the case due to the certain happenings in the period the research was conducted. The workers within the offshore operations who were unionised had been threatening industrial action due to disparities in remuneration between the local Ghanaian workers and their expatriate counterparts. There had been back and forth negotiation between the workers' union and the companies in offshore operations with no amicable solutions reached. Consequently, the workers embarked on a strike for some weeks prior to data collection. As such, the researcher decided to contact the workers' union to gain access to the employees since the organisations were either reluctant or unwilling to grant access to the researcher to interview their employees. The workers' union on the other hand, had the best interest of their members at heart and was thought to be more willing to delve into workplace bullying in the oil and gas industry.

Another issue of concern for the researcher was to strike the right balance between being professional and personal. This includes a reiterative process of self-evaluation throughout the qualitative inquiry that positions the researcher as being culturally appropriate whilst maintaining an objective distance that will not bias the research process (Kim, 2011). As such, the researcher adopted an interviewing style that was conversational (but guided by the interview schedule/protocol) to encourage participants to speak up and delve into their lived experiences of bullying by trusting the researcher. This achieved the goal of empathising with participants' experience whilst seeking clarity or probing further into their experience of bullying. The reflexive journal was used to document the researcher's feelings, thoughts, impressions and ideas during the research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This was reviewed prior to each subsequent interview to help improve the process of interviewing.

A discussion of the research process after each interview revealed some elements for modification. For example, the offshore worker and another participant opined that after discussing their knowledge and experience of

workplace bullying, the definition offered to them to self-label as a victim/target was too long and technical. At this stage in the interview, the researcher read out the definition offered by Einarsen et al. (2011):

"*Bullying at work means harassing, offending, or socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone's' work. In order for bullying to be applied to a particular, activity, interaction or process, the bullying behaviour has to occur repeatedly and regularly (e.g. weekly) and over a period of time (e.g. about six months). Bullying is an escalating process in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position and becomes the target of systematic social acts. A conflict cannot be called bullying if the incident is an isolated event or if two parties of approximately equal strength are in conflict*" (p. 22).

This concern was taken into consideration and a shorter definition was used for the 3rd pilot interview. The participant seemed comfortable with this definition of workplace bullying and raised no concerns. The shorter definition used and adopted for the main study was: *"Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour"* (Ortega, Hogh, Pejtersen, & Olsen, 2009, p. 418).

The pilot process was very intuitive as it gave the researcher an understanding of his ability to implement a semi-structured in-depth interview that met the methodological rigour of qualitative research. It also highlighted practical realities that had to be considered in the conduct of the main qualitative study. As a result of the pilot study, the researcher reviewed all questions and developed the final interview schedule/guide.

4.3 Main qualitative study

4.3.1 Sample

A sample of 15 employees was used in this study. These employees were drawn from offshore installations as well as corporate offices in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. The sample consisted of fourteen (14) males and one (1)

female. The gender imbalance in the sample reflects the male-dominated nature of the oil and gas sector in the industry in Ghana. The female employee works within the corporate head offices of one of the companies and was at a middle management position. Four (4) employees were sampled from offices in Accra and Tema whilst the remaining eleven (11) were workers on offshore platforms. Three (3) of the offshore workers were working on oil rigs in the exploration of oil and gas in the Jubilee field. The remaining eight (8) offshore workers were staff on the Floating Production Storage and offloading facility (FPSO) named the 'FPSO Kwame Nkrumah'. The sample had an age range between 30 and 56 years (mean age = 44.4 years). The sample consisted of black Ghanaian workers who had varied years of experience in the industry ranging from 2 years to 25 years (mean tenure=6.9 years) in their respective professions. Participants have been identified with pseudonyms in this study. Demographic information of participants is presented in Table 4-1.

Table 4-1: Participant demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Type	Tenure (years)	Position
P1	Male	33	Onshore/ offshore	5	Drilling/Well Engineer
P2	Male	56	Onshore	25	Transport Coordinator
P3	Female	30	Onshore	2	Corporate Affairs Officer
P4	Male	55	Offshore (RIG)	5	Geological Technician
P5	Male	49	Offshore (FPSO)	4	Mechanical maintenance personnel
P6	Male	52	Offshore (RIG)	4	Motor man
P7	Male	30	Onshore/ offshore	6	Petroleum Engineer
P8	Male	52	Offshore (RIG)	5	Radio operator (Rig administrator)
P9	Male	55	Offshore (FPSO)	5	Motor man
P10	Male	42	Onshore	8	External relations Officer
P11	Male	50	Onshore	5	Finance Officer
P12	Male	41	Offshore (FPSO)	9	Instruments Technician
P13	Male	39	Offshore (FPSO)	4	Instrument Technician
P14	Male	44	Offshore (FPSO)	7	Production Technician
P15	Male	38	Offshore (FPSO)	9	Maintenance Officer

4.3.2 Procedure

Prior to data collection, contact was made with the General Transport, Petroleum and Chemical Workers' Union (GTPCWU) of the Trade Union Congress (TUC) in Ghana. This union is the largest trade union for workers in the oil and gas industry. Study objectives were discussed, and permission was sought to have access to the members of the GTPCWU. Permission was granted in writing for the researcher to contact the Union members (see

Appendix 1). The Union went further to write to its local unions in various organisations in the sector to introduce the researcher and requested the local executives to encourage their members to participate in the study.

Local executives gave the researcher access to a database of contact details of members. The researcher then contacted individual members to introduce himself and arrange a meeting. Onshore workers were interviewed in their offices during lunch break whereas offshore workers met the researcher at various locations at their convenience. Offshore workers were not interviewed at their places of work (rig/FPSO) as this was not possible considering the safety and security nature of these offshore installations as well as the excessive cost of offshore installations training if the researcher had to go offshore.

4.3.3 Interview schedule

The interview questions were in three (3) phases. In phase one, during the initial contact with potential participants, a screening question was asked. This question was “How long have you worked with your current company? This was necessary to establish that participants had been with their current employer for a minimum of six (6) months. According to recommendations by Einarsen et al. (2011), 6 months was the minimum time duration for which persistent negative acts could be termed workplace bullying.

Participants who met this criterion met with the researcher for the interview. They were asked to sign the informed consent sheet after reading the participant information sheet (see Appendix 1).

In Phase two, demographic information was sought from the participants. Questions such as their age, job role, tenure within the industry etc. were asked.

This was followed by the questions in the semi-structured interview in phase three. Participants were asked about their knowledge of workplace bullying. The researcher asked several questions to delve into participants’ lived experiences of workplace bullying consistent with the subjective methods of measuring workplace bullying (self-labelling method without a definition; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; O’Moore, Lynch & Daeid, 2003).

Sample questions were:

a) Have you heard the term ‘workplace bullying’ before?
b) What do you understand by the term bullying at work?

The researcher then offered a definition of workplace bullying and asked participants to assess if they have been bullied based on the definition. The definition used in this study was as follows: *“Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour”* (Ortega, Hogh, Pejtersen, & Olsen, 2009, p. 418).

Participants were asked to self-label as a target/victim, witness/bystander or perpetrator based on the definition i.e. self-labelling method with a definition (Cowie et al., 2002). Further questions were asked participants to probe into their experience of workplace bullying such the gender and position of the bully (see interview guide in Appendix 1). The interview was recorded on a tape recorder and on an MP3 player voice recorder and participants were encouraged to express themselves with as much detail and examples as needed. Interviews lasted between 27 and 45 minutes per participant. On completion of the interview, participants were debriefed.

4.4 Ethical considerations

As stated earlier in Chapter 3, the current study was guided by ethical principles as outlined by the British Psychological Society’s Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), Code of Human Research Ethics (2010), as well as the Data Protection Act (1998). Ethical approval was granted by the Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of Nottingham, UK.

Participants who met the inclusion criteria to take part in the study were provided with a participation information sheet (see Appendix 1 for details). The participant information sheet detailed the study aims and objectives as well as the procedure and the research ethical guidelines. Participants in this study were assured that their responses will be confidential. The researcher ensured

that no information provided by participants would directly link them to their responses. As such, only demographic information that was relevant to the analysis of data was sought from participants. Participants were further assured of their right to withdraw from the study at any time without any reason and at no consequence to them. This was particularly important because of the sensitive nature of bullying and the emotions it might elicit. Further support was offered during debriefing by signposting 'distressed' participants to support services available including a Clinical psychologist. No participant contacted the researcher and/or the Clinical psychologist to take advantage of this service.

Furthermore, informed consent was sought from participants. Participants were informed that the interview will be recorded, and data would be stored by the researcher and the University for a period of 7 years. Participants were assured that if they opt to take part in the study but did not want their voice recorded; the researcher would take notes and write out their responses. Two copies of the consent form (see Appendix 1 for details) were given to participants to read and sign prior to data collection. Participants kept a copy of the consent form and returned one to the researcher.

Participants were debriefed after the interviews. The aims of the study were once again elaborated, and the participants had the opportunity to seek further clarifications. The researcher was aware of the sensitive nature of workplace bullying and understood the possibility that reliving experiences may be distressing and/or uncomfortable for some participants. Because of this, during debriefing the researcher provided his contact details as well as those of a trained Clinical Psychologist who had agreed to provide support to any participant if needed.

Organisations from which participants were sampled were made to understand, during the process of seeking permission to conduct the research, that the study was purely for academic purposes and as such no specific analysis regarding individual employees would be available to them. However, a summary of results/findings and implications of these findings for management and employees would be made available to companies in the oil and gas industry in Ghana on completion of the study.

4.5 Data analysis

Data was transcribed verbatim by the researcher and analysed with an interpretivist approach. To ensure anonymity of responses, all references to the names, departments, organisations or any other information that could be used to identify the interviewees were deleted from the transcripts.

Analysis of transcripts was done using thematic analysis (data analysis method in which recurring patterns of meanings within qualitative data are identified, analysed and reported) and using the 6-phase process recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006):

a) Familiarising yourself with your data
b) Generating initial codes
c) Searching for themes
d) Reviewing themes
e) Defining and naming themes
f) Producing the report

A combination of inductive and theoretical thematic analysis allowed for a more complete picture that ensures that the derived themes are reflective of the data.

A coding framework/grid was produced after careful and thorough reading of the interview transcripts. This was to help the researcher familiarise himself with the content of the interview transcripts. Initial codes were generated by representing information in short parts of the transcript by a few words or phrase that captured the main issue raised by the interviewee. Within each transcript, the sententious approach (van Manen, 1997) was adopted in which the entire transcript of each participants' interview was read as a whole to construct the essential imports of employees' lived experiences. This process took place several times as the researcher kept going back and forth between the transcripts and the initial codes.

The initial codes were thoroughly reviewed subsequently. The codes were then sorted out into initial themes. These themes (and the codes that informed them together with data extracts) emerged inductively based on their

keyness (i.e. a criterion based on the researchers' judgement on the salience of issues in the content of the participants' experience) in the transcripts and were discussed with two other researchers (research supervisors) with considerable experience in qualitative methodology and consensus was reached on major categories/themes that represented the data (investigator triangulation; Polit & Beck 2004). These were factored into a thematic framework/map which was continuously looked at and reviewed by the researcher. Major themes and subthemes were identified and defined. Furthermore, relationships between codes, themes, subthemes and patterns of association within the data were analysed. Consistency and agreement on the themes derived from thematic analysis is a good indicator of the reliability of qualitative data. The themes and subthemes derived from the data were reviewed by the researcher and his supervisors independently to ensure consistency. The final thematic framework was then developed.

4.5.1 Methodological rigor

In the current study, much emphasis was placed on the quality of the data, data collection and analysis processes. This was to ensure reliability and validity of research findings. Lincoln and Guba (1986) and Tracy (2010) have outlined quality criteria for qualitative research which include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These have been discussed extensively in Chapter 3.

4.6 Findings

The data showed that all but one employee (14 out of 15) sampled indicated that they had experienced bullying after being presented with a definition of bullying (the self-labelling method). The one (1) employee who had not been a target of negative and persistent acts of workplace bullying reported having witnessed a colleague being the recipient of bullying at work over a prolonged period. All interviewees identified supervisors and/or managers as the perpetrators of bullying in their experience of bullying or witnessing of

bullying. Furthermore, none of the employees interviewed reported perpetrating negative acts of bullying on any individual at work.

With regards specific demographic classifications, the one female participant interviewed indicated some negative acts perpetuated towards her at work but fell short of classifying them as workplace bullying as she considered them infrequent. This employee worked onshore in one of the corporate offices of the organisations. Furthermore, the employee who had witnessed a colleague being bullied but reported no personal experience of negative acts consistent with workplace bullying was also an offshore worker. More vivid experiences/accounts of workplace bullying were shared by the eleven (11) employees who worked offshore alone or both in offshore and onshore settings. Indeed, most of the narratives that informed the themes were from this demographic group. These employees seemed most affected by negative acts of bullying at work in line with the unique nature of operations within offshore oil and gas operations. There was no marked variation in the lived experiences of these Ghanaian male offshore workers with regards age, tenure and job role respectively.

Following from the thematic analysis, four main themes were identified. These were: bullying behaviours, attributions for negative behaviour, effects of bullying, and coping with workplace bullying. Bullying behaviours refer to the behaviours that participants made sense of as being acts of bullying. Attributions for negative behaviour represent targets' sense making of reasons why they are bullied at work. Effects of bullying on participants are considered from the perspective of the individual and the organisation. Finally, protection of self as a focus of coping strategies identified from the data is used to deal with workplace bullying at work. These themes and the sub-themes that represent the data are discussed further in the next section (see Tables 4-2 and 4-3).

4.6.1 Bullying behaviours

Workplace bullying, according to the study sample, entails a host of behaviours such as denial of accomplishment, constant criticism from superiors, work overload, lack of voice, as well as intimidation and coercion.

4.6.1.1 Failure to recognize work accomplishments

The sub-theme of failure to recognize work accomplishment as echoed by most of the participants as a form of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry is pervasive. With this behaviour the 'bully' or the perpetrator who is most often a supervisor does not give recognition to the employee's output and most often downgrades all efforts and initiatives he/she takes on the job. The bully does not get satisfied with any work done by the victim and he/she is made to feel that his/her work and daily achievements amount to nothing. A participant said:

> *'... like you have a boss who will put his eyes on you… whatever you do he doesn't seem to appreciate it'... P2*

Another participant noted:

> *'… working can be very stressful, after all your efforts ... no one recognizes your effort'… P7*

Participants noted the demoralising effect this has on their output as a little recognition by their superior makes them feel motivated and boosts their feelings of self-worth.

4.6.1.2 Constant criticism

Frequent criticism which normally follows denial of accomplishment has also emerged as a key form of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. This behaviour has negative effects on the victim's confidence and output. Since the perpetrator is not satisfied with and/or fails to acknowledge the victim's work, the victim is often faced with persistent and unwanted negative criticism. Though constructive criticism of one's work is normal in many work situations, negative criticism as noted by participants is very frequent and comes even in the light of contrary evidence. A participant who works on an oil exploration rig said:

'Sometimes when you go for the sample and you are doing your best ... the Geologist will come and say that … no, it's not clear so go for another one. You go again; you come back the same thing… At the end of the day, the Geologist will say that you are not doing well…you are not performing well and will complain a lot'... P4

Criticisms and even constant criticism of an employee's output is not bad in itself. In most organisations, employees welcome such criticisms, if constructive, as needed feedback to help motivate performance improvement. However, the victims of bullying may perceive these constant negative criticisms as a deliberate attempt by some supervisors to humiliate and frustrate their effort on the job; a behaviour aptly described by most participants as bullying. According to some of the participants the language and tone of voice used by some supervisors in criticizing them most often communicate feelings of hostility and negativity towards the subordinate.

4.6.1.3 Work overload

Participants indicated that workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry also takes the form of work overload coupled with unreasonable deadlines and sometimes demeaning work to the victim. The victim is often given tasks which cannot be accomplished within a time frame specified by the perpetrator/bully but are required to be performed. The bully in this case knows as a standard practice how long it will take the subordinate to complete work yet becomes unreasonable with expectations. In some cases, the bully achieves this by assigning more jobs and responsibilities concurrently to the victim but expects the timely performance of all tasks. Non-compliance or untimely delivery on the part of the victim is often accompanied by criticisms and sanctions. Sometimes some of the jobs are demeaning to the victim also as they are considered menial and do not fall within prescribed duties. A participant asserted that:

'.... you are assigned on your job and your supervisor will not allow you to finish the job and they call you to another job when you are not done with what you are supposed to do for that day.'...P6

Table 4-2: Coding Frequency Table for Respondents: Bullying behaviours, Attribution, Effects of Bullying and Coping strategies in Ghanaian Oil and Gas Industry

Themes	Sub-theme	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10	P11	P12	P13	P14	P15	TOTAL
Bullying behaviours	**Denial of accomplishment**	*	*		*	*		*	*	*		*	*			*	10
	Constant criticism	*	*		*	*		*	*	*				*			8
	Work overload		*	*		*	*		*			*	*		*		7
	Lack of voice		*		*			*		*			*		*	*	7
	Intimidation and coercion	*			*		*	*	*					*			6
Attribution	**Victim personality**	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*		*	*		*	*	12
	Perceived job threat		*	*	*	*	*	*		*		*	*	*	*	*	12
	Perceived racial discrimination	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*			*	*		*	*	12
	Power imbalance	*		*	*		*	*	*	*			*	*	*	*	11
	Power Distance		*		*	*	*	*	*							*	7
Effects	**Psychological distress**	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	14
	Mistakes and errors	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	14
	Poor work commitment	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	14
	Turnover intentions	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	14
Coping resources	**Religious coping**		*		*		*	*				*	*				6
	Social support	*	*				*	*	*					*		*	7
	Recreational activities	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*	*	*	14
	Leave and medical leave	*				*		*		*				*	*	*	7
	Bullying policy				*	*	*	*			*			*			6

4.6.1.4 Lack of voice

Another behaviour consistent with workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry which participants identified is suppression of one's voice in all decision-making processes that require a victim's expertise. The victim thus perceives bullying behaviour when a supervisor deliberately does not involve employees in any decision-making process related to the performance of work as experienced by majority of participants in the current study. The bully ignores any idea and suggestion put forward by the victim or simply fails to bring the victim's expertise on board in dealing with job related challenges or decision making. A participant said:

> *'… he always wants his ideas to be carried out or obeyed by his subordinate … and will not listen to any advice or suggestions from a colleague worker, '… P9*

This made victims feel they were not part of the work process and worked like robots who only had to carry out instructions given to them.

Table 4-3: Thematic framework for bullying behaviours, attribution, effects of workplace bullying and coping resources in Ghana's oil and gas industry

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
Bullying behaviours	Behaviours perceived by victims as bullying		
	Failure to recognize work accomplishments	Failure to recognize employee work output	'... like you may have a boss who will put his eyes on you… whatever you do he doesn't seem to appreciate it'...**P2**
	Constant criticism	Repetitive negative feedback in the light of contrary evidence.	'...Sometimes when you go for the sample and you are doing your best … the Geologist will come and say that … no, it's not clear so go for another one. You go again, you come back the same thing … so you have so many samples, but you have not worked on any … so he's bullying you. At the end of the day, the Geologist will say that you are not doing well … you are not performing very well'... **P4**
	Work overload	Assigning too many tasks than can be accomplished within a specified time.	'... you are assigned on your job and your supervisor will not allow you to finish the job and they call you to another job when you are not done with what you are supposed to do for that day. Even after giving the second job, the supervisor will still send you around. For example, your supervisor needs let's say a tool to do some job … he will even ask you to what … go and bring the tool for him'… **P6**
	Lack of voice	Exclusion from work related decisions making even with relevant expertise	'... he will always want his ideas to be carried or obeyed by his subordinate without any suggestions … listen to any advice or suggestions from a colleague worker, that is the second one' …**P9**

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
	Intimidation /coercion	Use of threats by superiors to achieve work goals	'... he forced me to do something that is against my will and forcefully… and, my rights were disregarded … I mean with regards to the job I do – or that your opinions are not being listened to' ... **P7**
Attribution	Victims sense making of reasons why they are bullied		
	Victim personality	Victim vulnerability that predisposes them to acts of bullying	'... If you are dealing with a superior who is a bully, and you happen to be a soft person, then certainly, you are likely to be a victim'... **P11**
	Perceived job threat	Fear of losing one's job to a subordinate.	'... Yeah, that one to you know it depends, because is like if your supervisor, an expatriate sees that you are smart or you learn very fast and if he doesn't position himself well, you will take his position … You know the petroleum law permits a national or the nation to take that position if he's experienced so if your supervisor knows that you are catching up and he knows that you can occupy the position, if you don't meet the right person my brother he will frustrate you and it will come under bullying so that either you give up or … yeah yeah yeah'...**P6**
	Perceived racial discrimination	Negative behaviour towards another because of racial differences	'... it is out of racism, … because there are certain things you will not understand ... because he being the white or he in a different colour and you are in a different colour he sees you and thinks that he is better'... **P5**

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
	Power imbalance	Unequal distribution of power victim and perpetrator	'Arbitrary use of power ... because they have power they think they can force it anywhere they want ... When you are below a person in terms of rank; seniority you are an easy prey'…**P7** '... those who are bullied, it's not their will that they should be bullied … people do that because like I said they think and feel that people must know that they are the all in all … they are the ones in control. They are your bosses … basically that's why they do that'… **P9**
	Power distance	Cultural orientation of Ghanaians as to the relationship between supervisors and subordinates	'Because they are used to always kowtowing to authority…that when I am someone who questions authorities using power arbitrarily...everybody shuts up…nobody stands up to the person ... you see … And I feel, it has to do with exposure. Most people are not exposed…Even when they are … the cultural mind-set in Ghana, allows that …The fact that when an elderly person or your boss says something, you shut up … an elderly person can be wrong … obviously be wrong, we are not taught to speak out or to stand up for what we believe in … few people do that' …**P7**

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
Effects of workplace bullying	Consequences of bullying behaviours on the victims, witnesses and the organisation		
	Psychological distress	Stressful experiences as a result of being bullied or witnessing a bullying behaviour	'... as an individual, I mean I was down-hearted, I was uptight, I was angry with myself'…**P7** '... it makes me feel so bad … as if you are not a human being, you cannot reason for yourself, somebody has to be dictating you know, always to you. So, it's not the best in the industry'…**P13**
	Mistakes and errors	Unintentional deviations from standard working procedures by employee	'...It creates an inconvenience…so sometimes you don't take time, you may be doing mistakes'... **P4**
	Poor work commitment	Improper attention to one's duties and responsibilities on the part of an employee	'…. but if you are being intimidated, sometimes you feel uummm even if there's something that you have to do, you will not … it is out of your own … you see ooo, … that let me do this one to help the time … to help the job or improve the job … but due to all this misunderstanding, you feel reluctant … I'm not going to do this, I feel tired … yes … so it has … it really affect the job'… **P5**
	Turnover intentions	The thought of quitting one's job or position	'... I felt like resigning … resigning. I also felt down-hearted…I felt that why should this be happening to me alone?'...**P7**

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
Coping Resources	Strategies to deal with workplace bullying by employees		
	Religious coping	Dealing with workplace bullying through reliance on one's object of worship	'... my Christian life … Christianity is a way of life…and if you understand what the Bible says and you go by it, some of these things you see them as small challenges … they are walk overs … so with time, you know you will overcome. So Yes, I take solace in the Bible, that has been my way of life' all out, for the past, … since 2010, 2010, yes … no, year 2000, yes ... yet I know the Bible tells me how to cope with things like this and so … uumm … I don't allow it to worry me. I only use it as a surface to get to where I want to'... **P11**
	Social support	Dealing with workplace bullying through reliance on family, co-workers and significant others.	'... so once you speak to somebody you've missed, at least talking to the person releases some of the stress … Yeah you do, I remember when my first case of the mild BP (Blood pressure) occurred, I had to … they told me I had to keep calling home, talking to people, find out how everybody is fine'… **P1**
	Recreational activities	Using leisure and exercise to deal with workplace bullying on the job.	'... After work there's a gym and there are recreational rooms, you can go in and have some exercise … on the rig I was on we had pool, snooker and there was chess and draught too, so you can play these ones but mostly I use the gym'... **P1**

Main theme	Sub theme	Definitions	Example
	Leave and medical leave	Taking permitted time off work to deal with workplace bullying	'... you can talk to your supervisor and then he is at liberty to give you some hours or maybe a day to go and relax, if it is more and serious, there is a medic on board the facility, you will be asked to go to the hospital and then see a doctor ... if it's serious and beyond, the handling of the medical team there, they will call the chopper to come and fly you out immediately to the hospital at shore' …**P9**
	Bullying policy	Institutional mechanisms for preventing and punishing negative acts including bullying	... but there's a policy on diversity, there's a policy on harassment, there's a policy …several work policies that ensure that … we are … we are together and we are…we have to respect one another'... **P9**

4.6.1.5 Intimidation and coercion

Some of the participants who experienced or witnessed bullying reported being intimidated and coerced to perform jobs or do things against their wish. According to the participants, this behaviour is often targeted at some employees by some superiors and is perceived as bullying by victims. They reported instances where superiors use threats and/or arbitrary abuse of coercive power against subordinates. Some participants indicated they are often demanded to work under pressure by specific supervisors and this behaviour creates a hostile work environment and poses a potential psychosocial hazard at work. The frequent nature of these negative acts by some superiors to specific targets clearly signals intent to bully. One participant noted:

> *'... he forced me to do something that is against my will and forcefully ... and, my rights were disregarded … I mean with regards to the job I do' ... P7*

4.6.2 Attribution of workplace bullying

Becoming a victim of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry has been attributed to many factors by the participants. The meanings they ascribed to their experiences was based on targets trying to make sense of the social world and the context of work. Themes that emerged include the victim's personality, perceived job threats by perpetrators, racial discrimination by perpetrators, as well as power imbalance and power distance between victims and perpetrators.

4.6.2.1 Victim personality

Most participants observed that one's personality characteristics often play a significant role in whether one is bullied or not. Having a personality that suggests being vulnerable and appearing calm tends to encourage the perpetuation of negative acts by the bully. As such having low self-esteem, low social skills and an introverted personality may predispose employees to be potential victims of bullying behaviour. Once these characteristics about the victim are present, the bully it creates the right conditions for the perpetuation of negative behaviours. One participant observed that:

'… If you are dealing with a superior who is a bully, and you happen to be a soft person, then certainly, you are likely to be a victim' ... P11

According to most of the participants, having certain personality characteristics sends a signal of weakness to potential bullies who then perpetrate the bullying act. One participant noted:

'... When you below a person in terms of rank; seniority you are an easy prey … and also when you are somebody that you are calm, you don't react, you're not an extrovert … if you are the introvert it is easier for you to be bullied because if the person knows that when he barks, you are also going to bark, he's not going to venture. And then the person's temperament … calm … phlegmatic makes you an easy prey' … P7

4.6.2.2 Perceived job threat

Most of the participants observed that in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry, bullying is perpetrated by individuals, most often supervisors, who perceive some level of threat to their job and position. More often some employees/subordinates serve as protégés under their supervisors and will either assume a supervisory position with time or will even take over from their immediate supervisor consistent with the Petroleum (local content and local participation) regulations (LI 2204, 2013). The regulations require indigenes (Ghanaians) to take up a proportion of management positions in each company within prescribed timeframes when one is deemed to reach a level in terms of expertise commensurate with the job task. This implies that as time goes, a subordinate will eventually become superior possibly taking up the position of the present supervisor or rising to a comparable position. In a bid to safeguard one's position, bullying may be an indirect way of preventing this perceived possible competition. One participant stated:

'... Yeah, that one to you know it depends, because is like if your supervisor, an expatriate sees that you are smart or you learn very fast and if he doesn't position himself well, you will take his position … You know the petroleum law permits a national or the nation to take

that position if he's experienced so if your supervisor knows that you are catching up and he knows that you can occupy the position, if you don't meet the right person, my brother he will frustrate you and it will come under bullying so that either you give up or… yeah yeah yeah'... P6

The bully will downgrade, criticize and deny the efforts of the victim who is perceived to pose a threat to the bully's position. These negative acts are meant to frustrate the victim either to quit the job or be seen as incompetent on the job so as to maximize the chances of the bully retaining his/her position. Competence in handling tasks in the oil and gas industry is very vital in being chosen to assume a higher responsibility. If the supervisor feels threatened by the subordinate's competence and a possibility of being replaced, bullying becomes an alternative to suppressing the employee. A participant indicated:

'… Aha…you see sometimes it is personal interest…it is personal interest because somebody or someone is seeing you as a threat … that is one aspect. Maybe if they give you a chance of exercising your experience, you may overshadow his progress or work … so he will not give you the chance at all to shine, that is one'… P5

4.6.2.3 Perceived racial discrimination

Participants agreed that discrimination along racial lines is a tool for perpetrating bullying acts against individuals in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. In the offshore industry, the majority of the supervisors are non-Ghanaians (expatriates) whilst subordinates are predominantly the indigenes. This finding must be cautiously interpreted and does not infer that there is direct racial discrimination in the sector, though observed bullying behaviours are mostly perpetrated by non-Ghanaian supervisors to black Ghanaian subordinates. According to the participants, the stereotype belief that the indigenes are inferior in terms of skills, experience and arguably intellectual capacity serves as ground for the perpetration of bullying acts against subordinates. A participant stated:

'… it is out of racism… because there are certain things you will not understand … because he being the white or he in a different colour and you are in a different colour he sees you and thinks that he is better'... P5

According to most of the participants, this demographic disparity coupled with the need to retain one's position may lead to bullying behaviour. Another participant remarked that:

... 'Constant picking on you…because of the colour … because they undermine the black man…the local content ... because the more they are harsh on you, the more they stay longer'... P15

4.6.2.4 Power imbalance

It can be deduced from the accounts by most of the participants that the lack of power by virtue of one's position as a subordinate serves as a fertile ground to be a victim of bullying and the reverse serving as a tool for becoming a bully. In a well-structured and regimented organisational set up like what prevails in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry, power is held by some which they exercise over others. This segregation alone with people seeing themselves as bosses who control power and rules and others seeing themselves as subordinates ready to be ruled serves as a vehicle for perpetrating bullying behaviour. A participant noted:

'... Arbitrary use of power ... because they have power they think they can force it anywhere they want ... When you below a person in terms of rank; seniority you are an easy prey' ...P7

Another participant also added:

'... those who are bullied, it's not their will that they should be bullied ... people do that because like I said they think and feel that people must know that they are the all in all… they are the ones in control. They are your bosses … basically that's why they do that'… P9

Additionally, the possession of more expert power by the supervisors in some instances compared to the subordinates also becomes a motivation for bullying. The young oil and gas industry in Ghana especially in offshore operations require people with specialised expertise to perform tasks at a supervisory level. Most of these positions are held by expatriates who tend to possess expert power. The lack of or inadequate expert power according to many of the participants takes away the victims' voice, subdues them and places them in an inferior position where they are more likely to be bullied. Another participant remarked:

> *'... Because they kind of appear weak … that's what I feel because if someone has the same power in terms of knowledge … you won't even … it won't cross your mind to even bully …. because you know the person knows what he is doing'... P3*

4.6.2.5 Power distance

The culture of tolerance and submissiveness to authority characteristic of Ghanaian culture also has been identified by participants as a key factor which leads to bullying behaviours in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. Ghana's culture by Hofstede's classification can be classified as a high-power distance culture. A high-power distance indicates that society accepts an unequal distribution of power and people understand "their place" in the system with society members without power viewing themselves as subordinate to those with power. Many Ghanaian indigenes who are subordinates in the oil and gas industry are more likely to submit themselves to supervisors and are more likely not to question the authority of supervisors. One victim noted:

> *'... Because they are used to always kowtowing to authority … that when I am someone who questions authorities using power arbitrarily ... everybody shuts up … nobody stands up to the person... you see... and I feel, it has to do with exposure. Most people are not exposed… Even when they are …. the cultural mind-set in Ghana, allows that … the fact that when an elderly person or your boss says something, you shut up … an elderly person can be wrong …*

obviously be wrong. We are not taught to speak out or to stand up for what we believe in…few people do that' ... P7

The supervisors may take advantage of this sub-culture to bully. The expatriate supervisors may interpret this sub-culture as a weakness on the part of the subordinates and therefore find it easy to bully them. The situation seems to be the same even when the supervisor/manager is a Ghanaian. This is because the Ghanaian supervisor will also expect the subordinate to submit to his authority without questions.

Another participant remarked:

'We cannot easily speak up about those issues of bullying and that is about our culture as Ghanaians. You know the boss is always right ...' P15

4.6.3 4.6.3 Effects of workplace bullying

Effects of workplace bullying identified from analysis of the data include effects on the individual and witnesses as well as consequences for the organisation.

4.6.3.1 Psychological distress

The theme of individual effects of workplace bullying is multifaceted. It includes both psychological and physical effects. Participants recounted enormous effects of bullying behaviour on their lives. Almost all of participants identified psychological distress as the consequence of bullying on them. Prolonged bullying may be traumatising to the victims and leads to an impairment of the daily functioning of the individual. Victims of bullying experience feelings of sadness, despair and are withdrawn. Thus, they approach their daily routines with lethargy, with no motivation or satisfaction related to work tasks and only act to satisfy the bully or avoid another bullying situation. It can therefore be deduced from the responses of most of the participants that the persistent and unwanted negative acts create some form of prolonged stress long after the behaviour ceases. One victim noted that:

'…as an individual, I mean I was down-hearted, I was uptight, I was angry with myself.'…P7

Another victim remarked:

'…it makes me feel so bad…as if you are not a human being, you cannot reason for yourself, somebody has to be dictating, you know, always to you. …' P13

Furthermore, most participants reported that the recollection of bullying situations creates a feeling of 'fear' in them and makes them anxious whilst working. Thus, the effect of bullying persists even after cessation of bullying behaviour. According to some of the participants, the effects can linger on and the mere presence of the bully is upsetting, and the workplace becomes psychologically and emotionally unsafe for the victims. A victim of bullying remarked:

... 'Yeah, because you cannot concentrate ... like…because the…the…the…the bully even if you see your supervisor you are panicking…so…so…it always you have something like a shock and if you have a pressure, you are always with a high pressure'…P6

Emanating from the responses of participants, workplace bullying does not affect the individual alone but also has dire consequences for the job which cannot be directly and immediately measured/quantified. Job effects come in the form of mistakes/error, turnover intentions and poor employee attitude towards work and job tasks.

4.6.3.2 Mistakes/Errors

Bullying leads to mistakes or errors and accidents on the part of the victim as it makes the victim lose concentration. The mistakes, whether detected or undetected, may have consequences for the operations of organisations. The feelings of emptiness, psychological distress and sometimes despair that a victim experiences at the individual level result in mistakes and accidents largely due to loss of concentration that accompanies the feeling of psychological distress. These accidents can be very costly to employees, the organisation and the environment especially on offshore installations as any accident is serious. A participant remarked:

'…It creates an inconvenience…so sometimes you don't take time, you may be doing mistakes that may lead to accidents'…P4

Another participant remarked:

'.... Yeah like I'm saying, … it can even result in eer some accident here and there because you will lose focus and instead of you concentrating, you may be thinking something you can forget yourself and if you are not lucky, you may put your hand in… so it's a bad situation'… P9

4.6.3.3 Poor work commitment

Another dimension of job effect of workplace bullying which echoes in the themes is poor commitment to work. The unpleasant experience of bullying which comes with psychological distress negatively affects the level of job commitment of the victims. The victim may spend much time brooding over the behaviour of the bully and weighing options available to deal with the negative behaviour. This may distract from core work tasks and even when these tasks are being performed, the victims do not exert themselves to the task. The poor job output may further attract a reaction from the perpetrator/bully which further escalates the situation leading to a further reduction in performance by the victim. Unlike work output and performance, employee commitment may not have immediate visible effects on the job and the organisation, but its long-term effect can be more serious. The victims of bullying would often approach their work in a manner that shows no intention to give their very best to the organisation. Furthermore, victims of bullying do not feel a sense of belonging to their organisations and willingness to remain with their organisations. The feeling is one of apathy towards one's work. Work becomes solely an instrumental activity to achieve financial rewards. Thus, the consideration is what the job does for him or her but not what he/she does for the job. A participant said:

'... you know everybody has right to deliver to his duty … I mean the best of I mean his ability but if you are being intimidated, sometimes you feel even if there's something that you have to do, you will not…it is out of your own…you see, that let me do this one to help

the time… to help the job or improve the job…but due to all this misunderstanding, you feel reluctant… I'm not going to do this, I feel tired…yes…so it has…it really affects the job'… P5

Even though the bullying act is intended to harm the individual victim, the ripple effect on the job and/or organisation may be quite devastating according to most of the participants. The perpetrator of bullying acts focusses on the goal of psychologically harassing the victim and disregards the potential effects on the victim which in the long term leads to negative employee attitudes and thus affects the job/organisation.

4.6.3.4 Turnover intention

Turnover intention is the final thought that comes to the mind of a victim of bullying. Quitting a job most often is a very difficult decision people must make even though it may be the easiest way out of a pervasive bullying situation. The offshore installations in the oil and gas industry in Ghana employ mostly people with special expertise in that field. Quitting such a job may mean staying without a job or it means going for other jobs which may not be related to an employee's expertise. This notwithstanding however the thought of leaving one's organisation as a way of escaping the demands and hazards of bullying at work was a common theme across data from participants who reported being bullied. Quitting one's job is a major decision as it has economic consequences on an employee and their family as well as periods of unemployment in between jobs. Thinking of giving up one's job in a specific area as oil and gas due to the experience of bullying therefore suggests very serious consequences of the act, both for the organisation and the individual. A participant remarked:

'…I felt like resigning… resigning. I also felt down-hearted… I felt that why should this be happening to me alone?'... P7

4.6.4 Coping strategies

Most of the participants identified recreational activities, social support, religious coping, and sick leave as resources for dealing with workplace bullying on the job, especially in the offshore environment. Furthermore, participants indicated the organisation policy on workplace bullying as providing a mechanism for dealing with workplace bullying.

4.6.4.1 Recreational activities

Participants were unanimous in identifying sports and recreational activities as means of dealing with stressors including workplace bullying related to their job in the oil and gas industry. Recreational activities aside keeping employees fit also help relieve oneself from work tension and boredom that come with some operational activities and tiredness. A participant said:

> *'… After work there's a gym and there are recreational rooms, you can go in and have some exercise… on the rig I was on we had pool, snooker and there was chess and draught too, so you can play these ones but mostly I use the gym'… P1*

Another participant noted:

> *'I actually work out every day… so after work, I go to the gym… if I can't, I do some kind of exercise at home, I listen to music'.... P3*

To some of the participants the use of these facilities does not only offer the means of exercising one's body but also offer the opportunity to interact with others with or without similar worries and also help share ideas. More importantly it serves as an avenue where different employees from different departments who go through varied experiences on the job share experiences.

4.6.4.2 Social support

Social support plays a significant role in dealing with workplace bullying among employees in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. Social support takes several forms. Some participants indicated that the feeling that there are others to walk up or talk to or the actual presence of significant others is relieving. Most of the participants have families and significant others whom they communicate with in times of distress, tiredness and boredom.

A participant remarked:

> *'... so once you speak to somebody you've missed, at least talking to the person releases some of the stress… Yeah you do, I remember when my first case of the mild BP (Blood pressure)*

occurred, I had to…they told me I had to keep calling home, talking to people, find out how everybody is fine'… P1

Another participant said:

'I've got fantastic colleagues…it's more of they are age mates, my experiences… School mates and all that…we talk about issues that we use to de-stress'… P7

However, in some situations or at certain times, getting in touch with family and loved ones on the job as a means of dealing with workplace bullying can have a devastating effect on the employee if the news from home is not positive.

A participant indicated:

'....yeah, it's good to call back home. But to me, it has the positive and negative effects. Hmm, because if you are on the job…in my area what you do is that, you make a lot of mistakes on the job in case you call home and your wife and your children are not feeling well'... P8

4.6.4.3 Religious coping

tThe source of hope when faced with persistent negative acts of bullying is for one to focus on his/her object of worship. The sub-theme of religious coping therefore is a characteristic that is identified with the Ghanaian sub-culture of being a very religious nation. Participants explained that due to the fragile and risky nature of the job especially in offshore operations, coupled with the negative acts of bullying they experience, they are left with no option than to seek hope, sense and meaning from the Divine (God). A participant said:

'… my Christian life… Christianity is a way of life … and if you understand what the Bible says and you go by it, some of these things you see them as small challenges … they are walk overs … so with time, you know you will overcome. So Yes, I take solace in the Bible, that has been my way of life all out, for the past,… yes….yet I know the Bible tells me how to cope with things like this and so…uumm.. I

don't allow it to worry me. I only use it as a surface to get to where I want to.'...P11

Another participant said:

'....it made me very more…more religious, you know, I prayed about it because I felt that okay.'....P7

4.6.4.4 Leave and medical leave

Sick leave and off hours instituted by the organisation have constantly been used by employees to deal with stressors on the job including bullying according to some participants. Leave and off periods allow for much relaxation, recuperation and integration with families in some cases. This prepares the employee to approach the job on resumption with much needed energy and continue to function. Participants also stated that there are healthcare facilities; medical team and equipment made available to address health concerns which might have arisen out of the stress of workplace bullying. A participant stated:

'….you can talk to your supervisor and then he is at liberty to give you some hours or maybe a day to go and relax, if it is more and serious, the err there is a medic on board the facility, you will be asked to go to the hospital and then see a doctor….so there are procedures in place to…if its serious and beyond, the handling of the medical team there, they will call the chopper to come and fly you out immediately to the hospital at shore…'…P9

Another participant remarked:

'... There is nothing you can do…we actually run 28 days rotation…28 days on board and then 28 days off duty…so this is the rotation we run…Within your 28 days duty, you have to comply, irrespective the tension, the stress, you will have to comply'… P5

4.6.4.5 Bullying policy in the oil and gas industry in Ghana

Findings from the responses of some participants point to the fact that workplace bullying has been captured under different labels in policies in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry which indirectly protects the individual from

negative acts. Though there are clear policies on general misconduct of employees at all levels, grievance reporting procedures, policies on diversity and harassment, the term bullying is not conspicuous. A participant stated:

> *'.....there is a policy not classified under workplace bullying. But there's a policy on diversity, there's a policy on harassment, there's a policy …several work policies that ensure that…we are...we are together and we are…we have to respect one another'…....P9*

Participants indicated that, even in situations where a bullying policy is available, employees have difficulty understanding its applicability to different managerial levels. For instance, a participant said:

> *'…'I've not seen it being applied…and I don't think that we even have a policy when it comes to the CEO bullying…how will you handle it?…that is the level of mediocrity in our….the system (laughs)…when he stands out…everybody says that hey…there are no checks and balances in this place'…P7*

However, the term workplace bullying may as well be interpreted as a form of harassment considering the very definition of the act used as foundational definition in this study. By the understanding of the majority of the participants the only differences which may exist between workplace bullying and harassment is that bullying may be subtle and hidden while harassment may be a more direct. Most employees were confident that the code of conduct of individual companies within the industry therefore serves as a protective tool for employees to deal with any form of bullying or related behaviours. However, they expressed concern that the tenets of the code of conduct/anti-harassment policy are not being implemented fully by management.

4.7 Discussion

This study examined the lived experiences of bullying among Ghanaian employees in the oil and gas industry of Ghana. Using a qualitative approach, fifteen employees from upstream, midstream and downstream operations in the oil and gas industry, with diverse backgrounds, experience and age participated

in semi-structured interviews. Data-driven thematic analysis was used to analyse data. Findings provided insight into the experience of workplace bullying among workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. The findings highlight a generally pervasive nature of bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry which is perpetrated in diverse forms by mostly superiors/supervisors against subordinates as found in other research (Hoel et al., 2001; Omari & Paull, 2016; Power et al., 2013; Rayner, 1997). Specifically, the study findings identified several behaviours such as denial of accomplishment, constant criticism from superiors, work overload, lack of voice, and intimidation and coercion as the form or nature of bullying in the industry. Perceived racial discrimination and threat of job loss by perpetrators, Ghana's culture orientation, and personality of victims as well as power imbalance were identified as causes of workplace bullying. Furthermore, findings show that workplace bullying has serious consequences to the individual and the organisation. Religious coping and social support were among the identified coping resources for managing bullying among victims.

As discussed earlier, a basic tenet of sense making theory focusses on the interpretation of constructed reality when social actors are faced with ambiguous situations (Zabrodska, et al., 2016). In the current study, whilst it was not possible to interview any perpetrator due to organisations unwillingness to grant access to employees, victim sense making reveals some interesting findings. Similar to findings by Lutgen-Sandvik and McDermott (2011), victims' sense making seemed to reinforce a feeling of vulnerability and loss of control of the bullying situation. Furthermore, victims of workplace bullying, in making sense of their situation, may feel helpless to act as a result of perceived lack of power.

4.7.1 Bullying behaviours

The participants' experience of bullying behaviour is by far consistent with typical descriptions of various acts that constitute bullying in organisations from the literature (Einarsen, 1999; Einarsen et al., 2011; Fox, 2012; Rayner & Hoel, 1997; Zapf et al., 2011). Perpetrator denial of targets' accomplishment is

referred to as ‘destabilization’ by Rayner and Hoel (1997). Perpetrators seek to psychologically manipulate the target by deliberately not acknowledging work done satisfactorily. This is considered a way of creating a sense of psychological tension which makes the target of bullying doubt his/her abilities or performance. Employees who were bullied also reported lack of voice on work tasks as their input is neither invited nor valued. Even when offered, the supervisor/superior may ignore their input or contribution. This makes the employee feel a sense of not contributing to decision making and just carrying out instructions from superiors. This reduces the work to boring repetitive tasks making it less intellectually stimulating.

Furthermore, work overload involves the allocation of tasks that are impossible to complete to target employees (Einarsen, 1999). According to stress theories, work overload as a psychosocial hazard is a culmination of excessive demands at work coupled with limited time and resources to execute tasks. The target is always behind in completing tasks which may lead to constant criticism; another sub-theme that emerged from the analysis. Burdensome workload may lead to goals that are unrealistic (Fox & Stallworth, 2006) and to individuals possibly failing in their job (Rayner, 1997). This situation is quite serious considering the potential threat the constant negative evaluation by supervisors may pose to human capital development and the tenets of the Petroleum Commission Act, 2011 (Act 821) of Ghana and specifically the Petroleum (local content and local participation) regulations (LI 2204, 2013). This legislation stipulates a succession plan for any employment position currently held by non-Ghanaians to ensure that the minimum local content is met within specific timeframes. For example, the Petroleum regulations (2013) direct that goods and services companies in the oil and gas sector need a 10% minimum local content level (Ghanaian staff) from date of effectiveness of licence or petroleum agreement with a minimum level of 50% attained by the end of 5 years in operation. This can be dispensed with if companies can demonstrate that no current local employees meet the criteria for those positions and no persons have applied to the advertised positions. It could, therefore, be argued that supervisors/superiors may deliberately engage in repetitive

negative work-related bullying acts to frustrate efforts by targets to perform better and fill positions that may become available.

Intimidation and coercion were the fifth sub-theme identified from the current study. This theme has been identified in previous research as threats to personal standing (Rayner & Hoel, 1997) and person- related bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009). Interestingly, this was the only sub-theme identified as person related bullying as findings from this study showed that workers reported more *work-related* bullying (Einarsen et al., 2009). This is quite surprising as previous studies reported a fair balance between person related bullying behaviours (Einarsen et al., 1994; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997) as well as work-related behaviours by perpetrators to targets of bullying or even that personal harassment and physical violence were more reported as negative acts of bullying (Salin et al., 2018). This finding could be explained by the Ghanaian socio-cultural context which is a high-power distance society (House et al., 2004).

In the offshore installations in the oil and gas sector, most employees perform skilled blue-collar jobs and may not necessarily find such person-related bullying behaviours as a violation of their right to a psychologically safe work environment. This implies that certain person-related bullying behaviours from superiors who have legitimate authority/power may be acceptable by employees in such societies and they may attribute such behaviours as being part of the superior's role (D'Cruz et al., 2016; Power et al., 2013) and within their prerogative. With regards the over reporting of work-related bullying behaviours, Salin et al., (2018) argue that the limits of legitimate managerial prerogative are dependent on performance orientation within specific country culture and may affect the reported prevalence rates. As such, in a moderate performance orientation culture like in Ghana, work-related negative acts were more unacceptable than in high performance orientation countries. In this regard, there may be a link between performance orientation and propensity to identify work-related negative acts as workplace bullying.

4.7.2 Causes of workplace bullying

The behaviours identified as bullying have been attributed to various factors including the victim's personality, the perceived job threat on the part of supervisors, perceived racial discrimination, power imbalance and power distance. These attributions do not generally deviate from findings in Western literature (Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Coyne et al., 2003). Attribution of bullying to the victim's personality, in as much as has been supported by empirical findings, has received opposing propositions that have discounted the role of personality in predicting bullying. According to Leymann (1992), irrespective of the personality of the employee, an efficient psychosocial work environment will discourage or deter acts that are against organisational norms. This implies the need for more empirical evidence to clarify the effect of personality characteristics as well as psychosocial environmental factors in predicting bullying behaviour.

The desire to secure and safeguard one's position and interest on a job seemed to be an instinct for many individuals. As such, any perceived threat to that position may be met with resistance either directly or indirectly. The Ghanaian Petroleum Regulations (LI 2204, 2013), as earlier discussed, imply some threat to the current status quo where supervisors who are mainly expatriates will have to train and give up some of these roles to local workers within certain time. Bullying may therefore be the only tool which can be used indirectly to prevent the likely future takeover of job roles by local workers. The emergence of perceived job threat in the narratives of the participants may thus suggest supervisor job insecurity as a predictor of bullying as highlighted by participants.

The level of power imbalance which prevails in the industry coupled with a high-power distance characteristic of the Ghanaian culture (Hofstede, 1980) tends to create a fertile ground for bullying behaviours to be perpetrated. The expatriates by their expert and legitimate power have positions of authority (that is, supervisory roles) which has created some level of distinction between expatriates and indigenes, who are predominantly subordinates, especially in offshore operations where bullying is commonly reported (Nielsen et al., 2013). Zabrodska et al. (2011) have acknowledged the capacity of sense making to

accentuate the power imbalance inherent in the relationship between a victim and perpetrator of workplace bullying. Power, it must be noted, is not necessarily a function of organisational power as reflected in a bully's position in the organisation (Hoel & Salin, 2003). Rather, power must be viewed as a 'dynamic relationship that must be negotiated and enacted in actual social encounters' (Zabrodska et al., 2011, p.30). Berlingieri (2015) has suggested a reconceptualization of the role of power imbalances within the context of workplace bullying beyond formal power residing in organisational positions to power inherent in social dimensions within and outside the workplace.

Since all participants who reported bullying in the current study attributed it to supervisors/managers, it is not surprising therefore that perceived racial discrimination emerged as an underlying cause of bullying. Furthermore, the nature of submissiveness to authority embedded in the high-power distance characteristic of Ghanaians has emerged as an antecedent to becoming a victim of bullying. This finding is consistent with qualitative findings by Salin et al. (2018) who found that in countries with high power distance, overt abuse of power by superiors was indicated in the experience of workplace bullying. The dynamics of perceived racial discrimination and power distance predicting bullying behaviours is an interesting finding that will have to be understood in the larger context of the Ghanaian national culture and the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Numerous factors may therefore interact in predicting workplace bullying. Zapf (1999) emphasizes this when he asserts that "one-sided explanations on the causes of mobbing are likely to be inappropriate and that many cases are characterised by multi-causality" (p. 70).

4.7.3 Consequences of workplace bullying

Effects of bullying were identified at both individual and organisational levels. At the individual level, bullying behaviour has psychological, physiological and physical effects on the target as well as witnesses. The effects take such forms as general psychological distress, post-traumatic stress and panic following the experience of bullying. This finding is consistent with previous studies that showed that workplace bullying correlates with chronic fatigue; psychological, physical and psychosomatic symptoms such as

insomnia; general stress; and mental stress reactions in victims and witnesses (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004; Giga, et al., 2008; Hallberg & Strandmark, 2006).

The individual effects then translate into consequences for the organisation in the form of lack of concentration on the job leading to mistakes and errors which may lead to accidents, poor commitment to work, and turnover intention. Leymann (1990) described the effect of bullying as having a depleting effect on the target employee's coping resources which leads to an employee being overwhelmed with core job requirements and tasks. As such, the employee may not be able to devote maximum cognitive effort to various tasks being performed and as such may lose concentration (Gardner & Johnson, 2001; Paice & Smith, 2009). This may be tolerable in onshore settings in offices but becomes a very serious hazard in offshore installations. Here, the resulting accidents from errors of concentration may result in serious injury, loss of life and property as well as very serious consequences for the environment (Høyvik, Tharaldsen, Baste, & Moen, 2009).

Furthermore, experienced bullying at work was reported to affect target mood and attitude to work with knock-on effects on their job satisfaction, commitment and quality of life which is consistent with other studies (e.g., Hauge et al., 2007; Trepanier et al., 2013). When the bullying behaviour persists, poor work attitudes may give way to turnover intentions (Djurkovic, McCormack, & Casimir, 2008; Giga et al., 2008; Houshmand, O'Reilly, Robinson, & Wolff, 2012). However, in the Ghanaian context, employees may consider quitting their jobs but may not carry through with it. The oil and gas industry is relatively a young, high demand and lucrative one in Ghana with good remuneration which makes finding new jobs very difficult.

Interestingly, the workers did not report workplace bullying causing sickness absence and absenteeism. Previous studies (e.g., Asfaw, Chang, & Ray, 2014; Namie, 2007) have found that organisations lose productivity as a result of target absenteeism due to workplace bullying. These findings are inconsistent with findings from the current study for both onshore and offshore workers who reported being bullied. Offshore workers are on the rigs or platforms and away from land for up to 4 weeks and may not be able to absent themselves from work easily. Furthermore, most employees may feel insecure

in their jobs due to prevailing situations and will not want to compound their current predicament any further. This may account for absenteeism not being reported as an effect of workplace bulling in the sample studied.

4.7.4 Coping with bullying at work

Findings from this study indicate a combination of coping strategies and coping resources in dealing with the negative effects of workplace bullying. Employees engaged in recreational activities (McDougall & Drummond, 2010; van den Tooren et al., 2011) before or after work as an effective strategy for ameliorating the emotions associated with their experience of bullying at work. Personal coping resources were also used to manage workplace bullying. The use of coping resources, such as social support may affect the propensity to engage in a coping strategy (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping resources enables the employee to evaluate the possibility to control the situation, which informs the choice of coping strategy (Jerusalem, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). As such sharing bullying experiences with friends, family and significant others may help reduce the feeling of 'powerlessness' and motivate coping strategies (Cassidy et al., 2014).

An interesting finding with regards to personal coping resources in the bullying situation is the role of religiosity (Arnetz et al., 2013; Kutcher et al. 2010). Religious coping here is conceptualised as "the use of religious beliefs or behaviours to facilitate problem-solving to prevent or alleviate the negative emotional consequences of stressful life circumstances" (Koenig, Pargament, & Nielsen, 1998, p. 513). Employees indicated the use of positive religious coping including praying about the situation, forgiveness of perpetrator, seeking support form clergy members and religious focus. This finding is consistent with the view that Ghanaians are generally very religious (Gyekye, 2003; Max-Wirth, 2018) especially in times of distress. As such, employees making sense and dealing with their bullying situation by engaging in positive religious coping results in better mental health (Ano & Vasconcelles, 2005).

Organisations in the oil and gas industry in Ghana have focussed on forms of workplace violence and harassment including workplace bullying in terms of policy, procedure and arbitrating role yet workplace bullying continues

to be perpetuated against employees (Woodrow & Guest, 2014). Organisations having anti-bullying policy and procedures, whilst argued as a necessary condition may not be sufficient to fight workplace bullying or reduce its occurrence (Sheehan, McCabe & Garavan, 2018). However, when these policies are available and used in organisations, they need to be sufficiently publicized and procedures perceived as fair (Woodrow & Guest, 2014). Furthermore, employees should have faith in the procedures and outcomes without fear of further victimization (Cowan, 2011; Zapf & Gross, 2001). The organisations' response and intervention to reports of bullying should not be seen as creating an environment that indirectly encourages workplace bullying (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2010) but should rather act to protect and preserve employee health and well-being by eliminating or reducing such negative behaviour at work (Sparrow & Makram, 2015).

4.8 Conclusion

The lived experience of workplace bullying across cultures may differ. The generalization of empirical findings from employees in one part of the world to others in another part of the world may be deficient in understanding these bullying behaviours through the unique lenses of those who experience them. The purpose of this study was to understand the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry using qualitative semi-structured interviews.

The main findings of the study indicate that work-related bullying behaviours are more common than person-related bullying in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. Behaviours that seek to frustrate the achievement of goals related to work were reported. This includes lack of voice, denial of accomplishment, work overload and constant criticism. Intimidation and coercion was found to be the person-related bullying behaviour suffered by targets of bullying. Furthermore, aspects of Ghanaian culture, unequal distribution of power, supervisors' perceived job insecurity as well as perceived racial discrimination were identified as causes of workplace bullying. This study also found that employees reported psychological distress, mistakes and errors,

poor work attitudes, and turnover intentions. Furthermore, recreational activities and social support as well as religious coping were identified as resources available to employees and used to deal with workplace bullying.

These findings have significant implications for the next phase of the thesis which aims at testing an empirical quantitative model of various antecedents and consequences (proximal and distal) of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Indeed, some variables identified from this study will be included in the theoretical model discussed in Chapter 2 and tested in Chapters 5 and 6. Limitations of this current study as well as implications and recommendations for theory and practice are presented in Chapter 7. The next chapter identifies the final analytical model to be tested quantitatively as well as presents preliminary analysis for the quantitative studies.

Chapter 5 Quantitative Methodology and Preliminary Analysis

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explored workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry using qualitative interviews. Results from this qualitative study have implications for the quantitative studies of this thesis as discussed extensively in the Methodology chapter (Chapter 2). The qualitative study identified specific characteristics of the psychosocial work environment that interviewees identified as contributing to the experience of workplace bullying. Specifically, work pace, workload, job insecurity, control and support were implied from responses from interviewees as variables related to workplace bullying. Furthermore, psychological capital emerged as an important variable to deal with the negative effect of workplace bullying. Consistent with arguments earlier made in Chapter 3, the nature of the mixed-method design employed in this study was a *sequential time* orientation and *parallel sample* relationship. This implies that the qualitative study preceded the quantitative study and informed the selection of some variables of interest to be studied in the latter using a different sample from within the same population. As such, some variables were introduced into the quantitative study based on results from the qualitative study.

Some models that have been applied to workplace bullying have been discussed and evaluated in Chapter 2 of this thesis. Of interest to this study is the comprehensive model of workplace bullying by Einarsen and colleagues. Furthermore, some aspects of Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) job demands-resources model are relevant to this study. Specifically, in the quantitative studies of this thesis, some predictions of the job demands-resources model were extended to Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model of workplace bullying. In this regard, various job demands and resources from the earlier qualitative study were included into this model to be tested in the quantitative model and further validate findings from the qualitative study.

This chapter and the next chapter (Chapter 6) present results from the quantitative phase of data collection. Additionally, the methodology that was used in the quantitative studies will be discussed. Furthermore, preliminary analysis of the data and tests for its suitability for the chosen quantitative

analysis will be examined. As part of further preliminary analysis, an examination of the questionnaire used to measure workplace bullying – the revised negative acts questionnaire (NAQ-R) will be presented. The NAQ-R is an efficient tool for measuring workplace bullying and has been used extensively across Europe, the Americas and some parts of Africa. However, no normative data exists to determine the suitability of this questionnaire to measure workplace bullying in a sub-Saharan culture such as Ghana. As such, the psychometric properties and factor structure of the NAQ-R in a Ghanaian sample was investigated, and findings are presented in the latter part of this chapter.

5.2 Building up a final analytical model

As discussed in Chapter 2, the model to be tested in the quantitative study is an adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model of workplace bullying. This study tested the theoretical relationships of Einarsen et al.'s model with regards the target or victim. Also, other variables from the JD-R model and consistent with findings from Chapter 4 were introduced as possible antecedents of targets' report of workplace bullying. These variables have been carefully examined and presented as important in the model to further our understanding of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Additionally, psychological capital emerged from the qualitative findings (though not explicitly captured as a theme or sub-theme) as a personal variable that may moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being in a Ghanaian work sample. These are discussed further in the following sections.

5.2.1 Job demands and resources

The JD-R model offers a heuristic to organise the multitude of variables or job characteristics that may predict the report of bullying for perpetrators and targets as well. This may lead to better understanding of which variables are linked to the report of bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

As such, using the predictions of JD-R model and variables consistent with the literature on antecedents of workplace bullying, the model in this current

study sought to test specific job demands and job resources (from qualitative findings) that are most likely to be associated with targets' report of bullying. Specifically, the model in this current study hypothesises that job demands will be positively related and job resources negatively related respectively with the report of bullying from targets which is also consistent with predictions of the work environment hypothesis, the job demand - control (support) model of Karasek, and Baillien et al.'s Three Way model. The various job demands, and resources will also interact in their relationship with targets' report of bullying. As predicted by the JD-R model, the presence of job resources may buffer or reduce the effect of job demands on the employees thus weakening the relationship between job demands and reports of bullying for targets.

Drawing from findings of the qualitative study in chapter 4 of this thesis, workload (amount of work an employee can perform effectively at a time), work pace (the speed with which an employee performs tasks) and job insecurity (fear of losing one's job) were identified as job demands and included in the analytical model to be tested. Additionally, support from supervisor and colleagues respectively and job control (employees' being able to make job-related decisions on their own) were investigated as job resources related to workplace bullying and emerging from the qualitative findings. As such, these specific job demands, and job resources were added to the model to be tested in line with Einarsen et al.'s (2011) prescriptive model of workplace bullying. Consequently, workload, work pace, job insecurity, job control, colleague social support, and supervisor social support were included in the final analytical model to be tested as antecedents of workplace bullying.

5.2.2 Psychological capital

An inherent implied theme emerging from an understanding of the experience of Ghanaian workers in the oil and gas industry which was discussed in Chapter 4 has to do with a personality aspect that may be more prominent in Ghanaian workers. Participants interviewed in Chapter 4 of this thesis reported a very stressful work environment coupled with negative acts of bullying perpetrated by supervisors. However, they were resilient in performing their job roles and sought a wide range of coping strategies to deal with these negative acts at work. Indeed, the majority indicated that they have entertained the

thoughts of leaving their jobs, but they stayed on and worked harder to achieve their goals. This suggests that there exists a protective factor available to these employees that may help attenuate the effects of workplace bullying. As such, psychological capital, a personal resource, may be a third variable that moderates the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being and has been included in the analytical model to be tested in the quantitative study.

Recent developments in positive psychology have shifted focus from deficits (negatives) to resources (positives) that promote happiness and well-being (Seligman, 1998). Furthermore, much research within the area of positive organisational behaviour (POB) has focussed on "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed and effectively managed for performance improvement" (Luthans, 2002, p. 59). Research into POB mainly focuses on the individual level using survey-based methodologies. Psychological capital (PsyCap) is one core theme within POB research that is conceptualised as positive psychological capacities placed towards the state end of a much debated state-trait continuum (see Youssef & Luthans, 2011) and are malleable.

Psychological capital, an individual's positive psychological state, is a critical resource that is related to desired work behaviours, attitudes, and performance (Avey, Reichard, Luthans, & Mhatre, 2011). According to Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007, p. 3), psychological capital has the following definition: "an individual's positive psychological state of development and is characterised by: 1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; 2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; 3) persevering toward goals and, when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and 4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success."

PsyCap is a second-order core personal resource factor which can be measured empirically, developed through training and effectively managed (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). Indeed, PsyCap is seen as more than the sum of the individual dimensions but as a synergistically oriented higher-

order construct that has numerous applications in the workplace. PsyCap is an individuals' "positive appraisal of circumstances and probability for success based on motivated effort and perseverance" (Luthans, et al., 2007, p. 550) and comprises four dimensions.

Resilience reflects a capacity to confront failures or setbacks, bounce back stronger, adapt and achieve success. It is a positive psychological state that is typical of people who find meaning in life (Luthans et al., 2007). According to Spangler, Koesten, Fox and Radel (2012) individuals who are resilient have a positive outlook, are challenged by change, are action-oriented, are assertive about their needs and engage support of others. These individuals have the capacity to rebound from adversity and perform at an enhanced level (Richardson, 2002).

Resilience has been found to be positively associated with broad indicators of employee well-being including job satisfaction (Youssef & Luthans, 2007), organisational commitment (Youssef & Luthans, 2007) and job performance (Luthans et al., 2005). Additionally, resilience is reported to be significantly negatively related to job tension (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Fergus and Zimmerman (2005) have described three models to explain the mechanism by which resilience acts. Importantly, they identify a protective factor model in which resilience factors are conceptualised as moderators of the relationship between a risk and a negative outcome. As such, the negative effects of bullying on psychological well-being may be buffered by one's resilience.

Self-efficacy is the positive psychological capacity to deploy needed resources to succeed at demanding tasks. A belief in one's ability to find and utilize resources to mitigate job demands and stressful situations such as bullying, may serve as a protective factor against poor mental health (Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron, & Myrowitz, 2009). Self-efficacy developed from Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory. According to Luthans, Youssef et al., (2007, p. 38), individuals with high levels of self-efficacy display five important characteristics, namely:

a) they set high goals for themselves and self-select into difficult tasks,
b) they embrace and flourish on challenge
c) they are self-motivated
d) they invest the necessary effort to accomplish goals; and
e) when faced with obstacles, they persevere.

Like the other dimensions, self-efficacy can be developed and boosted through positive feedback, mastery and vicarious learning (Bandura, 2000; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Stajkovic & Luthans 1998). People with self-efficacy are able to take on challenges and are goal-directed even when the task is difficult. Indeed, self-efficacy is inversely correlated to job stress (Matsui & Onglatco, 1992) and turnover intentions (Harris & Cameron, 2005) respectively. Stajkovic and Luthans, (2003) found that self-efficacy was moderately and positively related to work-related performance.

Hope is conceptualised as a positive psychological and motivational state that directs perseverance towards achievement of desired goals and, when necessary, remapping pathways for success (Liu et al., 2012). Thus, hopeful individuals possess a sense of successful, goal-directed behaviour and a 'blueprint' for goal achievement (Laschinger & Grau, 2012). Rooted in Synder's (2000) hope theory, hope is defined as a "positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful a) agency (goal-directed energy) and b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). Hope as a dimension of PsyCap is different from the ordinary use of hope which is related to uncertainty. The pathways relating to hope offer the possibility that an individual is motivated to explore alternative approaches, when goal attainment is blocked with impediments, because of enhanced willpower and intrinsic motivation.

Luthans and Jensen (2002) found that hope is positively correlated with job satisfaction, organisational commitment, work happiness, and performance. Furthermore, hope is positively correlated with staff retention (Luthans & Youssef, 2004) and organisational financial performance (Adams et al., 2003; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Hope has also been found to have a significant negative correlation with anxiety (Snyder, Irving & Anderson, 1991).

Optimism reflects an individual's explanatory style and outlook on daily events. Developing from work by Seligman (1998), optimism is characterised by the degree of permanence and pervasiveness. Optimistic individuals' attribute success as resulting from permanent and universal factors whereas pessimistic individuals see success as a function of temporary and situation-specific factors (Luthans et al., 2004). According to Seligman (2002), optimists adopt a positive explanatory style in which positive events result from internal, enduring and ubiquitous causes. Negative events are attributed to external, transitory and situational factors.

Some research evidence exists associating optimism with work-related performance. In a study of insurance sales men, Seligman (1998) found that more optimistic sales persons sold 37% more life insurance packages than their less optimistic counterparts. Furthermore, the less optimistic salesmen were more likely to quit their job. Totterdell, Wood and Wall (2006) found that optimism moderated the relationship between job characteristics and job strain with optimistic individuals less likely to report symptoms of workplace stress.

Though the individual dimensions of PsyCap have been shown to be critical and related to individual and organisational outcomes at work, much research attention has now been focussed on PsyCap as a higher-order construct. Indeed, Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007) assert that PsyCap has higher correlations with individual and organisational outcomes in comparison to any of its individual dimensions. Psychological capital comprising resilience, self-efficacy, hope and optimism is an important resource therefore, that correlates positively with well-being and negatively with negative emotional states respectively (Luthans, et al., 2007). In a meta-analysis, Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre (2011, p. 128) found that there are "positive relationships between PsyCap and desirable employee attitudes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, psychological well-being), desirable employee behaviours (citizenship), and multiple measures of performance (self, supervisor evaluations, and objective)". As such, in the current study, PsyCap is hypothesised to moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. This is in line with suggestions by Avey et al. (2011)

that the synergistic effect of PsyCap is evident in the coping mechanisms that all the dimensions share.

The role of PsyCap in mitigating the effects of stressors including bullying on of employee health and organisational outcomes has been of interest to researchers. Indeed, Mensah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2016) found that PsyCap was positively related with psychological well-being. Furthermore, PsyCap fully mediated the relationship between occupational stress and well-being. Psychological capital has been shown to correlate positively with well-being and partially mediates the relationship between bullying and well-being (Cassidy, McLaughlin & McDowell, 2014). In another study, PsyCap mediated the relationship between stress and well-being with PsyCap buffering the negative effect of stress (Riolli et al., 2012). Additionally, PsyCap partially mediated the effect of job stress on turnover intentions among employees (Avey et al., 2009). The researchers found that the buffering role was such that employees with higher PsyCap experienced lower stress and were less likely to leave their jobs. Whilst studying factory workers, Matthiesen and Einarsen (2004) found that self-efficacy (a facet of PsyCap) moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and subsequent health complaints.

In other related studies, Wang, Chang, Fu, and Wang (2012) in their study of work-family conflict found that PsyCap partially mediated the work interfering family conflict–emotional exhaustion and cynicism relationship respectively. Razzaghian and Shah (2011) also found that PsyCap buffered the effect of stress on employees' propensity to react with incivility. This finding was interesting as it showed that employees high in PsyCap were more in control of their behaviours and were less likely to retaliate by engaging in negative behaviours. Zheng, Yang, Ngo, Liu, and Jiao (2016) found that psychological capital moderates the effect of workplace ostracism on affective commitment and intention to leave respectively.

However, other studies have found no protective role of PsyCap on the relationship between work stressors and individual and organisational outcomes. For example, Laschinger and Nosko (2015) found no moderating effect of PsyCap on the workplace bullying – PTSD symptomology relationship among a sample of Nurses. Similarly, Mensah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2014)

found no mediation effect of PsyCap in the relationship between work stress and quality of work life. However, resilience (a facet of PsyCap) partially mediated the relationship.

The current study focussed on the PsyCap construct as a unitary concept that encompasses resilience, hope, optimism and self-efficacy. This 2nd order construct has been found to be greater than the sum of its parts and offers a more significant variable that may reduce the effects of workplace bullying on employees' psychological well-being. As such, the moderating role of PsyCap in buffering the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being was explored.

5.3 The final analytical model and study hypotheses

The theoretical model presented in Chapter 2 was an adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model of workplace bullying. Additionally, aspects of the JD-R model were extended to help explain how various factors (job demands and resources) could be antecedents of workplace bullying. Following from the qualitative study in Chapter 4, the theoretical model was modified by the inclusion of specific job demands and resources that emerged from the qualitative study as associated with employees' report of workplace bullying. Furthermore, psychological capital was included in the final model as a moderator of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. This final model is presented in the following section as the final analytical model for the quantitative studies (see Fig 5-1). This adapted final analytical model, which draws similarity with Einarsen and colleagues' original comprehensive model of workplace bullying is then tested in one study with three elements that are presented in Chapter 6.

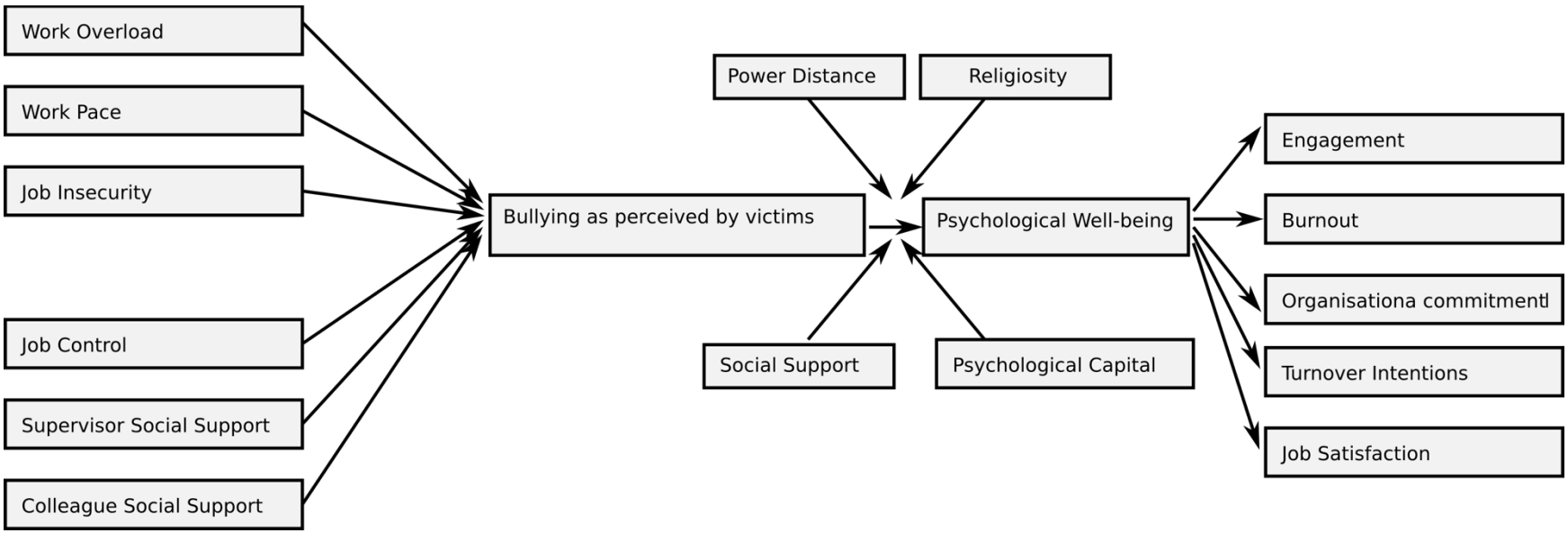


Fig 5-1: Analytical model for the quantitative study

Three parts of the model have been identified to represent the three elements (i.e. 1a, 1b and 1c) of the quantitative studies reported in this thesis.

5.3.1 Study 1a hypotheses

The first element of the quantitative study examined directly the association of specific job demands and resources consistent with the job demands-resources model with regards to bullying at work. Specifically, characteristics of the psychosocial work environment identified in Chapter 4 were tested as antecedents of workplace bullying. Importantly, the interactions of these job demands and resources were tested as antecedents of workplace bullying.

Following from this, job demands i.e. work pace, workload and job insecurity were investigated in this study. Job control, colleague social support and supervisor social support were the job resources examined in the current study. Consequently, the following hypotheses were tested in the current study and a model presented in Fig 5-2:

1a. Work pace will be positively related with workplace bullying.

1b. Workload will be positively related with workplace bullying.

1c. Job insecurity will be positively related with workplace bullying.

2a. Job control will be negatively related with workplace bullying.

2b. Colleague social support will be negatively related with workplace bullying.

2c. Supervisor social support will be negatively related with workplace bullying.

3a. Job demands (work pace, workload and job insecurity respectively) and job control interact, so that the relationship between job demands and reports of workplace bullying is weaker under the conditions of high compared to low job control.

3b. Job demands (work pace, workload and job insecurity respectively) and supervisor social support interact, so that the relationship

between job demands and reports of workplace bullying is weaker under the conditions of high compared to low supervisor social support.

3c. Job demands (work pace, workload and job insecurity respectively) and colleague social support interact, so that the relationship between job demands and reports of workplace bullying are weaker under the conditions of high compared to low colleague social support.

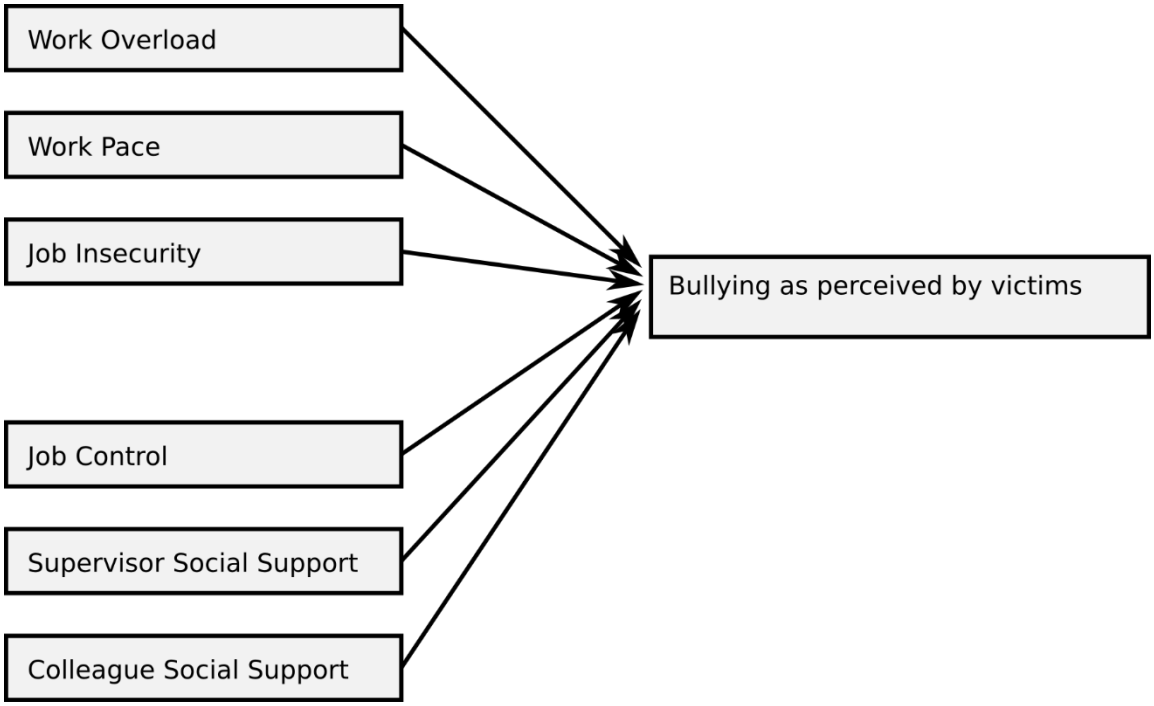


Fig 5-2: Model for quantitative study 1a

5.3.2 Study 1b hypotheses

This element of the quantitative study looked at the effect of workplace bullying on employees' well-being. The thesis statement in this study was that some variables identified as personal resources will be instrumental in ameliorating the effect of workplace bullying on well-being. In addition to psychological capital (identified in the qualitative study), religiosity, social support and power distance were also conceptualised as moderating variables that buffer the effect of workplace bullying on psychological well-being. Based on the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

a) Workplace bullying will be negatively associated with psychological well-being.
b) Psychological capital will moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.
c) Religiosity will moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.
d) Social support will moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.
e) Power distance will moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.

The model to be tested in this study is presented in Fig 5-3.

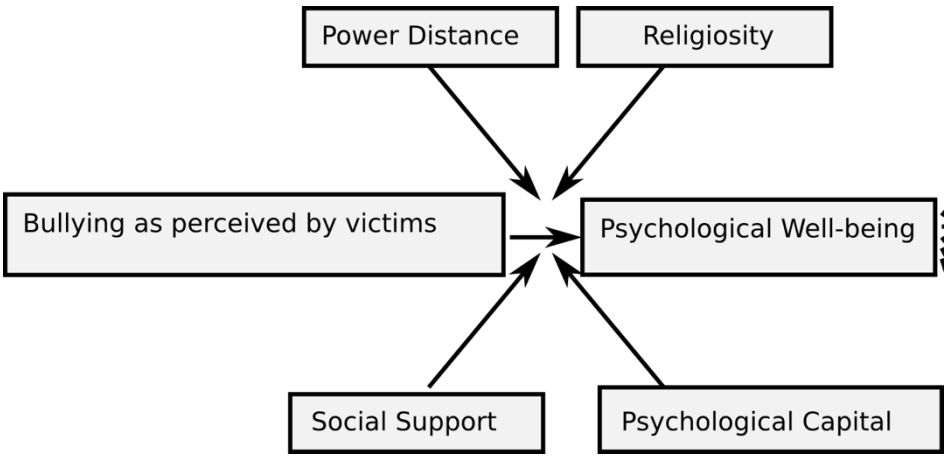


Fig 5-3: Model for quantitative study 1b

5.3.3 Study 1c hypotheses

In the third part of the quantitative study of this thesis, the distal outcomes of workplace bullying were examined. The relationship between workplace bullying and individual outcomes (engagement and burnout) and organisational outcomes (organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions) respectively were investigated. Psychological well-being, a proximal outcome of workplace bullying was posited and tested as a mediating variable between workplace bullying and these outcomes. Following from this, the following

hypotheses were tested in this study and the analytical model is presented in Fig 5-4:

a) Psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement.
b) Psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and burnout.
c) Psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and organisational commitment.
d) Psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intentions.
e) Psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction.

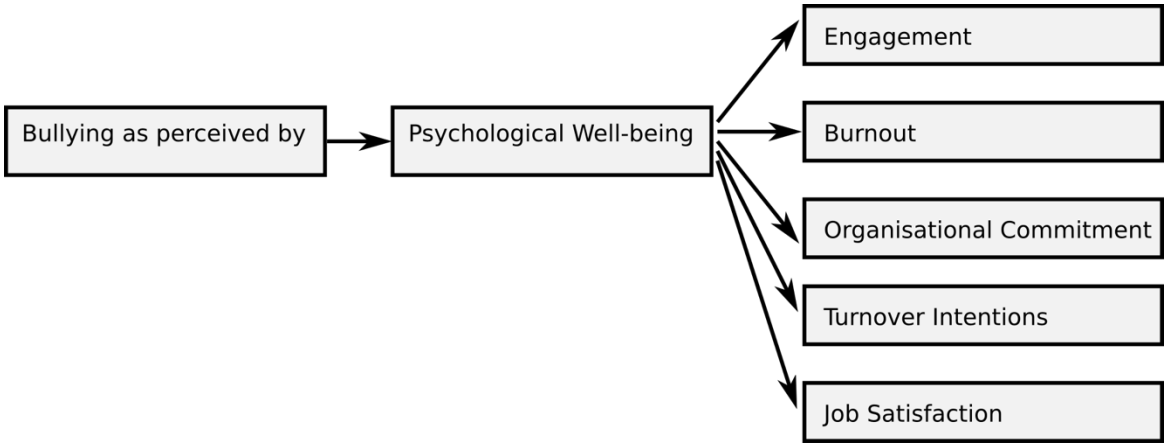


Fig 5-4: Model for quantitative study 1c

In conclusion, the comprehensive model of workplace bullying by Einarsen and colleagues as well as the job demands-resources model were identified as robust models that offered a better explanatory framework for the antecedents and consequences of workplace bullying in a Ghanaian sample. As such this model was adapted, modified and will be empirically tested in the 3 elements of the quantitative studies in Chapter 6. The next section presents the methodology used in the quantitative study including the pilot study and preliminary analysis of data.

5.4 Methodology for quantitative studies

5.4.1 Population

Target participants in this study comprised of all workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. As mentioned in the previous chapter, it is estimated that the oil and gas industry in Ghana currently has over 7,000 employees working in various installations offshore along the Eastern, Central and Western shores of Ghana as well as in corporate offices in Accra, Takoradi and Tema.

5.4.2 Sampling technique and inclusion criteria

The convenience sampling technique was employed in selecting the participants for the study. Employees who were available and consented to take part in the study were used as participants. As in the qualitative study and consistent with Einarsen et al.'s (2011) recommendations, participants had to have worked within their various organisations for a minimum of 6 months prior to data collection to be eligible to take part in this study. Only participants who met this criterion took part in the study. This is discussed in some details in the 'procedure' subsection.

5.4.3 Materials

The questionnaires used in the survey are outlined below. These questionnaires were standardized instruments that have been used extensively in the literature and showed good reliability and validity in previous empirical studies.

5.4.3.1 Workplace bullying

Workplace bullying was measured by both a behavioural experience method, applying the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (Einarsen et al., 2009), and a self-labelling with definition method (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996), whereby the respondents were asked to indicate whether they considered themselves to have been exposed to bullying during the last six months. The NAQ-R has 22 items indicating specific bullying behaviours including exposure to social exclusion, slanders or rumor, verbal abuse, excessive teasing etc. with Einarsen et al. (2009) reporting a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 in their study. Respondents had to indicate the frequency of exposure to these negative

behaviours within the past six months on a scale ranging from 1=never; 2=now and then; 3=monthly; 4=weekly and 5=daily. Scoring of the NAQ-R was done by summing the score on each item for each respondent to get a total score for workplace bullying.

Consistent with the self-labelling with definition method (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; Salin, 2001) participants were presented with a definition of bullying. The definition used in this study was “Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour” (Ortega et al., 2009, p. 418). Providing participants with an easy to understand definition of bullying reduced the ambiguity inherent in participants offering their own definitions of workplace bullying. Participants were asked if they had experienced and/or witnessed bullying and had to indicate the frequency of bullying behaviors with one of these responses: ‘‘no’’, ‘‘yes, very rarely’’, ‘‘yes, now and then’’, ‘‘yes, several times per month’’, ‘‘yes, several times per week’’ and ‘‘yes, almost daily’’. This was followed by several questions regarding the experience of bullying.

5.4.3.2 Psychological well-being

The General Health Questionnaire is a 12-item questionnaire developed by Goldberg and Williams (1988) and was used to measure the psychological or mental health of respondents. This questionnaire is brief and easy to complete. The GHQ–12 has a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.85 (Gardner, 2005). Respondents were asked to think of their general health in the past month and indicate which response best represents how they had been feeling. An example item is ‘In the last one month, have you lost much sleep over worry? Responses were from 0= “not at all”, 1=“no more than usual”, 2=“rather more than usual” or 3=“much more than usual”. Likert scoring of items by summing up responses on all 12 items was done with higher scores indicating poor mental health.

5.4.3.3 Psychological capital

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire developed by Luthans, Youssef and Avolio (2007) was used in this study. The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) is made up of 24 items and measures the psychological

capital of individuals. The scale consists of items for all four subscales of psychological capital: hope (e.g. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself), optimism (e.g., I approach this job as if “every cloud has a silver lining”), self-efficacy (e.g., I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution) and resilience (e.g. I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work). More specifically, the hope items were adapted from Snyder et al.’s (1996) State Hope Scale, the optimism items from Scheier and Carver’s (1985) Measure of Optimism, the self-efficacy items from Parker’s (1998) measure of self-efficacy in the workplace and resilience from Wagnild and Young’s (1993) Resilience Scale. Cronbach’s alpha for the total psychological capital construct was reported as 0.85 by Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013). Furthermore, they reported acceptable internal consistency for the respective subscales (hope: α=0.81; optimism: α=0.67; self-efficacy: α=0.83; and resilience: α=0.69) in a South African sample. Responses were on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) with higher scores indicating better PsyCap.

5.4.3.4 Religiosity

Religiosity was measured by the Duke University Religion Index (DUREL). This is a five-item measure of religious involvement and was developed by Koenig and Büssing (2010) for use in large cross-sectional and longitudinal observational studies. The scale has high test-retest reliability (intra-class correlation = 0.91) and high internal consistence (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.78–0.91) as reported by Koenig and Büssing (2010). This scale consists of two dimensions namely organisational religious activity and intrinsic religiosity. Three items representing intrinsic religiosity were used in this study. These are: in my life, I experience the presence of the Divine, my religious beliefs are what really lie behind my whole approach to life, and I try hard to carry my religion over into all other dealings in life. Likert responses were from 1 - Definitely not true; 2 - Tends not to be true; 3 - Unsure; 4 - Tends to be true; 5 - Definitely true of me.

5.4.3.5 Social support

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet & Farley, 1988) was used to measure social support. This is a 12-item Likert scale of subjectively assessed social support from three sources representing the subscales. Zimet et al. (1988) reported Cronbach's alphas of 0.91 and 0.87 for 2 different samples studied. These are friends, family and significant others. Responses are from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

5.4.3.6 Power distance

Power distance (PD) is one of the cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1980) and measures the degree of inequality that exists and is accepted among people with and without power. A high PD score indicates that society accepts an unequal distribution of power and people understand 'their place' in the system. A low PD score means that power is shared and well dispersed. It also means that society members view themselves as equals. It is a 7-item Likert scale validated with 263 workers across 28 countries (cultures). A Cronbach's alpha of .88 was reported by Erez and Earley (1981). Responses range from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree.

5.4.3.7 Job satisfaction

A global *single* item from the Job Satisfaction scale (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979) as used by Hall, Dollard and Coward (2010) was used to measure overall job satisfaction. The item asks, "Taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole?". The item is measured on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (I'm extremely dissatisfied) to 7 (I'm extremely satisfied).

5.4.3.8 Emotional exhaustion

Two items from the five-item MBI-exhaustion (Maslach Burnout Inventory, Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996) subscale were used due to length restrictions (Dollard & Bakker, 2010). In their study, inter-item correlations were: Time 1, r=0.73 and Time 3, r=0.79. In a separate sample of human service workers (N=425), these two items correlated with the remaining three items of the full-scale r =0.75, p <01. Further using exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation, both items loaded >.80 on the overall scale. Stability was r =

0.59, p <01. Items are ‘I feel emotionally drained from my work’; and ‘I feel used up at the end of the work day’). Responses were scored on a seven-point scale, 0 (never) to 6 (always, every day).

5.4.3.9 Engagement

Similarly, two items from the nine-item shortened version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006) were used to measure engagement due to length restrictions on the questionnaire as previously used by Dollard and Bakker (2010). To verify that two items could indicate engagement, Dollard and Bakker (2010) used a separate sample of human service workers (N =425) and showed the two-item scale correlated with the remaining seven items of the full scale (r = 0.84, p <.01). Both items loaded >.80 on the nine-item scale using exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation. Responses were scored on a seven-point scale, 0 (never) to 6 (always, every day). Items are ‘I am full of energy at work’ and ‘I am enthusiastic about my job’.

5.4.3.10 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment was measured using the abridged version of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ; Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005). This consists of 2 items with responses from 0=to a very small extent to 4=to a very large extent. Cronbach’s alpha for organisational commitment was 0.75 (Clausen & Borg, 2009).

5.4.3.11 Work pace and workload

Work pace and workload respectively were measured using items adapted from the short quantitative demands sub-scale of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) developed by the Danish National Institute of Occupational Health (2003) and used extensively for research on the psychosocial work environment. Three items were used to measure work pace with responses were from 0=never/hardly to 4=always whilst workload was measured with 4 items with responses from 1=never/hardly to 5=several times per day. Cronbach’s alphas for work pace was 0.87 and 0.83 for workload respectively (Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005).

5.4.3.12 Control

Job control was measured using items adapted from the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ). Control consisted of 3 items with responses from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Cronbach's alpha of 0.73 has been reported for this scale (Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005).

5.4.3.13 Colleague and supervisor support

These variables were measured again using items adapted from the long social support sub-scale of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ). Each variable consisted of 2 items and responses were from 0=never/hardly to 4=always. Cronbach's's alpha for supervisor social support was 0.79 and 0.70 for colleague social support respectively (Kristensen, Hannerz, Høgh, & Borg, 2005).

5.4.3.14 Turnover intentions

This was measured using a *single* item asking participants "What are your plans for staying with this organisation?" (Muchinsky & Tuttle (1979) and used by Angle and Perry (1981). Response was on 4-response anchors framed as sentences from 1 to 4 including 1= 'I intend to stay until I retire' to 4 = 'I intend to leave as soon as possible'.

5.4.3.15 Job insecurity

Job insecurity was measured using a shortened version of the original 11-item Job insecurity questionnaire by De Witte (2000). The 8-item shortened version by Pienaar, De Witte, Hellgren and Sverke (2013) was standardised on a South African sample. The shortened version distinguishes between affective job insecurity (4 items: "I fear that I might lose my job"; "I fear that I might get fired"; "I feel uncertain about the future of my job"; "I worry about the continuation of my career") and cognitive job insecurity (4 items: "There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed"; "I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job"; "I think that I will be able to continue working here"; "I am certain/sure of my job environment"). Cronbach's alpha in their studies was 0.80 for the cognitive component and 0.84 for the affective component of job insecurity respectively. Scale items are recoded such that higher levels of job

insecurity are represented by higher scores. Responses are from 1=strongly disagree to 5=agree strongly.

5.4.4 Piloting the instruments

There are two conceptualisations of the term pilot study in literature. Polit, Beck and Hungler (2001) assert that they can be considered as a simulation study or a small trial of the main study. Other researchers have also argued that a pilot study represents a pre-testing of an instrument to be used in a main study for data collection (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Pilot studies are important for various practical reasons. A well conducted pilot study may raise 'red flags' with regards the appropriateness of an instrument for a particular sample and practical issues that may affect the conduct of a study. As such, pilot studies are used to develop and examine the suitability of research instruments as well as assess the feasibility of a large-scale survey (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

The present study was preceded by a pilot one which sought to examine whether the proposed instruments were appropriate for the study. In other words, it mainly sought to examine how reliable the instruments were and their general suitability for the study. To this end, one company in the oil and gas industry was conveniently sampled and twenty (20) participants were administered paper questionnaires for the study. Furthermore, five (5) employees responded to an online version of the same questionnaire. Data from the twenty-five (25) employees was analysed. Cronbach's alphas were computed to test the internal consistency of the various standardised scales. Results are presented in Table 5-1.

All scales showed good reliabilities ranging from 0.692 to 0.984. A closer inspection of items on each scale indicated that for all but two of the scales, no items posed any significant problem. The 'alpha if item deleted' indicated that deleting any item would not yield an increase in the internal consistency of the measures. However, the situation was different for the psychological well-being scale and the psychological capital scale respectively.

Table 5-1: Cronbach's alpha for all scales used in study (n = 25)

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Workplace bullying	22	0.984
Psychological well-being	12(10) *	0.692 (0.731) *
Psychological capital	24(21) *	0.70 (0.777) *
Religiosity	3	0.785
Social support	12	0.885
Power distance	7	0.678
Job satisfaction	1	
Emotional exhaustion	2	0.850
Engagement	2	0.709
Organisational commitment	2	0.762
Turnover intentions	1	
Work pace	3	0.710
Workload	4	0.809
Control	3	0.773
Colleague social support	2	0.829
Supervisor social support	2	0.889
Job insecurity	8	0.746

Items 1 (Have you recently been able to concentrate on what you're doing?) and 12 (Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?) on the Psychological well-being scale showed that participants found some ambiguity with responding to these items. The 'alpha if item deleted' showed scale reliability improvements when these items were removed from the analysis. Attempts were made to reword these items without losing meaning from the original scale. These items were flagged as candidates for deletion in the final instrument for the study.

For the Psychological capital questionnaire, 3 items seemed to affect the reliability of the scale. Items 13 (When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it and moving on), Item 20 (If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will) and Item 23 (In this job, things never work out the way I want them to) posed some difficulties for participants. Careful analysis of the "alpha if item deleted" showed a reasonable increase in scale reliability if these items were removed from the analysis. As such, these 3 items were identified for deletion in the final scale.

5.4.5 Study design and sample

A non-experimental cross-sectional survey using questionnaires was adopted in this study. Target participants were workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Owing to difficulties accessing institutional approval and support from organisations within the oil and gas industry in Ghana, the researchers' initial aim of sampling 1200 participants was not achievable. Only seven hundred and fifty (750) questionnaires were distributed to employees (online and paper) from 5 companies in the upstream sector, 1 in the midstream and 3 downstream companies. A total of 326 questionnaires were completed and returned (response rate: 43.5%) to the researcher. This was made up of workers across all sectors in the industry. A total of 223 males (68.4%) and 103 females (31.6%) took part in the study. The mean age of participants was 44.6 years (standard deviation = 9.4). A total of 13.5% of participants worked offshore with 86.5% working onshore. Fifty-eight percent (58%) of employees had worked with their company for between 1 and 5 years with no employee having worked for less than 6 months based on the inclusion criteria.

5.4.6 Procedure

A letter was sent to the HR departments of the various organisations introducing the researcher, explaining the purpose of the research and seeking their support in recruiting participants from their respective organisations. A copy of the participant information sheet as well as the survey instrument was included. Once permission was granted by the various organisations, an email including the participant information sheet was sent out to all employees who had access to computers and emails at work inviting them to either fill out the survey online using a hyperlink to the Bristol Online Survey system or a paper version which was available in the various departments on specified days. Those employees who had no access to their emails at work were handed copies of the participant information sheet by the researcher or their supervisors.

Participants who opted to fill out the survey online followed the hyperlink to read the participant information sheet, grant consent and proceed to fill out the survey. Once they completed the survey, participants were directed to a debriefing page where study aims, and objectives were reiterated, and the

contact emails of the researchers were provided for any correspondence and/or support. Participants who chose to opt out of the study could do so without completing the online survey. However, because of the nature of the system, participants were informed that it is impossible to retrieve and delete the information from the system till the entire survey was completed. Information from participants was recorded and stored in the BOS system anonymously and could be accessed only by the researcher. The researcher also kept track of the response rate regularly to inform decisions as to when to invite additional participants. A total of 300 employees and managers were invited to take part in the study with only 110 completing the entire questionnaire online. As mentioned earlier, only employees who the researcher had access to and who opted to complete the online version were sent the link to do so online.

Participants who opted to use the paper survey were presented with the participant information sheet as well as the consent form prior to data collection. The paper survey was administered to participants after which they were provided with debriefing sheets. Four hundred and fifty (450) paper questionnaires were distributed to workers in organisations across the oil and gas industry in Ghana, who granted permission for data collection. A total of 216 participants returned a fully completed paper version of the questionnaire. The current study was guided by ethical principles as outlined by the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (2009), Code of Human Research Ethics (2010), Ethics Guidelines for Internet-mediated Research (2013), as well as the Data Protection Act (1998).

5.5 Preliminary Analyses

Prior to any data analyses, some preliminary work needed to be done to check the data. The preliminary analysis was done in six steps. These were: Missing data analysis, check for outliers, Analysis of the normal distribution of the variables, Reliability analysis, Checks for collinearity and Sample size adequacy.

5.5.1 Missing data analysis

An inspection of the data revealed no missing data with regards the variables of interest. However, with questions related to the self-labelling with definition method where participants had to indicate their target status as ‘bullied’ or ‘not bullied’, there were some missing data as participants who self-labelled as ‘not bullied’ had to skip the three questions seeking further information about the bullying act.

5.5.2 Outliers

Careful review of the data presented no case of outliers. Additionally, a statistical method was used to confirm the absence of outliers. Specifically, the generalized Cook's distance statistic (gCD) was computed for each variable. The Cook’s distance is a statistic that measures if a case exerts undue influence on a model. Bollen and Jackman (1990) have recommended that gCD higher than 4/n=4/326= 0.012 may be a cause for concern. Cook and Weisberg (1982) even offer a more liberal cut-off indicating that values above 1 should be flagged as problematic cases. In the current study, no case met any of these criteria and as such there were no outliers in the data.

5.5.3 Normality

Regarding issues of normality, univariate and multivariate analysis of normality was conducted. For univariate normality, Curran, West and Finch (1996) assert that values for skewness and kurtosis should be below 2 and 7 respectively to meet the assumption of univariate normality. Analyses showed that all items were within the recommended range (see Table 5-2). Even when using a more stringent criterion like cut-off suggestions that skewness and kurtosis should be between -1 and +1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), all the variables were either normally distributed or did not substantially depart from normality.

5.5.4 Reliability

Table 5-2: Cronbach's alphas, univariate and multivariate normality for study variables

		Univariate Normality	
Scale	α	Skewness range	Kurtosis range
Workplace bullying	0.988	0.801 - 0.985	-0.537 - -0.736
Psychological well-being	0.731	-0.066 - -0.92	-0.513 - -1.075
Psychological capital	0.892	-0.526 - -0.938	1.1 – 1.6
Religiosity	0.766	-1.16 - -1.61	0.674 – 2.89
Social support	0.875	-0.668 - -1.111	0.028 – 1.177
Power distance	0.810	0.044 – 0.367	-0.673 - -0.833
Job satisfaction			
Emotional exhaustion	0.690	0.469 – 0.519	-0.819 - -0.878
Engagement	0.850	-0.06 – 0.297	-1.04 - -1.17
Organisational commitment	0.771	0.285 – 0.459	-0.72 - -0.935
Turnover intentions			
Work pace	0.708	-0.182 - -0.348	-0.866 – 0.379
Workload	0.802	-0.612 - 0	-0.793 – 0.354
Control	0.768	-0.074 – 0.04	-0.794 - -0.942
Colleague social support	0.823	-0.343 - -0.362	-0.28 - -0.296
Supervisor social support	0.888	-0.347 - -0.412	-0.776 - -1.043
Job insecurity	0.850	-0.18 – 0.159	-0.679 - -0.874

Cronbach's alphas were computed for all the study variables. All the variables showed good internal consistency above or close to the 'acceptable' threshold (> .7 – Acceptable; George & Mallery, 2003). The emotional exhaustion scale had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.69 in this study. The psychological well-being and psychological capital scales respectively that showed somewhat low reliabilities in the pilot study showed good reliabilities in the current study. Cronbach's alphas are presented in Table 5-2.

5.5.5 Collinearity

Pearson's correlations were calculated among all the study variables (see

Table 5-3). All correlations were below the recommended threshold of 0.8 (Dormann et al., 2013). Furthermore, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was computed for all variables. The VIF indicates whether a predictor has a strong linear correlation with other predictors. Hair et al. (2013) have suggested a

tolerance threshold of 5. All the study variables fell below this threshold and as such there were no concerns with collinearity within the data.

Table 5-3: Pearson correlations among study variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1.Workplace bullying	1																
2.Psychological well-being	-.262**	1															
3.Psychological capital	-.257**	.201**	1														
4.Religiosity	.278**	-.368**	-0.108	1													
5.Social support	.253**	.180**	.298**	0.07	1												
6.Power distance	-.290**	-0.017	-0.008	-0.072	-.162**	1											
7.Engagement	-.358**	.211**	0.051	-.211**	-.198**	.163**	1										
8.Burnout	.187**	-.369**	-.131*	.170**	0.022	.209**	-.340**	1									
9.Work pace	.516**	-.134*	0.005	.206**	.352**	-.210**	-.448**	.227**	1								
10.Workload	.434**	-0.058	.151**	.147**	.369**	-.163**	-.367**	.189**	.658**	1							
11.Control	-.363**	0.04	.119*	-0.069	-0.069	.178**	0.042	-0.092	-.303**	-.194**	1						
12.Colleague support	0.055	0.103	.240**	0.097	.258**	-0.004	.180**	-.117*	.139*	.169**	-0.101	1					
13.Supervisor support	-.372**	.219**	.208**	-0.062	-.213**	.336**	.541**	-.249**	-.357**	-.259**	.206**	.372**	1				
14.Job insecurity	-.349**	.156**	0.045	-0.066	-.217**	.219**	.364**	-.270**	-.459**	-.323**	.423**	-0.007	.476**	1			
15.Org. commitment	-.134*	.135*	.118*	0.02	0.008	-.140*	-0.037	-.256**	-0.035	-0.042	0.092	0.055	0.036	0.09	1		
16.Turnover intentions	.276**	-0.015	-.153**	0.081	0.014	0.039	0.034	0.07	0.051	0.033	-0.006	.166**	0.084	0.07	-.180**	1	
17.Job satisfaction	-.244**	.381**	.255**	-.155**	0.021	0.079	.440**	-.296**	-.154**	-0.006	0.061	.188**	.533**	.215**	.160**	0.038	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.5.6 Sample size and statistical power considerations

Sample size considerations are very important in multiple regression as this affects the statistical power of regression analysis. The statistical power is the probability that a false null hypothesis will be rejected. It is the probability that a given test will find an effect if such an effect exists within the population. Effect sizes are standardized and objective measures of the magnitude of observed effects (Field, 2013). The sample size required is dependent on the size of the effect to be detected and how much certainty we want to detect this effect. To determine the sample size required a priori, given a power, effect size and alpha both the method of analysis and the desired level of statistical power were considered. For a multiple regression analysis of 17 predictors, a power analysis (cf. Soper, 2016) indicated that to detect an effect of a moderate size (f^2 = .15; Cohen, 1988), with a desired statistical power level of .8 (only allowing a 20% chance of committing a 'type 2' error) and 5% chance of committing a type 1 error of rejecting the null hypothesis when the null is true, a minimum sample size of 146 would be required. Using recommendations made by Field (2013) that for up to 20 predictors and for a medium effect, a sample size of 200 is required, the sample size in the current study (n=326) was deemed to be adequate. The researcher sought a larger sample for the quantitative studies as the initial idea was to analyse data using Structural Equation Modelling and as such a larger sample was needed to be able to fit a model. This has been discussed further in the limitations of the quantitative study in Chapter 7.

Having established the appropriateness of the data for analysis using regression methods, the next stage of preliminary analysis was to test the psychometric properties of the scale for measuring workplace bullying: the main variable of interest in this study. In this regard, the revised negative acts questionnaire was tested for its factor structure and psychometric properties. The rationale for this as well as the results are presented in the next section.

5.6 Factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire Revised (NAQ-R) in a Ghanaian sample

5.6.1 Introduction

Measurement of workplace bullying is not a straightforward task owing to the complexity of the phenomenon. Nielsen et al. (2011) have identified three methods that have been predominantly used in the literature to measure workplace bullying. The behavioural experience method is very popular and measures if a respondent perceives that they have been exposed to specific behaviours indicative of workplace bullying. The self-labelling method assesses the respondents' overall feeling of having been bullied at work. The self-labelling method may either be used without presenting a definition of bullying to the respondents (e.g., Nielsen, Mathiesen & Einarsen, 2009) or with a theoretical definition of bullying to guide their assessment of their victim status (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; O'Moore, Lynch & Niamh, 2003). A combination of both the behavioural experience method and the self-labelling method has been used together to measure workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 2003; Mikkelsen & Einarsen, 2001; Salin, 2001). This is based on the understanding that both the self-labelling and behavioural experience methods measure bullying from diverse focus and as such both present "valid but complementary information on the phenomenon of bullying" (Nielsen et al., 2011, p. 167). In the current study, a combination of both the behavioural experience method as well as the self-labelling method was used to measure workplace bullying as a way of assessing the frequency of the experience of negative behaviours at work as well as respondent's subjective evaluation of being bullied at work.

A search of the literature of workplace bullying in Ghana and sub-Saharan Africa revealed no empirical study to examine the utility of various measures of workplace bullying. As such, in this chapter the Negative Acts Questionnaire – Revised (NAQ-R) which was used as one of the methods of measuring workplace bullying in the current study will be examined. The psychometric properties and factor structure of the NAQ-R will be explored in a Ghanaian sample. Furthermore, the relationship between responses on the NAQ-R and the self-labelling method will be analysed as further evidence of the validity of either method in measuring workplace bullying in a Ghanaian sample.

5.6.2 Objective measurement of workplace bullying – Behavioural experience method

The two most popular self-report inventories and scales used widely by researchers and participants are the Leymann Inventory of Psychological Terror (LIPT; Leymann, 1997) and Einarsen and Raknes' (1997) Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ). There has also been wide use of shortened, expanded and derived versions of various questionnaires with no psychometric properties reported in the literature (Salin, 2001). These problems have been compounded by the impracticability of using such surveys in organisational research due to length (60 item WAR-Q) and the surveys being used as a diagnostic tool to predict bullying and/or harassment (e.g., LIPT; Leymann, 1997) rather than a report of exposure to workplace bullying.

Although the NAQ has been used extensively in organisational research, it had some issues that needed to be addressed. The original scale had 23 items which described work and person-related behaviours experienced by individuals at work. This scale had good construct validity, good face validity as well as high internal consistency as indicated by Cronbach's alphas. However, the translated versions revealed some cultural bias as the initial scales had been validated on a Scandinavian sample. Furthermore, items on the NAQ were highly influenced by the views of employees severely affected by workplace bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). There had also been some confusion about the factor structure of the NAQ with Matthiesen and Einarsen (2001) reporting a two-factor solution.

Hoel, Cooper and Faragher (2001) developed the NAQ-R in response to the challenges with the initial scale and sought to create a short, reliable and valid scale that could be used across organisational settings and adapted to Anglo-American cultures. This original 29-items NAQ-R was further analysed and shortened to the revised 22-item NAQ-R (Einarsen & Hoel, 2001). Extending Arvey and Cavanaugh's (1995) suggestions from sexual harassment research, all items on the revised NAQ-R were written in behavioural terms with no reference to the terms bullying or harassment (Einarsen et al., 2009).

In a study to examine the factor structure, psychometric properties and validity of the NAQ-R, Einarsen et al. (2009) analysed secondary data from 5,288 UK employees. Results indicate that the revised NAQ-R measured 3 distinct factors: work-related and person-related bullying as well as physical intimidation. Furthermore, the scale had high internal consistency and good construct validity. Thus, the NAQ-R is considered a reliable, valid and standardised scale for measuring exposure to bullying at work. Indeed, recently Reknes, Harris, and Einarsen (2018) found psychometric evidence to support a shorter version of the NAQ-R known as the shortened NAQ (SNAQ). Despite criticisms of self-report scales, this method is preferred over the self-labelling method (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). The behavioural experience method is less likely to be affected by emotional and cognitive processes as the respondent is not required to label themselves as bullied or not. Statistical analysis and/or operational criterion method reveals the victim status objectively (Nielsen, Notelaers & Einarsen, 2011).

5.6.3 Subjective measures of victim status - Self-labelling with definition method

This method has been widely used in the literature and involves participants being presented with a definition of workplace bullying and being asked if they have experienced workplace bullying within a specific period (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). The presentation of the definition of workplace bullying seeks to reduce the discrepancy between the researchers' perception of the phenomenon of workplace bullying and that of the respondent. Some studies present a yes or no response category for participants to respond to while others have used five to seven-point response categories to indicate the frequency of experiencing the behaviours defined as bullying (Cowie et al., 2002). Though this subjective method has been criticised to be limited in illuminating the nature of bullying behaviours, it has been utilised extensively in the literature together as a complement of the behavioural experience method. Furthermore, the use of the self-labelling method with a definition reduces the ambiguity and possible discrepancies between researcher and participant's conceptualisation of workplace bullying (Nielsen et al., 2011).

In the current study, a simple definition of workplace bullying by Ortega et al. (2009, p. 418) was used i.e. *"Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour"* and respondents were asked to rate the frequency of their experience of workplace bullying within the past six months. A participant's target status indicates whether they had experienced bullying. Participants who indicated 'no' to the question 'Have you ever been bullied in the past six months?' based on the definition presented were given the status of 'not bullied'. Accordingly, all participants who answered 'yes' with remaining different frequencies of experiencing workplace bullying were classified as 'bullied'.

5.6.4 Aim of the current study

In the current study, the factor structure and psychometric properties of the NAQ-R were explored to confirm earlier results by Einarsen et al. (2009). This was done using a sample drawn from Ghana's oil and gas industry. Furthermore, the model in this current study sought to test specific job demands and job resources that are most likely to be associated with targets' report of bullying. Specifically, it was hypothesised that NAQ-R would show significant positive correlations with job demands (workload and work pace) and significant negative correlations with job resources (control and supervisor support). These hypothesised relationships are consistent with the Job demands-resources theory (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011), Work environment hypothesis (Leymann, 1993), Job demand control (support) model of Karasek (1985), and Baillien et al.'s Three Way model (2011). The relationship between respondents' self-labelling as victims and their responses on frequency of negative behaviour as measured by the NAQ-R will be examined. Additionally, an analysis of participants' responses on the NAQ-R to further show the utility of the scale for measuring participant's exposure to workplace bullying is presented. The dimensionality of the NAQ-R was examined using a Ghanaian sample employing a confirmatory factor analysis in MPlus 7 (Muthens & Muthens, 2001).

5.6.5 Results

5.6.5.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

Some similarity exists between Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The aim of exploratory factor analysis is to build a model and describe relationships between variables as well as obtaining the best model to represent the relationship between observed variables and the potential underlying factors. This is referred to as the measurement model (Brown, 2006). In a confirmatory factor analysis, the researcher tests how well this measurement models fits the data. Unlike EFA, in CFA the researcher must define the model a priori. This implies that the researcher must specify the number of factors that represent any given set of variables as well as which factor each variable will load to prior to analysis. As such, the number of variables and factors and the relationship between them are fixed with variables related to specific factors. Model specification is based on theory and literature as well as information from a preceding EFA if applicable. CFA thus serves as a confirmatory statistic, rather than an exploratory one, that tests the extent to which theoretically driven hypothesised factor loadings on specified constructs represent the actual data. As such a key philosophical difference between EFA and CFA, is that whereas in EFA model specification on number of factors and loadings is data-driven, CFA is a theory-driven statistic (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). In the current study, a CFA was used as the NAQ-R has been extensively used in the literature and has well defined factor structure. The researcher aim was thus to confirm the factor structure of the NAQ-R in a Ghanaian sample.

A robust version of the categorical least squares (cat-ULSMV) estimation procedure was used to fit the data in this study. In most structural equation modelling and CFA procedures, maximum likelihood procedures and Pearson correlations are used from either a correlation or covariance matrix. Van Der Eijk and Rose (2015) assert that when using polychotomous scales such as Likert type scales, the responses strictly speaking are not interval but rather categorical (ordinal data). As such, treating survey data as interval will lead to over-dimensionalisation and inaccurate estimations. Furthermore, Unweighted Least Squares (ULS) is preferred to weighted Least squares (WLS) as the use

of the former results in parameter, standard errors and inter-factor correlation estimates that are more accurate (Hair et al., 2010).

Different models were specified and tested. To test for model fit, a small or non-significant chi-square value indicates good model fit. However, Hair et al. (2010) have argued that tested models will be rejected for larger samples due to relatively small and functionally inconsequential differences between the estimated model and the underlying model. As such in addition to the Chi square index, other goodness of fit index and incremental fit indices were used to judge the fit of the models. The Root Mean Square error of approximation (RMSEA), a measure of approximate fit, accounts for sample size and model complexity in estimating how well a model fits a population. Lower values are desirable and indicate better model fit. Additionally, the comparative fit index (CFI) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) which evaluates how well the estimated model fits in comparison to a null model (model that hypothesises that observed variables are uncorrelated). CFI and TLI values above 0.90 and closer to 1 are indicative of model fit. In fact, Hu and Bentler, (1999) and Schumacker and Lomax, (1996) recommend that values higher than .90 for the CFI and TLI respectively indicate an acceptable fit whereas values of 0.95 or higher are indicative of excellent fit. Additionally, values < 0.05 indicate good fit, values of 0.05-0.08 represent moderate fit, and values of 0.08-0.10 indicate adequate fit for the RMSEA (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Preliminary analysis using the generalized Cook's distance statistic (gCD) indicated no outliers in the data. Furthermore, there were no missing data in the data set as such all 326 cases were used in the analysis.

5.6.5.1 Reliability and factor solution

Reliability indicates the extent to which indicators of a latent construct is internally consistent in their measurements. The Cronbach’s alpha for the 22 items NAQ-R was .98 suggesting that this scale may be a reliable one evidenced by excellent internal consistency. An examination of the ‘alpha if item deleted’ also indicated that deleting any item will not yield an increase in the internal consistency of the measures.

Examination of the factor structure of the NAQ-R was done using a confirmatory approach with three identified models (Einarsen et al., 2009, 2011; Giorgi et al., 2011; Vukelic, Cizmic, Petrovic, Tenjovic, & Giorgi, 2015). In the first model, all the items were assumed to be measuring 1 factor, i.e. workplace bullying. The two-dimensional model in which each item was hypothesised to load on either work-related (items 1, 3, 14, 16, 18, 19, and 21) and person-related workplace bullying (items 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 17, 20, and 22), and the three-dimensional model in which each item on the NAQ-R loaded on person-related workplace bullying, work-related workplace bullying or physically intimidating bullying (items 8, 9, and 22).

Results indicate that the one-dimension model of an overall workplace bullying measure fits the data (WLSχ^2= 608.847 (209) p<0.001, RMSEA = 0.076, $p<0$.05; CFI = 0.995; TLI = 0.994). However, when compared to the one-dimension model, the two-dimensional model has a worse fit for the data as it is associated with a significant increase in χ^2 (WLSχ^2= 615.187 (208) p<0.001) with acceptable fit indices (RMSEA = 0.077, $p<0$.05; CFI = 0.995; TLI = 0.994). The three-factor model hypothesised to distinguish between personal, work and physical intimidation dimensions of workplace bullying had a poor fit for the data in the current study (WLS χ^2= 614.799 (206), p<0.001; RMSEA = 0.078, $p<0$.05; CFI = 0.995; TLI = 0.994) in comparison to the one-dimension model tested as χ^2 increased. The more descriptive goodness of fit and incremental fit indices (RMSEA, CFI and TLI) showed acceptable fit for all the 3 models.

The fact that all 3 models only showed acceptable fit but not good or excellent fit for the data was further explored. This was done by inspecting the suggested modification indices. Modification indices are helpful in identifying possible suitable amendments to a measurement model to improve the goodness of fit indices (Furr, 2011). Whereas the NAQ-R was developed, tested and has been used in European settings with strong support for its psychometric properties from other parts of the world, the context might be different in Ghana. D'Cruz, Paull, Omari, and Guneri-Cangarli (2016) assert that culture might play a role in the nature, understanding and experience of workplace bullying in different countries. Despite these considerations, no revisions to the 3 models were made based on the modification indices. Any such revision would have

lacked theoretical justification and would have been neither consistent with CFA theory nor backed by other residual diagnostics (Hair et al., 2010). Hoyle (2000) recommends a better approach to dealing with this problem. He recommends an exploratory factor analysis to further analyse the factor structure of the NAQ-R to deal with the lack of support for the factor structure of the NAQ-R (Einarsen et al., 2009).

5.6.5.2 Exploratory factor analysis

Two tests were performed to examine the appropriateness of the data for EFA. As such, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity were run. The value of KMO was 0.979, exceeding Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) recommended level of 0.60. Additionally, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant (χ^2, 231 = 10,469.27, p<.01). This indicates that the data is adequate for an EFA. Following recommendations by Einarsen et al. (2009), an EFA was run on the 22-item NAQ-R using maximum likelihood estimation method, as the preferred method of extraction, with varimax rotation. This was done using eigenvalues of greater than 1.0 (Kaiser, 1960) and Cattell's (1966) scree test as guidelines for factor extraction. A final one-factor model emerged explaining 78.71% of the total variance. All the items had factor loadings above .5 (i.e. 0.775 – 0.937; Hair et al., 2010) and as such all 22 items were retained (see Table 5-4).

This provides further support for the CFA analysis and its findings. As such, based on the above analysis, the one-dimensional model of overall workplace bullying shows the best fit for the data. The results deviate from the recent literature on the factor structure of the NAQ-R but may suggest that in a Ghanaian sample, though bullying may be manifested in different dimensions as hypothesised by the three-factor model, they do not discriminate sufficiently between work-related, person-related and physically intimidating bullying and perhaps they are perceived to occur together.

Table 5-4: Factor loadings for the items in the NAQ-R

1. Someone withholding information which affects your performance	**0.798**
2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	**0.877**
3. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	**0.810**
4. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	**0.889**
5. Spreading of gossip and rumours about you	**0.847**
6. Being ignored or excluded	**0.896**
7. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person, attitudes or your private life	**0.916**
8. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger	**0.937**
9. Intimidating behaviours such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way	**0.898**
10. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	**0.913**
11. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	**0.917**
12. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	**0.936**
13. Persistent criticism of your work or work-effort	**0.901**
14. Having your opinions ignored	**0.885**
15. Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get along with	**0.885**
16. Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines	**0.919**
17. Having allegations made against you	**0.775**
18. Excessive monitoring of your work	**0.858**
19. Pressure not to claim something to which by right you are entitled (e.g., sick leave, holiday, entitlement, travel expenses)	**0.913**
20. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	**0.901**
21. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	**0.912**
22. Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	**0.885**

5.6.5.3 Validity of the NAQ-R

Cronbach and Meehl (1955) assert that construct validation aims to place a claimed measure of a construct within a nomological grid to determine its association with other variables that are, theoretically, correlated negatively, positively or not at all.

As seen in Table 5-5, Pearson correlations between the NAQ-R and measures of job demands were positive, statistically significant and moderately strong. High scores on the NAQ-R were associated with high workload and work pace. This provided evidence of convergent validity of the NAQ-R. Furthermore, job resources (control and supervisor social support) were significantly moderately correlated with the NAQ-R. These correlations were in the hypothesised directions as high scores on the NAQ-R were associated with less job control and less supervisor social support indicating discriminant validity.

Table 5-5: Pearson product-moment correlations between NAQ-R, work pace, workload, control and supervisor social support (means and standard deviations for all scales are also reported)

	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1. NAQ-R	46.02 (27.79)	1				
2. Work pace	6.64 (2.61)	0.52	1			
3. Workload	13.67 (3.12)	0.43	0.66	1		
4. Control	9.44 (2.54)	-0.36	-0.31	-0.19	1	
5.Supsocial	4.79 (2.44)	-0.37	-0.36	-0.26	0.21	1

All correlations are significant at the .001 level (2-tailed).

5.6.5.4 Further analysis - Self–labelling method

As discussed earlier, participants were presented with a definition of bullying and were asked if they had ever experienced bullying at work in the preceding 6 months. Participants responded either 'no' or 'yes…' with different frequencies of bullying behaviour targeted at them.

In total, three hundred and twenty-six participants responded to this question. Of the total sample, 54.6% indicated having not been bullied with 45.4% experiencing some form of workplace bullying within the six months prior to data collection with different frequencies.

The Pearson product-moment correlation between subjective self-labelling as a victim of bullying and total scores on the NAQ-R was strongly positively correlated (r = .53, p<0.01). This shows that a person's labelling of themselves as victims of bullying is associated with high scores on the NAQ-R. This provides some evidence of criterion validity. This finding is similar to results from Einarsen et al. (2009) who found similar Pearson correlation of .54 (p < .001) between target status and responses on the NAQ-R. This is further evidence of criterion validity of the NAQ-R.

Further analyses were done to compare data from the NAQ-R and target status. Independent samples *t* test was run to examine mean differences between bullied and not-bullied employees on the total NAQ-R scores.

Table 5-6: Summary of means, standard deviations, t statistic and degrees of freedom for NAQ-R

NAQ-R	Target status	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*N*	*t*	*df*
Total	Bullied	2.8	1.34	148	-10.78*	324
	Not-bullied	1.5	.81	178		

*p < .0001

The summary of results as presented in Table 5-6 showed that there was a significant difference between bullied employees *(M=2.8, SD=1.34)* and non-bullied employees *(M=1.5, SD=.81)* on the total NAQ-R *[t (324) =-10.78, p<.0001]*.

5.6.5.5 Demographic analysis of target status and exposure to bullying (NAQ-R)

Participants' exposure to workplace bullying for each demographic variable was computed. This was represented by the mean score on the NAQ-R for that specific demographic group. Independent samples t-test were computed to examine if significant differences existed in their means.

Table 5-7: Demographic analysis of target status and exposure to bullying (NAQ-R)

Demographic	Yes (%)	χ 2	Mean NAQ-R	*t*
All	45.3		2.09	
Gender				
Male	44.5	0.059^{ns}	2.09	0.87^{ns}
Female	46		2.11	
Work type				
Offshore	48.5	0.752^{ns}	2.11	0.73^{ns}
Onshore	43.3		2.09	

ns = not significant

Furthermore, an analysis was done to examine if target status was associated with demographic variables. To determine if significant differences existed in the proportion of expected and observed participants according to

target status (bullied/not-bullied), Chi squared tests were computed for each demographic variable. Results are presented in Table 5-7.

Interestingly, there was no gender difference in self-labelling as being bullied. Additionally, there was no significant difference between the expected and observed proportion of males and females who were bullied. Accordingly, gender was not significantly associated with self-labelling as a victim of bullying. This finding is inconsistent with the literature as women have been reported to have been bullied more than men (Simpson & Cohen, 2004).

There was also no difference in target status resulting from the work type. Offshore workers reported being a victim of bullying a little more than onshore workers, though this difference was not significant. Furthermore, Chi Square tests showed that work type was not significantly associated with self-labelling as a victim of workplace bullying.

5.6.5.6 Summary of NAQ-R responses – By fequency of bullying

Further analysis was done to examine the overall experience of workplace bullying behaviours as captured by the NAQ-R. The possible range of scores on the NAQ-R was from 22 to 110 with a total score of 22 on the NAQ-R indicating that the respondent had never experienced any of the behaviours indicative of bullying in the past 6 months. Conversely, a score of 110 on the NAQ-R indicates that the respondent experienced the bullying behaviours at work daily for the past 6 months.

Table 5-8 shows the distribution of percentage of respondents targeted various behaviours as measured by the NAQ-R. The first category of responses represents respondents who indicated having ‘never’ been bullied. The second indicates respondents who have been bullied ‘now and then’ and ‘monthly’ respectively. The final category represents percentage of respondents who experienced bullying behaviours ‘weekly’ and ‘daily’ respectively.

Data from the current study indicates that total scores of responses ranged from 22 to 110 with a mean of 46.02 and standard deviation of 27.79. Fifty-nine respondents representing 18.2% indicated that they had never experienced bullying behaviours in the past 6 months with 2.2% of respondents

(i.e. 17 respondents) reporting daily experiences of bullying behaviour in the past 6 months which can be viewed as severe bullying. Further analysis indicates that approximately 35% of respondents scored above the mean of 46.02 indicating that for 35% of participants, they experienced at least all bullying behaviours occasionally and frequently (i.e. now and then, monthly, weekly, daily) within the past 6 months. Consequently, 65% of respondents who scored below the mean may not have experienced any form of severe bullying.

Whilst a comparison of the percentage of norms between the current study in Ghana and other countries that have had the NAQ-R validated will have added some value to our understanding of the norms for the NAQ-R in Ghana, this was not possible due to difficulties accessing data. Though normative data exists, specific item by response analysis like what was done in the current study (see Table 5-8) was difficult to find. Indeed, Einarsen et al (2009) using a heterogeneous sample of 5288 UK employees employed the Latent Class Cluster approach (LCC; this method estimates homogeneous groups of respondents regarding the nature and degree of their exposure to bullying) to do the same analysis based on Structural Equation Modelling. In the current study, participants were grouped into 3 categories based on their responses whilst Einarsen et al. (2009) had 7 groups emerging based on the LCC. Additionally, the fact that the current analysis showed a 1-factor structure whereas previous studies (e.g. Einarsen et al, 2009) showed a 3-factor structure limits the comparative analysis of these norms from different contexts and countries.

Table 5-8: Workplace bullying - Percentage of respondents by category

Item	Bullying behaviour	Percentage responding 'Never'	Percentage responding, 'now and then' and 'monthly'	Percentage responding 'weekly' and 'daily'
1	Someone withholding information which affects your performance	41.6	30.6	27.8
2	Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work	54.1	22.0	23.9
3	Being ordered to do work below your level of competence	48.9	23.5	27.5
4	Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks	52.9	24.8	22.3
5	Spreading of gossip and rumours about you	49.2	26.9	23.9
6	Being ignored or excluded	48	29.4	22.6
7	Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person, attitudes or your private life	57.2	21.1	21.7
8	Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger	54.6	20.8	25.1
9	Intimidating behaviours such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking your way	60.2	16.8	22.9
10	Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job	63	15.9	21.1
11	Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes	49.5	26.6	23.9
12	Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach	55.4	20.8	23.9
13	Persistent criticism of your work or work-effort	58.4	19.9	21.7
14	Having your opinions ignored	47.4	28.7	23.9
15	Practical jokes carried out by people you don't get along with	55	21.4	23.5
16	Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines	49.5	27.5	22.9
17	Having allegations made against you	60.6	18	21.4
18	Excessive monitoring of your work	41.6	30	28.4
19	Pressure not to claim something to which by right you are entitled (e.g., sick leave, holiday, entitlement, travel expenses)	54.1	23.5	22.3

Item	Bullying behaviour	Percentage responding 'Never'	Percentage responding, 'now and then' and 'monthly'	Percentage responding 'weekly' and 'daily'
20	Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm	60.2	19	20.8
21	Being exposed to an unmanageable workload	57.5	18.7	23.9
22	Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse	69.4	8	22.6

5.6.6 Discussion

The results from the current study provide strong evidence of the NAQ-R (22 items) being a valid and reliable measure of workplace bullying behaviours with the NAQ-R measuring an overall bullying construct. Einarsen et al. (2009) found support for the three-dimension model which categorised bullying as person-related, work-related or physically intimidating bullying. Analysis revealed a one-factor model in a Ghanaian work setting. This is not surprising as Einarsen et al. (2009) indicate that the NAQ-R may also be used as a one-factor or even a two-factor measure of workplace bullying. As such, in a Ghanaian sample, the various bullying behaviours may co-occur and be experienced together and as such the distinction between the three dimensions is blurred. Yet, it is also worth mentioning that in the current study, the two and three-dimensional models also showed acceptable fit but the least parsimonious model (one factor) was judged the best fit for the data. This situation may be as a result of over-reporting of workpace bullying.

The high Cronbach's alpha indicating high internal consistency suggests a need to further revise the scale items to a shorter length when used as an overall one-factor latent construct of employees' exposure to negative acts of bullying at work. This will be very practical and beneficial to organisational research as researchers seek shorter and more concise scales to be used for applied research.

The NAQ-R showed good construct validity as evidenced with significant positive correlations with job demands and significant negative correlations with job resources. A study by Agervold and Gemzoë (2004) found significant differences in ratings of the various dimensions of the psychosocial work environment in bullied and non-bullied employees. Interviewed victims of bullying in Ireland identified their leaders as authoritarian, and the psychosocial work environment as highly stressful and competitive with an unfriendly climate (O'Moore et al., 1998). Agervold's (2009) study of 898 employees in local social security offices indicated that work departments that reported high workplace bullying also reported high work pressure, high work demands, role conflict, autocratic leadership style and lack of role clarity.

Furthermore, about 20% of the sample in this study reported not to be exposed to bullying behaviours at all. This further gives some support to the validity of the NAQ-R as, strictly speaking, theory suggests that bullying behaviours are infrequent in nature. However, 2.2% of employees reporting severe or daily bullying and another 65% reported some form of workplace bullying behaviour perpetrated against them in the past 6 months prior to data collection. This may be attributable to the nature of the oil and gas sector in Ghana. This sector is nascent, with expatriates holding mostly supervisory and managerial positions and indigenes in the lower levels of power. This is further exacerbated by the Local Content Law which requires all companies in this sector to fill out at least 70% of managerial positions with locals within 10 years of operation in the country as explained earlier in Chapter 4. This may, therefore, create the right atmosphere in which bullying may fester.

In conclusion, the current study sought to explore the factor structure and psychometric properties of the 22 item NAQ-R in a Ghanaian sample since no previous study has attempted this in Ghana. Results indicate that the scale has high internal consistency and construct validity. As such the NAQ-R is a useful tool for measuring exposure to workplace bullying across cultures as it showed good psychometric properties and a one-factor structure. The utility of the valid and reliable NAQ-R in detecting and measuring bullying in workplaces is promising for practitioners and researchers as more normative data becomes available.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter looked at modifications of the theoretical model for the quantitative studies presented in Chapter 2. The justifications for including some variables from the qualitative study in Chapter 4 in the adopted model were presented as well as the final analytical model. Preliminary analysis of data including the pilot study and data checks was presented together with the methodology. Additionally, the NAQ-R was tested for validity and reliability in a Ghanaian sample. The NAQ-R was identified as a valid and reliable scale for measuring workplace bullying in Ghana.

The next chapter will present the findings from the 3 elements of the quantitative study outlined in this chapter that were borne out of the analysis model for the quantitative part of this thesis. Each part is presented with an introduction, method of analysis, results and discussions.

Chapter 6 Quantitative Studies on Workplace Bullying

6.1 Introduction

In Chapter 5, the theoretical analysis model to be tested quantitatively in this thesis was presented. This was followed by the quantitative methodology and preliminary analysis of data. The NAQ-R was studied to ascertain its factor structure and psychometric properties in a Ghanaian worker sample. Analysis revealed that the NAQ-R is a robust and valid questionnaire for measuring workplace bullying in Ghana. The current chapter employed the NAQ-R as a main tool for primary data collection. Three (3) quantitative studies were conducted to test the model presented in Chapter 5. This model is an adaptation of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model of workplace bullying. This model has been discussed extensively in Chapters 2 and 5 of this thesis.

As mentioned earlier, in the first study various job demands and resources were tested as antecedents of workplace bullying as reported by victims. The direct effects of these job demands and resources as well as their interactions respectively on workplace bullying were studied. The relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being has been explored in previous studies and replicated in study two. In this study, personal resources were tested as intervening variables in the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. Specifically, psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance were hypothesised as moderators of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. The third quantitative study investigated if psychological well-being as a proximal outcome of workplace bullying mediated the relationship between bullying and distal outcomes at the organisational (organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intentions) and individual (burnout and engagement) level respectively.

The three quantitative studies are presented below. A brief introduction to the method of analysis, results of the analysis and discussion of findings are elucidated.

6.2 Study 1a – Antecedents of workplace bullying

6.2.1 Introduction

This current study adapts some aspects of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) model to examine the antecedents of workplace bullying in a sample of Ghanaian workers in the oil and gas industry. Extending some predictions of the JD-R model, workplace bullying was conceptualised as an extreme stressor at work that leads to strain. Consequently, job demands were hypothesised to be positively and significantly associated with workplace bullying whereas job resources were negatively and significantly associated with bullying at work.

Following from a review of the literature and findings from the qualitative study (Chapter 4), specific job demands, and resources were tested as antecedents of workplace bullying. Specifically, in this study the job demands studied were work pace, workload and job insecurity. Job resources that were measured and tested in this study were job control, supervisor social support and colleague social support. Additionally, consistent with the predictions of the JD-R model, the interactions between specific job demands and resources were tested to see their relationship with workplace bullying. The next section examines briefly the method of analysis used to test the study hypotheses.

6.2.2 Method of analysis

6.2.2.1 Regression analysis

The current study used regression analysis in SPSS Process. Regression analysis is a statistical technique that seeks to test the relationship between several independent variables (multiple regression) or from a single independent variable (simple regression) respectively and a criterion or outcome variable In multiple regression, the researcher aims to analyse the relationship between independent variables (IV) and the dependent variable by estimating the latter using known values of the IV (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). The model fit in a multiple regression is linear in nature and the least square method is used to establish the line of best fit based on weights assigned to each predictor variable. The weights (also called coefficients) given to each predictor variable represent the magnitude of influence of these variables in estimating the outcome variables. As such, an outcome variable is estimated

from an amalgamation of all independent variables multiplied by their respective weights (may be standardised, β or unstandardized, *b*) plus a residual term (Field, 2009). This is referred to as the regression equation, variate or model. Multiple regression thus explores the linear combination of independent variables that results in the highest correlation with the criterion variable. This is achieved with the method of least squares that finds the line of best fit with the smallest discrepancy between the observed data points and the line (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010).

Multiple regression lends itself to a broad range of research problems. Its popularity and applicability enable researchers to either predict or explain. Hair et al. (2010) assert that both prediction and explanation are not mutually exclusive and could be jointly addressed in a multiple regression analysis. Explanation in multiple regression allows an objective estimation of the degree and nature of the hypothesised relationship between predictors and criterion. The regression model is examined to determine the magnitude, sign and statistical significance of each predictor variable's coefficient. Accordingly, each IV's relationship with the criterion is assessed by examining the magnitude and direction of its coefficients consistent with theories. In the current cross-sectional study, the extent of the relationship (i.e. the magnitude, direction and significance) among specific job demands, job resources and their interaction terms respectively with workplace bullying was explored. Prediction is an important goal of multiple regression and refers to the extent to which the regression model (multiple predictors) can predict the outcome variable. The researcher aims for a high and significant predictive accuracy to validate the predictors included in the model. Due to the cross-sectional nature of the current study, the focus was on explaining the relationship between study variables and not on predicting the DV.

Hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the study hypotheses. Hierarchical regression is variant of the basic multiple regression procedure in which the researcher plans as to the order in which to enter variables (IV) into the model. Accordingly, the researcher in trying to examine the effects of some variables independent of the impact of others or to control for the effects of covariates specifies an order of entry for variables into different blocks.

6.2.2.2 Selecting dependent and independent variables

In hierarchical regression analysis, the researcher must specify which variables will be dependent and independent a priori. This decision must be informed by sound theoretical information on the nature of the relationship between these variables to avoid specification error. Specification error occurs when the researcher inadvertently includes irrelevant independent variables or omits an important independent variable in the regression variate. These can have profound consequences on any regression analysis and may bias the results significantly (Hair, et al., 2010).

Variables that are irrelevant but included in the regression model may mask the effect of more relevant variables and further reduce model parsimony (Hair, et al., 2010). This may result in less valid results when assessing the significance of independent variables within the model leading to a decrease in practical and statistical significance of the analysis. The omission of relevant variables reduces the accuracy of the analysis and leads to biased results and inaccurate interpretations of the model.

Whilst the researcher must take steps to avoid both types of specification error where possible, Hair et al. (2010) suggest that as a rule of thumb, including irrelevant variables may be more acceptable that omitting important independent variables in the model. In the current study, results of the earlier qualitative study (Chapter 4) together with the preliminary correlation analysis conducted, guided the selection of independent variables to be included in the regression analysis. Variables that had a significant and theoretically justified relationship with workplace bullying (criterion) were entered into the regression model.

In the current study, work pace, workload, and job insecurity (job demands), and job control, colleague social support and supervisor social support (job resources) were all independent variables included as well as the dependent variable of workplace bullying. Even though the basic relationship in a multiple regression is linear and represented typically by metric variables, dummy variables (non-metric) may be entered in a regression (Coolican, 2009; Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). Field (2009) defines dummy variables as a way

of coding a categorical or non-metric variable into a series of variables which are all dichotomous and can take on values of only 0 or 1. Gender (male/female) and work type (offshore/onshore) were recoded into dummy variables in the current study and included as control variables (covariates).

A further issue for concern is measurement error. In selecting any variable, a researcher must be cautious of the limitations of measurement error in obtaining reliable results. Measurement error is conceptualised as the discrepancy between true measurements and observed measurements. As such, observed scores on the dependent variable that does not reflect a person's true scores, limits the ability of a theoretically justified good independent variable in accurately predicting the dependent variable (Field, 2010). Multiple regression does not directly correct for measurement error in independent and dependent variables, however results of the reliability studies presented in Chapter 5 indicate that all variables used in the regression analysis showed good and acceptable measures of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha).

6.2.2.3 Test of assumptions for hierarchical linear regression

The Durbin-Watson statistic (1.351) was examined and indicated a lack of correlated residuals (Savin & White, 1977). The bivariate correlations between study variables were well below the 0.8 threshold suggested by Field (2010; see Table 6-1) and as such do not suggest any issues with multicollinearity. Furthermore, tolerance statistics and VIF all fell within acceptable levels, further providing evidence that multicollinearity was not of concern at the level of the residual variate. It was also observed that the analysis of variance for each generated regression model for the study variables, was observed to be significant. This result suggests that the regression variate is significantly different from the residual variate (error terms). This implies that the derived results are not likely due to chance.

To ascertain issues of normality, the normal probability plot of the standardised residuals was generated and inspected. This plot approximated the diagonal line despite some slight deviations which occurred around the

middle of the line. However, these slight deviations from normality were considered acceptable as they were not considered seriously deviated and as such no further action was taken. Also, the partial regression plots for job demands, resources and their interaction terms were critically assessed to find out if the distribution of the residuals for each of the specified relationships appeared normal. All the regression plots for the study variables appeared to be normal. Finally, visual inspection of residual plots from the regression indicated no issues pertaining to normal distribution of error terms (homoscedasticity) and homogeneity of variance.

6.2.2.4 Results

The JD–R model typically groups several specific job demands and resources into a general higher order construct of 'job demands' and 'job resources' (van den Broeck et al., 2010). However, recent studies (e.g., Dediu, Leka & Jain, 2018; Dicke et al., 2018; Luchman & González-Morales, 2013) have shown that models which included several specific job demands and resources respectively had better model fit. This better model fit when job demands, and resources are treated separately may be grounded in theory. Indeed, as discussed in Chapter 2, Crawford et al. (2010) have distinguished between job demands that are perceived as hindrances and those that are challenges. Whilst challenges have a positive effect, hindrances have a more negative effect. Consequently, lumping all demands together may produce results that are inaccurate. In this regard, specific job demands (i.e. work pace, workload, and job insecurity) and job resources (i.e. job control, colleague social support and supervisor social support) respectively were investigated in this study.

In this study, gender (1=male; 0=female) and work type (1=offshore; 0=onshore) were included as control variables.

In step 1, the variables hypothesised to possibly account for variations in the DV were controlled for. As such, gender and work type were entered into the model in step 1. Next, job demands were introduced into the model. Accordingly, work pace, workload and job insecurity were entered in step 2.

Finally, job resources were introduced in step 3. Control, colleague and supervisor social support respectively were entered into the model.

Table 6-1: Pearson Correlations among variables

	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Workplace bullying	.516**	.434**	-.363**	.055	-.372**	-.349**
2. Work pace		.658**	-.303**	.139*	-.357**	-.459**
3. Workload			-.194**	.169**	-.259**	-.323**
4. Control				-.101	.206**	.423**
5. Colleague social support					.372**	.007
6. Supervisor social support						.476**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

[7] is Job insecurity

Preliminary analysis (see Table 6-1) revealed a significant positive relationship between work pace and workplace bullying. Additionally, workload was significantly positively associated with the experience of workplace bullying. These findings are largely consistent with the hypotheses of the job demands-resources model. Interestingly, job insecurity had a significant negative relationship with workplace bullying contrary to reports in the literature. Furthermore, all job resources except colleague social support were negatively and significantly related to workplace bullying. The association between control and supervisor social support respectively and workplace bullying was moderate. However, colleague social support was weakly positively correlated with workplace bullying with the relationship not being significant.

Results of the hierarchical linear regression are presented in Table 6-2. The control variables (gender and work type) accounted for none (0%) of the variance in targets' exposure to workplace bullying (Step 1).

Table 6-2: Job demands, job resources and their interaction terms in relationship to workplace bullying

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Independent variables	**β**	**β**	**β**
Gender	-0.012	-0.025	-0.056
Work type	0.011	-0.041	-0.036
Work pace		0.263**	0.208*
Workload		0.168*	0.15*
Job insecurity		0.009	0.011
Control		-0.21*	-0.136*
Colleague social support		0.063	-0.016
Supervisor social support		-0.223*	-0.208**
Work pace x Control			0.01
Workload x Control			-0.087
Job insecurity x Control			0.16**
Work pace x Colleague social support			0.007
Workload x Colleague social support			0.052
Job insecurity x Colleague social support			0.082
Work pace x Supervisor social support			0.059
Workload x Supervisor social support			-0.331**
Job insecurity x Supervisor social support			-0.086
R^2	0	.363*	.455*
ΔR^2	0	.363*	.092*
F	0.029	22.694**	15.166**

** *p<0*.01; * *p<0*.05

Job demands, and job resources respectively were introduced in the second step and explained 36.3% of variance in the report of workplace bullying. As such when the control variables are considered together with job demands, work pace (β = .263; *p<0*.01) and workload (β = .168; *p<0*.05) were significantly associated with the experience of workplace bullying in the hypothesised directions.

It was observed that the relationship between job insecurity and workplace bullying was not statistically significant. For job resources, control (β = -.210; *p<0*.05) and supervisor social support (β = - .223; *p<0*.05) respectively were associated with targets' report of workplace bullying consistent with the Job demands-resources model. However, colleague social support did not relate with the experience of workplace bullying (β = .063; *p>0*.05).

In step 3, the 9 interaction terms between the specific job demands and job resources respectively were added in the model that already included the control variables as well as job demands and job resources. This was done by first centering the job demands and job resources scores to avoid multicollinearity. The interaction terms were then created by finding the product of each centered job demand with each centered job resource. This resulted in 9 interaction terms which were added in the third block (step 3).

The main effects of work pace, workload, control and supervisor social support remained significant with the introduction of the interaction terms. However, the standardised beta values dropped by a relatively small magnitude for each of these variables. Of all the 9 interaction terms, only 2 reached statistical significance. The interaction of job insecurity and control (β = 0.16; $p<0$.05) and the interaction between workload and supervisor social support (β = - .331; $p<0$.01) were significant in Step 3. The introduction of the interaction terms in step 3 resulted in an additional explanation of 9.2% of variance in targets' report of workplace bullying. As such, the control variables, work pace, workload, control, supervisor social support and their interaction terms together accounted for 45.5% explained variance of targets' report of workplace bullying.

To further test the 2 significant interaction hypotheses, the direction of the significant interactions effect was done by means of simple slope analyses. Low job insecurity, (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), average job insecurity (i.e., at the mean) and high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) job insecurity in conditions of low (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), average (i.e., at the mean) and high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) control with respect to targets' reports of bullying was analysed. The same analysis was done for low workload, (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), average (i.e., at the mean) and high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) workload in conditions of low (i.e., 1 SD below the mean), average (i.e., at the mean) and high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) supervisor social support with respect to targets' report of bullying.

The simple slope analysis revealed a negative relationship between job insecurity and workplace bullying for participants who scored low on control (b = - .66, t (321) = -4.67; $p<0$.001), as well as for participants who scored average on control (b = - .32, t (321) = -3.44; $p<0$.001;Fig 6-1). The confidence intervals

(95%) for these two groups did not overlap, indicating both slopes differ significantly. However, for high scores on control, there was no significant relationship between job insecurity and workplace bullying (*b* = .02, *t* (321) = .15; *p>0*.05). This means that at low levels of control, a unit increase in job insecurity results in a .66 reduction in workplace bullying. For average levels of control, a unit increase in job insecurity is marked by a .32 decrease in workplace bullying. Thus, the relationship between job insecurity and workplace bullying was significant when control was at the mean and below the mean but not significant with higher values of control. At high levels of job control, the effect of job insecurity on workplace bullying was not significant.

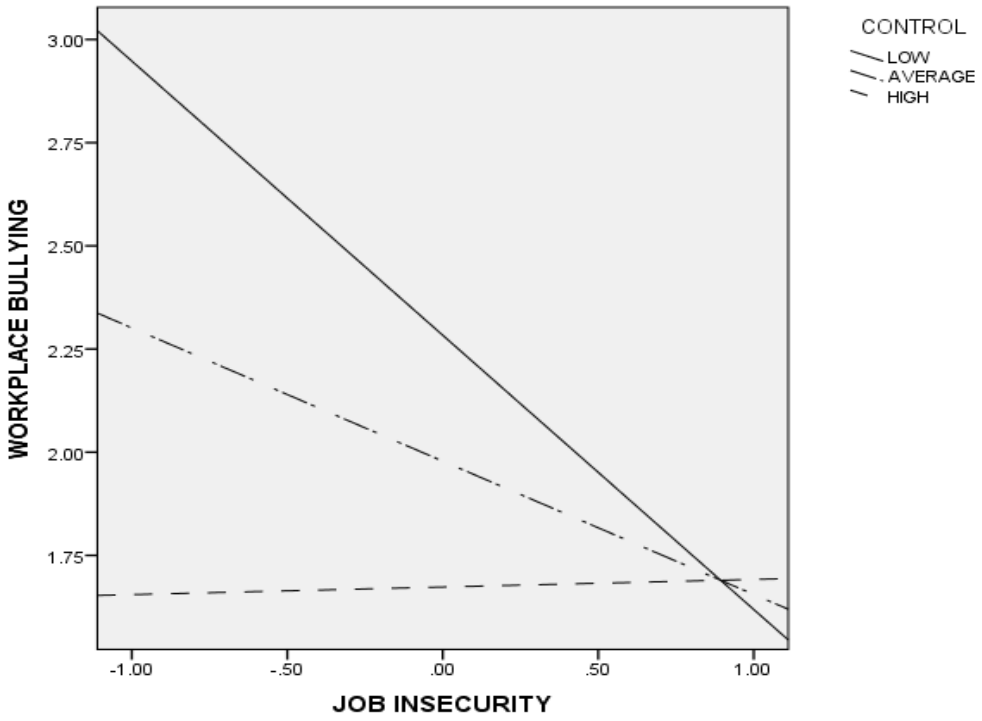


Fig 6-1: Interaction graph showing effect of job insecurity on workplace bullying at different levels of control

With regards the interactive effect of workload and supervisor social support on workplace bullying, the simple slope analysis revealed a positive relationship between workload and workplace bullying for participants who scored low on supervisor social support (*b* = .99, *t* (321) = 9.70; *p<0*.001), as well as for participants who scored average on supervisor social support (b = .50, *t* (321) = 6.79; *p<0*.001; Fig 6-2). The confidence intervals (95%) for the low and

average supervisor social support groups respectively did not overlap, indicating both slopes differ significantly. However, for high scores on supervisor social support, the significant positive relationship between workload and workplace bullying became insignificant (b = .01, t (321) = .07; *p>0*.05). This means that at low levels of supervisor social support, a unit increase in workload results in a .99 increase in workplace bullying. For average levels of supervisor social support, a unit increase in workload is marked by a .50 increase in workplace bullying. High supervisor social support did not increase the effect of workload on workplace bullying.

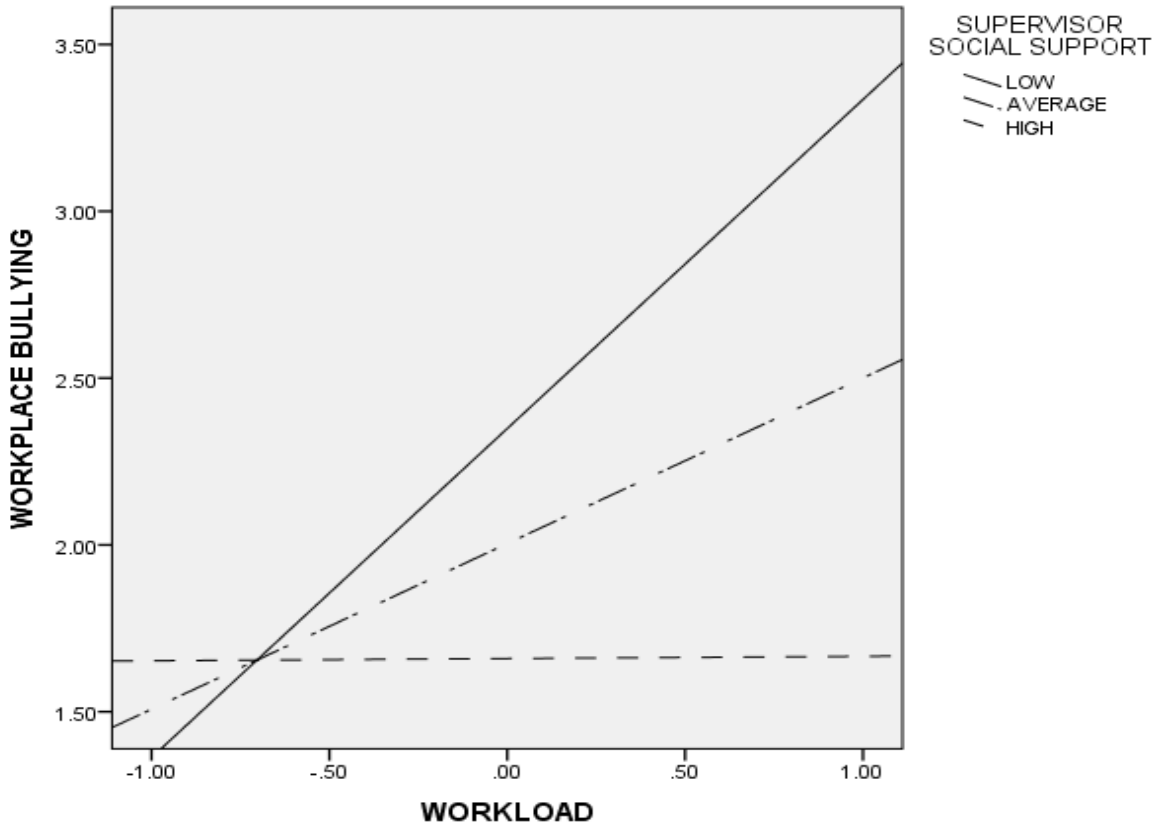


Fig 6-2: Interaction graph showing effect of workload on workplace bullying at different levels of supervisor social support

6.2.3 Discussion of findings

A lot of studies (e.g., Einarsen et al., 1994; Goodboy et al., 2017; Hauge et al., 2007) have identified job characteristics and other psychosocial factors as antecedents of workplace bullying. This has been referred to as the work environment hypothesis. The underlying argument is that a poor psychosocial

work environment is characterised by stressful jobs, deficient leadership and poor work organisation. Extending these arguments further, the job demands-resources model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) offers a sound theoretical model to organise these job characteristics in explaining workplace bullying. This study tested some aspects of the job demands-resources model to further our understanding of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Following from the findings of the qualitative study in Chapter 4, specific job demands, and resources were examined as antecedents of workplace bullying. It was hypothesised that in line with the conceptualisations of job demands as facets of employees' work that are a burden on their personal capacities and elicit an energy-depleting process and lead to strain, work pace, workload and job insecurity, will be positively associated with targets' experience of workplace bullying. Furthermore, job resources, which include aspects of the work context that lessen the negative effects of job demands and the associated strain and are instrumental in the attainment of work goals through a motivational path, were hypothesised to be negatively associated with workplace bullying. Additionally, job demands will interact with job resources in their relationship with workplace bullying according to the JD-R model.

With regards to specific hypotheses, work pace and workload were significantly positively related to workplace bullying in a sample of Ghanaian workers. These findings are consistent with findings in the literature (e.g., Baillien et al., 2011; Balducci, Schaufeli, & Fraccaroli, 2011; Goodboy et al., 2017; Hauge et al., 2011). Job insecurity did not relate significantly workplace bullying and is contrary to results from previous studies (De Cuyper, Baillien & De Witte, 2009; Spagnoli et al., 2017; Sverke et al., 2002). As explained earlier, this can be understood within the context of Ghana's oil and gas industry. Additionally, control and supervisor social support had negative and significant relationships with workplace bullying in the sample studied, consistent with previous findings on workplace bullying and job resources (Hua et al., 2016; Lewis, Megicks & Jones, 2017; Notelaers et al., 2012). Nine interaction hypotheses were explored based on the 3 job demands and 3 job resources. Research evidence largely suggests that work contexts or environments that are very demanding coupled with a lack of job resources create the environment

for workplace bullying to fester due to vulnerability of employees. Only two of the nine interaction hypotheses were supported in the current study. Firstly, the interaction between job insecurity and control was significantly related to workplace bullying. Additionally, the interaction of workload and supervisor social support was significantly related to workplace bullying.

Results from this study lend support to the predictions of the job demands-resources model with regards workplace bullying. Interestingly, job insecurity, a cognitive and affective demand at work was negatively correlated with workplace bullying. This implies that the more workers were faced with job insecurity, the less likely it is that they will report being bullied. This finding may be explained by the nature of the oil and gas industry in Ghana which is characterised by high remunerations and low job security as jobs in this sector are highly sought after. As such, employees who perceive low job security may act in desirable ways to avoid the possibility of losing their jobs. Consequently, these employees may not fall victim of workplace bullying. It may also be argued that high job insecurity and fear of losing one's job may result in employees not reporting bullying episodes using available procedures within their respective organisations. This is not surprising as the high power distance culture in Ghana permeates into the work environment. Consequently, Ghanaian employees may have been socialised to accept and not question the authority of high power individuals including supervisors, managers etc. who perpetuate these negative behaviours at work.

The significant relationship between job resources (control and supervisor social support) and workplace bullying is not unexpected. This is largely consistent with the literature as more job resources have been reported to reduce the incidence of workplace bullying (Goodboy et al., 2017). Colleague social support, however, did not have a significant relationship with workplace bullying in the current study. D'Cruz and Noronha (2011) found that support from colleagues and friends is withdrawn during acts of bullying as these sources of support themselves act as witnesses and are affected by the bullying.

These results support the predictions of the JD-R model. As job demands increase, the likelihood of an employee being a target of workplace bullying increases whereas high job resources tend to prevent the possibility of an

employee being targeted for bullying. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), this is related to employees' energy and motivation. Accordingly, high job demands may deplete energy levels of employees (burnout) whilst the absence of job resources may lead to employee withdrawal from their work (disengagement). This may make them easy targets for bullying. A plausible explanation relates to the violation of existing norms by employees faced with high job demands and low resources. Bullying behaviour by superiors or co-workers therefore, may be a form of retaliation for violating these norms.

With regards the significant interaction hypotheses, for employees with high control (i.e. decision authority and skill discretion) over their jobs, the relationship between job insecurity and workplace bullying was absent. Furthermore, at low and medium levels of control the effects of high job insecurity on workplace bullying reduced significantly. These results are a deviation from research evidence (e.g., Notelaers et al., 2012) suggesting that for high strain jobs (i.e. high demands and low resources), employees are more likely to be bullied compared to low strain jobs (i.e. low demands and high control). This could be attributed to the prevailing context of the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Jobs in this industry are largely scarce and employees work on contracts though these jobs are highly rewarding. As such, employees may put up their best behaviour and effort on the job to ensure their continued employment with their respective organisations. As such, irrespective of the levels of control, employees may engage in expected work behaviours and may not be an easy target and therefore not fall prey to bullying.

Additionally, at low and medium levels of supervisor social support, increased workload was associated with more workplace bullying. For employees reporting high supervisor support, the relationship between workload and workplace bullying was not significant. This finding is consistent with research on the JD-R model which has shown that the negative effect of job demands on outcomes was weaker when employees perceived more job resources and the negative effect of job demands on burnout was stronger when job resources were limited (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; van den Broeck et al., 2011). In this regard, job resources may serve to provide the capacity to deal with high

job demands through a motivational pathway. A supportive supervisor respects an employee's sense of choice and values their voice and initiative at work thus fulfilling an employees' inherent psychological need resulting in intrinsic motivation even when demands of the job are enormous.

Results from this study also lend support to the work environment hypothesis. The work environment hypothesis argues that stressful psychosocial work environments result in workplace bullying (Einarsen et al., 1999; Tuckey et al., 2009). According to Goodboy et al. (2017) employees in such iso-strain workplace environments characterised by high work demands, low control and unsupportive supervisors report higher rates of workplace bullying from co-workers and supervisors. This supports Lutgen-Sandvik et al.'s (2009) analogy of a boiler room in explaining workplace bullying when they assert that high pressure environments at work leads to bullying reinforcing the "boiler room" environments that may perpetuate more bullying behaviours even from co-workers.

6.3 Study 1b: Personal resources as moderators of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship

6.3.1 Introduction

The focus of the JD-R model has been on aspects of work that help achieve goals and objectives within the work environment – that is, job resources. However, recent developments in the field have led to the inclusion of personal resources as a response to an integration of aspects of the Conservation of Resources theory (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) to the JD-R model. Indeed, Schaufeli and Taris (2014) have explored the role of personal resources in the JD-R model as discussed in Chapter 2. However, empirical evidence for the role of personal resources in the health impairment and motivating processes of the JD-R model is inconclusive. Indeed, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2009) showed that personal resources positively and directly affected engagement. Interestingly, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, and Schaufeli (2007) found that self-esteem, optimism and self-efficacy (i.e.

personal resources) did not moderate the job demands – exhaustion relationship.

Adopting a positive psychology approach (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), the current study explored personal variables as moderators of the relationship between workplace bullying (a job demand) and psychological well-being (outcome). The argument put forward is that personal resources may act as a buffer between job demands and outcomes. In this regard, psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance were conceptualised as personal variables and tested as moderators of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. An explanation of the mechanism of moderation is presented in the next section.

6.3.2 Method of analysis - Moderation

The method of analysis or analytical technique used in this study is based on interactive relationships. MacKinnon, Fairchild and Fritz (2007) assert that interactive relationships which typically involve a third intervening variable in the relationship between a predictor and criterion have seen increased use in psychological research. Two types of intervening variables are mediators and moderators. The latter will be discussed as the analytical technique employed in the current study whilst mediation is used in study 3 to be discussed in Section 6.4 of this chapter.

The current study examined if psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance respectively moderated the relationship between workplace bullying behaviours and psychological well-being of employees. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderators tell us the conditions (when and for whom) under which a variable most strongly determines an outcome variable. Indeed, Hair et al. (2010) indicate that moderating or interaction effects occur when the moderating variable (a second predictor) alters the nature of the association between a predictor variable and a criterion variable. As such, testing for moderators or interaction allows for the examination of other variables on which the independent variables' effect on the dependent variable is conditioned on. According to Hayes (2013) moderation describes a situation in which X's effect on Y varies as a function of some third variable M, the

moderator variable. In this regard, a test of moderation clarifies how moderators place constraints on how or when X's effect on Y can function. Moderators have been posited to work in one of three mechanisms. A moderation effect may be (a) enhancing, where increasing the moderator would increase the effect of the predictor (IV) on the outcome (DV); (b) buffering, where increasing the moderator would decrease the effect of the predictor on the outcome; or (c) antagonistic, where increasing the moderator would reverse the effect of the predictor on the outcome (Hayes, 2013).

In the current study, hierarchical multiple regression was employed to assess the effects of each of the four moderating variables (M) on the relationship between workplace bullying (X) and psychological well-being (Y). To test moderation, the focus is on the interacting effect of X and M and when such an effect exists, if it is significant in predicting Y. To do this, an approach based on multiple regression is used. An interaction term is computed by multiplying X and M to create the product term, XM. However, prior to creating this product term, the X and M values are centred on their respective means before the product term is computed. Centering refers to subtracting the mean value from an independent variable. This makes the beta coefficients of X and M more easily understood as it represents the value of X when M is at its' mean and the value of M when X is at its' mean respectively. Furthermore, Aiken and West (1991) have posited that mean-centering reduces multicollinearity between X and M and their product, XM (i.e. the interaction term). Field (2013) argues that this could lead to biased betas, loss of statistical power as well as inflated standard errors as a result of multicollinearity in the interaction term, XM. Another method used as an alternative to the mean-centering approach, is standardisation of scores. In this process, the mean-centered scores are divided by their standard deviation. Whilst this may seem like a better approach as it allows for the comparison of variables on a similar scale, Hayes (2013) has shown that computed statistics do not differ between mean-centered and non-mean-centered models. In the current analysis, the SPSS PROCESS developed by Hayes performed the centering and computed the interaction terms automatically.

To test for moderation, the outcome variable Y is regressed on both the predictor variable X and the moderator variable M. The R^2 for this regression model (block 1) predicting both effects (IV and moderator) must be significant. The interaction term is added to the previous model in (block 2). For there to be an interaction, the interaction term, XM must be significant as well as the R^2 change. Moderation is observed when both XM and R^2 are significant. There is moderation of M on the X-Y relationship when X and M are still significant after the interaction term XM has been added. Complete moderation is said to have occurred when X and M's direct effect on Y becomes non-significant in block 2 when the interaction term, XM is added and is significant.

When there is a significant moderating effect, the direction of the significant interactions effect is tested by means of simple slope analysis. Simple slope analysis is used for the interpretation of the interaction effect when both predictor variables are continuous. An analysis is done to determine the nature of the interaction for low M (i.e. 1 SD below the mean), average M (i.e. at the mean) and high M (i.e. 1 SD above the mean) M in conditions of low (i.e. 1 SD below the mean), average (i.e. at the mean) and high (i.e. 1 SD above the mean) X with respect to Y. These are then plotted graphically. Additionally, the Johnson-Neyman technique (significance region; Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006) indicates the region/points along a continuous moderator, M, at which the observed significant association between X and the Y transitions between being statistically significant to non-significant. This clarifies the nature of the moderation effect of M on the X-Y relationship.

6.3.3 Test of hypotheses

Prior to data analysis, data checks (Chapter 5) and test of assumptions for regression analysis (Chapter 6) were done. The results indicated that there were no missing data and the independent variables were not highly correlated. Additionally, check for outliers using Mahalanobis distance test, Cooks' Distance and Leverage values indicated no extreme values within the data set. Furthermore, the scatter plot of the residuals seemed well distributed and did not raise any concerns.

Following from this, moderation analysis was done using the PROCESS plug-in by Hayes in SPSS version 23. PROCESS automatically centered the independent variable (workplace bullying) and each moderator variable (psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance respectively) and created their interaction term for each analysis. To better examine the effect of a moderating variable, PROCESS also provided an option to generate data for plotting for significant moderators. Simple slope analysis and the Johnson-Neyman significance region were used to clarify the nature of the significant interaction between the IV and moderator.

Four moderation analyses were performed to test the study hypotheses. As such, psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance respectively were entered in four regression models together with the IV, workplace bullying to examine their relationship with psychological well-being. The results of these analyses are presented below.

6.3.4 Results

6.3.4.1 Does psychological capital moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being?

Table 6-3 contains results of the moderation analysis conducted to determine if psychological capital moderated the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. The overall model accounted for 10.7% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [F (3, 322) = 14.015, p = .000, R^2 = .107]. Workplace bullying [t (322) = -4.973, p = .000] and psychological capital [t (322) = 3.021, p = .003] were related to psychological well-being. The interaction term was found to be significant and accounted for an additional 2% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [t (322) = -2.761, p = .006, ΔR^2 = .020].

Table 6-3: Coefficients for psychological capital as a moderator of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship

Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95%	
					LL CI	UL CI
Constant	34.110	.323	105.703	.000	33.475	34.744
Psychological capital	.093	.031	3.021	.003	.033	.154
Workplace bullying	-.053	.011	-4.973	.000	-.073	-.032
WB x PC	-.002	.001	-2.761	.006	-.004	-.001
Low PC	-.026	.014	-1.930	.055	-.053	.001
Average PC	-.053	.011	-4.973	.000	-.073	-.032
High PC	-.079	.015	-5.366	.000	-.107	-.050

R^2 = .107, ΔR^2 = .020; PC = Psychological capital, WB = Workplace bullying

This interaction is illustrated in Fig 6-3. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of workplace bullying at three levels of psychological capital: one standard deviation below the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean. As shown in Table 6-3, workplace bullying was significantly related to psychological well-being when psychological capital was one standard deviation above the mean and when at the mean (p < .001), but not when psychological capital was one standard deviation below the mean (p = .055).

The Johnson-Neyman significance region showed that the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being was significant when psychological capital was greater than .98 standard deviations below the mean but not significant with lower values of psychological capital. Thus, there was a non-significant negative moderating effect when psychological capital was low [t (322) = -1.930, p = .055, CI: 95% -.053 to .001]. This negative effect of psychological capital on the workplace bullying-psychological well-being relationship became significant when psychological capital was average [t(322) = -4.973, p = .000] or high [t(322) = -5.366, p = .000] as seen in Fig 6-3. Thus, psychological capital significantly moderated the workplace bullying - psychological well-being relationship.

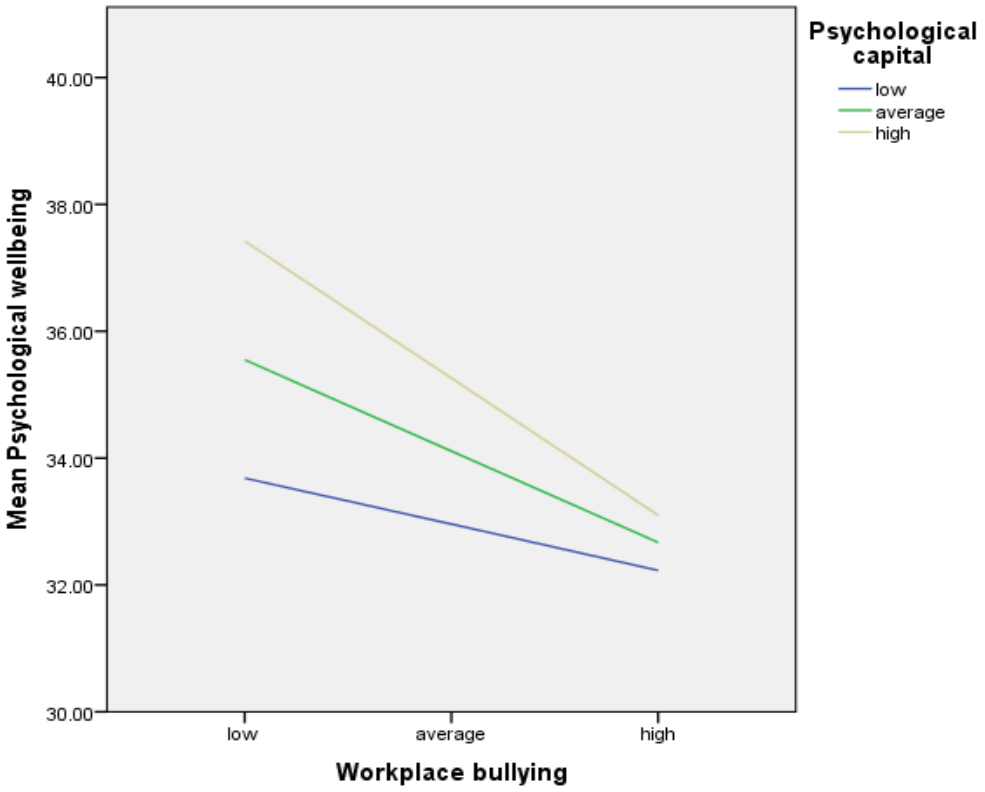


Fig 6-3: Impact of psychological capital on the workplace bullying - psychological well-being relationship

6.3.4.2 Does religiosity moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being?

Table 6-4 contains results of the moderation analysis conducted to determine if religiosity moderated the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. The overall model accounted for 20.7% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [F (3, 322) = 31.140, p = .000, R^2 = .207]. Workplace bullying [t (322) = -5.245, p = .000] and religiosity [t (322) =-4.941, p = .000] were directly related to psychological well-being. The interaction term was found to be significant and accounted for an additional 4.4% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [t (322) = 5.242, p = .006, ΔR^2 = .044].

Table 6-4: Coefficients for religiosity as a moderator of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship

Variable	***b***	***SE***	***t***	***p***	**95%**	
					LL CI	**UL CI**
Constant	33.86	.308	109.910	.000	33.256	34.469
Religiosity	-.547	.111	-4.941	.000	-.765	-.329
Workplace bullying	-.054	.0103	-5.245	.000	-.074	-.034
WB x PC	.021	.004	5.242	.0000	.013	.028
Low REL	-.110	.017	-6.497	.000	-.144	-.077
Average REL	-.054	.010	-5.245	.000	-.074	-.034
High REL	.003	.012	.214	.830	-.022	.027

R^2 = .207, ΔR^2 = .044; REL = Religiosity, WB = Workplace bullying

This interaction is illustrated in Fig 6-4. The interaction was probed by testing the conditional effects of workplace bullying at three levels of religiosity: one standard deviation below the mean, at the mean, and one standard deviation above the mean. As shown in Table 6-4, workplace bullying was significantly related to psychological well-being when religiosity was one standard deviation below the mean and when at the mean ($p < .001$), but not when religiosity was one standard deviation below the mean ($p = .830$).

The Johnson-Neyman significance region showed that the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being was significant when religiosity was less than .59 standard deviations above the mean but not significant with higher values of religiosity. Thus, there was a non-significant effect when religiosity was high [t (322) = .214, $p = .830$, CI: 95% -.022 to .027]. This negative effect of religiosity on the workplace bullying-psychological well-being relationship became significant when religiosity was average [t (322) = -5.245, $p = .000$] or low [t (322) = -6.497, $p = .000$] as seen in Fig 6-4. Thus, religiosity significantly moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.

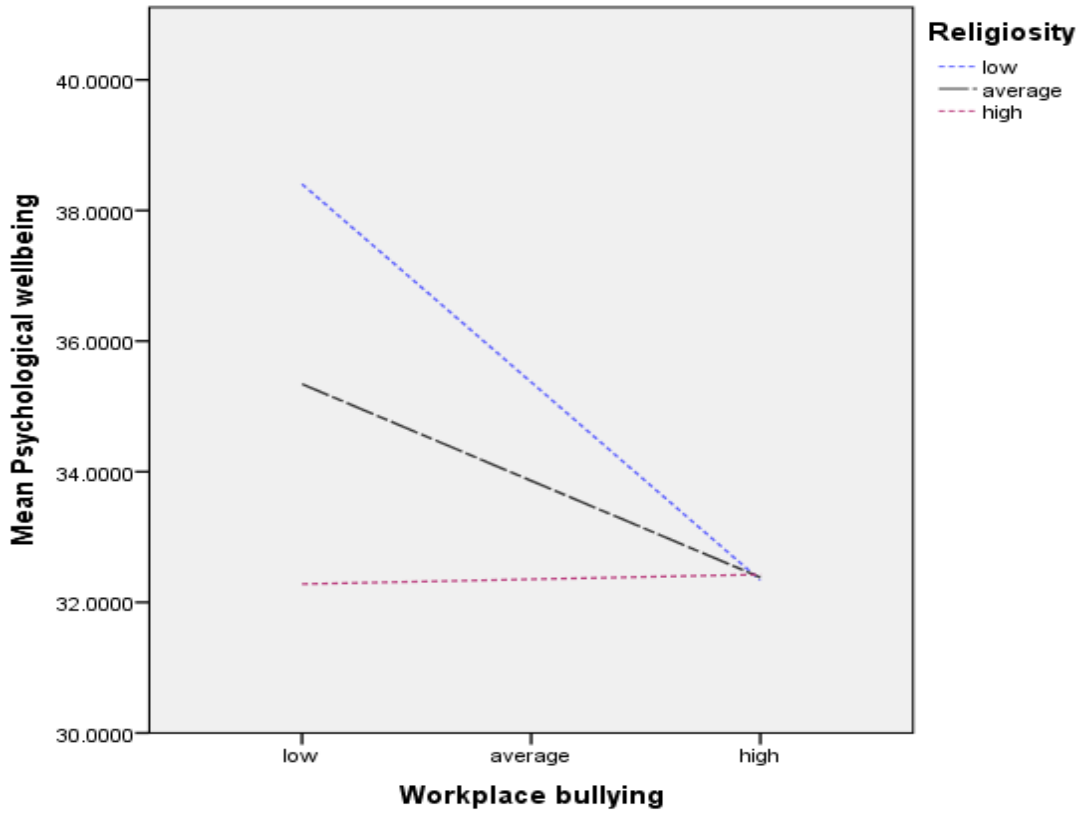


Fig 6-4: Impact of religiosity on the workplace bullying - psychological well-being relationship

6.3.4.3 Does social support moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being?

In Table 6-5, results of the moderation analysis to examine the effect of social support on the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship is presented. The overall model explained 13.3% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [F (3, 322) = 17.681, p = .000, R^2 = .133]. Workplace bullying [t (322) = -5.4646, p = .000] and social support [t (322) = 5.018, p = .000] respectively were directly related to psychological well-being. The interaction term was found to be non-significant and accounted for no additional variance in psychological well-being scores [t (322) = .060, p = .952, ΔR^2 = .000]. As such, there was no need to probe the interaction by testing for conditional effects of workplace bullying at different levels of social support. Consequently, social support did not moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.

Table 6-5: Coefficients for social support as a moderator of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship

Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95%	
					LL CI	UL CI
Constant	34.288	.322	106.506	.000	33.654	34.921
Social support	.177	.035	5.018	.000	.108	.246
Workplace bullying	-.071	.013	-5.465	.000	-.097	-.046
WB x SS	.000	.002	.060	.952	-.003	.003

R^2 = .133, ΔR^2 = .000; SS = Social support, WB = Workplace bullying

6.3.4.4 Does power distance moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being?

In Table 6-6, results of the moderation analysis to examine the effect of power distance on the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship is presented. The overall model accounted for 7.8% of the variance in psychological well-being scores [F (3, 322) = 11.183, p = .000, R^2 = .078]. Workplace bullying [t (322) = -5.373, p = .000] was directly related to psychological well-being. Power distance was not related to psychological well-being [t (322) = -1.764, p = .079]. Furthermore, the interaction term was found to be non-significant and accounted for no additional variance in psychological well-being scores [t (322) = .285, p = .776, ΔR^2 = .000]. Consequently, power distance did not moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.

Table 6-6: Coefficients for power distance as a moderator of the workplace bullying – Psychological well-being relationship

Variable	*b*	*SE*	*t*	*p*	95%	
					LL CI	UL CI
Constant	34.319	.332	103.268	.000	33.665	34.972
Power distance	-.106	.060	-1.764	.079	-.225	.012
Workplace bullying	-.062	.0112	-5.373	.000	-.084	-.039
WB x PDIST	.0006	.002	.285	.776	-.003	.005

R^2 = .078, ΔR^2 = .000; PDIST = Power distance, WB = Workplace bullying

6.3.5 Discussion

Workplace bullying is an extreme negative stressor that has the potential to affect the health and well-being of employees targeted by perpetrators. Additionally, workplace bullying may have negative consequences for the organisation, witnesses and significant others. In the current study, workplace bullying was related to psychological well-being of employees. Results indicated that employees' psychological well-being was negatively affected when there was an experience of workplace bullying. Furthermore, researchers have increasingly become interested in how to use personal resources available to individuals to deal with the negative effects of stressors like bullying at work (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). Some personal resources examined in the current study to ascertain if they moderated the workplace bullying-psychological well-being relationship include psychological capital, religiosity, social support and power distance (a facet of culture). Results from this study, supported the hypotheses that psychological capital and religiosity respectively significantly moderated the negative effect of workplace bullying on psychological well-being. Additionally, in the current study, social support and power distance respectively did not significantly moderate the workplace bullying-psychological well-being relationship.

The finding that workplace bullying was negatively associated with psychological well-being largely supports research findings (Einarsen & Nielsen, 2014; Gardner & Rasmussen, 2018; Laschinger & Nosko, 2015). This finding is also consistent with predictions of the health impairment process of the job demands-resources model, which results from demanding jobs that deplete the cognitive and physical resources of the employee. As such, employees' continuous exposure to workplace bullying results in an inability to function normally at work. This extreme stressor faced by employees leads to poor psychological health and other negative outcomes for the individual and the organisation. This is particularly worrying for employees in offshore installations in the oil and gas industry in Ghana where the nature of the high-risk environment they work in predisposes them to accidents, near misses and other safety breaches. As such, increased workplace bullying and its associated

negative psychological effects may present a risk for those working in such installations.

Psychological capital, a second order construct was found to moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Results indicate that average to high PsyCap buffered the negative effects of workplace bullying on psychological well-being. This finding is largely consistent with previous studies in the literature. Avey et al. (2009) for example found that PsyCap moderated the relationship between work stress and turnover intentions. Similarly, Roberts et al. (2011) found that PsyCap buffered the effects of stress on workplace incivility. Workplace bullying, as an extreme stressor, places demands on employees' cognitive and physical resources. As such PsyCap can be conceptualised as a valuable personal resource available to employees to deal with the negative consequences of workplace bullying on their health and well-being. In line with the job demands-resource model, personal resources serve as part of resources that promote employee health and well-being.

The buffering role of PsyCap in coping with negative stressors may be rooted in its relationship with well-being. Indeed, research shows that PsyCap relates to satisfaction with health, work, relationships, and life in general (Luthans et al., 2013) as well as with psychological well-being (Mensah & Amponsah-Tawiah, 2016). According to Luthans and Youssef-Morgan (2017), PsyCap and its component positive psychological resources are fundamentally grounded on agency, intentionality and personal control of motivation and effort. This is explained through the process of conation defined by Huitt (1999) as "the personal, intentional, planful, deliberate, goal-oriented, or striving component of motivation, the proactive (as opposed to reactive or habitual) aspect of behaviour… It is closely associated with the concept of volition, defined as the use of will, or the freedom to make choices about what to do" (p. 3). As such, individuals with high PsyCap, intentionally make positive choices in times of adversity. Using strategies such as positive cognitive appraisals to mentally reinterpret potentially negative situations such as workplace bullying, may be instrumental in protecting one's well-being. The buffering effect of PsyCap may be attributable to its focus on positive emotions rather than on the negative in

times of crisis. According to Fredrickson (2009), these positive emotions replenish depleted physical, social, and psychological resources.

Practically, PsyCap, i.e. the additive effects of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience accounts for differences in cognitive and emotional responses of employees high in PsyCap and those low in PsyCap. For example, an employee with low PsyCap may react to bullying experience with negative emotions whereas employees high in PsyCap would not, because of resilience. As such, the negative effects of workplace bullying on psychological well-being may be less pronounced for employees with high PsyCap as compared to those with low PsyCap due to the facilitation and deployment of goal-directed energy leading to positive psychological functioning.

The finding that religiosity moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and well-being was not unexpected. Religiosity, in this study, was conceptualised as the strength of religious faith and can be considered a personal resource that may sustain motivation in negative situations. This finding is consistent with previous research that showed that religiosity is instrumental in coping with major stressors including workplace bullying (Arnetz et al., 2013; Azizan & Razlina, 2015; Park, 2005; Park & Folkman, 1997). However, the nature of this interaction is quite interesting. Indeed, the simple slope analysis of the significant moderation effect indicated that whereas low to average religiosity buffered the negative effect of workplace bullying on employee psychological well-being, high religiosity did not buffer this relationship. This finding further extends our understanding of the role of religiosity in coping with negative stressors by flagging high religiosity as not necessarily a desired resource.

In this regard, Schreurs et al. (2014) found that religion had an exacerbating rather than buffering effect on the relationship between job insecurity and outcomes such that the negative effect of job insecurity was weaker for employees with low levels of religiousness compared to highly religious employees. In the current study, the fact that high religiosity did not have a significant effect on the workplace bullying – well-being relationship may be attributed to the characteristics of highly religious individuals. Being religious may provide coping mechanisms for emotional regulation, searching for

meaning, receiving social support and feeling in control following traumatic experiences like workplace bullying indicating support for religiosity as a resource in the context of the job demands – resources model. However, higher levels of religiosity may act as a demand for employees due to the centrality of work to such individuals and the embedded sense of self-worth as a result of their work. As such, workplace bullying may affect highly religious individuals' well-being when they perceive that their religious beliefs instruct followers to surrender control to powerful others (Exline, 2002) which may include the supervisor and/or managers who may be perpetrating the bullying act. Consequently, highly religious people may be more accepting of bullying behaviours as part of 'God's plan' in a 'just world' (Lerner, 1978) rendering them more powerless than others with low to average religiosity.

Social support did not moderate the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. It was however observed that social support had a significant positive relationship with psychological well-being. Interestingly, results from the moderation analysis indicate that the more social support an employee has, the more likely it is that they will be bullied. This finding is inconsistent with research by Hansen et al. (2006) who found that victims of bullying reported less support from co-workers. Additionally, findings from this study contradict previous research (e.g., Bhui et al., 2017; Djurkovic et al., 2008; Finchilescu et al., 2018) that found that social support was instrumental in coping with the negative effects of workplace bullying and thus reduces the potential threat to an individual's psychological well-being.

Another plausible explanation for social support not moderating the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship can be attributed to the societal context in Ghana. According to Hofstede (1980), Ghana is a collectivist culture and as such the focus is on the needs of the group which includes family, kinsmen, friends and the community. As such, social support may be a currency readily and widely available to employees in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Perceived social support may thus not differ across different employees.

Similarly, power distance did not significantly buffer the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Whilst it was

intuitively justified to include power distance as a moderator of the relationship, the results from this study point to the fact that irrespective of the power distance characteristic of a specific culture, workplace bullying may affect psychological well-being. In Ghana, a high-power distance culture, societal members may accept the unequal distribution of power and authority in relationships with employees abiding to authoritarian norms and doing what they are told.

6.4 Study 1c: Psychological well-being as a mediator in the relationship between workplace bullying and individual and organisational outcomes

6.4.1 Introduction

Having established the numerous negative outcomes of workplace bullying to the individual and the organisation in Chapter 2, it is very necessary for organisations to proactively prevent bullying from occurring anywhere in the organisation and to take remedial steps to ameliorate its negative effects where it has already occurred. In this regard, an understanding of the explanatory mechanisms linking bullying to outcomes is needed. As such, this study to examine the role of psychological well-being in the bullying – outcomes relationship in a different context (i.e. oil and gas industry) and a different culture (Ghana) is necessary and timely to further enhance our understanding of the bullying phenomenon.

Extending the predictions of the job demands-resources model to bullying, it is plausible to conceive burnout and engagement as proximal psychological outcomes (indicating well-being) that may mediate between workplace bullying (a demand) and individual and organisational outcomes. As such, the health impairment process of the JD-R model may explain how bullying at work (a demand) may positively be associated with burnout and turnover intentions respectively via poor psychological well-being by depleting cognitive and physical resources available to the employee who is bullied. Additionally, the motivational process of the JD-R model may be responsible for the negative relationship between workplace bullying and positive outcomes (engagement, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) via a state of poor psychological well-being. The mechanism at work in the motivational

process leading to psychological well-being is related directly to the availability of job and personal resources as explained in Chapters 2 and 5.

6.4.2 Method of analysis - Mediation

A mediator is conceptualised as a variable that accounts for the relationship between a predictor and an outcome. Mediation denotes a situation where the independent variables' effect on the dependent variable can best be explained through the effect of a third mediator variable. Instead of X directly affecting Y, X is causing the mediator M, and M is in turn causing Y. As such the effect of X on Y works through M. According to Hair et al. (2010), direct and indirect effects can be presented in a structural model. When a variable is linked to another through a relationship with each other, it is called a *direct effect. Indirect effects* are characterised by a sequence of relationships with at least one intervening variable explaining the relationship between 2 other related variables. This section will explain the traditional process of mediation, followed by an introduction to contemporary methods used to test for mediation.

6.4.2.1 The traditional approach to mediation

The traditional approach to mediation analysis was proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). In their classical work, they described four steps to assess mediation and this is referred to as the causal steps approach. In this approach, the process of confirming the mediating role of a third variable M, and its significance in the model, starts off by demonstrating that while the mediator, M is caused by the initial independent variable, X and is a cause of the dependent variable, Y, X-Y loses its significance (or is meaningfully reduced) when the mediator is included in the model. Specifically, the four steps to test the three equations involved in a test of mediation according to Baron and Kenny are as follows:

In the first equation, a significant relation of X to Y is required ($X \rightarrow Y$) i.e. path c.

Then, a significant relationship between X and the hypothesized mediating variable, M is required in Equation 3 ($X \rightarrow M$) i.e. path a.

Subsequently, the mediating variable, M must be significantly related to Y when both X and M are predictors of Y in Equation 2 ($M|X \rightarrow Y$) i.e. path b.

Finally, the relationship between X and Y must become insignificant or reduce substantially when the mediator variable, M is included in the regression model (X|M → Y) i.e. path c'.

These steps are shown in the path diagram in Fig 6-5. In a path diagram, each arrow denotes a causal relationship between two variables to which a coefficient is assigned. These coefficients represent the standardised regression coefficients (betas) showing the magnitude and direction of the effect of one variable on the other.

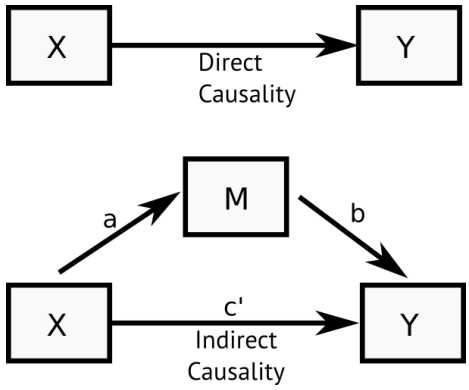


Fig 6-5: Path diagram showing direct and indirect relationships in a mediational model

The causal steps approach is not without limitations. Indeed, mediation analysis using this has been widely criticised in the literature (e.g., Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007; MacKinnon, Fairchild, &. Fritz, 2007; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). These scholars have shown that mediation analysis using the causal steps approach results in low statistical power, inability to detect suppression effects and inflated Type 1 error among other criticisms. Indeed, MacKinnon et al. (2002, 2004) in a simulation study of 14 methods to assess mediated effects, found very low power to detect mediated effects as well as low type I error rates using the causal steps method.

A plausible explanation of the low power to detect mediation (especially with complete mediations) when using this method is related to the requirement that the relationship between X and Y be significant. Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) sought to use empirical approaches to compute required sample size for a

statistical power of 0.8 to detect a mediated effect with small effect size values of the a and b path. Results showed that they required approximately 21,000 participants for the causal steps test. Consequently, an increase in the size of the direct effect results in increased power to detect mediation using this approach as it approximates power to detect mediation by testing whether both path a and paths b are statistically significant.

In this regard, cases exist where an insignificant relationship between X and Y is found even when significant mediation exists (MacKinnon et al., 2007). As such, these researchers argued that a significant path a, is not a requirement for step 1 of the causal steps method as it decreases the statistical power to detect mediation effects. To deal with this shortcoming of the causal steps approach to mediation and to address these sampling problems, resampling methods and methods based on the distribution of the product of paths *ab* have been proposed as the method of choice for testing for mediation effects.

6.4.2.2 Resampling methods

Resampling methods use the observed data to generate a reference distribution, estimate confidence intervals and test for significance. An increasingly popular resampling method for testing the indirect effect in a mediation analysis is bootstrapping (Bollen & Stine, 1990; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Bootstrapping is a non-parametric method based on resampling with replacement, which is done many times, e.g. 1000 times. Indirect effects are computed for each sample and a sampling distribution generated empirically. Since the mean of the bootstrapped distribution may differ from the indirect effect, a correction bias is usually made. The bootstrapping method allows computation of a *p* value, standard error and a confidence interval. Most studies compute the confidence interval to test if the indirect effect is significantly different from zero. If the confidence interval does not include zero, then there is confidence that the indirect effect differs from zero.

The decision to use the bias corrected bootstrap method or the parallel bootstrap depends on the intended outcome and the priorities of the researcher. Hayes and Scharkow (2013) suggest that the parallel bootstrap method be used

when the concern is the type I error rate whereas the bias corrected bootstrapping method will help deal with the issues of low statistical power.

6.4.2.3 Complete versus partial mediation

Researchers are interested in understanding the nature of the mediation effect of M between X and Y. As such, they check for whether the relationship between X and Y is completely accounted for by the mediator. If the c` coefficient is statistically insignificant when X and M are included in the model, then there is full mediation. However, a significant c` coefficient when X and M are included in the model to predict Y indicates a significant partial mediation (James et al., 2006).

6.4.3 Test of hypotheses

Data checks (Chapter 5) and test of assumptions for regression analysis (Chapter 6) were done. Additionally, all variables were assumed to be measured on a continuous scale. In terms of normality, all variables were assumed to follow a normal distribution with the relationship between the variables assumed to be linear. Furthermore, the errors associated with each observation did not correlate significantly with any other observation i.e. the expected correlation between residuals, for any two cases, is 0 indicating a lack of autocorrelation.

Analysis was done using SPSS version 23 employing the PROCESS plug in. To test the 5 mediation effects individually, the model Number was set to 4 in SPSS Process. To better examine the effects of each mediating variable, four options (Effect size, Sobel test, Total effect model, and Compare indirect effects) were selected. Additionally, to formally test these meditational paths, 95% confidence intervals and standard errors were computed from 5000 bootstrap samples using Bias corrected bootstrapping (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). As discussed earlier, mediation (i.e. indirect) effects are said to be significant when confidence intervals (CI) exclude zero.

All five hypotheses were tested individually. To test for indirect effects, the Sobel test was used to test the significance of the reduction in the effect of X when M is included in the model and as such whether the mediation effect is statistically significant. Additionally, the Kappa Squared was computed as a

measure of effect size for each mediation model (Preacher & Kelly, 2011). The results for the mediation analysis are presented next.

6.4.4 Results

6.4.4.1 Does psychological well-being mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement?

The results of the mediation analysis (Fig. 6-6 and Table 6-7) showed that workplace bullying was associated with psychological well-being [*b* = -.057, *t* (324) = -4.866, *p* = .000] accounting for 6.9% (R^2= .069) of the variance. Workplace bullying was also related to engagement [*b* = -.039, *t* (323) = -6.866, *p* = .000] in the mediation analysis. Psychological well-being was found to significantly relate to engagement [*b* = .062, *t* (323) = 2.341, *p* = .020], and significantly decreased the effect of workplace bullying on engagement (from -.039 to -.035).

Table 6-7: Mediational model coefficients for psychological well-being as a mediator in the workplace bullying – engagement relationship

Variable	**Outcome**									
	Psychological well-being					*Engagement*				
	b	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***	***b***	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***
Workplace bullying	-.057	.012	-4.866	.000	*a*	-.0035	.006	-6.079	.000	*c`*
	-	-	-	-		-.039	.006	-6.886	.000	*c*
Psychological well-being	-	-	-	-		.062	.027	2.341	.020	*b*

Thus, psychological well-being was a significant mediator since the Bootstrapping confidence interval did not include zero (indirect effect *b* = -.0035; 95% BCa CI [-.0078, -.0003]). The Sobel test revealed a significant difference between the mentioned coefficients above (*Z* = -2.075, *p* = .0380). Preacher and Kelley (2011) Kappa-squared was κ^2= .033. κ^2 is bounded to fall between 0 and 1, so it can be interpreted as the indirect effect being about 3.3% of the maximum value that it could have been, which represents a small effect size. Consequently, the results demonstrate that psychological well-being is a partial mediator of the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement.

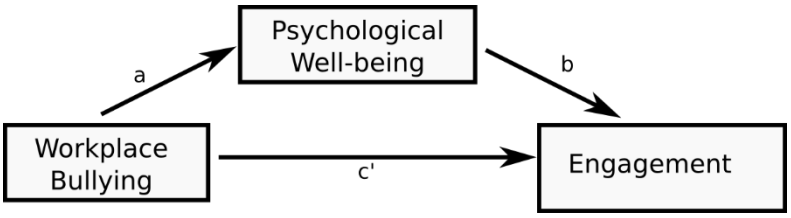


Fig 6-6: Observed relationships between workplace bullying, psychological well-being and engagement

6.4.4.2 Does psychological well-being mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and burnout?

The results of the mediation analysis (Fig 6-7 and Table 6-8) showed that workplace bullying was related to psychological well-being [*b* = -.057, *t*(324) = -4.866, *p* = .000] accounting for 6.9% (R^2= .069) of the variance. Workplace bullying also was associated with burnout [*b* = .015, *t* (323) = 3.416, *p* = .006] in the mediation analysis. Psychological well-being was also found to significantly relate to burnout [*b* = -.127, *t* (323) = -6.431, *p* = .000], and decreased the effect of workplace bullying on burnout (from .015 to .008).

Table 6-8: Mediational model coefficients for psychological well-being as a mediator in the workplace bullying – burnout relationship

Variable	Outcome									
	Psychological well-being					***Burnout***				
	b	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***	***b***	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***
Workplace bullying	-.057	.012	-4.866	.000	*a*	.008	.004	1.814	.001	*c`*
	-	-	-	-		.015	.004	3.416	.006	*c*
Psychological well-being	-	-	-	-		-.127	.020	-6.431	.000	*b*

Thus, psychological well-being was a significant mediator since the bootstrapping confidence interval did not include zero (indirect effect *b* = .0072, 95% BCa CI [.0041, .0111]). The Sobel test also revealed a significant difference between the mentioned coefficients above (*Z* = 3.851, *p* = .000). A Kappa-Squared of κ^2= .090 represents a medium effect size (Preacher & Kelley,

2011). Consequently, the results demonstrate that psychological well-being is a partial mediator of the relationship between workplace bullying and burnout.

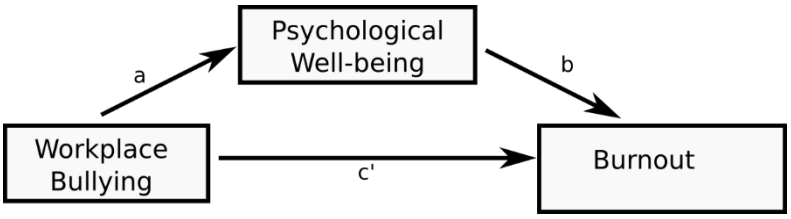


Fig 6-7: Observed relationships between workplace bullying, psychological well-being and burnout

6.4.4.3 Does psychological well-being mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and organisational commitment?

The results of the mediation analysis (Table 6-9) showed that workplace bullying was associated with psychological well-being [b = -.057, t (324) = -4.866, p = .000] accounting for 6.9% (R^2= .069) of the variance. Workplace bullying was significantly related to organisational commitment [b = -.011, t (323) = -2.434, p = .016] in the mediation analysis. However, psychological well-being did not significantly relate to organisational commitment [b = .039, t (323) = 1.872, p = .062], and decreased the effect of workplace bullying on organisational commitment (from -.011 to -.008) though this reduction was not significant. Thus, psychological well-being did not significantly mediate the workplace bullying - organisational commitment relationship since the Bootstrapping confidence interval included zero (indirect effect b = -.0022, 95% BCa CI [-.005 to .000]). This was further confirmed by an insignificant Sobel test (Z = -1.7158, p = .086).

Table 6-9: Mediational model coefficients for psychological well-being as a mediator in the workplace bullying – organisational commitment relationship

Variable	Outcome									
	Psychological well-being					***Organisational commitment***				
	b	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***	***b***	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***
Workplace bullying	-.057	.012	-4.866	.000	*a*	-.008	.005	-1.869	.063	*c`*
	-	-	-	-		-.011	.004	-2.434	.016	*c*
Psychological well-being	-	-	-	-		.039	.021	1.872	.062	*b*

6.4.4.4 Does psychological well-being mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intentions?

The results of the mediation analysis (Table 6-10) showed that workplace bullying was related to psychological well-being [*b* = -.057, *t* (324) = -4.866, *p* = .000] accounting for 6.9% (R^2= .069) of the variance. Workplace bullying was significantly associated with turnover intentions [*b* = .031, *t* (323) = 5.158, *p* = .000] in the mediation analysis. However, psychological well-being did not significantly relate to turnover intentions [*b* = .032, *t* (323) = 1.100, *p* = .272], and did not decrease the effect of workplace bullying on turnover intentions.

Table 6-10: Mediational model coefficients for psychological well-being as a mediator in the workplace bullying – turnover intentions relationship

Variable	Outcome									
	Psychological well-being					***Turnover intentions***				
	b	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***	***b***	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***
Workplace bullying	-.057	.012	-4.866	.000	*a*	.033	.006	5.268	.000	*c`*
	-	-	-	-		.031	.006	5.158	.000	*c*
Psychological well-being	-	-	-	-		.032	.029	1.100	.272	*b*

Thus, psychological well-being did not significantly mediate the workplace bullying – turnover intentions relationship since the Bootstrapping confidence interval included zero (indirect effect *b* = -.0018, 95% BCa CI [-.005 to .001]). This was further confirmed by an insignificant Sobel test (*Z* = -1.0524, *p* = .293).

6.4.4.5 Does psychological well-being mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction?

The results of the mediation analysis (Fig 6-8 and Table 6-11) showed that workplace bullying was significantly related to psychological well-being [*b* = -.057, *t* (324) = -4.866, *p* = .000] accounting for 6.9% (R^2= .069) of the variance. Workplace bullying was also associated with job satisfaction [*b* = -.010, *t* (323) = -4.525, *p* = .000] in the mediation analysis.

Table 6-11: Mediational model coefficients for psychological well-being as a mediator in the workplace bullying – job satisfaction relationship

Variable	Outcome									
	Psychological well-being					***Job satisfaction***				
	b	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***	***b***	**SE**	***t***	***p***	***path***
Workplace bullying	-.057	.012	-4.866	.000	*a*	-.007	.002	-2.948	.003	*c`*
	-	-	-	-		-.010	.002	-4.525	.000	*c*
Psychological well-being	-	-	-	-		.066	.010	6.441	.000	*b*

Psychological well-being was also found to significantly relate to job satisfaction [*b* = .066, *t* (323) = 6.441, *p* = .000], and decreased the effect of workplace bullying on job satisfaction (from -.010 to -.007). Thus, psychological well-being was a significant mediator of the workplace bullying – job satisfaction relationship since the Bootstrapping confidence interval did not include zero (indirect effect *b* = -.0037, 95% BCa CI [-.0059 to -.0021]). The Sobel test also revealed a significant difference between the mentioned coefficients above (*Z* = -3.853, *p* = .000). A medium effect size of K^2= .089 was found. Consequently, the results demonstrate that psychological well-being is a partial mediator of the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction.

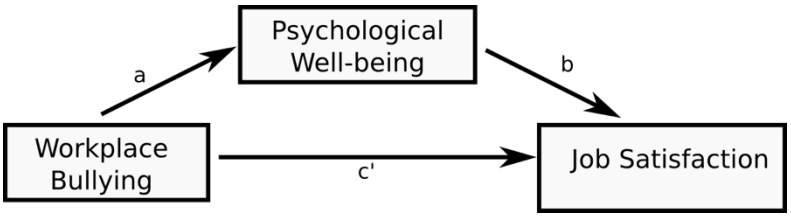


Fig 6-8: Observed relationships between workplace bullying, psychological well-being and job satisfaction

6.4.5 Discussion

The aim of this study was to explore psychological well-being as a psychological variable capable of explaining the well-established link among workplace bullying and individual and organisational outcomes respectively. The hypothesised model posited that bullying at work negatively affected work engagement, organisational commitment and job satisfaction respectively by decreasing psychological well-being. Accordingly, employee increased perception of workplace bullying was associated with decreased psychological well-being, which in turn reduced reported work engagement, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Results from this study using a sample of Ghanaian workers in the oil and gas sector revealed that psychological well-being partially mediated the effect of workplace bullying on work engagement and job satisfaction respectively but not organisational commitment.

Additionally, workplace bullying was hypothesised to positively relate to burnout and turnover intentions via well-being. In this regard, workplace bullying affects psychological well-being negatively, which then results in, increased burnout and turnover intentions. The hypothesis that psychological well-being will mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and burnout was partially supported in this study. However, well-being did not mediate the workplace bullying-turnover intention relationship. These findings are critical to help clarify the explanatory mechanism by which workplace bullying affects organisational and individual outcomes. These findings are discussed within the framework of the job demands – resources model.

6.4.5.1 Bullying leads to poor health

Consistent with the health impairment path/process of the JD-R model, workplace bullying may affect its victims negatively and over time leading to emotional exhaustion, powerlessness, cynicism, and withdrawal behaviours (Trepanier et al., 2014). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job demands or stressors such as workplace bullying, which are indicative of negative and demanding aspects of the psychosocial work environment, trigger physiological and psychological compensatory stimulation to counter the stress from the bullying experience. As this bullying experience becomes prolonged and escalates, the cognitive, psychological and physical resources available to the employee to cope with this negative stressor is over-taxed and gets depleted. This may result in burnout and intentions to leave the organisation. This is consistent with findings in past research (Berthelsen et al., 2012; Djurkovic et al., 2004; Houshmand et al., 2012; Sheehan et al., 2018). Indeed, Giorgi et al. (2016) found that workplace bullying was associated with burnout.

As the bullying experience continues, the victim may attempt to address the situation by possibly confronting the perpetrator (an active coping strategy). Zapf and Gross (2001) assert that this coping strategy may not be an effective approach to dealing with bullying at work. This is because the process of confronting the bully may be as resource-depleting as the actual bullying experience. The bullied employee may thus settle for more passive coping strategies in the absence of organisational policies and procedures to deal with bullying. As such, the employee may become withdrawn and harbour intentions to leave the organisation and may finally do so if possible (Lee & Brotheridge, 2006).

Following from this, the indirect link between workplace bullying and burnout via psychological well-being is not surprising. The constant bullying experience and depleted resources to cope with the bullying will result in a state of poor mental health for the bullied employee. As such, having poor mental health over a long time due to anxiety about the next bullying experience and a “continuous state of worrying and rumination is likely to over activate victims’ emotional resources, leading to emotional exhaustion and cynicism” (dimensions of burnout; Trepanier et al., 2014, p. 8). An employee’s

psychological state of well-being did not mediate the relationship between workplace bullying and turnover intentions. As such, consistent with previous studies in the literature, the effect of workplace bullying on employees' intention to leave their organisations is direct and may be unrelated to their well-being. It must however, be noted that though employees may have an intention to leave their organisations, they may never carry out this intention due to the centrality of work to employees in Ghana coupled with the scarcity of well-paid jobs as those in the oil and gas sector in Ghana.

6.4.5.2 Bullying thwarts employee motivation

The hypotheses that psychological well-being will mediate the effect of workplace bullying on work engagement and job satisfaction respectively were supported. This suggests that the effect of workplace bullying on employees' engagement and satisfaction is less direct and that the psychological well-being of employees' accounts for the observed relationships. From the perspective of the JD-R model, these results support the motivational process or pathway. As discussed earlier, the JD-R model posits that the positive outcomes for the organisation include commitment, satisfaction and performance as a result of the motivational path. At the individual level, employees feel a sense of well-being and mastery (Bakken & Torp, 2012). Employees feel motivated amid job demands based on the availability of resources at the personal and organisational level. The key issue here that determines if the employee faced with bullying will become disengaged and/or dissatisfied at work has to do with the resources available to deal with these stresses and how such coping strategies are effective to ensure psychological well-being.

In this regard, workplace bullying acts as an extreme stressor that depletes the resources available to the employee. Consistent with the Differentiated Job Demands-Resources Model (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010), workplace bullying may act as a job hindrance (i.e. stressful demands that can frustrate learning and goal attainment), that may thwart the positive outcomes including work engagement and job satisfaction because of poor psychological health (Trepanier et al., 2013; van den Broeck et al., 2011). According to Crawford et al. (2010), though job challenges (i.e. stressful demands like cognitive demands and workload, which can stimulate mastery

and personal growth) may deplete an employee's resources and energy, these are surmountable and serve to satisfy employees' psychological needs. This may not be the same for job hindrances that are particularly harmful for employee engagement and other outcomes like job satisfaction. As such, an employee with an appropriate level of challenges on the job coupled with job and personal resources may benefit from enhanced health and well-being that will motivate and sustain their engagement at work and lead to other desired outcomes. On the contrary, job hindrances like workplace bullying will diminish available resources and lead to poor psychological well-being resulting in disengagement and dissatisfaction at work.

Results also showed that psychological well-being did not mediate between workplace bullying and organisational commitment. Workplace bullying had a significant direct inverse relationship with organisational commitment (McCormack, et al., 2009; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). However, the relationship between psychological well-being and organisational commitment was not significant. This finding was unexpected as research shows that committed employees who invest more time and effort to the job and organisation, have a stronger adverse reaction to negative acts such as workplace bullying as they have heightened expectations of reciprocal fair treatment from the organisation and its actors (Salin & Notelaers, 2017). A violation of these expectations through workplace bullying therefore may result in lower commitment to the organisation without interfering with one's well-being due to the affective nature of organisational commitment.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented the findings of the three elements of the quantitative study employed in this thesis. Results generally indicate that the job demands-resources model is applicable to workplace bullying research. Study 1a found that job demands, and resources were associated with workplace bullying. Results in study 1b also showed that the interaction effect of some job demands, and resources were related to workplace bullying. Additionally, results from study 1b showed that psychological capital and religiosity

respectively moderated the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Finally, psychological well-being mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement, burnout and job satisfaction respectively in study 1c.

The next chapter contains a general discussion of the thesis findings and seeks to integrate the finding from the qualitative study in Chapter 4, the validation study of the NAQ-R in Chapter 5 and the quantitative study in this chapter. Limitations of the studies as well as implications and recommendations for theory and practice are also presented.

Chapter 7 General Discussion, Limitations and Implications of Findings

7.1 Introduction

The aim of the present research was to explore the phenomenon of workplace bullying in Ghana. Specifically, the study was set within the burgeoning oil and gas industry in Ghana. The specific aims of this doctoral thesis were to gain a holistic and complete understanding of the experience of workplace bullying in this sector. In this regard, a mixed methods design was utilised, and specific objectives were tested in an equal weight qualitative study preceding three quantitative studies. The specific objectives set out for this doctoral thesis were to:

a) understand employees' experience of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry;
b) examine what factors are associated with workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry by conceptualising specific job demands and resources, in line with the jobs demands-resources model as antecedents of workplace bullying within the framework of Einarsen et al.'s (2011) comprehensive model of workplace bullying;
c) explain the role of personal resources in the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being;
d) explore how workplace bullying is related to individual and organisational outcomes.

This final chapter in this doctoral thesis will present the final empirical model based on the research findings. This will be followed by a discussion of key findings from both the qualitative and quantitative studies. This is in line with recommendations by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) that in mixed methods design, the findings and conclusions from both the qualitative and quantitative studies should be integrated. In addition, a detailed commentary on the limitations and strengths of the studies as well as the implications of the findings for policy and practice will be presented. Finally, the chapter will present the overall conclusions of this thesis and the way forward.

7.2 Final research model

Various models have sought to explain the antecedents, process and consequences of workplace bullying. In the current thesis, the prescriptive comprehensive model of workplace bullying by Einarsen and colleagues was adopted as a robust model to help explain the workplace bullying phenomenon. Aspects of this model with regards the target or victim of workplace bullying were empirically tested in 3 elements of the quantitative study. Prior to this, a qualitative study was conducted using in-depth semi-structured interviews to understand the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Significant emerging issues from the qualitative study were introduced as additional variables into the analytical model to be tested quantitatively. Owing to the need to understand behaviour from the perspective of people's lived experiences, the qualitative study was key to presenting a complete picture of bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

To this end, the qualitative study identified various causes of workplace bullying including perceived racial discrimination, power imbalance, culture and victim personality. These bullying behaviours took the form of mainly work-related bullying behaviours like denial of accomplishments, work overload and lack of voice. Additionally, personal-related bullying behaviours such as threats, intimidation and coercion were used by perpetrators to frustrate their victims. These behaviours negatively affected the employees and the organisation. Employees coped with such negative behaviours and their consequences by seeking support from friends, family and significant others including co-workers as well as religious coping. Additionally, organisational support in the form of anti-bullying policies and grievance procedures helped participants deal with bullying at work.

The first part of the quantitative study showed that employees were faced with a very stressful work environment with workload and work pace respectively significantly positively related to workplace bullying. Supervisor social support and job control were negatively significantly related to workplace bullying.

In the second quantitative phase, workplace bullying was shown to be related with psychological well-being. Personal resources were beneficial in buffering this relationship. Indeed, psychological capital and religiosity were significant moderators of the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being.

Finally, the effect of workplace bullying on individual and organisational outcomes was shown to be indirect and mediated by one's psychological well-being. As such, psychological well-being partially mediated the relationship between workplace bullying and engagement, burnout and job satisfaction respectively.

Fig 7-1 presents a visual representation of the results of the three elements of the quantitative study integrated into a model. This model shows the significant associations between study variables with all 3 elements of the quantitative studies coming together in the model.

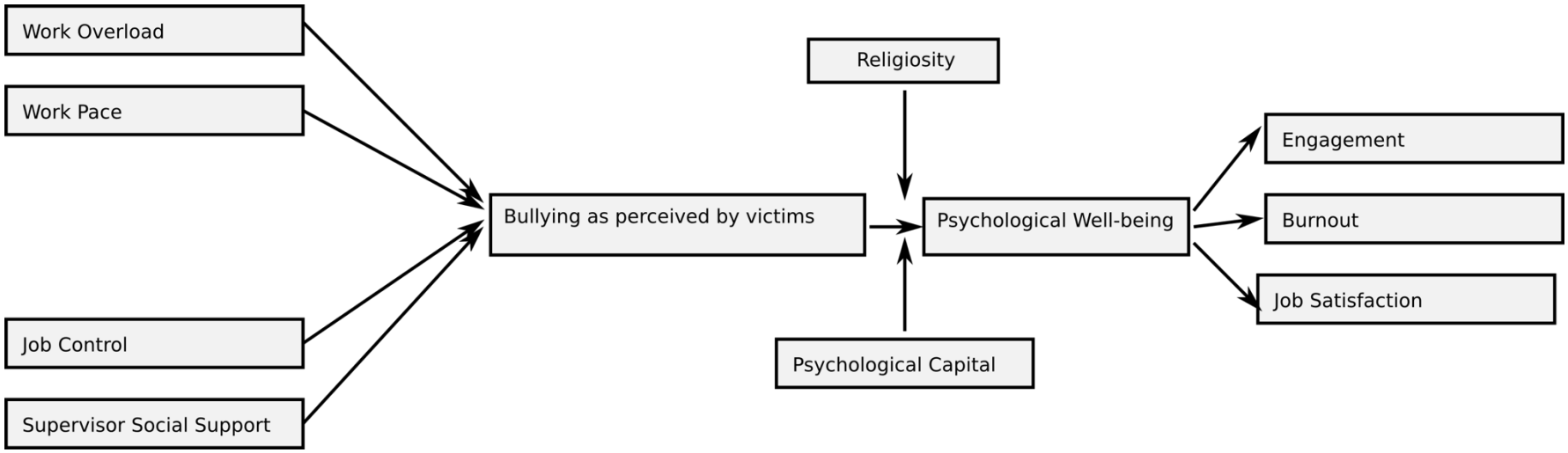


Fig 7-1: Final research model

7.3 General discussion

The following section presents key findings from across the various studies of this thesis. These key findings are integrated together in a discussion based on the qualitative and quantitative studies.

7.3.1 The psychosocial work environment

Results from this thesis indicate that the psychosocial work environment in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry is stressful. Research in this sector has shown that a poor psychosocial work environment is associated with health problems and ill-being resulting from long-term exposure to psychosocial risks (Bergh, Leka & Zwetsloot, 2018). In the oil and gas industry, psychosocial risks should be given the needed priority especially in offshore settings. In off-shore settings especially, psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying could lead to health and safety incidents and should be prioritised as other operational physical safety concerns (Bergh et al., 2014). In Ghana, occupational health and safety initiatives in the industry have traditionally focused on physical and operational safety. The consequences of a poor psychosocial work environment in the industry in Ghana therefore remains unclear (Kortum & Leka, 2014).

Working conditions differ across the oil and gas industry depending on the primary area of work. Consequently, the risks associated with work may differ for onshore and offshore workers. Arneberg et al. (2014) indicate that workers in offshore installations are faced with physical demands as well as physical and psychosocial hazards including shift work, chemical exposure, noise, long working days and vibrations. As such, the broader context of occupational health issues of concern daily for offshore work includes the psychosocial work environment, individual health and well-being, physical working conditions, ergonomic factors as well as the chemical work environment. Indeed, Bjerkan (2011) found that offshore employees reported less control over work pace and more work hazards than onshore workers did. Additionally, tasks at work were more repetitive with more work pressure compared to onshore workers.

The same situation is true for workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Indeed, offshore workers are faced with high and unpredictable risk, isolation

from significant others (i.e. family including wife and children, friends etc.) and tight social interactions with other co-workers in the 28-day shift cycles in which work is organised. Although close social interactions are desirable and may foster close ties, on the other hand, they can also cause negative interpersonal conflict. Considering the safety critical nature of the offshore oil and gas industry, severe interpersonal conflicts may thwart effective collaboration and communication between employees in safety critical operations (Nielsen et al., 2013). This may be detrimental to effective safety-conscious vigilance, communication, coordination, and job performance especially in the high-risk environment characteristic of the offshore work environment.

Whilst research into workplace bullying is in its infancy in Ghana, much research over the last 30 years across the globe has shown that workplace bullying is a major psychosocial hazard in contemporary organisations (Bergh et al., 2018). Furthermore, a report by the Petroleum Safety Authority Norway (2010) shows that bullying is pervasive within the offshore petroleum industry. With regards bullying and the psychosocial work environment, bullying as a psychosocial hazard did not differ between onshore and offshore workers though both sets of workers reported a stressful psychosocial work environment. This surprising result may be due to employees' under-reporting incidence of bullying or cultural issues being implicated in the higher threshold for acceptability/tolerance of certain workplace bullying behaviours for the Ghanaian oil and gas worker (Power et al., 2013). The latter point is especially so when the bullying behaviour is person-related. As shown in the qualitative interviews and analysis of the NAQ-R, employees were more likely to report work-related and less person-related negative behaviours as bullying.

On the contrary, the situation with regards no difference in the report of workplace bullying may be attributable to the availability of several job and personal resources available to employees across the industry. Indeed, a stressor such as workplace bullying will have an effect on an individual not only dependent on the interpretation and assessment of the stressor but also based on the resources available to deal/cope with the stressor. Interestingly, social support did not buffer the effect of workplace bullying on well-being. On the other hand, psychological capital and religiosity respectively did and are thus, two

critical personal resources that can be developed to reduce the impact of workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry. This together with a supportive supervisor and control over one's job may reduce the negative effects of workplace bullying, according to the results of this study.

7.3.2 Workplace bullying affects employees and the organisation

Research evidence supports the notion that workplace bullying is a severe negative stressor that has devastating effects on the individual, organisation and significant others. Beyond the obvious direct costs to the individual and organisation, there is a business, ethical and moral case for eradicating bullying at work as well as costs to society (Giga, et al., 2008).

Workplace bullying has been broadly categorized as either work-related or person-related (Einarsen, 1999). A third dimension, which is physical intimidating behaviour, was later included (Einarsen et al., 2009) in the NAQ-R. The current study supported a one-factor structure for the NAQ-R in Ghana's oil and gas industry. Despite this unexpected result, culture may be indicated in the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana. As discussed, the qualitative study identified mainly work-related bullying behaviours rather than person-related bullying behaviours as forms of bullying prevalent in the oil and gas industry in Ghana. Four out of five identified bullying behaviours reported by interviewees were work-related. This is corroborated by results from the quantitative analysis.

An analysis of participant responses from the NAQ-R (as reported in Table 5-8) shows that of the negative acts that participants were exposed to on a 'weekly or daily' basis, eight (8) out of ten (10) negative acts with the highest frequency were work-related. 'Excessive monitoring of your work', 'someone withholding information which affects your performance' and 'being ordered to do work below your level of competence' were the three negative acts with the highest frequency of occurrence of all twenty-two negative acts of the NAQ-R. This is interesting and may reveal interesting aspects of the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana. Perhaps, the high power distance culture in Ghana that legitimizes the holder of authority influences the acceptability of certain behaviours as being normal. In this regard, negative acts directed towards

individuals that are of a personal nature may be rationalized as within the scope of acceptable behaviour by those in authority and may not be reported.

Results from this study also revealed that workplace bullying is associated with a reduction in employee well-being as measured by the general health questionnaire. Indeed, Cassidy et al.'s (2014) study found that the experience of bullying was positively associated to ill-being and negatively to well-being. Workplace bullying directly affecting employee well-being is explained by the health-impairment process of the JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001). The health-impairment process indicates that job demands such as workplace bullying diminish psychological resources available to employees given the loss of energy and high psychological costs they present. Specifically, exposure to persistent negative acts of bullying will result in negative consequences to the individual. When considered from the perspective of the JD-R model, workplace bullying acts as a specific kind of job demand – a job hindrance (i.e. stressful demand that can thwart goal attainment and learning; Crawford et al., 2010) that depletes employees' emotional energy, sense of autonomy, relatedness and identity at work (Cassidy et al., 2014).

Furthermore, engagement and burnout were conceptualized as a function of employee psychological health and distal outcomes of workplace bullying (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010) in the current study. Engaged employees have intense emotional energy and heightened work involvement and enthusiasm (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010). Employees experiencing burnout are mentally withdrawn from work tasks and have low emotional energy (Schaufeli & Taris, 2005). As such, engagement and burnout can be seen as contrasting occupational states of mind that result from the daily person – job interaction (Leiter & Bakker, 2010). The findings from this study revealed that workplace bullying is related to burnout and engagement respectively, consistent with previous findings (Laschinger, Grau, Finegan, & Wilk, 2010; Rodriguez-Munoz et al., 2009). However, the effect of workplace bullying on these outcomes was mediated by psychological well-being. In this regard, individuals with good psychological well-being have both positive psychological functioning as well as

subjective positive feelings (Page et al., 2009; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) that may translate into positive work-related states of mind even when faced with bullying.

Additionally, workplace bullying was associated with job satisfaction. The affective assessment of the workplace as a safe and enabling environment to work is linked to employees' productivity (Christen, Iyer & Soberman, 2006). As such, workplace bullying may reduce the subjective appraisal of a job as satisfying which may consequently lead to reduced effort and productivity. This finding has grave consequences for the achievement of organisational goals. Indeed, most organisations exist to increase profit and negative acts of bullying perpetuated against employees may thwart their efforts and efficiency which is costly to the organisation. Psychological well-being accounted for the relationship between workplace bullying and job satisfaction indicating that organisations investing in interventions to improve employee health and well-being are necessary to achieve desired organisational goals and job attitudes.

7.3.3 Fear of losing one's job

Job insecurity is rife in the oil and gas industry in Ghana especially in the offshore operations. When conceptualized as a pervasive job demand, employees' general distress with regards their continued performance of their job roles in the future poses an important risk to employees' psychological health and well-being and to an organisations' productivity. Research indicates that job insecurity is associated with poor performance (Sverke et al., 2002), counterproductive job behaviours (Lim, 1996) and turnover intentions (Stiglbauer, Selenko, Batinic, & Jodlbauer, 2012).

Job insecurity has been associated with workplace bullying in the literature (Glambek et al., 2014). Zapf (1999) has argued that job insecurity is associated with continuous uncertainty which may create conflict. Furthermore, job insecurity may decrease targets' thresholds for negative behaviours (Hoel et al., 2002). Indeed, Holzen-Beusch, Zapf, and Schallberger (1998) assert that a key factor why employees accept persistent negative acts of bullying at work is due to job insecurity. This may result in the perpetuation of negative acts towards the target who is unwilling to retaliate. Baillien, Neyens, and De Witte (2008) found that job insecurity caused frustration, which in turn resulted in

workplace bullying in their qualitative study. Similarly, job insecurity has been found to relate to workplace bullying from quantitative evidence (Hauge et al., 2007; Neyens et al., 2007; Spagnoli, et al., 2017).

In the context of the current research, employees reported high levels of job insecurity. The oil and gas industry in Ghana is a very lucrative one with salaries of employees pegged at relatively high levels when compared to the general remuneration across Ghanaian organisations. This is perhaps due to the level of risk associated with working on platforms offshore. These jobs are scarce and highly sought after. It is not surprising therefore, that employees will strive to protect their jobs and continued employment with their organisations. The demographic nature of the offshore oil and gas industry in particular when understood together with the Petroleum (local content and local participation) regulations (LI 2204, 2013) of the Republic of Ghana present a major concern for employee well-being. As explained in Chapter 4 of this thesis, the human capital development focus of this legislation implies that after a period of time, most positions within the sector will be occupied by Ghanaian employees. Since most supervisors and managers are non-Ghanaians, indigenous Ghanaian workers may be exposed to acts of bullying and threats of being fired as a way of getting rid of employees who may rise to take over these senior job roles. As such, employees may have to contend with the prospects of losing one's job at any time as aptly captured in the qualitative interviews.

This feeling of job insecurity for employees is detrimental for their health and well-being due to the heightened arousal and negative emotions it might engender (Spagnoli, et al., 2017). In this regard, employees may engage in desired job behaviours consistent with their role but may not engage in any extra-role behaviour. Additionally, in offshore settings where risk is high and maximum focus/attention is required, employees' preoccupation with the cognitive and affective aspects of job insecurity may predispose them to accidents and near misses. As such, job insecurity is not only a job demand that is associated with workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry but may on its own, present a significant health and safety risk to employees and their organisations.

7.3.4 Personal resources – Religiosity and social support

Religion is part of the social fabric of Ghana. Indeed, the 2010 Population and housing census of the Republic of Ghana report by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) indicates that of the Ghanaian population, 71.2% were Christians, 17.6% were Muslim with 5.2% adhering to traditional indigenous religion and only 5.3% who are not affiliated to any religion. Research has shown that religious individuals by their strong religious convictions are intrinsically oriented to adhere to the beliefs and norms of their religion (Kutcher et al., 2010; Milliman et al., 2003). This belief system may also serve as a useful resource or coping mechanism in times of adversity (Arnetz et al., 2013).

In this regard, qualitative findings indicated religious coping as an effective coping strategy when faced with bullying at work. Additionally, quantitative findings showed that religion buffered the negative effect of workplace bullying on employee well-being. This finding supports the notion that religious coping is instrumental in managing crisis in everyday life for intrinsically religious people. As such, bullying experiences may be explained as part of the experiences of religious life with employees focussing on the value of work and appropriate work behaviours whilst striving not to contravene work/organisational ethical behaviours. Consequently, people high on religiosity have been shown to display more pro-organisational behaviours (Gyekye & Salminen, 2008), limited antisocial or counterproductive work behaviour (Ntalianis & Raja, 2002) and co-operation and loyalty, obedience, commitment and dedication to their organisations (Ntalianis & Raja, 2002).

However, results from this study indicate that whilst religiosity is an important variable in attenuating the negative effect of workplace bullying on well-being, high levels of religiosity may be counterproductive and have no effect on the bullying – well-being relationship. In this regard, high levels of religiosity may instill a rigid religious attribution to negative events in life such as bullying, which may negatively affect an individuals' health and well-being when these situations are accepted without any effort to deal with the stressor (Lerner & Miller, 1978). As such, religion may serve to exacerbate rather than buffer the negative effects of workplace bullying on well-being (Schreurs et al., 2014)

Low to moderate religiosity may thus be a vital tool in the Ghanaian culture that may be critical for organisations and employees in dealing with excessive and/or unmanageable job demands. As a valued resource, religiosity may help translate positive employee behaviours to desired organisational goals. Religiosity and workplace spirituality may be helpful in organisations in Ghana provided its practice does not deter, or distract from, organisational tasks.

Another critical resource for employees in the oil and gas industry in Ghana is social support from family, friends and significant others including co-workers. The finding that social support did not moderate the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship does not support findings from the qualitative interviews that showed that social support was a resource for coping with workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry.

Djurkovic, McCormack and Casimir (2008) found that support from co-workers is key in decreasing the negative effect of bullying, while bullied employees are likely to report less support from co-workers (Hansen et al., 2006). Additionally, Cassidy et al. (2014) found that social support might be more vital in reducing the negative impact of bullying on ill-being outcomes. As such, a collectivist culture like in Ghana may present a wide social support network for most employees such that no additional social support may be needed to buffer the negative effects of bullying. In this regard, social support is key in ensuring employee well-being (Cassidy, 2011) and no difference in this important resource for bullied employees may exist, hence the lack of evidence of social support buffering the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. This finding reinforces the protecting role of a sense of community and perceived social support in improving outcomes when bullying is viewed as a social stressor at work (Hauge, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2010).

In summary, the findings from this research are important and relevant for the understanding of the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry. This thesis has provided a preliminary exploratory view into bullying in a safety critical sector in Ghana where consequences of psychosocial risk for the individual, organisation and environment can be very critical and as such, much attention must focus on understanding this phenomenon. Indeed,

taken together, the findings from this thesis suggest that the psychosocial work environment in this sector is stressful with high levels of job insecurity and some job resources available to employees to manage the associated negative effects. Workplace bullying is prevalent in this sector with negative consequences for the individual and organisations. Additionally, religiosity and psychological capital have been found to have a protective buffering effect on the relationship between workplace bullying and well-being. Social support, which is characteristic of Ghana's collectivist culture, offers an additional coping mechanism for managing the negative effect of workplace bullying. The following section critically assesses the limitations of this research and recommendations for future studies.

7.4 Research limitations and recommendations for future studies

The following sections present the limitations of the various studies in this thesis. Recommendations for dealing with the issues identified in future research are also presented.

The design and execution of the qualitative study took into consideration the need to show confirmability and credibility of research data and results. This ensures the trustworthiness of the data. However, as with any research, the current qualitative study had some limitations that can affect the findings and as such, care must be taken when results are being interpreted. For example, concerns may be raised about the sampling strategy. The sampling techniques used were convenience and snowball sampling. An important advantage of the snowball technique in workplace bullying research is that the researcher may be able to identify and have access to other employees who might have experienced or witnessed bullying at work through the referral of other participants leading to an increased feeling of trust between the researcher and the participants (Lindloff & Taylor, 2002). This may increase the likelihood of obtaining much detailed and rich responses/data devoid of any reservations. However, the use of snowball techniques may lead to selective sampling which may skew the findings and may not be a true representation of the population (Bleich, & Pekkanen, 2013). Notwithstanding this possibility, the fact that data

saturation was reached with the heterogeneous sample gives confidence in the findings of the study.

Owing to the sensitive nature of workplace bullying research, care should be taken in interpreting and generalizing findings from the qualitative study. The researcher used the self-labelling method with a simple and easy to grasp definition that emphasised the key characteristics of bullying (Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996; O'Moore, Lynch & Daeid, 2003) in the interview guide which has been shown to reduce subjectivity inherent in participants' perception of the phenomenon as compared to the self-labelling method without a definition. Even though this may increase face validity as well as construct validity (Nielsen, Notelaers & Einarsen, 2011), there may be some disadvantages with this approach. Because of participants being assured of confidentiality, there might be the possibility that participants may over report being a victim of bullying. They may exaggerate the frequency of their being bullied as well as incorrectly report their role in escalating the conflict into a bullying situation. Potential biases may thus be introduced because of one's cognition, emotional state, personality and misperception.

However, this limitation was foreseen in the qualitative study design with the use of semi-structured qualitative interviews (Esterberg, 2002) which allowed for flexibility in probing with regards to the line of questioning for each interviewee, more clarity in relation to the questions, follow-ups where necessary and more detailed responses. Though the use of triangulation with other sources of information (e.g., peer reports) might have proved useful in validating participant responses, the researcher is confident that a rigorous methodology was adopted in the current study in data collection and analysis as well as reporting of the findings. This could be said to have contributed to the trustworthiness of the research findings. Future studies should however, incorporate multiple sources of information to increase validity of participant responses.

Similarly, the quantitative studies were not without limitations in their design and implementation. Data in these studies were obtained using self-report measures provided by a single source. This raises some valid concerns with regards common-method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003) due to common

rater effect. It could be argued that the use of self-report measures accounted for significant relationships observed because of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This may not be completely accurate as Chan (2009) has posited that when variables of interest are self-referential participant perceptions (e.g., workplace bullying, psychological well-being, religiosity, psychological capital, etc.), the use of self-reports are adequately justified and perhaps necessary. As such, the magnitude of relationships may not necessarily have been inflated by common method variance as observed relationships are concurrently weakened by unreliability in both measurement scores of any two variables in comparison to their respective true-scores (Conway & Lance, 2010). Indeed, Spector (2006) has argued that the issue of overestimated correlations between variables is embellished in critiques of self-report measures.

Additionally, Evans (1985) has suggested that for common method variance to explain the moderating effect in study 2 for instance (i.e. PsyCap, religiosity, social support and power distance respectively moderating the relationship between workplace bullying and well-being), the common method variance must differ systematically with the moderator at low, average and high levels. In study 2, this did not occur. Furthermore, with regards the test of interaction/moderating effects, Aikens and West (1991) assert that non-linear effects (e.g., interactions) are not necessarily affected by method bias. Indeed, Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey and Parker (1996) argue that common method bias weakens interaction effects. Future studies might consider using different sources for data to reduce common method variance. Alternatively, the study could have been improved in its design with the use of these self-report measures but within a longitudinal design where different variables are measured at different times (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

Notwithstanding these arguments, following suggestions by Conway and Lance (2010), only standardised measurement scales with good construct validity established in the literature were used in the quantitative studies. Additionally, this potential problem of common method variance was avoided during data collection by emphasising to participants that there were no right or wrong answers and that their participation was completely anonymous and

responses confidential. Based on these arguments, common method variance may not seem to pose a threat to the validity of the interpretations of study results. As such, considering the nature of job demands, resources, organisational outcomes, individual outcomes and the personal experience of workplace bullying, the current study was able to tap into the nuances of the experience of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry using data from employees and this could be considered a strength of the study.

The quantitative studies relied on cross-sectional data and as such no causal relationships between the predictors and outcome variables can be inferred. It must be noted however, that the study was grounded on sound theoretical and empirical reasons in merging aspects of Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) job demands-resources model and Einarsen et al.'s (2011) comprehensive model of workplace bullying. In this regard, sequencing the job demands and resources respectively as antecedents of workplace bullying is consistent with previous research findings (Hakanen et al., 2008; van den Broeck et al., 2011). Other researchers have also found evidence to support the reverse causation where workplace bullying is seen as an antecedent to other job demands and resources (e.g., Glambek et al., 2018; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). To determine if reversed causation or reciprocal relationships exist with regards employees' report of workplace bullying, future studies should use longitudinal or cross-lagged designs (Baillen et al., 2011).

Additionally, whilst research evidence suggests that workplace bullying predicts psychological well-being, it is possible that the reverse association may be true. Perhaps, employees with poor psychological well-being deviate from work norms and may engage in behaviours at work that predisposes them to negative acts of bullying. Similarly, and from a theoretical standpoint, it may seem unlikely that engagement, burnout, organisational commitment, turnover intentions and job satisfaction respectively will predict workplace bullying. However, whilst workplace bullying may deplete a bullied employee's resources and frustrate their motivations at work leading to poor health and burnout, it is plausible to posit that an employee who is emotionally exhausted (a sign of burnout) may be predisposed to further acts of bullying as a result of not meeting up to work-related norms and standards thus being an easy target for bullying

(Einarsen et al., 2011). In the future, studies should employ a longitudinal survey design to examine the moderators of the workplace bullying – psychological well-being relationship. Additionally, future studies should explore modelling mediation by collecting measures of X, Y and M, longitudinally at temporally different intervals (i.e. longitudinal cross-lagged panel design).

Another limitation has to do with the nature of the sample. Though data was collected across numerous companies in the oil and gas sector in Ghana representing the onshore/offshore criteria as well as upstream, midstream and downstream operations, it was not possible to collect data on employees across all levels of the organisation. Particularly, given that employees reported that bullying was perpetuated by supervisors rather than co-workers, a vital element of this research should have been to explore job demands and resources and how they associate with perpetrators' report of bullying. However, in the current study supervisors/managers were unwilling to complete the questionnaire when contacted to do so. As such, the data represents only employees at non-managerial/non-supervisory levels of their respective organisations. Furthermore, no employee self-labelled as a bully/perpetrator on the NAQ-R when presented with a definition of workplace bullying. Future research should focus on examining the associations between the JD-R model and workplace bullying from the perspective of the perpetrator and from both managers and employees. This will provide a more complete picture of the role of job demands and resources in explaining workplace bullying.

A possible limitation of the studies is the fact that all workers sampled were Ghanaians. Acknowledging that the demographics of the oil and gas industry in Ghana comprises indigenous Ghanaians as well as expatriates from Europe, Asia, Americas and other parts of Africa, the possible influence of race on workplace bullying cannot be discounted. Indeed, earlier findings in the qualitative study (Chapter 4) in this thesis point to victims attributing bullying behaviours directed at them to perceived racial discrimination by superiors who are predominantly of a different race. Lutgen-Sandvik et al. (2009) have suggested that race may play a significant role in workplace bullying as another etiological explanation for employee bullying/victimization is discriminatory bullying. Owing to difficulties in accessing these minority groups of expatriate

workers, it was not possible to sample them. In future studies, more organisational support and access should be sought to have an all-inclusive and representative sample to present a better reflection of how the relationships may be structured within the population.

Workers in the oil and gas industry constitute a sector-specific sample and as such the question of whether generalizations to other sectors are appropriate considering the operational nature of this sector (offshore and onshore work) is a valid one. Notwithstanding this, the results of this study give insight into the nature of the work environment in the oil and gas industry. Future research should therefore focus on other sectors of the Ghanaian economy to further validate findings from this study.

Workplace bullying has been associated with cultural factors such as a collectivist culture and power distance. For instance, Power et al. (2013) found that respondents in sub-Saharan cultures like in Ghana had a lower tolerance for workplace bullying due to the high humane orientation. This is even murkier when you consider the fact that Ghana is considered a high power distance collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1981). Given the characteristic nature of collectivist cultures to have a strong group identification and interaction at work, it is plausible that employees are more affected by workplace bullying in such cultures (Park & Ono, 2017). As such, future research should explore cross-cultural samples to reveal nuances in the working of workplace bullying on outcomes.

Another limitation worth mentioning has to do with the length of the questionnaire. Though effort was made to identify shorter versions of standardized questionnaires to measure the study variables, this was not possible for all the study variables. Indeed, all questionnaires used in the quantitative studies have been validated in previous research with good psychometric properties and used extensively in the literature. The trade-off with this decision was the lengthy questionnaire used in collecting data. There were 110 items used to measure 17 variables and this might have led to greater response burden and participant fatigue (Rolstad, Adler & Ryden, 2011). This might have resulted in a lower response rate for the data. However, Rolstad et al. (2011) found weak support for a relationship between questionnaire length

and response burden and have suggested that decisions on how long a questionnaire should be are based on the quality of the content. This coupled with considerations about the utility of the questionnaire with regard validity and reliability should be the main consideration. As such, despite this possible limitation, the questionnaire used in this survey was deemed appropriate for data collection.

Additionally, whilst it could be argued that the use of regression analysis has some disadvantages when compared to Structural Equation Modelling (SEM; Hair et al., 2016), it was practically impossible to use SEM in the quantitative analysis. SEM allows computation of latent variables and specifies both an outer and inner model. Furthermore, when using SEM, the relationship between large number of latent variables can be tested simultaneously. However, in the current study the sample size was inadequate to specify a model given the structural complexity of the proposed theoretical model. Indeed, Soper's (2018) a priori sample size calculator for SEM indicates that the minimum sample size to detect a 0.1 effect size at a desired statistical power of 0.8 and at a .05 probability level was 2259 for 17 latent variables and 110 observed indicators. Furthermore, the sample size did not meet recommendations by Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow and King (2006) that 10 participants is needed per estimated parameter to fit a model. As such, with a sample size of 326 participants in the current study, SEM analysis was not appropriate. Considering the exploratory nature of the quantitative studies, regression analysis was deemed appropriate to test the quantitative studies' hypotheses. Future studies should attempt to use larger sample sizes to benefit from more complex analytical tools.

7.5 Implications for policy and practice

Notwithstanding the limitations of the current research, findings have important implications for occupational health psychologists, health and safety practitioners, HR managers, organisations as well as researchers. Firstly, by linking the job demands – resources model to workplace bullying, the current study adds to the literature by identifying key aspects of the job environment

that may promote or discourage bullying. The findings indicate that workplace bullying may be prevented and/or reduced in Ghana's oil and gas industry by reducing specific job demands and increasing specific job resources. For HR managers and health and safety professionals in this sector, it is of utmost importance to understand the role of elements of the job context in predisposing employees to psychosocial hazards. This is particularly important in Ghana and other developing countries where more emphasis is placed on physical safety to the neglect of psychosocial safety.

In this regard, psychological, physical and environmental factors at work must be monitored and altered when necessary to reduce the possibility of psychosocial risks such as bullying and other physical hazards resulting in accidents or near misses. This can be implemented practically through job redesign. HR managers and health and safety professionals should identify and analyse which specific job demands and resources are most associated with specific jobs where workplace bullying is reported and try to control or adapt the work environment to reduce the incidence of workplace bullying. It must be noted, however, that it may not always be practical to reduce psychological work demands in an intense work environment for certain careers (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). The more viable solution will be to increase the resources available to employees, in such jobs with heavy demands, to promote their sense of autonomy, supervisory support and voice within the organisations.

Goodboy et al. (2017) highlight this when they argue the importance of supervisor social support with work-related tasks. Whilst unsolicited supervisor social support may be counterproductive (Kickul & Posig, 2001), it is important for supervisors/managers of employees in high strain jobs to be necessarily available with needed support to help employees deal with the high demands of the job. By offering and re-assuring employees of their support through formal and informal channels, supervisors/managers are more likely to engender a healthy workplace environment in which the incentives to bully, by supervisors, subordinates or co-workers, as a response to high job demands are unattractive.

Additionally, the psychologically devastating role of job insecurity must be of concern to practitioners and researchers. This is because of the well-researched negative impact of job insecurity on employee health and other

outcomes (Glambek et al., 2018; Shoss, 2017; Sverke et al., 2002). The notion that employees in Ghana's oil and gas industry are faced with lingering job insecurity and may also be predisposed to workplace bullying is detrimental for their health and well-being. Indeed, working under such high strain situations may present psychosocial hazards that could result in accidents and near misses in high-risk environments such as on offshore installations (Bergh et al., 2014, 2018). As such, managers and supervisors must have open communication with employees regarding the security of their jobs with their organisations. This should be done by dealing with the cognitive and affective components of the employees' fear of losing their job and working to reassure the employees of their job security and continuous tenure with their organisation, contingent on meeting the specific conditions of their employment.

Organisations may also act at a macro level. Proactive initiatives by the organisation to deal with early identification, reporting, thorough investigation and remedial action with regards workplace bullying, after all efforts to deal with high job demands and low resources (primary prevention) fails, is of great importance. This may involve proper design and implementation of workplace bullying policy within organisations. Organisations in the oil and gas industry in Ghana need to develop specific policies on workplace bullying. Some multinational companies in the oil and gas sector in Ghana have policies on harassment at work but this may not necessarily cover behaviours identified as bullying at work. These policies should be preventive in nature and able to stop negative acts being perpetuated to other employees before they degenerate into workplace bullying. Policy should include mandatory training for all employees on identifying bullying situations and how bullying negatively impacts the individual, organisation, witnesses and significant others. Occupational health psychologists and human resource professionals within organisations should play a leading role in the development of policies to ensure the psychosocial health of employees is protected.

Employees should have confidence in the fairness of the procedures and outcomes involved with implementing the policy. Creating a platform for employees to report or voice their concerns without fear of punitive measures (Hoel et al., 2002) is crucial to the success of such policy initiatives. Similar to

the psychosocial risk indicator developed and used in the Norwegian oil and gas industry (Bergh et al., 2014), organisations in the oil and gas industry in Ghana may consider a risk control system to monitor psychosocial risks and forestall any threats to employee health and well-being. This psychosocial risk management framework is aimed at risk reduction and based on the principle of prevention. Using this framework, psychosocial risks/hazards are identified, risks analyzed and managed, to protect employee health using a systematic process (Bergh et al., 2014). As such, early warning signs related to specific jobs will help early detection of hazards and preventive measures taken to investigate and deal with risks.

Furthermore, at the macro level, primary prevention of bullying before the episodes occur may involve the development of a healthy psychosocial safety climate (PSC). PSC is a facet of organisational climate, defined as “policies, practices, and procedures for worker psychological health and safety” (Dollard & Bakker, 2010, p. 580). Senior management must take the lead on psychological health issues such as bullying by showing commitment and involving themselves with its management (Dollard, Tuckey, & Dormann, 2012). This can be done by prompt and conclusive actions to forestall and where necessary take remedial action to protect employees’ psychological health and well-being. This can be implemented by enacting anti-bullying policies and procedures (Cooper-Thomas et al., 2013) to reduce the incidence of bullying. Furthermore, management must constantly monitor the proper implementation of these policies and handling of reported cases (Rayner & Lewis, 2010) as the presence of a policy may still not stop bullying from occurring (Vartia & Leka, 2011).

Additionally, management must accord equal priority to issues of employee psychological health and safety and productivity goals (Hall et al., 2010). This may involve job redesign to enhance the nature of work and provide adequate job resources such as autonomy and social support to buffer the negative effects of job demands such as bullying on employee health and well-being. Consequently, effective and timely communication across all levels of the organisation on issues regarding bullying is crucial for employees’ sense of interactional and procedural justice within the organisation (Hall et al., 2010). In

this regard, efforts must be put in place to encourage all stakeholders (employees, health and safety representatives and workers' unions) to be involved and participate in all processes to improve psychological health and well-being (Idris et al., 2012) by reducing bullying and reporting any incidence of it.

At the micro level, organisations may focus on reducing the possibility of workplace bullying occurring by adopting sound strategies targeted at the individual and groups to improve positive interactions, decorous behaviour and reduce interpersonal conflict at work (Salin, 2008). This could be implemented through coaching and educational programs like CREW. CREW is an acronym for Civility, Respect, and Engagement at Work and is an example of an educational program/strategy used to train employees on preventing workplace bullying (Osatuke et al., 2009). Employees meet regularly to improve interpersonal relations over a 6-month period facilitated by trained professionals. These sessions cover a broad range of topics including conflict resolution, active listening, effective group interactions, etc. Leiter et al. (2011) found that CREW improved workplace incivility as well as desired individual and organisational outcomes. HR Managers in Ghana's oil and gas industry may consider implementing such interventions to reduce workplace bullying and improve psychological health and well-being.

Additionally, employee empowerment may be relevant in managing the high job demands in fast-paced work environments as in the oil and gas industry. This could be achieved through job crafting. According to Demerouti and Bakker (2014), job crafting is a specific form of proactive behaviour in which the employee initiates changes in the level of job demands and job resources to make their own job more meaningful, engaging and satisfying. Employees with greater autonomy over their work will be confident to seek support, clarify instructions, turn down unreasonable requests consistent with agreed parameters to reduce job demands and increase resources available to them to perform the job role. Additionally, training of employees to cope with the high job demands and low resources is promising. This is particularly important where personal resources can be explored and enhanced to buffer the negative impacts of a stressful work environment on employees' health and well-being.

An example of such a personal resource is psychological capital. Employees may benefit from resilience training as a coping mechanism for dealing with a work environment high in job demands but deficient in resources.

Findings from this thesis have important cross-cultural, theoretical and practical implications for the management of the work environment to reduce psychosocial hazards such as workplace bullying to safeguard employee health and well-being. The extension of positive organisational behaviour into managing negative aspects of work is timely and there has been extensive application of such interventions across small, medium and large companies across the world.

The application of PsyCap has been widely documented across the world. Examples include South Africa (Cascio & Luthans, 2014), China (Huang & Luthans, 2015), Egypt (Badran & Youssef-Morgan, 2015), and Europe (Wernsing, 2014). There has been a lot of scrutiny of research findings due to the emerging nature of the research into positive organisational behaviour and positive psychology. Consequently, research findings may be inconclusive (Fineman, 2006) as different cultures may view different aspects of positivity differently. For example, some cultures may frown on assertiveness and confidence as arrogance due to an orientation towards meekness. Indeed, research by Sin and Lyubormirsky (2009), found that positive interventions (personal and psychological) are less effective in collectivist cultures such as Ghana than in individualistic cultures. However, research evidence from the current study points to the positive role of PsyCap and religiosity in dealing with the negative effects of workplace bullying on psychological well-being. As such, these findings from Ghana provide culturally-valid evidence of the utility of positive psychological interventions in managing and coping with negative organisational experiences such as bullying. This could be harnessed and optimised by HR managers to help employees' development through training.

Practically, organisations stand to benefit from the findings of this study. Similar to interventions adopted by the US Military and Harvard Medical School (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017), organisations in Ghana can adopt PsyCap applications to help enhance employee well-being. Organisations in Ghana can train employees to be more resilient, hopeful, optimistic and self-efficacious.

These training interventions are short, low cost and easy to implement in organisations. These trainings may target faulty cognitive-behavioural associations leading to a more positive outlook and assessment of work – related situations. This will help develop and reinforce positive coping skills. However, this should not be done exclusively while ignoring addressing determinants of workplace bullying in the work environment. The benefits to employees and the organisation because of PsyCap training are numerous. Indeed, Seligman's (1998) classical experiments found that even when lacking technical expertise, insurance sales persons who were optimistic outsell their pessimistic colleagues.

Additionally, owing to the buffering role of religiosity in dealing with negative experiences at work including workplace bullying, managers in organisations in Ghana must not be seen to stifle expression of religious faith and practices that do not interfere with an employee's output. By encouraging workplace spirituality and religiosity, employees in largely religious settings like in Ghana are likely to carry-over the positive effect of their religious belief system and the discipline and commitment they engender into the work environment leading to positive organisational outcomes. Furthermore, religiosity may offer a needed coping resource when faced with adversity at work.

The devastating effect of repeated negative acts at work such as bullying on the individual and organisation is pronounced and must be prevented from occurring. Indeed, Park and Ono (2017) assert that victims of bullying cognitively appraise their experience as either threatening or challenging. This appraisal is negative and as such may lead to negative outcomes such as poor psychological health and well-being and more distal individual health and organisational outcomes. Consequently, organisations must adopt proactive approaches to dealing with workplace bullying at a macro and micro level as previously discussed.

Owing to the research findings that workplace bullying directly and indirectly is associated with distal individual and organisational outcomes, management of the oil and gas companies in collectivist cultures such as Ghana must encourage a high-quality social climate to satisfy employees' basic psychological needs and enhance their psychological health and well-being.

This critical job and personal resource from colleagues, supervisors and significant others at work will provide the necessary arsenal to buffer the demands of workplace bullying on psychological well-being (Hobman, Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2009; Trepanier et al., 2013). Thus, employees will have additional available resources to counteract the energy and resource depleting episodes of workplace bullying.

7.6 Conclusions and the way forward

In conclusion, findings from this thesis make significant contributions to the body of knowledge in the workplace bullying literature by identifying how cultural differences may influence the perception and experience of bullying. Bullied employees in a high-power distance culture (House et al., 2004) such as Ghana were more likely to report work-related bullying behaviours than person-related bullying behaviours. All employees in this study were local Ghanaians and this finding may reveal interesting dispositions of Ghanaian workers, such as resilience, that may intricately affect their perception of some behaviour as bullying. This suggested more complex explanatory mechanisms that may affect the experience and effects of workplace bullying in a Ghanaian sample, and consequently was examined quantitatively. Furthermore, supervisors' fear of losing their job as well as perceived racial discrimination within the specific context of Ghana's high-power distance culture were associated with workplace bullying. Additionally, the qualitative finding that employees coped with workplace bullying by using social support and religiosity (two unique traits of Ghanaian culture) is insightful as it provides further evidence to the need to understand people's lived experiences through the socio-cultural lens.

Having found satisfactory support for the NAQ-R as a valid and reliable instrument of workplace bullying in Ghana (a sub-Saharan country), the quantitative results indicate a stressful psychosocial work environment in the oil and gas industry in Ghana that results in workplace bullying. Job demands are rife and resources scarce. This creates an environment where bullying behaviour festers and is perpetuated against low power individuals. Additionally, workplace bullying was found to negatively impact the health and well-being of

employees. Religiosity and psychological capital respectively were found as personal resources with the potential to buffer the relationship between workplace bullying and psychological well-being. Furthermore, workplace bullying negatively affected employees' engagement and job satisfaction by reducing their psychological well-being. By reducing employee well-being, workplace bullying increased emotional exhaustion and cynicism (i.e. burnout).

Overwhelming agreement exists among researchers and practitioners on the critical importance of dealing with workplace bullying within organisations in the oil and gas industry and in other sectors as it has very severe consequences to the individual, organisation, witnesses, significant others and potentially the environment. Findings from this thesis, based on the ontological – epistemological position taken, facilitate theoretical generalizability and generalization to other sectors of work as the qualitative themes that emerged and consequently validated by quantitative findings are not unique to the oil and gas sector in Ghana.

As such, occupational health psychologists and human resource managers should work with management and employees to eliminate any form of workplace bullying in the organisation or reduce its incidence to a minimum. This could be achieved through redesigning jobs and reducing the demands or stressors that could lead to workplace bullying. Additionally, organisations should focus on providing job-related resources that can help reduce the negative effects of job demands. Furthermore, training of organisational actors on the behaviours considered as bullying, what could lead to bullying, and the organisation's policy on bullying, including systems for early identification and reporting, are critical to reducing workplace bullying to a minimum. All employees should thus be aware of confidential reporting procedures for the grievance process as well as the actions and punitive measures that will follow as well as support for bullied employees. Beyond creating this awareness, the organisation's responsiveness to bullying reports or incidences must be constantly assessed and showcase management's commitment to investigate and appropriately deal with all incidents in a timely and fair manner. Consequently, constant monitoring and feedback will ensure that the employees

have a sense of the organisation being a physically and psychologically safe work environment.

Finally, this thesis makes a valuable contribution to the research and practice of workplace bullying in Sub-Saharan African countries like Ghana by being the first to explore the phenomenon of workplace bullying using both qualitative and quantitative methodology. Indeed, a search of the literature revealed no comprehensive study of workplace bullying in Ghana. As such, this study has extended the knowledge and understanding of workplace bullying in Ghana by socially constructing the lived experiences of Ghanaian oil and gas workers revealing important aspects of this phenomenon unique to the Ghanaian context. Additionally, by validating the NAQ-R in a Ghanaian sample, more empirical studies are needed to further explain the process of workplace bullying within the Ghanaian socio-cultural context using large sample sizes.

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Appendix 1 **Qualitative Study**

Participant Information Sheet

(Version 3.0: 10/10/14)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 1: The nature and meaning of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry)

Study ID – WBULLYGH

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

We would like to invite you to take part in our research study. Before you decide we would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please go through this information sheet. If there is anything that is not clear, please do not hesitate to contact us using the details given below.

What is the purpose of the study?

Workplace Bullying is a very pervasive organizational reality in Ghana. There is a scarcity of research into workplace bullying in Ghana and as such poor understanding of the concept in Ghana. Researchers have argued that national culture may affect the experience and nature of workplace bullying. The question therefore is 'how is workplace bullying experienced in Ghana's oil and gas sector by employees?' This study is thus aimed at exploring the nature, perception, conceptualization and experience of workplace bullying by workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana.

Why have I been invited?

You are being invited to take part because you are working for [the name of the company]. We are inviting 15 participants from the Oil and Gas industry in Ghana.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is absolutely voluntary - it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you can keep this information sheet and give your consent by signing 2 copies of the Consent form (you will keep one copy for yourself). You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. This would not affect your legal rights. Withdrawal also applies during the interview itself. If you change your mind about participating once the interview has begun, you can stop it at any point and the data file will be destroyed.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you accept to take part in this study, we will plan the most suitable time at your earliest convenience and availability. The interview will last between 30 to 55 minutes and will take place in a very relaxed environment and in privacy.

The interview will be recorded on a digital audio recorder. After the interview, the file will be transferred to a password protected laptop for safe keeping and the file deleted from the digital audio recorder. The file containing the recording on the laptop will then be transcribed by

the researcher. To ensure anonymity, all personal information will be removed during the transcription.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The information we get from your participation in this study may help enhance understanding of psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas sector. Hence, your participation is highly valued.

Are there any risks to me if I take part?

There are no foreseeable or anticipated risks to you from your participation in this study. However, should you feel distressed during the interview or uncomfortable answering any question; you are free to refuse to answer the question. You may also decide to stop the interview at any time without any explanation to the researcher ana at no consequence to you.

What if there is a problem?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should contact the researchers who will do their best to answer your questions. The researchers' contact details are given at the end of this information sheet. If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you should then contact the Research Ethics Committee Administrator, c/o The University of Nottingham, School of Medicine Education Centre, B Floor, Medical School, Queen's Medical Centre Campus, Nottingham University Hospitals, Nottingham, NG7 2UH. E-mail: louise.sabir@nottingham.ac.uk.

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

We will follow ethical and legal practice and all information about you will be handled in confidence.

If you join the study, some parts of the data collected for the study will be looked at by authorized persons from the University of Nottingham who are organizing the research. They may also be looked at by authorized people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be anonymous and kept **strictly confidential**. It will only be viewed by the researchers and authorised persons.

All information will be used for research purpose only. In case of future studies, further ethical approval will be sought. Research data will be kept on an encrypted database for 7 years. During this time all precautions will be taken by all those involved to maintain your confidentiality and only members of the research team will have access to your personal data. After this time your data will be disposed of securely.

What will happen if I do not want to carry on with the study?

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason during the interview.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the research will be written up as part of an educational qualification recognised by the University of Nottingham and may get published. A general (not individual) report will also be sent to your employing organization if requested. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any report or publication.

Who is organizing and funding the research?

This research is being organized by the University of Nottingham and funded by the Government of Ghana through the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund).

Who has reviewed the study?

All research in the University of Nottingham is looked at by independent group of people, called a Research Ethics Committee, to protect your interests. This study has been reviewed and given favourable opinion by School of Medicine Research Ethics Committee.

Further information and contact details

We do not expect that taking part in this study will cause any distress. If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to email the researchers who will do their best to answer your questions. The investigators of the study are Prof. Stavroula Leka (stavroula.leka@nottingham.ac.uk) and Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako (lwxskk@nottingham.ac.uk).

Consent Form

(Version 2.0: 10/10/14)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 1: The nature and meaning of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry)

Study ID – WBULLYGH

REC ref: OVSb11092014 SoM PAPsych PhD

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet version number 1.0 dated 28/08/2014 for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.

3. I understand that relevant sections of my data collected in the study may be looked at by the research group and regulatory authorities where it is relevant to my taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to have access to these records and to collect, store, analyse and publish information obtained from my participation in this study. I understand that my personal details will be kept confidential.

4. I understand that the interview will be recorded and that anonymous direct quotes from the interview may be used in the study reports.

5. I understand that information about me recorded during the study will be kept in a secure database. If the data is transferred is will be made anonymous. Data will be kept for 7 years after the study has ended.

6. I agree to take part in the above study.

☐ By ticking this box, I agree to take part in the above study.

Participant´s name:

Participant´s signature:

Date:

Debriefing Sheet

(Version 2.0: 10/10/14)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 1: The nature and meaning of workplace bullying in Ghana's oil and gas industry)

REC ref: OVSb11092014 SoM PAPsych PhD

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

Thank you for your participation in the study.

The following sections summarise key information about the study. Should you have any further inquiries, please do not hesitate to get in touch with the researchers using the contact details stated in the last section.

Purpose

Workplace Bullying is a very pervasive organizational reality in Ghana. There is a scarcity of research into workplace bullying in Ghana and as such poor understanding of the concept in Ghana. Researchers have argued that national culture may affect the experience and nature of workplace bullying. The question therefore is 'how is workplace bullying experienced in Ghana's oil and gas sector by employees?' This study is thus aimed at exploring the nature, perception, conceptualization and experience of workplace bullying by workers in the oil and gas industry in Ghana.

Results

The results of the research will be written up as part of an educational qualification recognised by the University of Nottingham and may get published. A general (not individual) report will also be sent to your employing organisation. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any report or publication.

Confidentiality

We will follow ethical and legal practice and all information about you will be handled in confidence.

Some parts of the data collected for the study will be looked at by authorized persons from the University of Nottingham who are organizing the research. They may also be looked at by authorized people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be anonymous and kept **strictly confidential**. It will only be viewed by the researchers and authorized persons.

All information will be used for research purpose only. In case of future studies, further ethical approval will be sought. Research data will be kept on an encrypted database for 7 years. During this time all precautions will be taken by all those involved to maintain your confidentiality and only members of the research team will have access to your personal data. After this time your data will be disposed of securely.

Contact details

We do not expect that taking part in this study will cause any distress. If you have any further concerns about this study, please do not hesitate to email the researchers. The investigators of the study are Prof. Stavroula Leka (stavroula.leka@nottingham.ac.uk) and Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako (lwxskk@nottingham.ac.uk).

Thank you again for your participation.

Interview Guide - Workplace Bullying in Ghana: A qualitative exploration in the oil and gas industry

Study 1: Qualitative study

- To understand the experience of workplace bullying in the oil and gas industry in Ghana.

Research questions

1. What is the experience of the workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas industry?

Section A: Experience of bullying

Please answer the following questions. Feel free to express yourself. I will be grateful if you explain your answers with examples where possible. Please avoid the use of actual names of individuals.

1. Tell me about your job. What exactly do you do? Who do you report to?
2. Tell me about your typical normal day on the job.
3. Do you enjoy your job? What things about your job make it enjoyable? What are some of the things about your work that you find to be challenging? How demanding is your job?
4. Have you heard the term 'workplace bullying' before? **(If answer is no, go to question 8…. if yes, go to question 6)**
5. What do you understand by the term bullying at work?
6. What behaviours will you consider to be bullying at work? Describe these behaviours
7. Have you had any experience of bullying at work? Tell me about this.
8. Reflect on the following definition of bullying:

   SHORT CONCISE FORM "*Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour"* (Ortega, Hogh, Pejtersen, & Olsen, 2009, p418).
9. Base on this definition, have you ever experienced bullying? Have you ever been a victim of bullying? Have you ever witnessed someone being bullied? Have you ever bullied someone at work? Tell me what happened. Who typically is the one doing the bullying?
   - **If witnessed bullying, go to question 15 and then continue from question 10**
   - **If target of bullying, go to question 16 and then continue from question 10**
   - **If perpetrator of bullying, go to question 17 and then continue from 10**
10. In your view, is bullying a good or bad thing? Please explain.
11. Does bullying have any effect on you? Can you explain this further?
12. Why do you think people bully? Why do you think you were bullied? (**For witnesses** - Why do you think people are bullied?)

13. How does this organization consider bullying? Is bullying a serious organizational issue? What do you think makes the act of bullying a serious organizational issue?
14. What did you do when you experienced or witnessed bullying? Did the organization do anything about it? How do you view the procedures used by the organization to deal with bullying?
15. Have you ever seen anyone being bullied in your organization?

Note: If the interviewee reports witnessing bullying:

a. How many incidents of bullying have you seen (e.g., one, a few, several, many, and so on)?
b. In thinking about the bullying that you have seen, what was the gender of the victim?
c. What was the race/ethnicity of the victim?
d. In this situation, who was the bully (e.g., supervisor, co-worker, and so on)?
e. To the best of your knowledge, how long had the bullying been going on?
f. Did seeing this bullying bother you?
g. Did you do anything in response to seeing this bullying and did it help?

16. Have you been bullied in your organization?

Note: If the interviewee reports being bullied:

a. How many bullies were involved?
b. What was the position of the person (or persons) who bullied you?
c. What is the gender of this person?
d. What is this person's race/ethnicity?
e. How long did the bullying go on?
f. Have you ever missed work because of bullying?
g. How have you felt and what have you thought about the bullying that you have experienced?
h. What did you do about the bullying that you have experienced and did it help?

17. Have you bullied others? Do you think of yourself as someone who could bully others?

Note: If the interviewee reports bullying others:

a. Who have you bullied?
b. Why do you believe you bullied this individual?
c. Tell me exactly what happened.
d. In your childhood/teen years did you ever experience bullying at school?
e. In your childhood/teen years did you ever experience bullying at home by a parent, sibling or other family member?

The University of Nottingham

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The General Secretary
General Transport, Petroleum & Chemical
Workers' Union of Ghana T.U.C
Accra, Ghana

August 1, 2014

Dear Sir,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION – STEPHEN KODJO KUMAKO

Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako is a member of the Centre for Organizational Health and Development of the University of Nottingham, UK. He is in his 1st year of study for a PhD in Occupational Health Psychology and Management within the Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology of the School of Medicine, University of Nottingham. He previously worked as a Lecturer in the Department of Psychology, University of Ghana, Legon.

Mr. Kumako's research is focussed on the benefits of a properly managed psychosocial work environment on employee well-being and the organization. His research will involve data collection with employees in upstream and downstream oil and gas installations in Ghana being interviewed. I would be grateful if you provided him with access to your staff as well as any assistance he may require.

Warm regards,

GENERAL TRANSPORT, PETROLEUM
& CHEMICAL WORKERS' UNION
OF GHANA T.U.C.

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All Communications
Should Be Addressed
To The General Secretary

Our Ref: GTPCWU/G.15/VOL. 6/581 Your Ref: November 28, 2014 Date:

To Our Membership OffShore
FPSO Kwame Nkrumah

AUTHORISATION NOTE:

STEPHEN KODJO KUMAKO
UNIVERSITY OF NOTTINGHAM

The Bearer of this note, Stephen Kodjo Kumako, who is undertaking studies at the University of Nottingham in the UK has been granted permission by the National Secretariat of the General Transport, Petroleum and Chemical Workers' Union of the Trades Union Congress of Ghana to talk to our members who work Offshore in regard to his research activities for a PHD in Occupational Health Psychology and Management within the School of Medicine, University of Nottingham.

The National Secretariat of the Union wishes to encourage you to offer him the needed assistance to enable him gather the necessary information towards the success of his research work.

Best regards.

Yours faithfully,
For: GENERAL TRANSPORT, PETROLEUM
AND CHEMICAL WORKERS UNION

(FUSEINI IDDRISU)
GENERAL SECRETARY

Appendix 2 **Quantitative Study**

Participant Information Sheet

(Version 2.0: 18/06/15)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 2: Workplace bullying and employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry)

Study ID – WBULLYGH2

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

We would like to invite you to take part in our research study. Before you decide we would like you to understand why the research is being done and what it would involve for you. Please go through this information sheet. If there is anything that is not clear, please do not hesitate to contact us using the details given below.

What is the purpose of the study?

Workplace Bullying is a very pervasive organizational reality in Ghana. There is a scarcity of research into workplace bullying in Ghana and as such poor understanding of the concept in Ghana. Researchers have argued that national culture may affect the experience and nature of workplace bullying. The question therefore is 'what factors in the organization are related to workplace bullying?' The study aims at identifying consequences of perceptions of workplace bullying to the organization and the individual respectively. Furthermore, aspects of the organization and the individual which can predict workplace bullying will be investigated.

Why have I been invited?

You are being invited to take part because you are working for [the name of the company]. We are inviting 500 participants from the Oil and Gas industry in Ghana.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is absolutely voluntary - it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you can keep this information sheet and give your consent by signing 2 copies of the Consent form (you will keep one copy for yourself). You will then follow the link online to fill the online survey or complete the paper survey. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. This would not affect your legal rights.

What will happen to me if I take part?

By clicking **here** (hyperlink), you will be directed to the Bristol Online Survey (BOS) system in which the questionnaire for the research is being stored and processed. After giving your consent on the portal, you will be asked to follow the instructions and complete the survey on-screen. The questionnaire will take you approximately 15 minutes to complete. Alternatively,

if you prefer to fill the paper survey the researcher will provide same to you to complete at your convenience.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The information we get from your participation in this study may help enhance understanding of psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas sector. Hence, your participation is highly valued.

What if there is a problem?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, you should contact the researchers who will do their best to answer your questions. The researchers' contact details are given at the end of this information sheet. If you remain unhappy and wish to complain formally, you should then contact the Research Ethics Committee Administrator, c/o The University of Nottingham, School of Medicine Education Centre, B Floor, Medical School, Queen's Medical Centre Campus, Nottingham University Hospitals, Nottingham, NG7 2UH. E-mail louise.sabir@nottingham.ac.uk

Will my taking part in the study be kept confidential?

We will follow ethical and legal practice and all information about you will be handled in confidence.

If you join the study, some parts of the data collected for the study will be looked at by authorized persons from the University of Nottingham who are organizing the research. They may also be looked at by authorized people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be anonymous and kept **strictly confidential**. It will only be viewed by the researchers and authorised persons.

All information will be used for research purpose only. In case of future studies, further ethical approval will be sought. Research data will be kept on an encrypted database for 7 years. During this time all precautions will be taken by all those involved to maintain your confidentiality and only members of the research team will have access to your personal data. After this time your data will be disposed of securely.

What will happen if I do not want to carry on with the study?

Your participation is entirely voluntary. You are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason whilst filling out the survey. However, please note that it is not possible for your data to be extracted and destroyed once you complete and submit the full survey.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the research will be written up as part of an educational qualification recognised by the University of Nottingham and may get published. A general (not individual) report will also be sent to your employing organization if requested. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any report or publication.

Who is organizing and funding the research?

This research is being organized by the University of Nottingham and funded by the Government of Ghana through the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFund).

Who has reviewed the study?

All research in the University of Nottingham is looked at by independent group of people, called a Research Ethics Committee, to protect your interests. This study has been reviewed and given favourable opinion by the Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee of the University of Nottingham, UK.

Further information and contact details

We do not expect that taking part in this study will cause any distress. If you have a concern about any aspect of this study, please do not hesitate to email the researchers who will do their best to answer your questions. The investigators of the study are Prof. Stavroula Leka (stavroula.leka@nottingham.ac.uk) and Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako (lwxskk@nottingham.ac.uk).

Consent Form

(Version 1.0: 20/06/15)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 2: Workplace bullying and employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry**)**

Study ID – WBULLYGH2

REC ref: (to be added after approval given)

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the participant information sheet version number 2.0 dated 18/06/2015 for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I understand that relevant sections of my data collected in the study may be looked at by the research group and regulatory authorities where it is relevant to my taking part in this study. I give permission for these individuals to have access to these records and to collect, store, analyse and publish information obtained from my participation in this study. I understand that my personal details will be kept confidential.
4. I understand that information about me recorded during the study will be kept in a secure database. If the data is transferred it will be made anonymous. Data will be kept for 7 years after the study has ended.
5. I agree to take part in the above study.

☐ By ticking this box, I agree to take part in the above study.

Participant´s name:

Participant´s signature:

Date:

Debriefing Sheet

(Version 1.0: 20/06/15)

Title of Study: Workplace bullying and its effect on employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry

(Study 2: Workplace bullying and employee well-being in Ghana's oil and gas industry**)**

REC ref: (to be added after approval given)

Name of Researcher(s): Prof. Stavroula Leka & Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako

Thank you for your participation in the study.

The following sections summarise key information about the study. Should you have any further inquiries, please do not hesitate to get in touch with the researchers using the contact details stated in the last section.

Purpose

Workplace Bullying is a very pervasive organizational reality in Ghana. There is a scarcity of research into workplace bullying in Ghana and as such poor understanding of the concept in Ghana. Researchers have argued that national culture may affect the experience and nature of workplace bullying. The question therefore is 'what factors in the organization are related to workplace bullying?' The study aims at identifying consequences of perceptions of workplace bullying to the organization and the individual respectively. Furthermore, aspects of the organization and the individual which can predict workplace bullying will be investigated.

Results

The results of the research will be written up as part of an educational qualification recognised by the University of Nottingham and may get published. A general (not individual) report will also be sent to your employing organisation. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any report or publication.

Confidentiality

We will follow ethical and legal practice and all information about you will be handled in confidence. Some parts of the data collected for the study will be looked at by authorized persons from the University of Nottingham who are organizing the research. They may also be looked at by authorized people to check that the study is being carried out correctly. All will have a duty of confidentiality to you as a research participant and we will do our best to meet this duty.

All information which is collected about you during the course of the research will be anonymous and kept **strictly confidential**. It will only be viewed by the researchers and authorized persons.

All information will be used for research purpose only. In case of future studies, further ethical approval will be sought. Research data will be kept on an encrypted database for 7 years. During this time all precautions will be taken by all those involved to maintain your confidentiality

and only members of the research team will have access to your personal data. After this time your data will be disposed of securely.

Contact details

We do not expect that taking part in this study will cause any distress. If you have any further concerns about this study, please do not hesitate to email the researchers. The investigators of the study are Prof. Stavroula Leka (stavroula.leka@nottingham.ac.uk) and Mr. Stephen Kodjo Kumako (lwxskk@nottingham.ac.uk).

Thank you again for your participation

WORKPLACE BULLYING AND EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING IN GHANA'S OIL AND GAS INDUSTRY.

Akwaaba!
This survey may take 15 to 20 minutes to complete.
Thanks for your time!

What is the purpose of the study?

Workplace Bullying refers to a situation where someone is subjected to negative behaviours from another individual or a group of people consistently for a period of time. The study aims at identifying consequences of perceptions of workplace bullying to the organization and the individual respectively. Furthermore, aspects of the organization and the individual which can lead to workplace bullying will be investigated**.**

Why have I been invited?

You are being invited to take part because you are working for a company in the oil and gas sector in Ghana. We are inviting 500 participants from the Oil and Gas industry in Ghana.

Do I have to take part?

Participation is absolutely voluntary - it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. By continuing to the next page, you will be giving your consent to take part in this study. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The information we get from your participation in this study may help enhance understanding of psychosocial risks such as workplace bullying in the Ghanaian oil and gas sector. This will help organizations to protect the health of employees. Hence, your participation is highly valued.

Ethics

1. Your participation is voluntary, and you are free to withdraw at any time.
2. Data including personal details will be kept confidential and the responses anonymous.
3. The results of the research will be written up as part of an educational qualification and may get published. A general report will also be sent to your employing organization. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any report or publication
4. I understand that information about me recorded during the study will be kept in a secure database for 7 years after the study has ended.

By continuing to complete the survey, you have consented to your participation in this study.

Thank you for your participation.

Stephen Kodjo Kumako BSc. MPhil MBPsS
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Member, Centre for Organizational Health & Development
- a WHO Collaborating Centre in Occupational Health

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Nottingham NG8 1BB, UK

Section A: Workplace bullying

Using the scale below please indicate how often you have experienced the following in the last 6 months by anyone in your organization

Never	Now and then	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
1	2	3	4	5

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

"*Bullying takes place when a person is repeatedly treated in a nasty or degrading way and finds it difficult to defend him or herself against the behaviour*" (Ortega, Hogh, Pejtersen, & Olsen, 2009, p. 418).

Have you ever been bullied? (Please tick)

No ____ Yes, very rarely_____ Yes, now and then _____ Yes, several times a month _____Yes, several times a week _____ Yes, almost daily _____

1. Have you ever witnessed bullying? (Please tick)

No ____ Yes, very rarely_____ Yes, now and then _____ Yes, several times a month _____Yes, several times a week _____ Yes, almost daily _____

If you answered **YES** in either 1 or 2 above, which of these groups most frequently engages in this bullying behaviour?

Subordinate _____ Colleague _____ Superior _____

What is usually their gender?

Male_____ Female_____

Section B: Psychological well-being

Please read the questions below and each of the four possible answers. Circle the response that best applies to you.

Not at all	**no more than usual**	**Rather more than usual**	**much more than usual**
(0)	**(1)**	**(2)**	**(3)**

Have you recently:

1. Have you recently been able to concentrate on what you're doing?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
2. Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
3. Have you recently felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
4. Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
5. Have you recently felt constantly under strain?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
6. Have you recently felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
7. Have you recently been able to enjoy your normal day to day activities?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
8. Have you recently been able to face up to your problems?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
9. Have you recently been feeling unhappy or depressed?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
10. Have you recently been losing confidence in yourself?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
11. Have you recently been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**
12. Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**

Section C: Psychological Capital

Below are statements that describe how you may think about yourself right now. Use the following scales to indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement

Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat disagree/agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1. I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. I feel confident contributing to discussions about the company's strategy.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5. I feel confident contacting people outside the company (suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6. I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. If I should find myself in a jam at work, I could think of many ways to get out of it.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

8. At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9. There are lots of ways around any problem	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11. I can think of many ways to reach my current work goals.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12. At this time, I am meeting the work goals that I have set for myself.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
13. When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
14. I usually manage difficulties one way or another at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
15. I can be "on my own," so to speak, at work if I have to	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
16. I usually take stressful things at work in stride	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
17. I can get through difficult times at work because I've experienced difficulty before.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
18. I feel I can handle many things at a time at this job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
19. When things are uncertain for me at work, I usually expect the best.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
20. If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
21. I always look on the bright side of things regarding my job.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22. I'm optimistic about what will happen to me in the future as it pertains to work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
23. In this job, things never work out the way I want them to.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
24. I approach this job as if "every cloud has a silver lining."	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section D: Religiosity

Please answer the following questions about religious faith using the scale below.

1. In my life, I experience the presence of the Divine	**1** - Definitely not true	**2** - Tends not to be true	**3** - Unsure	**4** - Tends to be true	**5** - Definitely true of me
2.My religious beliefs are what really lie behind my whole approach to life	**1** - Definitely not true	**2** - Tends not to be true	**3** - Unsure	**4** - Tends to be true	**5** - Definitely true of me
3.I try hard to carry my religion over into all other dealings in life	**1** - Definitely not true	**2** - Tends not to be true	**3** - Unsure	**4** - Tends to be true	**5** - Definitely true of me

Section E: Social support

We are interested in how you feel about the following statements. Read each statement carefully. Indicate how you feel about each statement.	**Strongly disagree 1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**Strongly agree 5**
1. There is a special person who is around when I am in need.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. My family really tries to help me	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. I get the emotional help and support I need from my family	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

5. I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6. My friends really try to help me	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. I can count on my friends when things go wrong	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8. I can talk about my problems with my family	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
9. I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
10. There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
11. My family is willing to help me make decisions	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12. I can talk about my problems with my friends	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section F: Power distance

Strongly Disagree **Disagree** **Somewhat Disagree/agree** **Agree** **Strongly Agree**

1 **2** **3** **4** **5**

1. Answers to questions in this set up should be answered only by top management		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. Supervisors and employees should see each other as equals		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. A leader should always have the ultimate power		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. Everybody must be part of decision making in a society/organization		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5 The one who receives the highest compensation should be one at the highest management position		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6. In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. Employees should not express disagreements with their managers		**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section G: Job satisfaction

Taking everything into consideration, how do you feel about your job as a whole?	**1** I am extremely dissatisfied	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5** I am extremely satisfied

Section H: Emotional Exhaustion (Burnout) and Engagement

	0 Never					**5 Always**
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. I feel used up at the end of the work day	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

3. I am full of energy at work	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. I am enthusiastic about my job	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section I: Organizational Commitment

To a very large extent	**To a large extent**	**Somewhat**	**To a small extent**	**To a very small extent**
4	**3**	**2**	1	0

1. Would you like to stay at your current place of work for the rest of your working life?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
2. Do you feel that your place of work is of great importance to you?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**

Section J: Turnover intentions

What are your plans for staying with this organization?

1. I intend to stay until I retire.	
2. I will leave only if an exceptional opportunity turns up	
3. I will leave if something better turns up.	
4. 1 intend to leave as soon as possible	

Section K: Work Pace

	Always	**Often**	**Sometimes**	**Seldom**	**Never/hardly ever**
1. Do you have to work very fast?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
2. Is your workload unevenly distributed so it piles up?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
3. How often do you not have time to complete all your work tasks?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**

Section L: Workload

	Never	**Rarely**	**Sometimes**	**Often**	**Several times per day**
1. How often do you have to do more work than you can do well?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. How often is there a great deal to be done?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. How often does your job require you to work very fast?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. How often does your job require you to work very hard?	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section M: Control

	Strongly disagree	**disagree**	**neither**	**agree**	**Strongly agree**
1. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. On my job, I have very little freedom to decide how I work	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. I have a lot of say about what happens on my job	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Section N: Colleague and supervisor Social Support

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never/ hardly ever
1. How often do you get help and support from your colleagues?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
2. How often are your colleagues willing to listen to your work-related problems?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
3. How often do you get help and support from your immediate superior?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**
4. How often is your immediate superior willing to listen to your work-related problems?	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**

Section 0: Job insecurity

	Disagree strongly	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Agree strongly
1. I think that I will be able to continue working here	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. There is only a small chance that I will become unemployed	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. I am certain/sure of my job environment	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. I am very sure that I will be able to keep my job	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5. I feel uncertain about the future of my job	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6. I worry about the continuation of my career	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. I fear that I might lose my job	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
8. I fear that I might get fired	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

Demographic Information

1. Sex: (Please tick) Male _____ Female_____

2. Age: (Please tick) 21 – 25_____ 26 – 30 _____ 31 – 35_____ 36 – 40_____ 41 – 45_____ 46 – 50_____ 51+_____

3. Marital status: (Please tick) _____ Single _____ Married _____ Divorced/Separated

4. Job Position: _____

5. How long has it been since you took up your current job? (Please tick) Within a year _____ 2 – 5 years _____ 6– 10 years _____ 10 years+ _____

6. Academic qualification: (Please tick) SSCE_____ O/A Level_____ HND_____

1st Degree_____ MPhil_____ MA_____ PHD_____

THANKS FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!