

**Influence of Gender and Negative Affect on Workplace Bullying Bystander
Intervention**

by

Juan Carlos Corzo Morales

Master of Applied Psychology in Organisational Psychology

Murdoch University

*This thesis is presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Applied Psychology in Organisational
Psychology, Murdoch University, 2020*

*I declare that this thesis is my own account of my research and
contains as its main content work which has not previously been
submitted for a degree at any tertiary educational institution*

.....

Juan Carlos Corzo Morales

Copyright Acknowledgement

I acknowledge that a copy of this thesis will be held at the Murdoch University Library.

I understand that, under provisions of s51.2 of the Copyright Act 1968, all of part of this thesis may be copied without infringement of copyright where such a reproduction is for the purposes of study and research.

This statement does not signal any transfer of copyright away from the author.

Signed:

Full name of degree: Master of Applied Psychology in Organisational Psychology

Thesis Title: Influence of Gender and Negative Affect on Workplace Bullying Bystander Intervention

Author: Juan Carlos Corzo Morales

Year: 2020

Abstract

Workplace bullying in Australia has increased in the last years. Bullying is a significant health and safety concern. The workplace bullying literature has mainly focused on victims. This research intends to contribute to the development of effective evidence-based interventions targeted at active bystander participation. The study focuses on understanding the impact of gender and negative affect on bystanders' decisions to intervene or not intervene when they observe bullying behaviour at work. The current study found that three out of four men were unlikely to intervene in a bullying event if the target was a man. Female bystanders were more likely to rate the bullying experience as more severe than male bystanders. Additionally, female witnesses displayed significant higher levels of distress and upset than male witnesses. Finally, the study found that an increasing negative affect was positively associated with an increasing likelihood of intervention. Limitations and future research are discussed

Keywords: Workplace Bullying, Bystander Intervention, Negative Affect, Gender differences

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge my parents and my sisters whose existence and support have sustained me through the most difficult times.

I acknowledge my supervisor Dr Graeme Ditchburn for his continuous support, kindness and understanding of my personal circumstances.

I thank the one who stole my heart and I thank God who has not forsaken me

Table of Contents**Contents**

Table of Contents.....	6
List of Tables	7
Influence of Gender and Negative Affect on Workplace Bullying Bystander Intervention.....	8
Definition of Bullying.....	9
Types of Bullying	9
Bystander Behaviour.....	10
Bystander Intervention	11
Workplace Bullying and Gender	14
Bullying and Emotions.....	16
Purpose and Hypotheses	18
Methods.....	20
Design.....	20
Participants	20
Measures.....	21
Procedure.....	22
Results.....	22
Reliability Analysis.....	22
Gender and Intervention	22
Gender and Negative Affect	24
Negative affect and intervention.....	26
Negative Affect Gender and Intervention	27
Discussion.....	28
Practical Implications	30
Limitations and Future Research	30
Conclusion.....	31
References	32

List of Tables

	Page
Table 1. Cronbach's Alpha Levels for the NAQ-R and the NA Scale	22
Table 2. Relationship between Gender and Intervention	23
Table 3. Relationship between Gender, Sex of the Target and Intervention	23
Table 4. Relationship between Gender, Sex of the Perpetrator, Sex of the Target and Intervention	24
Table 5. Median Differences in Types of Negative Affect Between Females and Males	26
Table 6. Logistic Regression Predicting Likelihood of Intervention based on Negative Affect	27
Table 7. Logistic Regression Predicting Likelihood of Intervention based on Negative Affect and Gender	28

Influence of Gender and Negative Affect on Workplace Bullying Bystander Intervention

In Australia, since 2014, the Fair Work Commission (2019) could cease instances of bullying if a worker had been bullied at work, provided that there is a continual, ongoing risk to the individual. Specifically, Australian legislation, in accordance with a growing body of research (e.g. Einarsen & Nielsen, 2015; Nielsen et al., 2012; Nielsen et al., 2020; Verkuil et al., 2015), recognises workplace bullying as a significant health and safety concern. Two meta-analyses have provided evidence of the detrimental effects of workplace bullying, concluding that it is consistently linked to poorer mental health (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Verkuil et al., 2015).

The workplace bullying literature has mainly focused on victims of bullying, with increased attention on perpetrators (D'Cruz & Noronha 2011). Although witnesses are important characters in bullying scenarios, they have only received research attention in recent years (Dickinson, 2013; Haffner, 2009; Mulder et al., 2014). Specifically, studies conducted in school settings have found that bullying prevention programs are effective at increasing bystander intervention in bullying events (Cowie & Hutson, 2005; Andreou et al., 2008). Because most of the time witnesses are present when bullying occurs (O'Connell et al., 1999), bystander intervention is considered essential to counteract bullying (Polanin et al., 2012). Even though the literature already offers alternatives to intervention (Lassiter, Bostain, & Lentz, 2018; Oade, 2009), there is still a need for more profound understanding about bystander behaviour (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2011).

A report published by Safe Work Australia (Potter et al., 2016) found that workplace bullying in Australia increased from 7% in 2009 to 9.7% in 2016. Prevalence rates have been found to vary across studies, according to country and working sectors (Chatziioannidis et al., 2018) and depending on the research design, the methodology and cultural characteristics (Power et al, 2013). Lange (2019) mentions various studies that reveal prevalence ranging from 1.4% in Great Britain (Hoel, Cooper & Faragher, 2001) to 48% in Turkey (Bilgel, Aytac &

Bayram, 2006), while Nielsen et al. (2009) reported wide variation in prevalence estimates both, between and within countries.

Definition of Bullying

Although significant advances have been made in developing conceptual clarity around workplace bullying, one of the main reasons for prevalence discrepancies resides in its definition (Branch et al., 2013). Various definitions are currently in use among researchers, practitioners, legal and regulatory bodies. According to Einarsen (2000), different concepts have been used to describe harassing behaviour at work, such as psychological terror (Leyman, 1990), work abuse (Bassman, 1993), victimisation, mobbing (Olweus, 1993), workplace trauma or employee abuse (Wilson, 1991). As research continues to expand and develop in this field, workplace bullying is consistently becoming the preferred term used throughout the research community (Branch et al., 2013).

Workplace bullying can be defined as “repeated, unreasonable behaviour directed toward an employee or group of employees that creates a risk to health and safety” (WorkSafe Victoria, 2020). According to Saunders and colleagues (2007), definitions used by researchers investigating this phenomenon are generally detailed and include four essential criteria, (a) the negative effect of the behaviour on the target, (b) the frequency and (c) persistence of the behaviour, and (d) the power imbalance that a behaviour must include before the conduct is regarded as an example of bullying.

Types of Bullying

Bullying has been classified in different forms. It is possible to distinguish between subtle and overt forms of bullying. Behaviours such as a dirty look, sarcasm, ignoring someone, or passive-aggressive comments, are subtle forms of bullying, while overt forms may include behaviours such as throwing an item, intimidation, verbal threats, and physical abuse (Einarsen, 2000). Similarly, bullying can be defined as both horizontal and vertical bullying. According to Branch et al. (2013), when bullying occurs among colleagues, who are at the same level within the organisation’s hierarchy, it is defined as horizontal bullying. If bullying happens between a subordinate and a superior, it is called vertical. Vertical bullying

can be downwards, from a manager to an employee, or upwards, from a subordinate to a supervisor or manager (Branch et al., 2013).

Bullying has also been distinguished in forms of the means or platforms used, that is, cyberbullying and traditional bullying. Known as offline and online bullying (Modecki et al., 2014), this distinguishes between bullying that is carried out in an electronic context from bullying that occurs in person (Kowalski et al., 2014). Finally, bullying can be defined in terms of the foci (i.e., work-related vs person-related bullying). When testing the underlying dimensions of the Negative Acts Questionnaire, Einarsen et al. (2009) found two dimensions of bullying; one that indicates that the behaviour is focused on personal characteristics, and another when the behaviour aims at disrupting the individual's performance.

Bystander Behaviour

Research on bullying has primarily focused on its definition, prevalence, assessment, antecedents and consequences, and has been mostly concerned with targets and perpetrators (Einarsen et al., 2003, Chen & Park, 2015). However, given that in most bullying episodes there are witnesses present (Ahmed, 2008), the topic of bystanders has recently become more prominent (Chen & Park, 2015).

According to McDonald (2012), bystanders (who are also referred to as witnesses or observers) are individuals who witness harassment, abuse, or mistreatment, or are informed of it. Although they are not the direct targets of bullying behaviour, it can have a negative impact on them, in relation to stress levels, perceived environment safety, and increased levels of fear, guilt and shame (Branch & Murray, 2015; Mason, 2014). Witnessing workplace bullying is related to future depressive symptoms and anxiety (Emdad et al., 2013; Sprigg et al., 2019) and is associated with lower employee satisfaction and commitment, and intention to leave the organisation (Simms & Sun, 2012).

Bystanders have been categorized into different types (e.g. Paull et al., 2012; Salmivalli, 2014; Twemlow et al., 2004). In general, they can be classified on a continuum from active to passive involvement, meaning that they may intervene to prevent bullying or

lessen harm, or in fact to instigate or facilitate bullying (Paull et al., 2012), or take no action at all (McDonald, 2012).

Bystander Intervention

Initial research demonstrated that, in an emergency, the likelihood that someone would intervene to help a victim reduces when passive bystanders are present (Darley & Latane, 1968). This is known as the bystander effect. It occurs due to a diffusion of responsibility, arising because observers think that others may help, due to self-awareness (the individual does not want to appear inept), due to a lack of social clues, or as a result of someone else taking action that blocks that of another individual (Hudson & Bruckman, 2004).

In regard to organisations, witnesses play an important role in the dynamics of bullying (Dickinson, 2013). They can impact and be impacted by perpetrator-target incidents, (Paull, et al., 2012). Acting or not acting can make a difference in terms of allowing a bullying incident to escalate or be avoided and also, influences whether harassment conduct develops as an acceptable behaviour within the organisational culture (Lewis & Orford, 2005).

In contrast, some authors highlight negative consequences of witnesses getting involved and argue that a witness has no obligation to intervene (Rayner et al., 2002). Others believe that playing a passive role is not a neutral act. It reduces available social support and increases the chances of repetition, which concurrently reinforces bullying behaviours and creates and perpetuates a toxic environment (Hutchinson et al., 2009).

However, few studies have explored witnesses' accounts of workplace bullying (Nielsen et al., 2009; Tuckey et al., 2009). Despite this, understanding witness intervention and non-intervention is crucial in designing effective anti-bullying strategies (Hutchinson et al., 2009). According to Mason (2014), neither target assertiveness training nor perpetrator anger management have been found to be effective in reducing bullying, but only bystander intervention.

More research has been conducted in school settings (Ahmed 2008; Rolider & Ochayon, 2005), which may be useful to workplace researchers, since a large number of school-based anti-bullying programs include interventions aimed at bystanders (Barhight et

al., 2013). A study by Pepler and Craig (1995) confirmed that, during bullying incidents bullies ceased aggressive conduct approximately 50% of the time when a bystander actively conveyed disapproval (Barhight et al., 2013).

For bystanders to intervene, several conditions are required: the incident must be acknowledged, it has to be interpreted as an emergency, the bystander needs to feel responsible for dealing with it, and he/she must have the required ability and resources to take action (Latané & Nida, 1981).

Bystander intervention is influenced by the anticipated costs and rewards of acting and not acting (Latané & Darley, 1970, in Shorenstein, 2007), and is affected by both, individual characteristics and situational factors (Song & Oh, 2017). These factors may prevent or promote bystander intervention.

Factors inhibiting bystander intervention. Consistent with the bystander effect previously described, some studies show that the more witnesses present, the less likely each one is to intervene (Mason, 2014). In contrast, however, other studies do not support this (e.g. Levine & Crowther, 2008).

In general, witnesses could refrain from taking action if they perceive they are putting themselves at risk (Ahmed, 2008). Anticipated adverse outcomes for bystanders might include fear of possible retaliation (Baez-León et al., 2016) or being the next target (Branch & Murray, 2015). Mulder et al. (2016) also found that when the probability for stigma by association exists, it hinders helping intention. This occurs when association with the target is perceived to threaten and wear down the witness' social status.

Helping intention also reduces if bystanders perceive that the victim is somehow responsible for the bullying situation (Mulder et al., 2008). This also occurs if they recognize that the victim is coping well with the incident, since they expect the target to be capable of handling the situation appropriately. In other situations, bystanders may remain silent as a consequence of not having enough level of detail or clarity about the incident, or because they are uncertain about how they can assist when bullying occurs (Van Heugten, 2011).

Organisational factors such as a supportive environment play a key role in the decision not to intervene (MacCurtain et al., 2018). Even if witnesses can speak up about problems, they need to know that appropriate action is likely to be taken (Goldberg et al., 2011). When espoused values and norms are not in line with the enacted ones, bystanders are unlikely to intervene (MacCurtain et al., 2018).

Factors promoting bystander intervention. Research from a Canadian study (Haffner, 2009) identified specific situations positively associated with bystanders' intention to intervene in bullying incidents. These included: the witness liking the target, the witness disliking the perpetrator, the incident is considered severe, someone else intervening first, the event is considered recurrent, and the witness believing that the bullying behaviour was not deserved (Haffner, 2009).

Other factors that have proved to contribute to bystander intervention are high levels of self-efficacy (i. e. believing in one's ability to achieve goals, Gini et al. 2008), and identification with the target's ethnicity (Levine & Crowther, 2008). Likewise, when the target is a friend witnesses are more likely to defend him/her and less likely to support the perpetrator (Coyne et al., 2019).

Following the attribution model of social conduct (Weiner, 2006), Mulder et al. (2014) established that perceived non-responsibility, in other words considering that the target is not responsible for the bullying, intensifies sympathy and, consequently, helping intention. In a similar way, altruistic observers who feel angry and hostile toward the perpetrator and at the same time feel sympathy for the target are more likely to intervene in favour of the victim (Mason, 2014).

Additionally, according to shame management theory (Ahmed, 2001), when individuals break social or moral standards, they may experience shame and/or guilt. Shame acknowledgement then increases the likelihood of bystanders defending victims, while shame displacement would do the opposite (Ahmed, 2008). It is critical to understand that, even if the intention to help victims is present, it is not always sufficient to predict helping behaviour (Baez-León et al., 2016; Rolider & Ochayon, 2005). For instance, Baez-León et al. (2016)

found that intention to help elicited by several factors was only predicted when fear of retaliation was absent.

Workplace Bullying and Gender

Although workplace bullying is often considered as a gender-neutral phenomenon, many researchers argue that this is not the case (Anjum & Muazzam, 2018; Salin & Hoel, 2013). The gender-blind argument essentially treats gender as a demographic variable, associated with social status (Keashly, 2012). Conversely, the gendered perspective, considers the power imbalance inherent to bullying, and acknowledges that power is biased, especially toward men and masculine ideas of control (Lee, 2002).

Gender and prevalence of bullying. In Australia, women are more likely than men to be bullied at work (Potter et al., 2016). While some studies do not report significant gender differences in relation to bullying (Hoel & Cooper, 2000), others find that men are more exposed to bullying behaviours (Eriksen & Einarsen, 2004), and others report women being more likely to be bullied than men (Anjum & Muazzam, 2018; Drabek & Merecz, 2013). A number of different issues have been discussed when exploring these discrepancies.

To assess exposure to bullying, both objective and subjective methods are used (Einarsen et al., 2009). The latter, also recognised as the self-labelling method, provides a definition of bullying and asks whether the person has experienced the behaviour. In this case, rates of exposure are usually lower when compared to objective methods, since individuals are sometimes hesitant to portray themselves as victims (Keashley, 2012). Furthermore, O'Donnell and McIntosh (2016) have stated that men are more reluctant than women to label themselves as targets.

Differences in gender exposure to bullying are also associated with specific industry, organisational or occupational factors (Keashley, 2012). Basically, individuals who are part of a minority group (e.g. groups where one gender predominates) are more likely to become targets of bullying (López-Cabarcos et al., 2017). In a similar way, Salin (2015) affirms that in occupations traditionally dominated by males, females are more likely to be affected, and males are more likely to be bullied in occupations traditionally dominated by females.

Even if there was no difference in exposure to bullying between women and men, they are likely to experience different types of behaviours (e.g. females come up against more indirect forms and men more direct forms), and this may result in gender differences in experiences (Keashley, 2012).

Gender and perpetrators. In relation to the perpetrator, some studies have found that men are more often recognised as bullies (Maidaniuc, 2019). This is likely to occur due to leadership positions within organisations having a larger proportion of men (Li & Wearing, 2004, as cited in Maidaniuc, 2019).

Direct bullying behaviours include humiliation and verbal aggression, and male employees are more likely to engage in this type of aggression (Maidaniuc, 2019). Bjorkvist et al., (1994) and Hess and Hagen (2006) observed that women generally employ indirect bullying behaviours such as social isolation and spreading rumours. Females are less likely to engage in aggressive interpersonal behaviours (Gonzalez-Mulé et al., 2013).

Gender and targets. Studies addressing gender differences from the target's perspective have found that, in terms of severity, women were more likely to experience bullying as more severe. Correspondingly, research conducted by Escartin et al. (2013) found that many of the behaviours assessed through a bullying measure were rated as more severe by women.

In general, men are more likely to be bullied by other men, while women are also bullied largely by men but also by women (Einarsen, 2000). In addition, women are bullied by colleagues more often than men (Salin & Hoel, 2013), and men are more often bullied by supervisors and line-managers (Vartia & Hyyti, 2002).

Gender and bystanders. In relation to witnesses, identification with the target's sex contributes to bystander intervention (Levine & Crowther, 2008). Research in educational settings has found that boys are generally more likely to be both perpetrators and targets of bullying, compared to girls (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017). Boys have also been found to be more likely to act as supporters of the bully, while girls have been more often observed as

defenders of the target (Salmivalli et al., 1996). Accordingly, recent studies confirm that girls display more defending behaviour than boys do (Pozzoli & Gini, 2013).

A study by Ortega et al. (2009) found that females were more accurate in perceiving and understanding emotions when witnessing different types of bullying (Ortega et al., 2009)

Female bystanders, in general, experience greater distress, but conversely greater confidence in responding to bullying (Brinkman & Manning, 2016; Werth et al., 2015), and exhibit more empathy and prosocial behaviour than males (Attel et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2014). Female bystander also tend to demonstrate greater moral sensitivity (i.e., acknowledging the harm caused by bullying, feeling sympathy for the target), and lower moral disengagement (Thornberg & Jungert, 2013), and are more likely than males to suggest multiple actions for responding to bullying (Tamm & Tulviste, 2015). It has been proposed that females tend to intervene more often than boys due to expectations associated with feminine standards (Brinkman & Manning, 2016).

Equally important to researchers has been the topic of emotions and the role they play in the dynamics of bullying.

Bullying and Emotions

Emotions are short-term psychological states, which are affective, evaluative and intentional (Colman, 2015). Studies regarding emotions and bullying are numerous in educational research. While many of them explore targets' emotional responses (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010), few have written about bystanders' emotions and how they may influence the choice to help or not (Desrumaux et al., 2018).

Emotions play a key role in bullying events, as far as perpetrators, targets and bystanders are concerned. Regarding perpetrators, emotions can act as antecedents of bullying (Baek et al., 2018). According to General String Theory, a principle of criminology matured by Agnew (1992), when there is lack of prosocial coping mechanisms, strain induces negative emotions which then lead to antisocial coping (Agnew, 2001). Baek et al. (2018) found that anger mediated the relationship between family violence and bullying and concluded that anger was a more important mediator for exposure to family violence and

bullying behaviour for females when compared to male students (Baek et al., 2018). Other studies have shown that a lack of moral emotions, such as remorse and guilt, is predictive of both traditional and cyberbullying behaviours (Perren & Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger, 2012).

Emotional responses from targets can also encourage perpetrators to continue the bullying behaviour (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). When being bullied, targets' maladaptive expressions of happiness, sadness or surprise indicate to offenders that their bullying is effective, which encourages them to continue with the abuse (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). This may be because negative emotions influence individuals to focus on negative information, restricting their cognitive and behavioural capacity to better respond (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). Other authors refer to this as a skills deficit in emotional regulation, which acts as a risk factor for further victimization (Mahady et al., 2000). In general, bullying perpetrators and victims have been found to have inferior emotion self-regulation skills, compared to non-perpetrators/victims (Garner & Hinton, 2010).

Regarding the targets, there is a large body of literature confirming the negative emotional impact of bullying on victims, who as a result of the abuse feel socially anxious, depressed, lonely and lacking in self-esteem (Cowie & Berdondini, 2002). Emotions are critical in understanding how people react to stressful transactions (Muchinsky, 2000). Emotions not only vary in intensity and in kind, but they also can be experienced as positive or negative. Exposure to stressful situations not only intensifies negative emotions but also reduces the intensity of positive affect (Glaso & Notelaers, 2012). Although positive and negative emotions are related to bullying, numerous studies mention affective states exclusively as products of bullying, while there is also evidence on their potential mediating effect (Glaso & Notelaers, 2012). Emotional experiences have been found to partially mediate the relationship between bullying and target's attitudes, such as intention to leave and job satisfaction (Glaso et al., 2010).

Positive and negative emotions can be further classified. Based on Affective Events Theory, which proposes that specific events cause affective reactions, which produce affect-driven behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), Brotheridge and Lee (2010) showed that

facing bullying behaviour could trigger positive emotions, outward-focused negative emotions such as anger, and inward-focused negative emotions like confusion, restlessness, sadness and tiredness.

According to Barhight et al. (2013), children's reactions to bullying regarding bystander behaviour was not well understood. There was an impression that emotionally aroused individuals were less likely to engage in prosocial behaviour, considering that their aim was to lower personal distress (Batson et al., 1994). After watching bullying incidents, a group of children displayed an accelerated heart rate and increased negative emotion, while another group reported low negative emotion and decelerated heart rate. They found that children in the first group (labelled as "emotional") were more likely to intervene to stop the perpetrator than children in the second group (labelled "unemotional") (Barhight et al., 2013). This suggests that emotional arousal may contribute to the strength and determination children need to amass to confront a bully.

Affect plays a key role in Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1985), which examines why particular events or outcomes have occurred. It proposes that emotions guide motivated behaviour, mediating between thoughts and actions (Rudolph et al., 2004). In line with this model, Desrumaux et al. (2018) found that bystander helping behaviour towards a victim of bullying depends on the evaluation made by the witness about how much control he or she has on the situation, and is mediated by the emerged affect. According to them, the more severe the bullying behaviour, the greater the emotions elicited and the intention to intervene. In addition, they observed that the target's conduct in terms of pro-social or anti-social behaviour also predicted witnesses' judgments of fairness and their emotions, influencing, accordingly, their inclination to help.

Purpose and Hypotheses

This research intends to contribute to the development of effective evidence-based interventions targeted at bystander participation. The study focuses on understanding the impact of gender and negative affect on bystanders' decisions to intervene or not intervene when they observe bullying behaviour at work.

The first group of hypotheses (1 - 3) explore the gender of the three actors in bullying incidents (i.e. the perpetrator, target, and bystander) to determine if these interactions influence the bystander's decision to intervene. The second group of hypotheses (4 and 5) refer to whether there is a difference between negative affect of the bullying experience and the gender of the bystander. The last hypothesis (6) looks into the likelihood of bystander intervention considering negative affect and gender of the bystander.

Some of the literature on bullying in school settings affirms that girls display more defending behaviour than boys (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Pozzoli & Gini, 2013; Salmivalli et al., 1996). In light of this, it is hypothesized that in the workplace:

H1: Females are more likely to intervene than males

Furthermore, as earlier mentioned, Levine and Crowther (2008) propose that, as a result of gender identity, identification with the target's sex contributes to bystander intervention. This occurs because the target is seen as an in-group member by witnesses of the same gender. Therefore, it is expected that:

H2: Bystanders will be more likely to intervene when the target is of the same gender as them

Despite the literature that has examined gender and bullying, there is a number of exploratory hypotheses that have not been considered. Considering the gender of the perpetrator, the target, and the bystander at the same time, it is hypothesized that:

H3: Males bystanders are more likely to intervene when the perpetrator is of the same gender and the target is a woman.

This hypothesis originates from a meta-analysis on helping behaviour by Eagly and Crowley (1986). They suggest that male witnesses, mostly when females are present, tend to embrace the sex role expectation that men should heroically intervene and help. Specifically, to protect those seen as weak (i. e. to defend and respect the honour of women).

Exposure to bullying behaviours is frequently followed by emotions such as fear (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010; Keith, 2018), guilt and shame (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2005;

Menesini & Camodeca, 2008; Menesini et al., 2003). According to Brotheridge and Lee (2010), gender differences exist in experienced emotions. A popular stereotype considers women more emotional than men (Heesacker et al., 1999), while Bradley et al. (2001) found that men report lower mean levels of emotional sensitivity. Accordingly, it is expected that:

H4: Female bystanders are more likely to rate the bullying experience as more intense than male bystanders

H5: Female bystanders will experience greater levels of fear, guilt and shame than male bystanders.

H6: The higher the severity, the more likely bystanders are to intervene

H7: Gender moderates the relationship between negative affect and intervention

Methods

Design

The study applied a correlational design examining the influence of gender and negative affect on the decision to intervene when bystanders witness workplace bullying incidents.

Participants

The present study derived from online survey data from a convenience sample. The questionnaire was completed by 322 respondents. Six participants presented missing values, two were underage, and three provided a combination of straight lining (respondents rush through the survey providing the same response most of time, Vannette, 2018) and contradictory responses (i. e. providing the gender of target and perpetrator once having affirmed they have never witnessed bullying). These cases were eliminated prior to further analysis.

The sample consisted of 311 participants, 202 women (65%) and 109 men (35%), mostly Australian (46%), Indian (14.8%), American (11.9%) and British (5.5%), with an age range from 18 to 82 ($M=37$, $SD=13.6$). The respondents resided mostly in Australia (64.2%), The U.S.A. (12.8%), and India (12.5%). Seventy one percent had a bachelor degree or higher and 29% a college degree or lower. Forty one participants worked in healthcare and

pharmaceuticals (13.2%), 39 in education (12.5%), 30 were not employed (9.6%), 30 worked in telecommunications (9.6%), 23 worked in the food and beverage industry (7.3%), 18 worked for the government (5.8%), 18 worked in retail (5.8%) and 17 in the manufacturing industry (5.5%).

Measures

The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ-R). The NAQ-R (Einarsen et al., 2009) is an instrument intended to assess exposure to bullying in the workplace. Although it contains three underlying factors, it can be used as a single factor measure (Einarsen et al., 2009). The scale presents a list of 22 negative behaviours, to determine if participants have experienced them never, occasionally, on a monthly, weekly or daily basis, during the last six months. Each item has a rating scale from 1 to 5. The questionnaire was adapted to identify to what degree the respondents observed or witnessed the bullying behaviours, as opposed to having experienced them themselves.

The NAQ-R is a standardized and valid instrument, which has been used in several studies and research projects (Nielsen et al., 2009). The questionnaire is free to use for non-commercial research projects (Einarsen et al., 1994). Observing bullying behaviours occasionally, at least, indicates that participants are classified as workplace bullying bystanders.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). The PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) was used to determine the type of emotion and the emotional impact of witnessing bullying behaviour. The scale is a validated measure that consists of 20 words that describe feelings and emotions, both positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA). Participants were asked to indicate the extent they felt this way.

Each item has a rating scale from 1 (*very slightly*) to 5 (*extremely*). Only the 10 items corresponding to the NA scale were included, due to the fact that experiencing bullying has been associated with sadness and a depressed mood, which may trigger confusion, tiredness and restlessness (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). Since bullying acts tend to undermine the ability to maintain a sense of self, these behaviours are likely to be appraised as motive

inconsistent and unlikely to lead to positive emotions (Brotheridge & Lee, 2010). After adding the scores on the items, totals can range from 10 to 50, with lower scores representing lower levels of negative affect. Mean Score: 17.4 (SD \pm 6.2) (Watson et al., 1988).

Procedure

The study was approved by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval 2016/183) (See Appendix A). To recruit participants a link to the survey (see Appendix B) was shared on Facebook and on various online research communities such as SurveyCircle, Pollfish, and Mturk. The link directed participants to the instructions on how to complete the questionnaire. It presented information about the nature and scope of the study and allowed them to provide consent by continuing to the questions clicking a “next” button (see Appendix C). It took participants 10 minutes approximately to complete the survey. The identity of the participants remained anonymous.

Results

Reliability Analysis

A reliability analysis was conducted on the NAQ-R and the NA scale. As shown in Table 1, Cronbach’s alpha above 0.9 showed both scales present a high level of internal consistency.

Table 1

Cronbach’s Alpha Levels for the NAQ-R and the NA Scale

Scale	Cronbach’s alpha	N of Items
NAQ-R	.963	22
NA	.917	10

Gender and Intervention

As depicted in Table 2, a chi-square test for association was conducted between gender and intervention. All expected cell frequencies were greater than five. Table 2 shows there was no statistically significant association between intervention and gender ($\chi^2 (1) = 0.001, p = 0.972$).

Table 2

Relationship between Gender and Intervention

Gender	Intervention		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	37	62	99
Female	68	115	183
Total	105	177	282

A chi-square test for association was conducted between gender, sex of the target and intervention (see Table 3). A partial association was found between gender and sex of the target. The sex of the target appears to have an impact on male bystanders intervention ($X^2(1) = 8.939, p = 0.003$), but not on female bystander intervention ($X^2(1) = 2.451, p = 0.117$). To identify significant differences within the chi square test a post hoc test was conducted (Beasley & Schumacker, 1995). Bonferroni Correction was used to control for Type I error inflation.

Table 3

Relationship between Gender, Sex of the Target and Intervention

Gender	Sex of target	Intervention		Total
		Yes	No	
Male	Female	16	25	41
	Male	13	38	51
Female	Female	50	91	141
	Male	17	17	34
Total		103	164	267

As shown in Table 4, a chi-square test for association was conducted between gender, sex of the perpetrator, sex of the target and intervention. All expected cell

frequencies were greater than five, except for one (3.55). Some texts suggest that it is acceptable having few expected counts with less than five (no more of 20% of the sample) as long as none are less than one (i.e. Starnes et al., 2012).

Table 4

Relationship between Gender, Sex of the Perpetrator, Sex of the Target and Intervention

Gender	Sex of perpetrator	Sex of target	Intervention		
			Yes	No	Total
Male	Female	Female	13	7	20
		Male	3	11	14
	Male	Female	10	11	21
		Male	10	24	34
Female	Female	Female	34	56	90
		Male	5*	4	9
	Male	Female	15	32	47
		Male	11	13	24
Total			101	158	259

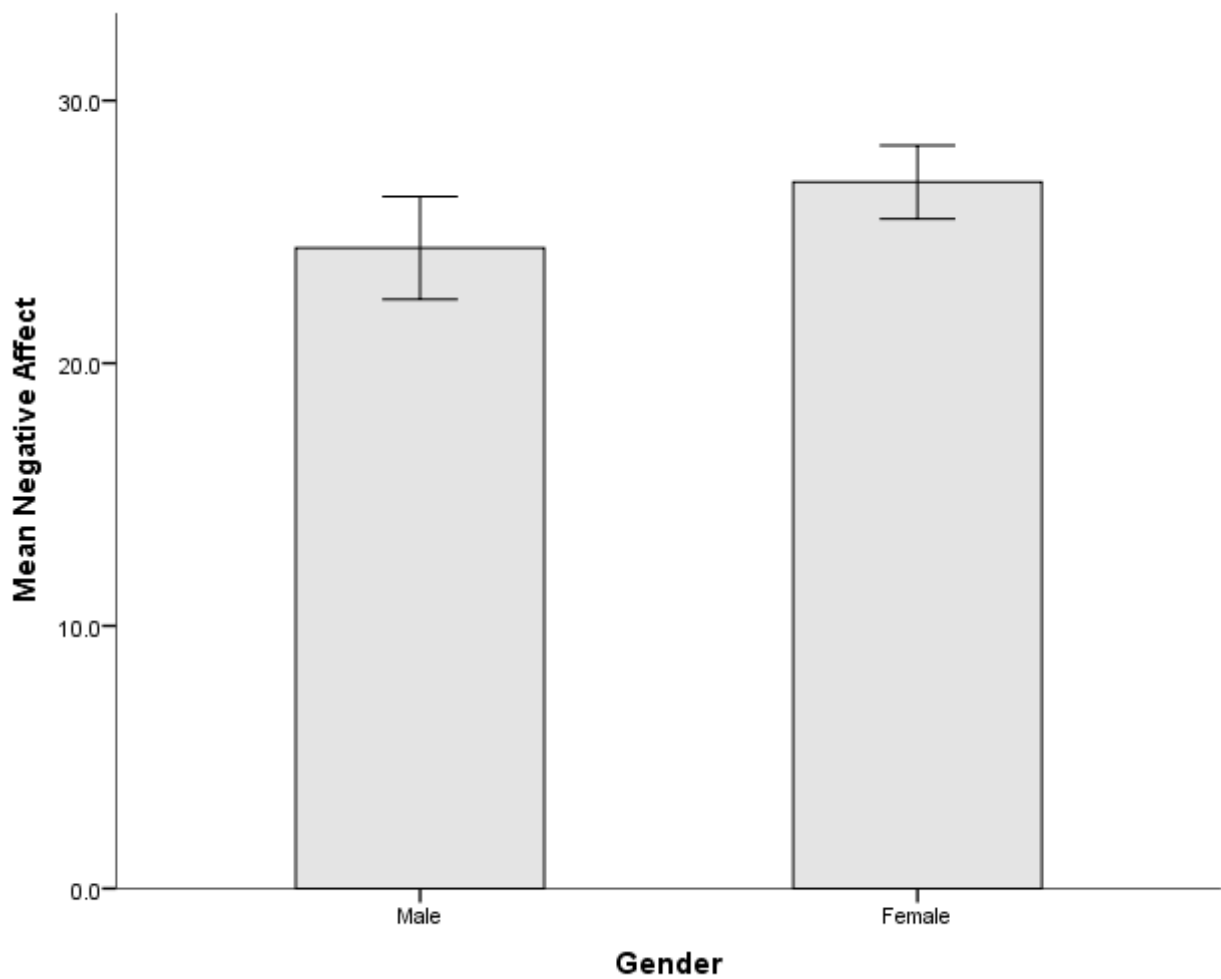
Note. *In this cell the expected assumption of expected count was violated (3.5).

Run the test regardless because the independent-samples t-test is fairly robust to deviations from normality. non-normality does not affect Type I error rate substantially

Gender and Negative Affect

There were 109 males and 202 females participants. An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences in engagement to an advertisement between males and females. There were no outliers in the data, as assessed by inspection of a boxplot. Negative affect scores were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$), and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .237$). Female negative affect score ($M = 26.90, SD = 10.07$) was higher than male negative affect score ($M = 24.39, SD = 10.31$) (see Figure 1), a statistically significant difference, of -2.51 ($SE = 1.21$), $t(309) = -2.081, p = 0.38$.

Figure 1

Gender and Negative Affect Means

A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences in each of the ten types of negative affect between males and females. As seen on Table 5, significant differences were only found for feeling stressed and feeling upset.

Distributions of 'distress' for males and females were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median engagement scores were statistically significantly different between males and females, $U = 14,644$, $z = 4.927$, $p = .000$.

Distributions 'upset' for males and females were similar, as assessed by visual inspection. Median engagement score was not statistically significantly different between males and females, $U = 14,027$, $z = 4.093$, $p = .000$.

Table 5

Median Differences in Types of Negative Affect Between Females and Males

Gender	Distressed	Upset	Guilty	Scared	Hostile	Irritable	Ashamed	Nervous	Jittery	Afraid
Female	4	4	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2
Male	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Total	3	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2	2

Negative affect and intervention

A binomial logistic regression was performed to assess the effect of negative affect on the likelihood of intervention. Linearity of the continuous variable 'negative affect' with respect to the logit of the dependent variable 'intervention' was assessed via the Box-Tidwell (1962) procedure. A Bonferroni correction was applied using all three terms in the model resulting in statistical significance being accepted when $p < .016667$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Based on this assessment, the independent variable was found to be linearly related to the logit of the dependent variable. No significant outliers were found. The logistic regression model was statistically significant ($X^2(1) = 18.047, p < .0005$), however the Hosmer-Lemeshow Test reported a poor fitting ($p = .001$). The model explained 8.5% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in intervention and correctly classified 64.9% of cases. Sensitivity was 88.1%, specificity was 25.7%, positive predictive value was 56.25% and negative predictive value was 66.7%. The predictor variable was statistically significant (as shown in table 5). Increasing negative affect was associated with an increasing likelihood of intervention (as negative affect increases by one point the odds of intervening increase by 5.5%).

Table 6

Logistic Regression Predicting Likelihood of Intervention based on Negative Affect

<i>B</i>	SE	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
						Lower	Upper
.053	.013	16.959	1	.000	1.055	1.082	1.082
-1.951	.376	26.943	1	.000	.142		

Negative Affect Gender and Intervention

A binomial logistic regression was executed to ascertain the effect of negative affect and gender on intervention. Linearity of the continuous variable with respect to the logit of the dependent variable was assessed via the Box-Tidwell (1962) procedure. A Bonferroni correction was applied using all four terms in the model resulting in statistical significance being accepted when $p < .0125$ (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Based on this assessment, the independent variable was found to be linearly related to the logit of the dependent variable. No significant outliers were found. The logistic regression model was statistically significant ($X^2(1) = 18.277, p < .0005$), however the Hosmer-Lemeshow Test reported a poor fitting ($p = .035$). The model explained 8.6% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in intervention and correctly classified 66.7% of cases. Sensitivity was 30.5%, specificity was 88.1%, positive predictive value was 60.4% and negative predictive value was 68.1%. Negative affect was statistically significant (as shown in table 6). Increasing negative affect was associated with an increasing likelihood of intervention by 5.5%. Gender did not add significantly to the model.

Table 7

Logistic Regression Predicting Likelihood of Intervention based on Negative Affect and Gender

	<i>B</i>	SE	Wald	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Odds Ratio	95% CI for Odds Ratio	
							Lower	Upper
Neg Affect	.054	.013	17.193	1	.000	1.055	1.029	1.082
Constant	-1.951	.376	26.943	1	.000	.142		

Discussion

The current study aimed to contribute to knowledge around bystander intervention, gender, and negative affect in workplace bullying scenarios. Past research suggests that bullying is a gendered phenomenon (Keashly, 2012), and that the greater the emotions elicited by the bullying behaviour, the greater intention to intervene (Desrumaux et al., 2018). However, studies have been conducted predominantly in children and adolescents, and only in the last few years relevant research in organisational settings has emerged.

The results did not support the hypothesis that females are more likely to intervene than males. This finding differs from those of previous studies (Jenkins & Nickerson, 2017; Pozzoli & Gini, 2013; Salmivalli et al., 1996). These studies were conducted in school settings. Due to ethical implications of conducting research on real bullying situations, findings are a result of scenario-based experiments. Researchers usually use videos, narratives or case studies to present hypothetical situations to determine if participants intend to intervene. This studies measure intention to intervene, and not whether witnesses have actually intervened. In real-life scenarios results may differ.

It is also possible, that the type of bullying may influence the decision to intervene. Bullying in school occurs most of the time between students. This is also known as horizontal bullying. Since the more prevalent type of bullying in the workplace is vertical, downwards bullying, an additional concern is that individuals are putting themselves at risk. A superior is likely to be in a position where it is easier for him or her to get away with negative behaviour, and not being held accountable. A superior may also have the power to interfere with the bystander's working conditions, resources or interpersonal relations.

The idea that identification with the target's gender contributes to bystander intervention (Levine and Crowther, 2008) was not found. Interestingly, the results showed that the sex of the target has an impact on male bystander intervention. Being a male target reduced the likelihood of intervention. Men did not intervene in 75% of the cases when the victim was another man.

Concerning the third hypothesis, observing a female target being bullied did not increase the likelihood of intervention for males. Nevertheless, similar to the preceding finding, males were significantly less likely to intervene when the target was a male, regardless of the gender of the perpetrator. It is possible that gender stereotypic perceptions induce men to assume that other men are strong or have the capacity to endure negative behaviour, and that they may not need immediate support. As Mulder et al. (2008) proposed, men may think other men have or should have the capacity to defend themselves and expect the target to be capable of handling the situation appropriately. Additionally, a bullying incident including a male target and a male perpetrator is more likely to be perceived as a conflict situation by the bystander (Weber et al., 2018).

Although the effect found was low, as hypothesized, female bystanders are more likely to rate the bullying experience as more severe than men. Nicolson (2015) has described women as being more self-aware, more emotionally expressive and more strongly affected by affect-provoking events. The results support outcomes of several studies (Bradley et al., 2001; Brotheridge & Lee, 2010; Heesacker et al., 1999). The stereotype that women are more emotional than men

In the case of female bystanders, fear, guilt and shame did not differ as expected from male bystanders. Instead, upset and distress showed a significant difference between males and females. Bullying behaviours have been consistently associated with increment of psychological distress in targets (Schneider et al., 2012). The effect extends to other individuals even if they are not directly victimised. Gender differences in bystander distress have not been studied yet.

As shown in the results, increment in negative affect increased the likelihood of intervention. If a bystanders' negative affect increased by one unit, there was a predicted 5.5% increment in taking action. The effect, although significant is not too strong. Since intervention was defined as a dichotomous variable, it can be difficult to observe the extent of the effect. Other studies have considered emotions in relation to their potential mediating effect on targets. (Glaso & Notelaers, (2012). It can be practical to study emotions as mediators and not only as exclusive products of bullying.

Contrary to expectations, gender did not add significantly to the relationship between negative emotion and intervention. Research, in general, suggests that the impact of gender on workplace bullying occurs in association with other elements (Keashley, 2012). Since bystander intervention is affected by both, individual characteristics and situational factors (Song & Oh, 2017), these factors can restrict the influence of gender on intervention.

Practical Implications

Given that bystander intervention has been found to be one of the most effective ways to reduce bullying, the design of intervention strategies that promote active bystander behaviour to counteract bullying can benefit from considering the implications of negative affect and gender on bystander intervention. If men tend to refrain from intervening when they observe other men being bullied this can be a specific issue to address in anti-bullying training or education programs.

Limitations and Future Research

Research has found that individuals can experience both positive and negative emotions at the same time (Larsen et al., 2001). Additionally, emotions such as feeling

empathy towards the victim of bullying has proved to increase the likelihood of bystander intervention (Mason, 2014; Mulder et al., 2017). Future research can include not only negative affect but positive affect as well, to achieve a more robust understanding of emotions and their impact on intervention.

Outside the scope of this study was to explore differences between bystander intervention and different types of negative affect. Directions for future studies can address this relationship to determine whether specific emotions are more likely than others to elicit intervention.

The current study was cross-sectional and retrospective. One of the limitations of this study is that respondents needed to think about the last time they witnessed bullying. Accuracy can be affected when recalling a memory (recall bias). Diary studies can address this limitation. In addition, longitudinal studies are better at studying cause and effect and changes can be detected.

The current study relied on self-report measures to collect data. Self-report measures are quick and easy to conduct, however responses can be biased due to factors such as the emotional state of the respondent, social desirability or selective recall (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Conclusion

The current study found that gender alone had no significant association with intervention, and did not determine its probability by including negative affect in the model. Findings showed that three out of four men were unlikely to intervene in a bullying event if the target was a man.

The study confirmed that female bystanders were more likely to rate the bullying experience as more severe than male bystanders. Additionally, it found that female witnesses displayed significant higher levels of distress and upset than male witnesses.

Finally, the study found that an increasing negative affect was positively associated with an increasing likelihood of intervention. These results need to be cautiously interpreted considering the limitations of the study.

References

- Agnew, R. (2001). Building on the foundation of general strain theory: Specifying the types of strain most likely to lead to crime and delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, 38(4), 319-361.
doi:10.1177/0022427801038004001
- Ahmed, E. (2001). *Shame management through reintegration*. Cambridge; Melbourne; Cambridge University Press.
- Ahmed, E. (2008). 'Stop it, that's enough': Bystander intervention and its relationship to school connectedness and shame management. *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies*, 3(3), 203-213. doi:10.1080/17450120802002548
- Ahmed, E., & Braithwaite, J. (2005). Forgiveness, shaming, shame and bullying. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Criminology*, 38(3), 298-323.
doi:10.1375/000486505774824802
- Allison, P. D., SAS Institute, & Books24x7, I. (2012). *Logistic regression using SAS: Theory and application, second edition* (2nd ed.). Cary, N.C: SAS Institute.
- Andreou, E., Didaskalou, E., & Vlachou, A. (2008). Outcomes of a curriculum-based anti-bullying intervention program on students' attitudes and behavior. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 13(4), 235-248.
doi:10.1080/13632750802442110
- Anjum, A., & Muazzam, A. (2018). The gendered nature of workplace bullying in the context of higher education. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research*, 33(2), 493-500.
- Attell, B. K., Kummerow Brown, K., & Treiber, L. A. (2017). Workplace bullying, perceived job stressors, and psychological distress: Gender and race

differences in the stress process. *Social Science Research*, 65, 210-221.

doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2017.02.001

Baek, H., Roberts, A. M., Seepersad, R., & Swartz, K. (2018). Examining negative emotions as mediators between exposures to family violence and bullying: A gendered perspective. *Journal of School Violence*, 18(3), 440-454.

doi:10.1080/15388220.2018.1519441

Báez-León, C., Moreno-Jiménez, B., Aguirre-Camacho, A., & Olmos, R. (2016).

Factors influencing intention to help and helping behaviour in witnesses of bullying in nursing settings. *Nursing Inquiry*, 23(4), 358-367.

doi:10.1111/nin.12149

Barhight, L. R., Hubbard, J. A., & Hyde, C. T. (2013). Children's physiological and emotional reactions to witnessing bullying predict bystander

intervention. *Child Development*, 84(1), 375-390. doi:10.1111/j.1467-

8624.2012.01839.x

Bassman, E., & London, M. (1993). Abusive managerial behaviour. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 14(2), 18-24.

doi:10.1108/01437739310032683

Batson, C. D., Fultz, J., & Schoenrade, P. A. (1987). Distress and empathy: Two qualitatively distinct vicarious emotions with different motivational

consequences. *Journal of Personality*, 55(1), 19-39. doi:10.1111/j.1467-

6494.1987.tb00426.

Beasley, T. M., & Schumacker, R. E. (1995). Multiple regression approach to analyzing contingency tables: Post hoc and planned comparison

procedures. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 64(1), 79-93.

doi:10.1080/00220973.1995.9943797

- Bilgel, N., Aytac, S., & Bayram, N. (2006). Bullying in Turkish white-collar workers. *Occupational Medicine (Oxford)*, 56(4), 226-231. doi:10.1093/occmed/kqj041
- Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1994). Sex differences in covert aggression among adults. *Aggressive Behavior*, 20(1), 27-33.
doi:10.1002/1098-2337(1994)20:1<27::AID-AB2480200105>3.0.CO;2-Q
- Bloch, C. (2013). How witnesses contribute to bullying in the workplace. (In *Workplace Bullying: Symptoms and Solutions*, edited by Noreen Tehrani, Taylor & Francis Group, 2012. ProQuest Ebook Central, <https://ebookcentral-proquest-com.libproxy.murdoch.edu.au/lib/murdoch/detail.action?docID=958689>.)
doi:10.4324/9780203130117
- Box, G. E. P., & Tidwell, P. W. (1962). Transformation of the independent variables. *Technometrics*, 4(4), 531-550. doi:10.1080/00401706.1962.10490038
- Bradley, M. M., Codispoti, M., Sabatinelli, D., & Lang, P. J. (2001). Emotion and motivation II: Sex differences in picture processing. *Emotion*, 1(3), 300-319.
doi:10.1037/1528-3542.1.3.300
- Branch, S., Ramsay, S., & Barker, M. (2013). Workplace bullying, mobbing and general harassment: A review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15(3), 280-299. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2012.00339.x
- Branch, S., & Murray, J. (2015). Workplace bullying. Is lack of understanding the reason for inaction? *Organizational Dynamics*, 44(4), 287-295.
doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2015.09.006

- Brinkman, B. G., & Manning, L. (2016). Children's intended responses to gender-based bullying as targets and bystanders. *Childhood (Copenhagen, Denmark)*, 23(2), 221.
- Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2010). Restless and confused: Emotional responses to workplace bullying in men and women. *Career Development International*, 15(7), 687-707. doi:10.1108/13620431011094087
- Brown, A. L., Banyard, V. L., & Moynihan, M. M. (2014). College students as helpful bystanders against sexual violence: Gender, race, and year in college moderate the impact of perceived peer norms. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 38(3), 350-362. doi:10.1177/0361684314526855
- Chatziioannidis, I., Bascialla, F. G., Chatzivalsama, P., Vouzas, F., & Mitsiakos, G. (2018). Prevalence, causes and mental health impact of workplace bullying in the neonatal intensive care unit environment. *BMJ Open*, 8(2), e018766. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2017-018766
- Chen, R., & Park, J. H. (2015). Witnessing workplace bullying and bystanders' responses: The role of bystanders' attributions. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2015(1), 14084-14084. doi:10.5465/AMBPP.2015.14084abstract
- Colman, A. M., author. (2015). *A dictionary of psychology* (Fourth ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cowie, H., & Berdondini, L. (2002). The expression of emotion in response to bullying. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 7(4), 207-214. doi:10.1177/1363275202007004003

- Cowie, H., & Hutson, N. (2005). Peer support: A strategy to help bystanders challenge school bullying. *Pastoral Care in Education, 23*(2), 40-44.
doi:10.1111/j.0264-3944.2005.00331.x
- Cowie, H., Naylor, P., Rivers, I., Smith, P. K., & Pereira, B. (2002). Measuring workplace bullying. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 7*(1), 33-51.
doi:10.1016/S1359-1789(00)00034-3
- Coyne, I., Gopaul, A., Campbell, M., Pankász, A., Garlans, R. & Cousans, F. (2019). Bystander responses to bullying at work: The role of mode, type and relationship to target. *Journal of Business Ethics, 157*(3), 813-827.
doi:10.1007/s10551-017-3692-2
- D'Cruz, P., & Noronha, E. (2011). The limits to workplace friendship: Managerialist HRM and bystander behaviour in the context of workplace bullying. *Employee Relations, 33*(3), 269-288. doi:10.1108/01425451111121777
- Darley, J. M., & Latane, B. (1968). Bystander intervention in emergencies: Diffusion of responsibility. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 8*(4p1), 377-383. doi:10.1037/h0025589
- Desrumaux, P., Jeoffrion, C., Bouterfas, N., De Bosscher, S., & Boudenghan, M. C. (2018). Workplace bullying: How do bystanders' emotions and the type of bullying influence their willingness to help? *Nordic Psychology, 70*(4), 259-277. doi:10.1080/19012276.2018.1430610
- Dickinson, L. A. (2013). *Witness responses to workplace horizontal bullying*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database. (UMI No. 3572570)

- Drabek, M., & Merecz, D. (2013). Job stress, occupational position and gender as factors differentiating workplace bullying experience. *Medycyna Pracy, 64*(3), 283-296. doi:10.13075/mp.5893/2013/0024
- Eagly, A. H., & Crowley, M. (1986). Gender and helping behavior: A meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin, 100*(3), 283-308. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.100.3.283
- Einarsen, S. (2000). Harassment and bullying at work: A review of the Scandinavian approach. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 5*(4), 379-401. doi:10.1016/S1359-1789(98)00043-3
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the negative acts questionnaire-revised. *Work & Stress, 23*(1), 24-44. doi:10.1080/02678370902815673
- Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., Zapf, D., & Cooper, L. (2003). *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace: International perspectives in research and practice*. London: Taylor & Francis.
- Einarsen, S., & Nielsen, M. B. (2015). Workplace bullying as an antecedent of mental health problems: A five-year prospective and representative study. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health, 88*(2), 131-142. doi:10.1007/s00420-014-0944-7
- Einarsen, Raknes, Matthiesen & Hellestøy, (1994); Hoel, (1999). *The Negative Acts Questionnaire*. Retrieved from <http://www.uib.no/en/rg/bbrg/44045/naq>
- Emdad, R., Alipour, A., Hagberg, J., Jensen, I. B. (2013). The impact of bystanding to workplace bullying on symptoms of depression among women and men in industry in Sweden: An empirical and theoretical longitudinal

- study. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 86(6), 709-716. doi:10.1007/s00420-012-0813-1
- Eriksen, W., & Einarsen, S. (2004). Gender minority as a risk factor of exposure to bullying at work: The case of male assistant nurses. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 13(4), 473-492.
doi:10.1080/13594320444000173
- Escartín, J., Salin, D., & Rodríguez-Carballeira, Á. (2013). El acoso laboral o mobbing: Similitudes y diferencias de género en su severidad percibida. *Revista De Psicología Social*, 28(2), 211-224.
doi:10.1174/021347413806196735
- Fair Work Commission (2019). *Benchbook: Anti-bullying*. Retrieved from <http://www.fwc.gov.au/resources/benchbooks>
- Flynn, J. M. (2015). Not so innocent bystanders. *Medical Journal of Australia*, 203(4), 163-163. doi:10.5694/mja15.00685
- Galanaki, E., & Papalexandris, N. (2013). Measuring workplace bullying in organisations. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(11), 2107-2130. doi:10.1080/09585192.2012.725084
- Garner, P. W., & Hinton, T. S. (2010). Emotional display rules and emotion self-regulation: Associations with bullying and victimization in community-based after school programs. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 20(6), 480-496. doi:10.1002/casp.1057
- Gini, G., Albiero, P., Benelli, B., & Altoe, G. (2008). Participants: Determinants of adolescents' active defending and passive bystanding behavior in bullying. *Journal of Adolescence*, 31(1), 93-105.
doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2007.05.002

- Glasø, L., & Notelaers, G. (2012). Workplace bullying, emotions, and outcomes. *Violence and Victims, 27*(3), 360-377. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.27.3.360
- Glasø, L., Vie, T. L., Holmdal, G. R., & Einarsen, S. (2010). An application of affective events theory to workplace bullying: The role of emotions, trait anxiety, and trait anger. *European Psychologist, 16*(3), 198-208. doi:10.1027/1016-9040/a000026
- Goldberg, C. B., Clark, M. A., & Henley, A. B. (2011). Speaking up: A conceptual model of voice responses following the unfair treatment of others in non-union settings. *Human Resource Management, 50*(1), 75-94. doi:10.1002/hrm.20402
- Gonzalez-Mulé, E., DeGeest, D. S., Kiersch, C. E., & Mount, M. K. (2013). Gender differences in personality predictors of counterproductive behavior. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(4), 333-353. doi:10.1108/JMP-12-2012-0397
- Haffner, C. (2009). *Workplace bullying: factors that influence a bystander's willingness to intervene* (Master's thesis, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatchewan, Canada). Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10388/etd-01062010-104505>
- Heesacker, M., Wester, S. R., Vogel, D. L., Wentzel, J. T., Mejia-Millan, C. M., & Goodholm, C. R. (1999). Gender-based emotional stereotyping. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*(4), 483-495. doi:10.1037/0022-0167.46.4.483
- Hess, N.H. and Hagen, E.H. (2006), "Sex differences in indirect aggression: psychological evidence from young adults", *Evolution and Human Behavior*, Vol. 27 No. 3, pp. 231-245.

- Hoel, H. & Cooper, C.L. (2000) *Destructive Conflict and Bullying at Work*.
Manchester: Manchester School of Management University of Manchester
Institute of Science and Technology.
- Hoel, H., Cooper, C. L., & Faragher, B. (2001). The experience of bullying in Great Britain: The impact of organizational status. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 443-465. doi:10.1080/13594320143000780
- Hudson, J. M., & Bruckman, A. S. (2004). The bystander effect: A lens for understanding patterns of participation. *Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 13(2), 165-195. doi:10.1207/s15327809jls1302_2
- Hutchinson, M., Vickers, M. H., Wilkes, L., & Jackson, D. (2009). "The worse you behave, the more you seem, to be rewarded": Bullying in nursing as organizational corruption. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 21(3), 213-229. doi:10.1007/s10672-009-9100-z
- Izard, C., Stark, K., Trentacosta, C., & Schultz, D. (2008). Beyond emotion regulation: Emotion utilization and adaptive functioning. *Child Development Perspectives*, 2(3), 156-163. doi:10.1111/j.1750-8606.2008.00058.x
- Jenkins, L. N., & Nickerson, A. B. (2017). Bullying participant roles and gender as predictors of bystander intervention. *Aggressive Behavior*, 43(3), 281-290. doi:10.1002/ab.21688
- Keashly, L. (2012). Workplace bullying and gender: It's complicated. In T. R. Lituchy, & S. Fox (Eds.), *Gender and the Dysfunctional Workplace* (pp. 78-95). Cheltenham Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Keith, S. (2018). How do traditional bullying and cyberbullying victimization affect fear and coping among students? An application of general strain

theory. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 43(1), 67-84.

doi:10.1007/s12103-017-9411-9

Knott, V., Mellington, T., Dollard, M., & Winefield, A. (2009). The experience of workplace bullying by Australian correctional services officer. *Journal of Occupational Health and Safety - Australia and New Zealand*, 25(1), 51-65.

Kowalski, R. M., Giumetti, G. W., Schroeder, A. N., & Lattanner, M. R. (2014).

Bullying in the digital age: A critical review and meta-analysis of cyberbullying research among youth. *Psychological Bulletin*, 140(4), 1073-1137.

doi:10.1037/a0035618

Lange, S., Burr, H., Conway, P. M., & Rose, U. (2019). Workplace bullying among employees in Germany: Prevalence estimates and the role of the perpetrator. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 92(2), 237-247. doi:10.1007/s00420-018-1366-8

Latané, B., & Darley, J. M. (1970). *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?*. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts.

Larsen, J. T., McGraw, A. P., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2001). Can people feel happy and sad at the same time? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(4), 684-696. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.81.4.684

Lassiter, B. J., Bostain, N. S., & Lentz, C. (2018). Best practices for early bystander intervention training on workplace intimate partner violence and workplace bullying. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 88626051880790.

doi:10.1177/0886260518807907

Latané, B., & Nida, S. (1981). Ten years of research on group size and helping. *Psychological Bulletin*, 89(2), 308-324. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.89.2.308

- Lee, D. (2002). Gendered workplace bullying in the restructured UK civil service. *Personnel Review*, 31(2), 205-227. doi:10.1108/00483480210416874
- Levine, M., & Crowther, S. (2008). The responsive bystander: How social group membership and group size can encourage as well as inhibit bystander intervention. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(6), 1429-1439. doi:10.1037/a0012634
- Lewis, S. E., & Orford, J. (2005). Women's experiences of workplace bullying: Changes in social relationships. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 15(1), 29-47. doi:10.1002/casp.807
- Leymann, H. (1990). Mobbing and psychological terror at workplaces. *Violence and Victims*, 5(2), 119-126. doi:10.1891/0886-6708.5.2.119
- Li, C. A., & Wearing, B. (2004). Between glass ceilings: Female non-executive directors in UK quoted companies. *International Journal of Disclosure and Governance*, 1(4), 355-371. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jdg.2040036
- López-Cabarcos, M. Á., Vázquez-Rodríguez, P., & Gieure, C. (2017). Gender and age differences in the psychosocial risk factors of workplace bullying. *Psychology & Marketing*, 34(11), 1023-1030. doi:10.1002/mar.21041
- MacCurtain, S., Murphy, C., O'Sullivan, M., MacMahon, J., & Turner, T. (2018). To stand back or step in? exploring the responses of employees who observe workplace bullying. *Nursing Inquiry*, 25(1), e12207-n/a. doi:10.1111/nin.12207
- Mahady Wilton, M. M., Craig, W. M., & Pepler, D. J. (2000). Emotional regulation and display in classroom victims of bullying: Characteristic expressions of affect, coping styles and relevant contextual factors. *Social Development*, 9(2), 226-245. doi:10.1111/1467-9507.00121

- Maidaniuc-Chirilă, T. (2019). gender differences in workplace bullying exposure. *Journal of Psychological and Educational Research*, 27(1), 139-162.
- Mason, J. L. (2014). *The influence of bystanders in subsequent bullying behaviour*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database. (UMI No. 3584528)
- McDonald, J. N. (2012). *Bystander helping in response to a staged incident of cyberaggression*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database. (UMI No. 1511027)
- Menesini, E., & Camodeca, M. (2008). Shame and guilt as behaviour regulators: Relationships with bullying, victimization and prosocial behaviour. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 26(2), 183-196.
doi:10.1348/026151007x205281
- Menesini, E., Sanchez, V., Fonzi, A., Ortega, R., Costabile, A., & Lo Feudo, G. (2003). Moral emotions and bullying: A cross-national comparison of differences between bullies, victims and outsiders. *Aggressive Behavior*, 29(6), 515-530. doi:10.1002/ab.10060
- Modecki, K. L., Ph.D, Minchin, J., Harbaugh, A. G., Ph.D, Guerra, N. G., Ph.D, & Runions, K. C., Ph.D. (2014). Bullying prevalence across contexts: A meta-analysis measuring cyber and traditional bullying. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 55(5), 602-611. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.06.007
- Muchinsky, P. M. (2000). Emotions in the workplace: The neglect of organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(7), 801-805.
doi:10.1002/1099-1379(200011)21:7<801::AID-JOB999>3.0.CO;2-A

- Mulder, R., Pouwelse, M., Lodewijx, H., & Bolman, C. (2008). Emotional and helping responses among bystanders of victims of mobbing: The role of perceived responsibility and threat of contagion. *Gedrag & Organisatie*, 21(1), 19-34.
- Mulder, R., Pouwelse, M., Lodewijx, H., & Bolman, C. (2014). Workplace mobbing and bystanders' helping behaviour towards victims: The role of gender, perceived responsibility and anticipated stigma by association: WORKPLACE MOBBING AND BYSTANDERS. *International Journal of Psychology*, 49(4), 304-312. doi:10.1002/ijop.12018
- Mulder, R., Pouwelse, M., Lodewijx, H., Bos, A. E. R., & Dam, K. (2016). Predictors of antisocial and prosocial behaviour of bystanders in workplace mobbing. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 26(3), 207-220. doi:10.1002/casp.2244
- Mulder, R., Bos, A. E. R., Pouwelse, M., & van Dam, K. (2017). Workplace mobbing: How the victim's coping behavior influences bystander responses. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 157(1), 16-29. doi:10.1080/00224545.2016.1152213
- Nicolson, P. (2015). *Gender, power and organization: A psychological perspective on life at work: Second edition* doi:10.4324/9781315726564
- Nielsen, M., Christensen, J., Finne, L., & Knardahl, S. (2020). Workplace bullying, mental distress, and sickness absence: The protective role of social support. *International Archives of Occupational and Environmental Health*, 93(1), 43-53. doi:10.1007/s00420-019-01463-y

- Nielsen, M. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Outcomes of exposure to workplace bullying: A meta-analytic review. *Work & Stress, 26*(4), 309-332.
doi:10.1080/02678373.2012.734709
- Nielsen, M. B., Hetland, J., Matthiesen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2012). Longitudinal relationships between workplace bullying and psychological distress. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment & Health, 38*(1), 38-46.
doi:10.5271/sjweh.3178
- Nielsen, M. B., Skogstad, A., Matthiesen, S. B., Glasø, L., Aasland, M. S., Notelaers, G., & Einarsen, S. (2009). Prevalence of workplace bullying in Norway: Comparisons across time and estimation methods. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 18*(1), 81-101.
doi:10.1080/13594320801969707
- Oade, A. (2009). *Managing workplace bullying: How to identify, respond to and manage bullying behavior in the workplace*. Basingstoke; New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- O'Donnell, S. M., & MacIntosh, J. A. (2016). Gender and workplace bullying: Men's experiences of surviving bullying at work. *Qualitative Health Research, 26*(3), 351-366. doi:10.1177/1049732314566321
- Olweus, D., (1993). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. Cambridge, USA; Oxford, UK;: Blackwell.
- Parzefall, M., & Salin, D. M. (2010). Perceptions of and reactions to workplace bullying: A social exchange perspective. *Human Relations, 63*(6), 761-780.
doi:10.1177/0018726709345043

- Paull, M., Omari, M., & Standen, P. (2012). When is a bystander not a bystander? A typology of the roles of bystanders in workplace bullying. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 50*(3), 351-366. doi:10.1111/j.1744-7941.2012.00027.x
- Pepler, D. J., & Craig, W. M. (1995). A peek behind the fence: Naturalistic observations of aggressive children with remote audiovisual recording. *Developmental Psychology, 31*(4), 548-553. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.31.4.548
- Perren, S., & Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger, E. (2012). Cyberbullying and traditional bullying in adolescence: Differential roles of moral disengagement, moral emotions, and moral values. *European Journal of Developmental Psychology: Cyberbullying: Development, Consequences, Risk and Protective Factors, 9*(2), 195-209. doi:10.1080/17405629.2011.643168
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879
- Polanin, J. R., Espelage, D. L., & Pigott, T. D. (2012). A meta-analysis of school-based bullying prevention programs' effects on bystander intervention behavior. *School Psychology Review, 41*(1), 47-65.
- Porter, J. R., & Smith-Adcock, S. (2011). Children who help victims of bullying: Implications for practice. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 33*(3), 196-205. doi:10.1007/s10447-011-9121-9
- Potter, R. E., Dollard, M. F., & Tuckey, M. R. Safe Work Australia (2016). Bullying and Harassment in Australian Workplaces: Results from the Australian Workplace Barometer Project 2014/2015. Retrieved from <https://www.safeworkaustralia.gov.au/system/files/documents/1705/bullying->

and-harassment-in-australian-workplaces-australian-workplace-barometer-results.pdf

- Power, J. L., Brotheridge, C. M., Blenkinsopp, J., Bowes-Sperry, L., Bozionelos, N., Buzády, Z., . . . Nnedumm, A. U. O. (2013). Acceptability of workplace bullying: A comparative study on six continents. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(3), 374-380. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.08.018
- Pozzoli, T., & Gini, G. (2013). Why do bystanders of bullying help or not? A multidimensional model. *The Journal of Early Adolescence*, 33(3), 315-340. doi:10.1177/0272431612440172
- Rayner, C., Hoel, H., & Cooper, C. L. (2002). *Workplace bullying: What we know, who is to blame, and what can we do?*. London;New York;: Taylor & Francis.
- Rolider, A., & Ochayon, M. (2005). Bystander behaviours among Israeli children witnessing bullying behaviour in school settings. *Pastoral Care in Education*, 23(2), 36-39. doi:10.1111/j.0264-3944.2005.00330.x
- Rudolph, U., Roesch, S., Greitemeyer, T., & Weiner, B. (2004). A meta-analytic review of help giving and aggression from an attributional perspective: Contributions to a general theory of motivation. *Cognition and Emotion*, 18(6), 815-848. doi:10.1080/02699930341000248
- Salin, D. (2001). Prevalence and forms of bullying among business professionals. A comparison of two different strategies for measuring bullying. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 10(4), 425-441.
- Salin, D. (2015). Risk factors of workplace bullying for men and women: The role of the psychosocial and physical work environment. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 56(1), 69-77. doi:10.1111/sjop.12169

- Salin, D., & Hoel, H. (2013). Workplace bullying as a gendered phenomenon. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(3), 235-251.
doi:10.1108/02683941311321187
- Salmivalli, C. (2014). Participant roles in bullying: How can peer bystanders be utilized in interventions? *Theory into Practice: Theories of Bullying and Cyberbullying, 53*(4), 286-292. doi:10.1080/00405841.2014.947222
- Salmivalli, C., Lagerspetz, K., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Kaukiainen, A. (1996). Bullying as a group process: Participant roles and their relations to social status within the group. *Aggressive Behavior, 22*(1), 1-15.
doi:10.1002/(SICI)1098-2337(1996)22:1<1::AID-AB1>3.0.CO;2-T
- Saunders, P., Huynh, A., & Goodman-Delahunty, J. (2007). Defining workplace bullying behaviour professional lay definitions of workplace bullying. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry, 30*(4), 340-354.
doi:10.1016/j.ijlp.2007.06.007
- Schneider, S. K., O'Donnell, L., Stueve, A., & Coulter, R. W. S. (2012). Cyberbullying, school bullying, and psychological distress: A regional census of high school students. *American Journal of Public Health (1971), 102*(1), 171-177. doi:10.2105/ajph.2011.300308
- Shorenstein, A. (2007). *Bearing witness: Workplace mobbing and the observer's quandary*. (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database. (UMI No. 3268624)
- Sims, R. L., & Sun, P. (2012). Witnessing workplace bullying and the Chinese manufacturing employee. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(1), 9-26.
doi:10.1108/02683941211193839

- Song, J., & Oh, I. (2017). Investigation of the bystander effect in school bullying: Comparison of experiential, psychological and situational factors. *School Psychology International, 38*(3), 319-336. doi:10.1177/0143034317699997
- Sprigg, C. A., Niven, K., Dawson, J., Farley, S., & Armitage, C. J. (2019). Witnessing workplace bullying and employee well-being: A two-wave field study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 24*(2), 286-296. doi:10.1037/ocp0000137
- Starnes, David S., Yates, Daniel S., Moore, & David, S (2012). *The Practice of Statistics* (4 th ed.). W.H.Freeman and Company.
- Tabachnick, B. G., 1936, & Fidell, L. S. (2014). *Using multivariate statistics* (Sixth, Pearson new international ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Tamm, A., & Tulviste, T. (2015). The role of gender, values, and culture in adolescent bystanders' strategies. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 30*(3), 384-399. doi:10.1177/0886260514535097
- Thornberg, R., & Jungert, T. (2013). Bystander behavior in bullying situations: Basic moral sensitivity, moral disengagement and defender self-efficacy. *Journal of Adolescence, 36*(3), 475-483. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2013.02.003
- Tuckey, M. R., Dollard, M. F., Hosking, P. J., & Winefield, A. H. (2009). Workplace bullying: The role of psychosocial work environment factors. *International Journal of Stress Management, 16*(3), 215-232. doi:10.1037/a0016841
- Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P., & Sacco, F. C. (2004). The role of the bystander in the social architecture of bullying and violence in schools and communities. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1036*(1), 215-232. doi:10.1196/annals.1330.014

- Van Heugten, K. (2011). Theorizing active bystanders as change agents in workplace bullying of social workers. *Families in Society, 92*(2), 219-224. doi:10.1606/1044-3894.4090
- Vannette, D. (2018, May 27). Survey straightlining: What is it? How can it hurt you? And how to protect against it. XM Blog. <https://www.qualtrics.com/blog/straightlining-what-is-it-how-can-it-hurt-you-and-how-to-protect-against-it/>
- Vartia, M., & Hyyti, J. (2002). Gender differences in workplace bullying among prison officers. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 11*(1), 113-126. doi:10.1080/13594320143000870
- Verkuil, B., Atasayi, S., & Molendijk, M. L. (2015). Workplace bullying and mental health: A meta-analysis on cross-sectional and longitudinal data. *Plos One, 10*(8), e0135225. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0135225
- Vie, T. L., Glaso, L., & Einarsen, S. (2012). How does it feel? Workplace bullying, emotions and musculoskeletal complaints. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 53*(2), 165-173. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9450.2011.00932.x
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegan, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*(6), 1063.
- Weber, M., Koehler, C., & Schnauber-Stockmann, A. (2018). Why should I help you? Man up! Bystanders' gender stereotypic perceptions of a cyberbullying incident. *Deviant Behavior, 40*(5), 585-601. doi:10.1080/01639625.2018.1431183

- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548-573. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.92.4.548
- Weiner, B. (2006). *Social motivation, justice, and the moral emotions: An attributional approach*. New York: Psychology Press. doi:10.4324/9781410615749
- Weiss, H., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. (pp. 1-74). STAMFORD: JAI PRESS INC.
- Wilson, C. B. (1991). U.S. businesses suffer from workplace trauma. *Personnel Journal*, 70(7), 47.
- WorkSafe Victoria (2020). *Bullying in the workplace: Introduction to Workplace Bullying*. Retrieved from <https://www.worksafe.vic.gov.au/introduction-workplace-bullying>

Appendix A**Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval 2016/183)**

Tuesday, 08 November 2016

Dr Graeme Ditchburn
School of Psychology and Exercise Science
Murdoch University

Dear Graeme,

Project No. 2016/183
Project Title Understanding workplace bullying bystander behaviour: reasons for taking or not taking action

Thank you for addressing the conditions placed on the above application to the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee. On behalf of the Committee, I am pleased to advise the application now has:

OUTRIGHT APPROVAL

Approval is granted on the understanding that research will be conducted according the standards of the ***National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007)***, the ***Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research (2007)*** and **Murdoch University policies** at all times. You must also abide by the **Human Research Ethics Committee's standard conditions of approval (see attached)**. All reporting forms are available on the Research Ethics and Integrity web-site.

I wish you every success for your research.

Please quote your ethics project number in all correspondence.

Kind Regards,

Dr. Erich von Dietze
Manager
Research Ethics and Integrity
cc: Juan Carlos Corzo Morales

Appendix B

Understanding Workplace Bullying Bystander Behaviour

Demographics

Age	_____ years			
Gender	Male <input type="checkbox"/>	Female <input type="checkbox"/>		
Level of Education	Secondary <input type="checkbox"/>	Post-secondary non-tertiary <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Bachelor <input type="checkbox"/>	Postgraduate Study <input type="checkbox"/>		
Nationality				
Country of Residence				
Industry	Mining, Gas, Energy <input type="checkbox"/>	Construction <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Manufacturing <input type="checkbox"/>	Administrative, Support <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Information Technology <input type="checkbox"/>	Rental, Real Estate <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Finance, Commerce, Insurance <input type="checkbox"/>	Consulting, Management <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Marketing, Communication <input type="checkbox"/>	Education, Training <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Farming, Agriculture <input type="checkbox"/>	Hospitality <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Health Care, Medical <input type="checkbox"/>	Government <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Other <input type="checkbox"/>	Transport, Storage <input type="checkbox"/>		
Job Level	Apprentice <input type="checkbox"/>	Professional <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Operational and Technical <input type="checkbox"/>	Supervisory and managerial <input type="checkbox"/>		
	Administrative <input type="checkbox"/>	CEO, Owner <input type="checkbox"/>		

How often have you witnessed any of these behaviours at work between employees in the last 6 months?

Behaviours	Never	Occasionally	At least once a month	At least once a week	Every day
1. Someone withholding information which affects their performance					
2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with their work					
3. Being ordered to do work below their level of competence					
4. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks					
5. Spreading of gossip and rumours about them					
6. Being ignored or excluded					
7. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about their person, attitudes or their private life					
8. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger					
9. Intimidating behaviours such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking their way					
10. Hints or signals from others that they should quit their job					
11. Repeated reminders of their errors or mistakes					
12. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when they approach					
13. Persistent criticism of their errors or mistakes					
14. Having their opinions ignored					

15. Practical jokes carried out by people they don't get along with					
16. Being given tasks with unreasonable deadlines					
17. Having allegations made against them					
18. Excessive monitoring of their work					
19. Pressure not to claim something to which by right they are entitled (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)					
20. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm					
21. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload					
22. Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse					

(*Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009*)

23. Based on the following definition select how often you have witnessed bullying behaviour at work in the last six months.

"Bullying is harassing conduct that occurs when a person or a group of individuals repeatedly behave unreasonably towards a worker or group of workers. Such behaviours are persistent and can be unfair, belittling, offensive, abusive, harassing, intimidating, insulting, unwarranted, unjustified, humiliating, undermining or socially excluding"

I have witnessed this situation:				
Never	Occasionally	At least once a month	At least once a week	Every day
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Thinking of the last time you witnessed bullying behaviour

24. What was the sex of the perpetrator?

Female	Male	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

25. What was the sex of the target?

Female	Male	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

26. What was the age of the perpetrator?

Older than the target	Same/similar as the target	Younger than the target	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

27. How much working experience had the perpetrator?

More experience than the target	Same/similar as the target	Less experience than the target	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

28. The bullying behaviour arose

From a superior to a subordinate	From an employee to another employee	From a subordinate to a superior	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

To what extent did the incident make you feel the following?

	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
29. Distressed					
30. Upset					
31. Guilty					
32. Scared					
33. Hostile					
34. Irritable					
35. Ashamed					
36. Nervous					
37. Jittery (extremely tense, jumpy)					
38. Afraid					

(Taken from the PANAS scales. Watson, Clark & Tellegan, 1988)

39. Did you react or intervene at the moment the bullying behaviour was displayed?

Yes	No	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

40. Did you talk or discuss the incident with someone?

Yes	No	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

41. Did you approach the bullied person later?

Yes	No	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

42. Did you approach the person displaying the bullying behaviour?

Yes	No	Not sure, can't recall
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

43. In the case that you have intervened, what was (were) the reason(s) for doing so?

48. Regarding the organisation where you witnessed the bullying behaviour(s), how fair or unfair were the processes in terms of allocation of resources?

Extremely unfair	Unfair	Slightly unfair	Neither fair or unfair	Slightly fair	Fair	Extremely fair
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

49. Have you been the target of bullying behaviour in the past?

No	Yes, at school	Yes, at College/University	Yes, at work	Yes, in other situations
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix C

Understanding Workplace Bullying Bystander Behaviour

Information about the nature and scope of this survey

We are Juan Carlos Corzo and Dr. Graeme Ditchburn from Murdoch University. We invite you to participate in a study looking into developing improved understanding about bystander behaviour in relation to workplace bullying events. Bystanders are those who witness bullying in the workplace but are not primarily perpetrators or targets. They play an important role in the dynamics of bullying. To design effective anti-bullying strategies, it is crucial to identify and understand the reasons why witnesses may or may not decide to intervene

We hope that you can help us by answering some short questions. The survey is completely anonymous. Although the findings of the study may be published, none of the information you provide will be linked back to you as an individual.

The survey is intended for research purposes. Please feel free to encourage any of your wider friends or family to complete the survey by forwarding the web link to them. It is estimated that this survey will take 15 minutes to be completed.

Should you change your mind at any time and decide to withdraw, simply close your browser and you will automatically exit the survey. Note, however, that once you click the 'submit' button at the end of the survey your responses will be uploaded and it will not be possible to withdraw or amend them because we cannot tie responses to you as an individual.

If you want more information before you decide whether or not to participate, please email Juan Carlos Corzo at 32400538@student.murdoch.edu.au.

Should you wish to obtain further information on the general outcomes of the research, you can provide your contact details so that the researcher can provide you with the brief research outcomes later. A summary of the findings will be put on Murdoch University's School of Psychology and Exercise Science research results page - <http://www.murdoch.edu.au/School-of-Psychology-and-Exercise-Science/Research/Psychology-Research/Research-results/>.

It may be distressing to think of a time when you witnessed bullying behaviour. If that is the case, you may seek help and support, within Australia, from Lifeline Australia (13 11 14), or contact the Counselling Service at Murdoch University (93601227, for Murdoch students). If you are outside Australia alternate local support services should be sought.

If you do not agree to proceed with the survey, please close this window to leave.

This study has been approved by the Murdoch University Human Research Ethics Committee (Approval 2016/183). If you have any reservation or complaint about the ethical conduct of this research, and wish to talk with an independent person, you may contact Murdoch University's Research Ethics Office (Tel. 08 9360 6677 (for overseas studies, +61 8 9360 6677) or email ethics@murdoch.edu.au). Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

Participant Consent

I have read the previous page about the nature and scope of this survey. Any questions I have about the research process have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree that by submitting the survey I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I am aware that this survey is anonymous and no personal details are being collected or used. I know that I may change my mind, withdraw my consent, and stop participating at any time; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I understand that all information provided is treated as confidential by the researchers and will not be released to a third party unless required to do so by law.

I understand that the findings of this study may be published and that no information which can specifically identify me will be published.

By selecting "Next" below you are agreeing to the statement of consent above and to participation in the research study.

Next →

Appendix D

Summary

A report published by Safe Work Australia (Potter et al., 2016) found that workplace bullying in Australia increased from 7% in 2009 to 9.7% in 2016. Since 2014, the Fair Work Commission (2019) could cease instances of bullying if a worker had been bullied at work. Specifically, Australian legislation, in accordance with a growing body of research recognises workplace bullying as a significant health and safety concern.

The workplace bullying literature has mainly focused on victims of bullying, with increased attention on perpetrators (D’Cruz & Noronha 2011). Although witnesses are important characters in bullying scenarios, they have only received research attention in recent years (Dickinson, 2013; Haffner, 2009; Mulder et al., 2014).

This research intends to contribute to the development of effective evidence-based interventions targeted at active bystander participation. The study focuses on understanding the impact of gender and negative affect on bystanders’ decisions to intervene or not intervene when they observe bullying behaviour at work. For this purpose, six hypotheses were proposed:

H1: Females are more likely to intervene than males

H2: Bystanders will be more likely to intervene when the target is of the same gender as them

H3: Males bystanders are more likely to intervene when the perpetrator is of the same gender and the target is a woman.

H4: Female bystanders are more likely to rate the bullying experience as more intense than male bystanders

H5: Female bystanders will experience greater levels of fear, guilt and shame than male bystanders

H6: Gender moderates the relationship between negative affect and intervention

The study derived from online survey data from a convenience sample. The sample consisted of 311 participants, 202 women (65%) and 109 men (35%), mostly Australian

(46%), Indian (14.8%), American (11.9%) and British (5.5%), with an age range from 18 to 82 ($M=37$, $SD=13.6$). The respondents resided mostly in Australia (64.2%), The U.S.A. (12.8%), and India (12.5%).

An adapted version of the Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ-R) was used to assess observed bullying behaviour in the workplace. The NA scale of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) was used to determine the type of emotion and the emotional impact of witnessing bullying behaviour.

The current study found that gender alone had no significant association with intervention, and did not determine its probability by including negative affect in the model. Findings showed that three out of four men were unlikely to intervene in a bullying event if the target was a man.

The study confirmed that female bystanders were more likely to rate the bullying experience as more severe than male bystanders. Additionally, it found that female witnesses displayed significant higher levels of distress and upset than male witnesses.

Finally, the study found that an increasing negative affect was positively associated with an increasing likelihood of intervention. These results need to be cautiously interpreted considering the limitations of the study.