

Workplace Bullying and ~~Employee~~ Well-Being among ~~Junior~~ Early-Career Academic Staff
of Selected Universities in Edo State

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BENIN CITY,

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**BEING A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT, FACULTY OF
MANAGEMENT SCIENCES, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN CITY, IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF
SCIENCE (M.Sc.) DEGREE IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT,**

OCTOBER, 2025

DECLARATION

I, **Moses Osagie EKHATOR**, hereby declare that this dissertation is a genuine work done originally by me and has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree. All sources of information referred to in this work are acknowledged with reference to the respective authors.

Moses Osagie EKHATOR
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Date

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this dissertation titled “**Workplace Bullying and Well-Being among Early-Career Academic Staff of Selected Universities in Edo State**” was carried out by **Moses Osagie EKHATOR** in the Department of Human Resources Management, Faculty of Management Sciences, University of Benin, Benin City.

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Date

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late father, Mr. Ekhaton Victor Osamwonyi, whose legacy of love, guidance, and inspiration continues to shape my life. I also dedicate this work to all who have contributed in various ways to my academic and personal journey. Your support and encouragement have made this achievement possible.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined workplace bullying and well-being among early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. Specifically, it assessed the relationship between verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage and well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. A cross-sectional survey design was adopted. The study population comprised three thousand, one hundred and fifty-seven (3,157) early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. Using Yamane's formula at a 5% margin of error, a sample of three hundred and fifty-five (355) early-career academic staff was determined, and a structured questionnaire was administered after which three hundred and twenty-five (325) valid responses were retrieved and found usable for the study. Data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, and multiple regression (Ordinary Least Squares) with the aid of SPSS version 24. The study found that verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage have significant negative effects on the well-being of early-career academic staff in selected universities in Edo State. The study recommended that universities implement comprehensive anti-bullying policies, establish confidential reporting and grievance redress systems, strengthen mentorship and peer support structures, and provide counselling and employee assistance programmes. Furthermore, university management should monitor and evaluate interventions through measurable well-being indicators to ensure a supportive academic environment that enhances both employee welfare and institutional productivity.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Employee well-being represents a multidimensional construct encompassing physical, psychological, emotional, and social dimensions that influence an individual's capacity to function effectively within the workplace (Silva-Junior & Fischer, 2024). In academic environments, employee well-being is closely associated with job satisfaction, mental health, work-life balance, and professional fulfilment. When academic staff experience positive well-being, it enhances their motivation, creativity, and productivity, thereby improving teaching, research, and administrative outcomes. Conversely, negative workplace experiences, such as bullying and harassment, have been shown to undermine well-being, resulting in stress, anxiety, burnout, and diminished organisational commitment (Salin & Hoel, 2020; Einarsen et al., 2020).

Workplace bullying is characterised by the persistent exposure of employees to negative, intimidating, or hostile behaviours that result in emotional and occupational distress (Njoku, Iwueke, & Suleiman-Ibrahim, 2024). In academic institutions, these behaviours manifest through verbal abuse, exclusion from key decision-making, deliberate overwork, public humiliation, and academic sabotage (Azizi ~~et al.~~, ~~Momin, Hussain, Shahzad, & Ullah~~, 2025). The cumulative effect of such negative acts erodes the psychological safety of victims, impairs their work engagement, and weakens overall institutional productivity. Studies have demonstrated that bullying within universities contributes to reduced job satisfaction, psychological strain, and declining performance among ~~junior~~early-career faculty members (Clear ~~et al.~~, ~~Ding, & Coker~~, 2024).

Globally, workplace bullying has emerged as a pervasive challenge in academia (Hodgins ~~et al.~~, ~~Kane, Itzkovich, & Fahie~~, 2024). Within the Nigerian university system, the problem is

compounded by hierarchical structures, power asymmetries, and institutional politics that create environments conducive to bullying behaviours (Olagundoye & Atwoju, 2024). The absence of structured anti-bullying policies and grievance mechanisms further intensifies the issue, particularly for [early-career](#) academic staff who often fear retaliation or loss of employment if they report such experiences (Uzoamaka & Chinedu, 2022). This institutional vulnerability exposes early-career academics to sustained stress, career stagnation, and declining well-being (Chiabuotu, 2022).

[Early-career](#) academic staff in Nigerian universities commonly face precarious working conditions characterised by contract appointments, limited promotion prospects, and inadequate institutional support. These vulnerabilities amplify their exposure to bullying and make redress mechanisms less accessible (Kennedy, 2018). The culture of silence within the Nigerian academic system perpetuates tolerance for unethical conduct and discourages open discussion of bullying-related grievances. Consequently, workplace bullying remains an under-researched but deeply consequential phenomenon affecting the well-being, motivation, and professional advancement of academic personnel.

Empirical evidence demonstrates that workplace bullying significantly affects the psychological and physiological health of employees. Victims frequently experience anxiety, depression, insomnia, and burnout, all of which diminish their productivity and engagement (Silva-Junior & Fischer, 2024). Prolonged exposure to such toxic environments can also lead to physical health complications, including cardiovascular issues and weakened immune functioning (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2018). Additionally, bullying contributes to absenteeism, low morale, and high turnover intentions among affected employees (Einarsen et al., 2020).

While workplace bullying has been extensively studied in Western contexts where institutional policies for prevention and redress are relatively advanced, the phenomenon remains poorly addressed within Nigerian higher education institutions (Bello, 2024). The lack of protective

frameworks and effective reporting systems leaves victims vulnerable, thereby perpetuating a cycle of silence and inaction (Chinedu-Eze, Emerole, & Osuala, 2024). Consequently, the well-being of [early-career](#) academic staff continues to deteriorate due to persistent exposure to hostile work environments.

Against this backdrop, the present study seeks to examine the influence of workplace bullying on the well-being of [early-career](#) academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. By focusing on specific dimensions of workplace bullying such as verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, exclusion, and academic sabotage, the study aims to provide empirical evidence on how these factors shape employee well-being in Nigerian academia and to offer insights for developing institutional strategies that promote healthier, more supportive work environments.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

Workplace bullying has emerged as a critical concern within academic institutions globally, particularly affecting [early-career](#) academic staff who are often subjected to various forms of mistreatment due to hierarchical structures, institutional politics, and job insecurity (Onewo [et al.](#), 2021). In Nigerian universities, workplace bullying manifests in multiple ways, including verbal abuse, workplace exclusion, unfair workload allocation, and academic sabotage (Adebayo & Oyetunde, 2019; Adewuyi & Ogundipe, 2018; Oguntimehin [et al.](#), 2020). Such behaviours create a hostile organisational climate that undermines collegial relationships and has severe implications for employees' well-being, job satisfaction, and career development (Afolaranmi [et al.](#), 2022).

Despite the growing prevalence of workplace bullying within Nigerian higher education institutions, organisational and institutional responses have remained inadequate (Okeke & Okechukwu, 2022). Unlike many Western universities that have implemented formal anti-

bullying policies and structured grievance mechanisms, most Nigerian universities lack comprehensive institutional frameworks to address workplace bullying (Okeke & Okechukwu, 2022). The absence of such safeguards has fostered a culture of silence, compelling victims to endure abusive behaviours due to fear of retaliation, loss of employment, or damage to professional reputation (Ndukwe, 2022; Kennedy, 2018). Consequently, workplace bullying persists as an underreported yet damaging feature of the Nigerian academic landscape.

While existing research has established that workplace bullying adversely affects job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and turnover intention (Hodgins et al., 2024; Nielsen et al., 2019), there remains a paucity of empirical studies examining its direct effects on the well-being of early-career academic staff in Nigeria (Adewuyi & Ogundipe, 2018). Furthermore, limited scholarly attention has been devoted to understanding how bullying influences academic productivity, research engagement, and career progression (Solomon et al., 2024). Solomon et al. (2024) observe that persistent exposure to workplace bullying diminishes job satisfaction, reduces research output, and constrains opportunities for professional advancement. In addition, the interplay of organisational culture, leadership style, and institutional support systems in either perpetuating or mitigating bullying remains underexplored within the Nigerian context. Obiechina (2021) argues that institutional culture and leadership practices are central determinants of workplace behaviour, influencing the prevalence and management of bullying across academic environments.

Most studies investigating the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being have been conducted outside Nigeria. Specifically, international studies have explored the link between verbal abuse and well-being (Grandey et al., 2007; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Cortina et al., 2001; Chiabuotu, 2022; Kennedy, 2023); aggressive workplace behaviour and well-being (Zapf et al., 2011; Nielsen et al., 2015; Hodgins et al., 2020; Olaleye & Lekunze, 2024; Ju & Pak, 2025); workplace exclusion and well-being (Obiechina, 2021; Peng

et al., 2025; Ju & Pak, 2025; Zhang et al., 2025); and academic sabotage and well-being (Manoharan, 2024; Tomasi, 2024; Chukwuemeka-Nworu et al., 2025; Kumar et al., 2025). However, empirical research that simultaneously investigates these four dimensions of workplace bullying in relation to employee well-being within Nigerian universities remains scarce.

In light of these gaps, this study seeks to provide empirical evidence on the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being among early-career academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. By focusing on the dimensions of verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage, the study aims to advance understanding of how workplace bullying affects the psychological and professional well-being of Nigerian academics and to contribute to the development of effective institutional policies that foster healthier and more supportive academic environments.

1.3 Research Questions

This study seeks to investigate the influence of workplace bullying on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. To what extent does verbal abuse influence the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria?
2. What is the impact of aggressive workplace behaviour on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria?
3. How does workplace exclusion influence the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria?
4. To what extent does academic sabotage affect the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria?

Please present the research questions using Roman numerals such as i, ii, iii, and so on.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The broad objective of this research is to examine the effect of workplace bullying on well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. assess the extent to which verbal abuse influences the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
2. examine the impact of aggressive workplace behaviour on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
3. analyse the influence of workplace exclusion on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
4. evaluate the effect of academic sabotage on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.

Please present the objectives of the study using Roman numerals such as i, ii, iii, and so on.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

1. Verbal abuse does not significantly influence the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
2. Aggressive workplace behaviour does not significantly affect the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
3. Workplace exclusion does not significantly influence the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.
4. Academic sabotage does not significantly affect the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.

Please present the hypotheses using Roman numerals such as i, ii, iii, and so on.

1.6 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study focused on examining the effect of workplace bullying on the well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. Specifically, it investigates the prevalence and dimensions of workplace bullying, including verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage, and how these factors influence the well-being of early-career academic staff. The geographical scope of the study is confined to Edo State, encompassing three selected universities: the University of Benin, Benson Idahosa University, and Ambrose Alli University. These institutions were chosen because they represent a diverse academic environment within the state and provide a relevant context for investigating workplace bullying in higher education. The focus on Edo State allows for an in-depth analysis of institutional policies, cultural dynamics, and operational factors that may influence bullying behaviours and their effects on employee well-being. The study specifically targeted early-career academic staff, including Graduate Assistants, Assistant Lecturers, Lecturer II, Lecturer I, and other early-career faculty members. This group is selected due to their heightened vulnerability to workplace bullying arising from lower hierarchical status, job insecurity, limited institutional support, and the pressure of career development. Data for the study will be collected through structured questionnaires administered between January 2025 and October 2025. This timeframe is intended to capture recent and relevant developments regarding workplace bullying and its effects within the academic sector.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study contributes primarily to the body of knowledge on workplace bullying and employee well-being in Nigerian higher education institutions and will be beneficial to several stakeholders, including:

Academic Researchers: The study will enrich the literature on workplace bullying by providing empirical evidence from selected universities in Edo State, a context that remains underexplored. It will advance theoretical discussions on how verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage influence employee well-being, particularly within the Nigerian academic environment.

University Administrators and Management: The findings will provide actionable insights for university management on how to identify, prevent, and address workplace bullying effectively. By highlighting the detrimental effects of bullying behaviours, the study offers a framework for establishing supportive institutional policies that enhance employee welfare, productivity, and job satisfaction.

Human Resource Managers: The study will inform HR practices such as recruitment, training, grievance management, and staff welfare programmes. It will provide guidance on designing interventions that mitigate bullying and promote mental health, resilience, and job satisfaction among [early-career](#) academic staff.

Policymakers and Higher Education Authorities: The study will serve as a useful reference for higher education regulators and policymakers, including the National Universities Commission (NUC), in developing comprehensive anti-bullying policies. These policies can promote fairness, equal opportunity, and improved institutional climate within Nigerian universities.

[Early-Career](#) Academic Staff: By focusing on [early-career](#) academic staff, the study will increase awareness of the prevalence and impact of workplace bullying. It will empower staff with knowledge of their rights and the importance of grievance mechanisms, thereby fostering a more inclusive and respectful academic work environment.

Society at Large: The study underscores the broader implications of workplace bullying for institutional effectiveness, quality of education, and national development. By addressing

bullying in universities, the research highlights how creating safe and supportive work environments can contribute to academic excellence, innovation, and the cultivation of professional integrity within Nigeria's higher education sector.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

A key limitation of this study is its geographical scope, which is confined to selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. While this allows for an in-depth analysis of workplace bullying and employee well-being within this specific context, it may limit the generalisability of the findings to other universities, states, or regions in Nigeria. Institutional cultures, policies, and socio-economic conditions may differ significantly across locations, affecting the prevalence and impact of workplace bullying.

Another limitation is the reliance on self-reported data collected through structured questionnaires. Such data are susceptible to response biases, including social desirability bias and fear of reprisal, particularly given the sensitive nature of workplace bullying. This may result in underreporting or misrepresentation of actual experiences.

The study's cross-sectional design, with data collected at a single point in time, is another limitation. While it allows for an assessment of relationships between workplace bullying and employee well-being, it does not capture the dynamics of these relationships over time or establish definitive causal links. Longitudinal research could offer deeper insights into the evolution of bullying behaviours and their long-term effects on employee well-being.

Potential underreporting due to institutional culture is another limitation. In many Nigerian universities, there exists a culture of silence and fear of victimisation, which may lead [early-career](#) academic staff to withhold information about bullying experiences. This could result in the actual prevalence of workplace bullying being underestimated.

Additionally, the complexity of measuring employee well-being presents a methodological challenge. Well-being is a multidimensional construct influenced by numerous factors beyond

workplace bullying, including personal circumstances and financial stability. Isolating the effects of bullying from other influences may therefore limit the precision of the findings.

Lastly, the focus on [early-career](#) academic staff excludes perspectives from senior staff, administrators, and human resource officers who play critical roles in addressing workplace bullying. This limits the scope of understanding the institutional frameworks and broader organisational factors that influence bullying and employee well-being.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Preamble

This chapter provides a comprehensive review of existing literature on workplace bullying and well-being. It involves an in-depth exploration, analysis, and evaluation of works by scholars and researchers relevant to the study. By examining various perspectives from different authors, this chapter aims to establish a well-defined theoretical foundation for understanding workplace bullying, its causes, and its impact on employee performance and productivity.

The discussion covers the historical background of workplace bullying, its defining characteristics, and examples of bullying behaviours. Additionally, it explores the factors contributing to workplace bullying, the legal frameworks addressing bullying as well as empirical and theoretical perspectives on the subject.

Furthermore, this chapter synthesizes key findings from notable studies and clarifies essential terminologies related to workplace bullying and employee performance. The insights drawn from these scholarly works provide a strong foundation for understanding the broader implications of bullying in professional settings and its effect on organizational outcomes.

2.2 Conceptual Review

2.2.1 Employee Well-being

Employee well-being is a crucial determinant of workplace efficiency, influencing job satisfaction, productivity, and overall organizational performance. It encompasses physical, mental, emotional, and social health, all of which contribute to an employee's ability to perform effectively. Companies that actively support well-being initiatives experience lower absenteeism, higher engagement levels, and greater organizational commitment (Anjam, 2025). The COVID-19 pandemic has intensified the focus on employee well-being, with

increased remote work, job insecurity, and mental health challenges making it imperative for organizations to adopt strategies that promote resilience and work-life balance (Paul, 2025).

Physical well-being is a key factor in job performance, as employees who suffer from poor health or workplace-related injuries often experience reduced productivity and higher stress levels. Organizations investing in ergonomic workplace design, fitness programs, and health benefits see significant improvements in employee engagement and motivation (Abbas & Ahmad, 2025). Well-being, including stress management and emotional resilience, plays a vital role in shaping an employee's performance. Work-related anxiety, burnout, and job dissatisfaction can lead to decreased efficiency and increased turnover rates (Reinwald & Kunze, 2025). Companies that implement mental health support programs, such as counseling services and stress management workshops, report higher levels of job satisfaction and retention (Khamdamova, 2025).

Furthermore, a positive social work environment fosters teamwork, collaboration, and trust among employees. Workplace relationships influence morale and overall job satisfaction, making it essential for organizations to promote inclusive cultures that prevent workplace bullying and discrimination (Jackson et al., 2025). Financial well-being is another crucial aspect, as employees facing economic stress struggle to focus on work-related tasks. Providing competitive salaries, financial planning resources, and incentives helps alleviate these concerns, resulting in increased loyalty and motivation (Syed et al., 2025). Prioritizing employee well-being not only benefits individuals but also drives long-term business success.

2.2.2 Dimensions of Employee Well-being

Physical Well-being

Physical well-being refers to an employee's overall health, fitness, and ability to perform job-related tasks without being hindered by illnesses or injuries. Employees who maintain good physical health are more energetic, experience fewer health-related absences, and exhibit higher productivity levels (Othman & Zainudin, 2025). Poor workplace ergonomics, excessive working hours, and inadequate movement contribute to chronic conditions such as musculoskeletal disorders, obesity, and cardiovascular diseases (Erwandi, 2025).

To enhance physical well-being, organizations must adopt proactive health initiatives. Providing ergonomic workstations reduces strain on employees, while promoting regular movement and stretching exercises prevents long-term health complications (Ju & Pak, 2025). Fitness programs, workplace gyms, and access to healthy food options contribute to overall physical health. Additionally, companies that offer medical check-ups and health screenings can detect and address potential health risks before they escalate, reducing absenteeism and improving workforce resilience.

Mental and Emotional Well-being

Mental well-being is integral to overall employee performance, influencing concentration, motivation, and job satisfaction. Stress, anxiety, and burnout are prevalent workplace issues that can significantly impact an employee's ability to function effectively (Iqbal et al., 2025). A stressful work environment, coupled with high job demands and insufficient work-life balance, increases the risk of mental health challenges (Ju & Pak, 2025).

Organizations must prioritize mental health by fostering supportive leadership, implementing workplace counseling services, and providing mental health days (Ju & Pak, 2025). Encouraging employees to engage in mindfulness activities, stress management workshops,

and relaxation programs enhances emotional resilience. Furthermore, creating a safe workplace where employees feel heard and valued contributes to a culture of trust and emotional stability (Maharjan, 2024).

Social Well-being

Social connections in the workplace significantly influence employee well-being and job satisfaction. Employees who feel socially connected with colleagues and supervisors are more likely to experience higher motivation, engagement, and productivity (Maharjan, 2024). A lack of social support, on the other hand, can result in workplace loneliness, disengagement, and lower morale (Ullah et al., 2025).

Encouraging teamwork, collaboration, and inclusivity fosters a positive work environment. Organizations that implement mentorship programs, team-building activities, and open communication channels create a culture of trust and cooperation (Iqbal et al., 2025). Conversely, workplace bullying, discrimination, and interpersonal conflicts negatively affect employee well-being, leading to higher absenteeism and lower engagement levels (Ullah et al., 2025). Addressing these issues through anti-bullying policies, diversity training, and leadership support enhances workplace harmony and social well-being.

Financial Well-being

Financial stability plays a crucial role in an employee's overall well-being but is often overlooked in workplace well-being strategies. Employees facing financial stress may experience higher levels of anxiety, reduced concentration, and decreased job performance (Elmadani, 2025). Financial concerns can also impact decision-making and job engagement, ultimately affecting productivity.

Organizations that prioritize financial well-being can improve employee satisfaction and retention. Providing fair and competitive salaries, offering performance-based bonuses, and

implementing comprehensive benefits packages—including retirement plans, healthcare, and paid leave—help alleviate financial burdens (Ju & Pak, 2025). Additionally, companies that offer financial literacy programs, debt counseling, and workshops on budgeting and savings empower employees to manage their finances effectively, reducing workplace stress and improving focus (Elmadani, 2025).

Employee well-being is a critical factor in workplace productivity and organizational success. A holistic approach that addresses physical, mental, social, and financial well-being leads to a healthier, more engaged workforce. Organizations that invest in well-being initiatives create a supportive and positive work environment, reducing turnover rates and increasing overall efficiency. By prioritizing comprehensive well-being strategies, businesses can foster a thriving workforce that contributes to sustainable growth and innovation.

Benefits of Employee Well-Being

- i. **Higher Productivity** – Employees in good health perform tasks more efficiently, experience fewer distractions, and take fewer sick days, leading to increased output and workplace efficiency (Liang et al., 2025).
- ii. **Greater Innovation** – A stress-free and supportive work environment fosters creativity. Employees who experience reduced anxiety and job-related stress are more likely to engage in innovative problem-solving and contribute fresh ideas (Bugnariu et al., 2025).
- iii. **Stronger Commitment and Retention** – When employees feel valued, supported, and recognized, they develop a deeper commitment to their organization, reducing turnover rates and improving long-term stability (Aidi et al., 2024).

Conversely, neglecting employee well-being has serious consequences, including burnout, decreased engagement, and increased presenteeism—where employees show up to work but

underperform due to stress or illness (Ju & Pak, 2025). Additionally, organizations that fail to address well-being concerns often face high turnover rates, which lead to increased recruitment costs and lost institutional knowledge.

Ultimately, prioritizing employee well-being is not just a corporate responsibility but a strategic advantage. Organizations that implement well-being programs create a healthier, more motivated workforce that drives innovation, productivity, and long-term success.

2.2.2 Strategies to Enhance Employee Well-Being

Employee well-being is essential for fostering a productive, engaged, and resilient workforce. Organizations that prioritize well-being initiatives experience lower absenteeism, increased job satisfaction, and improved overall performance (Liang et al., 2025). Implementing effective strategies ensures that employees feel valued, supported, and empowered in their professional and personal lives. Below are key strategies to enhance employee well-being.

1. Flexible Work Arrangements

Providing employees with flexible work options, such as remote work, hybrid models, and flexible hours, allows for greater control over their schedules. These arrangements reduce workplace stress, enhance work-life balance, and improve job satisfaction (Liang et al., 2025). Employees who have the autonomy to manage their work schedules report higher levels of engagement and productivity. Companies that embrace flexibility also experience lower turnover rates, as employees appreciate the ability to balance personal and professional responsibilities.

2. Workplace Wellness Programs

Comprehensive wellness initiatives play a significant role in improving employee well-being. Organizations that offer fitness challenges, mindfulness training, mental health workshops, and healthy eating programs see increased engagement and reduced absenteeism (Mento et al.,

2025). Providing access to gym facilities, wellness coaching, and periodic health check-ups helps employees maintain good physical and mental health. Additionally, integrating wellness programs into company culture fosters a supportive and health-conscious work environment.

3. Supportive Leadership

Managers and leaders have a direct influence on employee well-being. Leadership styles that prioritize employee recognition, emotional intelligence, and open communication contribute to a healthier and more inclusive work environment (Paul, 2025). Supportive managers actively listen to employee concerns, provide constructive feedback, and create opportunities for professional growth. Organizations that train leaders to adopt a people-centric approach experience higher levels of job satisfaction and employee retention.

4. Safety and Mental Health Resources

Creating a safe workplace is crucial for employee well-being. Employees should feel comfortable expressing concerns, sharing ideas, and seeking support without fear of judgment (Othman & Zainudin, 2025). Offering confidential counseling services, stress management workshops, and peer support groups helps employees navigate workplace pressures effectively. Organizations that normalize conversations around mental health foster a culture of openness and resilience, reducing burnout and improving overall morale.

5. Financial Support Programs

Financial well-being significantly impacts an employee's ability to perform effectively. Organizations that provide fair wages, performance-based bonuses, and retirement benefits help reduce financial stress and improve job satisfaction (Elmadani, 2025). Additionally, financial literacy programs, debt counseling, and savings incentives empower employees to manage their finances efficiently, leading to greater peace of mind and increased workplace focus.

Enhancing employee well-being requires a holistic approach that integrates flexibility, wellness initiatives, supportive leadership, mental health resources, and financial stability. Organizations that implement these strategies foster a more engaged, motivated, and productive workforce, ultimately leading to long-term success. Prioritizing employee well-being is not just an ethical responsibility—it is a strategic investment in the future of an organization.

2.2.3 The Historical Evolution of Workplace Bullying

The origins of workplace bullying are difficult to pinpoint, as coercive and destructive behaviours have existed in various social and professional settings throughout history. Bullying was present in early institutions such as monasteries, guilds, military organizations, and domestic work settings. However, the Industrial Revolution marked a turning point by providing the conditions for systematic workplace bullying, as labor-intensive factories and hierarchical management structures emerged (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2022).

In ancient monastic communities, ethical concerns about workplace bullying were already being recognized. St. Benedict, who lived 1,500 years ago, warned against abusive power dynamics, stating that those who exercised authority without approval should be disciplined according to community rules. This early recognition of organizational abuse suggests that hierarchical environments have long been susceptible to bullying behaviours (Akella, 2021). In ancient Rome, military institutions were known for their harsh disciplinary measures, which included severe punishments such as floggings, broken bones, and execution for lower-ranking soldiers (Dåderman & Basinska, 2021).

The discussion of power and control in leadership has been a long-standing theme in political philosophy. In the sixteenth century, Niccolò Machiavelli's work *The Prince* examined the strategies for acquiring and maintaining power, weighing the advantages of being feared versus being loved. Although Machiavelli's theories were not explicitly about workplace bullying,

they highlighted the potential for leaders to abuse their authority, a concept that remains relevant in modern organizational behaviour (Rai & Agarwal, 2020).

By the nineteenth century, the mistreatment of workers became a significant concern, particularly in industrialized nations like Britain. Mrs. Beeton, a prominent writer on household management, criticized the maltreatment of domestic servants and advocated for treating workers with dignity. Around the same time, social reformers such as the Earl of Shaftesbury conducted interviews that documented severe bullying experienced by child laborers in factories and mines. Many children worked under Dickensian conditions, enduring frequent verbal and physical abuse while performing dangerous tasks, often during night shifts (Berlingieri, 2021).

By the early twentieth century, authors like Robert Tressell depicted the miserable conditions of manual laborers and domestic workers, illustrating how they were subjected to exploitation, overwork, and abuse. His book, *The Ragged Trousered Philanthropists*, highlighted the tyranny and oppression that workers faced in the workplace, providing one of the earliest literary critiques of workplace bullying (Samnani, 2023).

The hierarchical and authoritarian nature of workplaces persisted throughout the mid-twentieth century, when workers were frequently exposed to dehumanizing and abusive practices. In many industries, fear was used as a tool to maintain control over employees. However, it was not until the last fifty years that workplace bullying began to be recognized as an unethical practice with significant and organizational consequences (Rai & Agarwal, 2020). Studies have linked bullying to chronic stress, decreased productivity, and serious health conditions such as depression and cardiovascular disease (Xu [et al.](#), 2022).

The formal study of workplace bullying gained traction in the 1990s and early 2000s, with researchers like Einarsen and Leymann defining workplace bullying as a pattern of prolonged

mistreatment that causes severe distress. Over the past thirty years, Western societies have increasingly acknowledged the importance of creating healthy and inclusive workplaces, recognizing that bullying not only harms individuals but also reduces overall organizational performance (Gupta, Gupta & Wadhwa, 2020).

2.2.4 Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying encompasses a wide range of negative interpersonal behaviours that create toxic work environments. One widely accepted definition comes from Einarsen et al. (2020), who describe workplace bullying as repeated negative actions and practices directed at one or more workers, where the target finds it difficult to defend themselves. These behaviours may be intentional or unintentional, but they often result in significant harm to employees and organizations (Keashly & Neuman, 2004).

Recent research highlights several key characteristics that define workplace bullying. According to Andrews, Cillessen, and Craig (2023), workplace bullying must be perceived as negative and unwelcome, persist over a long period, involve a power imbalance, and not necessarily be intentional. This means that even if a person does not set out to harm a colleague, their actions can still be classified as bullying if they create a hostile work environment. The persistence of these behaviours is crucial; occasional conflicts or disagreements do not constitute bullying unless they are repetitive and contribute to ongoing distress for the target (Hauge & Skogstad, 2010).

Workplace bullying within Nigerian universities can be analyzed through the lens of hierarchical power structures and institutionalized practices that often normalize exploitative relationships between senior and [early-career](#) staff members. Research suggests that senior academics leverage their authority to suppress and control [early-career](#) staff, fostering an environment where bullying and exclusion are tolerated (Ojedokun [et al.](#)

, 2014). This phenomenon manifests in various ways, including verbal abuse, manipulation of workload distribution, exclusion from professional networks, and intentional obstruction of career progression (Obalade, 2022). Among the most prevalent forms of workplace bullying experienced by [early-career](#) academics is verbal abuse, which often includes public humiliation, derogatory comments, and intimidation tactics from senior faculty members (Samaila [et al.](#), 2018).

Unfair workload distribution is another significant concern, as [early-career](#) lecturers are frequently assigned excessive teaching responsibilities and administrative duties while being excluded from research opportunities and funding. This not only hinders their professional development but also contributes to stress and burnout (Owoyemi, 2011). Additionally, academic sabotage, in which senior academics deliberately obstruct the research efforts of [early-career](#) colleagues, remains a pressing issue. This can take the form of delayed approvals for research proposals, rejection of manuscripts based on personal bias, or outright plagiarism of [early-career](#) academics' work by senior staff (Ojedokun [et al.](#), 2014). Such exclusionary practices further limit [early-career](#) lecturers' participation in institutional decision-making, undermining their professional growth and sense of belonging within the university system (Samaila [et al.](#), 2018).

Another prevalent form of workplace bullying in Nigerian universities is academic sabotage, where [early-career](#) academics experience deliberate obstruction of their research efforts by senior colleagues. This can manifest through delayed approvals for research proposals, biased rejection of manuscripts, or even plagiarism of [early-career](#) academics' work by senior faculty members (Iyalla, 2024). Exclusion and marginalization are also common, with [early-career](#) lecturers often denied participation in institutional decision-making processes, thereby limiting their professional growth and sense of belonging within the university system (Iyalla, 2024).

Workplace bullying has far-reaching consequences for employee well-being, affecting, emotional, and physical health, as well as career satisfaction and productivity. Research has demonstrated that workplace bullying significantly contributes to anxiety, depression, and chronic stress among university lecturers in Nigeria (Olagundoye & Atowoju, 2024). Long-term exposure to workplace hostility often leads to emotional exhaustion, burnout, and, in severe cases, suicidal ideation among victims (Olagundoye & Atowoju, 2024).

The negative impact of workplace bullying on [early-career](#) academic staff is well-documented in the literature. Victims frequently experience elevated levels of stress, anxiety, and depressive symptoms, which can significantly impair their ability to perform their academic responsibilities effectively (Olagundoye & Atowoju, 2024). Additionally, workplace bullying has been linked to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) among affected lecturers, further exacerbating their distress (Olagundoye & Atowoju, 2024). The stigma surrounding mental health in Nigeria further discourages victims from seeking professional support, ultimately worsening their well-being.

Workplace bullying significantly undermines job satisfaction among [early-career](#) academic staff. Victims of bullying often become disillusioned with their work environment, leading to disengagement and reduced commitment to their academic careers (Ucho, 2013).

Many [early-career](#) academics in Nigerian universities report feeling undervalued and unsupported, which ultimately affects their motivation and enthusiasm for teaching and research (Mohamed & Mohamud, 2024). Consequently, workplace bullying can contribute to increased turnover intentions among affected faculty members, leading to a talent drain and instability within the university system (Ali [et al.](#), 2021).

Another major consequence of workplace bullying is its impact on academic productivity.

[Early-career](#) academics who experience workplace harassment often struggle with

concentration and motivation, leading to reduced research output and ineffective teaching performance (Kennedy, 2018). Workplace bullying has also been associated with increased absenteeism and higher turnover rates among faculty members in Nigerian universities, further disrupting institutional stability and effectiveness (Anierobi [et al.](#), 2021).

Beyond professional consequences, workplace bullying has serious implications for faculty health. Prolonged exposure to hostile work environments has been linked to a range of physical health issues, including hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, insomnia, and weakened immune system function (Adeoti [et al.](#), 2020). Victims of bullying frequently report experiencing chronic fatigue, headaches, and gastrointestinal disorders, which further impede their ability to fulfil their professional responsibilities (Kennedy, 2018). These health complications not only impact individual faculty members but also contribute to increased medical expenses and reduced overall workplace productivity (Anierobi [et al.](#), 2021).

Workplace bullying can take many forms. Karatuna [et al.](#) (2020) identified four main categories of bullying behaviours:

1. Personal Derogation – Actions such as humiliation, ridicule, or excessive criticism aimed at undermining an individual’s self-esteem.
2. Intimidation – Threats, coercion, or manipulation used to instill fear and compliance.
3. Work-related Bullying – Employees being deliberately set up for failure through excessive workloads, withholding crucial information, or taking credit for their work.
4. Social Exclusion – Employees being isolated, ignored, or prevented from forming workplace connections, making them feel alienated.

[Please present the above dimensions of workplace bullying using Roman numerals such as i, ii, iii, and so on.](#)

For workplace bullying to be formally recognized, it must be persistent. A single act of aggression, while unpleasant, is usually not classified as bullying. However, Feijó et al. (2021) argued that in cases where an isolated incident is extreme—such as public humiliation or physical aggression—it can have long-term consequences and be considered workplace bullying. In many instances, bullying occurs in subtle ways. For example, an employee may frequently experience passive-aggressive remarks, be regularly excluded from meetings, or find that their contributions are consistently dismissed. While these actions may seem minor individually, they become a serious problem when they accumulate over time (Walker & Stones, 2020).

A fundamental aspect of workplace bullying is the imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the victim. This imbalance can manifest in various ways. Nielsen et al. (2022) explain that positional power allows managers and supervisors to misuse their authority to impose unfair rules or make arbitrary decisions. Relationship power can come into play when workplace cliques exclude certain employees based on personal characteristics such as race, gender, or beliefs. Some individuals exert resource power by denying access to essential tools, technology, or senior management, making it difficult for employees to perform their jobs. power involves exploiting an individual's vulnerabilities, while knowledge power is demonstrated when important information is deliberately withheld. Another form is delegated power, where a person influences others to carry out intimidation on their behalf. Additionally, personality power plays a role, as some individuals command an intimidating presence that discourages others from challenging their behaviour (Munro & Phillips, 2020).

A distinguishing feature of workplace bullying is that intent is not required for behaviour to be classified as bullying. Ballard and Easteal (2018) argue that it is the impact on the victim, rather than the offender's intention, that determines whether bullying has occurred. However, intent can be relevant in understanding the severity of the bullying and in determining the appropriate

response. Workplace bullying can involve wilful intent, where the perpetrator deliberately seeks to harm a colleague emotionally or professionally. In some cases, bullying arises from instrumental intent, where negative behaviours are a byproduct of another goal, such as exerting control over work performance. Finally, bullying can also be unintentional, where the perpetrator lacks awareness of how their actions affect others. In such cases, individuals may rationalize their behaviour as "just being direct" or "following company policy," even though their actions contribute to a hostile work environment (Shirey, 2023).

The effects of workplace bullying extend beyond the individuals involved and impact entire organizations. Research has categorized these consequences into three broad areas. First, there is the human cost, which includes distress, anxiety, depression, insomnia, and, in severe cases, symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Shirey, 2023). Victims of workplace bullying often experience a decline in self-esteem, making it difficult to assert themselves in future workplace interactions. Second, bullying creates an organizational cost, as it leads to decreased job satisfaction, increased absenteeism, and lower productivity. Employees who feel unsafe or unvalued are less likely to perform well, which in turn affects overall company performance (Medina, Carter & Thomas, 2020). The third category is the spillover effect, where workplace bullying spreads to other employees, creating a toxic culture. When bullying behaviours are tolerated or ignored, they may be normalized, leading to a hostile work environment that discourages teamwork and innovation (Halim & Riding, 2023).

Preventing and addressing workplace bullying requires a proactive approach. Organizations must establish zero-tolerance policies that clearly define what constitutes bullying and outline the consequences for such behaviour. Whistleblower protection is also crucial, as many employees fear retaliation if they report bullying. Encouraging a culture of openness where employees feel safe to raise concerns can help identify and address issues early (Berlingieri, 2021). Another critical step is leadership training. Many instances of workplace bullying stem

from poor leadership or lack of awareness among managers. Providing training in conflict resolution, emotional intelligence, and ethical leadership can help mitigate bullying behaviours before they escalate. Finally, organizations should implement support systems such as counseling services, peer mentoring programs, and mediation processes to help victims of workplace bullying recover and regain confidence in their work environment (Misra & Sharma, 2022).

Workplace bullying remains a complex issue that affects individuals, teams, and entire organizations. It is driven by persistent negative behaviours, power imbalances, and organizational culture. Addressing this issue requires a combination of clear policies, strong leadership, and a commitment to fostering a supportive work environment. By taking these steps, organizations can not only reduce workplace bullying but also improve employee morale, productivity, and overall well-being.

2.2.5 Forms of Workplace Bullying

The study of workplace bullying has largely focused on individualized cases where a single perpetrator targets one or more victims (Einarsen et al., 2020). Victims often describe the bully's behaviour as dysfunctional or, in extreme cases, psychopathic (Leymann, 1996). While some scholars suggest that distinct personality traits may make individuals more likely to become bullies or victims, this view lacks universal acceptance (Nielsen & Knardahl, 2015). A more widely supported perspective argues that workplace bullying results from situational factors such as organizational culture, poor management, inadequate training, and excessive competition (Hauge et al., 2011; Karatuna et al., 2025).

Workplace bullying manifests in various forms, categorized into individualized bullying and organizational bullying.

1. Individualized Bullying

Predatory Bullying

Predatory bullying occurs when the target has not provoked any hostility. The bully exploits a vulnerable individual, often due to differences in status or group membership (Salin, 2021). This type of bullying is common in workplaces where a toxic culture enables unchecked aggression.

Case Illustration: A secretary in a media organization experienced predatory bullying when her manager consistently criticized her work and treated previous secretaries similarly.

Dispute-Related Bullying

Dispute-related bullying emerges from conflicts that escalate over time. The emotional tension leads to mutual hostility, resulting in ongoing attacks and counter-attacks (Branch et al., 2022).

Case Illustration: Two research scientists engaged in dispute-related bullying after one failed to receive recognition in a breakthrough paper, leading to mutual sabotage.

Escalating Bullying

Escalating bullying occurs when individuals misinterpret each other's actions, leading to prolonged disputes. As conflicts intensify, both parties perceive the other as the aggressor (Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2018).

Case Illustration: A minor act, such as a supervisor closing a door in front of a colleague, led to escalating conflict, with both parties accusing each other of bullying.

Attribution of Intention

Attribution errors contribute to workplace conflicts. Individuals often perceive their actions as justified while viewing others' behaviours negatively, exacerbating tensions (Park et al., 2025).

Case Illustration: A supervisor's seemingly innocuous action led to a bullying accusation due to misinterpretation.

2. Organisational Forms of Bullying

Beyond individualized conflicts, workplace bullying can take more structured, systemic forms.

Delegated Bullying

Delegated bullying occurs when a higher-ranking individual manipulates a subordinate into harassing a colleague (Hoel [et al.](#), 2020).

Case Illustration: A manager falsely portrays an employee as lazy, pressuring a subordinate to isolate the target.

Bystander Bullying

Bystander bullying happens when employees witness bullying but fail to intervene, sometimes out of fear of becoming the next target (Namie, 2017).

Case Illustration: A CEO verbally attacks an employee in a meeting while colleagues remain silent.

Merry-Go-Round Bullying

In merry-go-round bullying, the perpetrator targets different individuals over time, maintaining a climate of fear and instability (Georganta et al., 2025).

Case Illustration: A workplace where a bully rotates targets, causing constant uncertainty among employees.

Mobbing or Gang Bullying

Mobbing involves collective harassment by a group, significantly amplifying the impact on the victim (Jovcheska et al., 2024).

Case Illustration: Colleagues repeatedly target an employee with a medical condition, creating a hostile work environment.

Good Guy/Bad Guy Bullying

This dynamic involves a manipulative alliance where one individual pretends to support the target while secretly aiding the bully (Onwuakagba et al., 2025).

Case Illustration: A manager befriends an employee, gaining trust and then sharing private information with another superior to exert pressure.

Subordinate Bullying

While most bullying is hierarchical, 12% of cases in the UK involve subordinates undermining their superiors through procrastination, withholding information, or spreading falsehoods (Chang [et al.](#), 2025).

Case Illustration: A middle manager faces subtle sabotage from a subordinate withholding critical information.

Passive-Aggressive Bullying

Passive-aggressive bullying involves indirect forms of hostility, such as resisting tasks, feigning incompetence, or manipulating others into feeling guilty (Pritz & Chou, 2025).

Case Illustration: A colleague uses alternating moods of sullenness and argumentativeness to evade responsibilities.

Personality-Disordered Bullying

This form of bullying stems from long-term personality disturbances. While some traits may be tolerated in the workplace, extreme cases can lead to dysfunctional relationships (Alfes et al., 2025).

Illustration: A workplace bully justifies manipulative behaviours as "strong leadership," ignoring the harm caused.

Organizational Bullying

Unlike individual bullying, organizational bullying arises from company policies that systematically degrade employees, such as unrealistic performance expectations or punitive cultures (Alhomoud, 2025).

Impact: Employees in environments with organizational bullying report lower morale, higher turnover rates, and reduced productivity (Paegle et al., 2025).

Workplace bullying can take various forms, including verbal, physical, and harassment. It is increasingly facilitated by digital communication channels such as email, text messages, instant messaging, and social media platforms (Bekkai, 2024). In some instances, bullying extends beyond the workplace, affecting victims in their personal lives through cyberbullying and social exclusion (Dundović, 2024).

Bullying may be directed at an individual worker or a group and can be carried out by one or more perpetrators (Alhomoud, 2025). It may occur in different hierarchical directions within an organization:

- i. Lateral bullying: Between coworkers at the same level.
- ii. Downward bullying: From supervisors or managers towards subordinates.
- iii. Upward bullying: From employees directed at their supervisors or managers.

Additionally, workplace bullying can involve external stakeholders such as clients, customers, patients, students, or members of the public (Radey & Wilke, 2024).

Bullying in the workplace manifests in different behaviours, including:

- i. Unwarranted or invalid criticism—Persistent and baseless critiques aimed at undermining confidence (Heidelberg, 2024).
- ii. Blame without factual justification—Holding employees accountable for failures they did not cause (Lee et al., 2024).
- iii. Differential treatment—Singling out an employee for unfair treatment compared to peers (Jovcheska et al., 2024).
- iv. Verbal abuse and profanity—Using aggressive language or insults (Al-Kass et al., 2025).
- v. Social exclusion—Intentionally isolating an employee from team activities (Pratesi, 2024).
- vi. Public humiliation—Shouting at an employee or belittling them in front of others (Lister & Spaeth, 2024).
- vii. Practical jokes—Engaging in repeated, harmful pranks (Kumar, 2024).
- viii. Excessive monitoring—Unreasonably scrutinizing an employee’s work, creating a hostile work environment (Mesri, 2025).

2.2.7 Factors that Increase the Risk of Workplace Bullying

Certain organizational and individual factors can heighten the risk of workplace bullying (Medrano, 2024):

- i. Significant organizational change—Major restructuring, downsizing, or the introduction of new technology can create stress and power imbalances, fostering bullying behaviour (Radey & Wilke, 2024).

- ii. Worker characteristics—Age, gender, parental status, or employment type (e.g., apprentices or temporary workers) can make certain employees more vulnerable to bullying (Alhomoud, 2025).
- iii. Workplace relationships—Poor communication between different levels of the organization, lack of employee participation in decision-making, and unresolved interpersonal conflicts increase the likelihood of bullying (Verbickytè, 2024).
- iv. Work systems—High workloads, understaffing, unclear job roles, and ambiguous policies on acceptable behaviour contribute to an environment where bullying thrives (Havaei et al., 2024).

Workplace bullying is a complex issue that affects not only individuals but also the broader organizational climate. Understanding its forms, examples, and risk factors is crucial for developing effective prevention and intervention strategies. Addressing workplace bullying requires proactive leadership, clear policies, and a culture that promotes respect and accountability.

Furthermore, common causes of workplace bullying include:

- i. Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD): Victims often exhibit PTSD symptoms, including hypervigilance, emotional numbness, and flashbacks of traumatic incidents (Akkas & Islam, 2024).
- ii. Social Isolation and Stigmatization: Bullying often leads to workplace exclusion, reducing interpersonal trust and teamwork (Alduraibi et al., 2024).
- iii. Psychosomatic Illnesses: Persistent stress leads to physical symptoms such as headaches, muscle tension, chronic fatigue, and digestive issues (Way et al., 2024).

- iv. **Depression and Anxiety:** Long-term exposure to bullying increases feelings of helplessness, self-doubt, and anxiety disorders (Trócoli, 2024).
- v. **Cognitive Dysfunction:** Reduced concentration, impaired decision-making, and memory loss are commonly reported by victims (Namseethan, 2024).
- vi. **Hostility and Hypersensitivity:** Some victims develop aggressive tendencies, hypersensitivity to criticism, or paranoia in social interactions (Piras et al., 2024).
- vii. **Suicidal Ideation:** In severe cases, victims of prolonged bullying experience thoughts of self-harm or suicide (Cepeda, 2024).

2.2.6 The Impact of Workplace Bullying on Individuals and Organizations

Workplace bullying has severe and long-lasting effects on victims, affecting both their physical and mental well-being. Research suggests that workplace bullying contributes to chronic stress, anxiety, and depression, with symptoms sometimes developing into post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Onwuakagba et al., 2025). The negative consequences extend beyond the immediate workplace, impacting victims' personal lives, social relationships, and financial stability (Karatuna et al., 2025).

Victims of workplace bullying may experience:

- i. **High stress and PTSD**—Prolonged bullying exposure can lead to trauma (Paul, 2025).
- ii. **Financial problems**—Absenteeism and reduced work performance can result in financial instability (Chang et al., 2025).
- iii. **Reduced self-esteem**—Constant criticism and social exclusion diminish confidence (Murthy, 2024).
- iv. **Musculoskeletal problems**—Chronic stress can manifest as physical ailments such as back pain and joint discomfort (Karatuna et al., 2025).

- v. Phobias and avoidance behaviours—Some victims develop a fear of the workplace, leading to resignation or withdrawal (Manning et al., 2025).
- vi. Sleep disturbances and fatigue—Anxiety and hypervigilance interfere with normal sleep patterns (Peng et al., 2025).
- vii. Increased depression and self-blame—Victims often internalize negative experiences, leading to emotional distress (Walker, 2025).
- viii. Digestive issues—Chronic stress is linked to gastrointestinal disorders, including irritable bowel syndrome (Fang et al., 2025).
- ix. Social isolation—Victims may withdraw from professional and personal relationships due to shame or fear (Aderinto et al., 2025).
- x. Decline in work performance—Cognitive impairments such as difficulty concentrating and making decisions impact productivity (Leggat et al., 2025).
- xi. Suicidal thoughts—In extreme cases, workplace bullying can contribute to suicidal ideation (Rahman et al., 2025).

Workplace bullying not only harms individuals but also imposes significant costs on organizations. A toxic work environment leads to decreased morale, higher turnover rates, and reduced efficiency (Wilson & Wilson, 2025). Organizations with prevalent bullying experience reputational damage, legal risks, and increased financial costs due to compensation claims and absenteeism (Karatuna et al., 2025).

Key organizational impacts include:

- i. Increased employee turnover—High bullying rates push employees to leave, increasing recruitment and training costs (Manning et al., 2025).

- ii. Reduced productivity—Employees spend time and effort coping with bullying rather than focusing on their tasks (Peng et al., 2025).
- iii. Legal and investigation costs—Organizations face financial and reputational risks due to lawsuits and formal complaints (Pryor, 1987).
- iv. High absenteeism rates—Work-related stress and health issues lead to frequent sick leaves, disrupting workflow (Niedl, 1996).
- v. Decline in innovation and engagement—Fear-based workplaces discourage employees from contributing ideas or taking initiative (Azizi et al., 2025).
- vi. Breakdown of trust—Workplace bullying fosters a culture of secrecy, reducing collaboration and communication (Ueno & Ohashi, 2025).

Organizations can mitigate these effects by promoting anti-bullying policies, fostering a supportive culture, and offering employee assistance programs. Ensuring that all employees have access to confidential professional counseling services through Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) can provide crucial mental health support.

Addressing workplace bullying is crucial for maintaining employee well-being and organizational effectiveness. The repercussions extend beyond the victims, impacting workplace culture, financial stability, and overall business success. Companies must actively implement strategies to prevent and manage bullying to create a healthier work environment.

2.2.7 Strategies for preventing Workplace Bullying and Abuse at Work

Workplace bullying is a significant organizational issue that negatively affects employee well-being, morale, and productivity. Organizations can minimize bullying risks by fostering a positive and respectful work culture through a combination of managerial commitment, clear behavioural standards, and proactive intervention strategies (Chakraborty et al., 2025).

Research suggests that organizations with strong leadership, well-defined policies, and a culture of inclusivity experience lower rates of workplace bullying and harassment (Rahmah et al., 2024).

1. Management Commitment

Senior management plays a crucial role in preventing workplace bullying by demonstrating a commitment to a respectful and inclusive workplace culture (García-Cid et al., 2025). Effective leaders set the tone for behaviour in the organization by actively modeling appropriate conduct and enforcing anti-bullying policies.

Key Strategies for Managerial Commitment:

- i. Model respectful behaviour—Leaders should exemplify professionalism and inclusivity in daily interactions.
- ii. Develop and implement a workplace bullying policy—A well-defined policy ensures clear expectations and consequences for inappropriate behaviour (Jouannard, 2024).
- iii. Address bullying incidents promptly—Ignoring workplace bullying can normalize toxic behaviours, leading to long-term negative consequences (Khalaf, 2024).
- iv. Encourage employee feedback and consultation—Involving employees in policy-making fosters trust and accountability (Vveinhardt et al., 2024).

2. Establishing Clear Workplace Behaviour Standards

A workplace can reinforce respectful behaviour through a code of conduct or workplace policy outlining acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. These standards should apply to all workplace interactions, including online communication (Belwal et al., 2025).

Benefits of Setting Clear Standards:

- i. Prevention of escalation—Defining behavioural expectations helps address minor issues before they develop into workplace bullying (García-Cid et al., 2025).
- ii. Consistency in disciplinary actions—A well-enforced code of conduct ensures fair treatment and deters harmful behaviours.

3. Implementing an Anti-Bullying Policy

Organizations should develop and implement a formal workplace bullying policy that outlines clear guidelines, reporting mechanisms, and disciplinary actions (Rivera, 2025).

Components of an Effective Workplace Bullying Policy:

- i. Commitment to a safe work environment—A statement reinforcing the organization’s dedication to preventing bullying.
- ii. Definition of workplace bullying—Clearly defining bullying behaviours, including in-person and digital harassment.
- iii. Reporting and response procedures—Confidential reporting systems should be available for employees to report incidents safely (Dextras-Gauthier et al., 2024).
- iv. Consequences of non-compliance—Clear disciplinary actions for violators ensure accountability.

To be effective, the policy should be accessible, communicated regularly, and consistently enforced through training sessions, team meetings, and digital platforms (Jouannard, 2024).

4. Promoting Positive Workplace Relationships

Fostering respectful and supportive workplace relationships is crucial in preventing bullying. Organizations can achieve this by investing in leadership training, mentoring, and open communication (Georganta et al., 2025).

Best Practices for Building a Positive Work Culture:

- i. Leadership training for managers and supervisors—Training leaders to recognize and address bullying behaviours promotes a culture of respect.
- ii. Employee mentoring and support programs—New and struggling employees benefit from mentorship and coaching.
- iii. Encouraging teamwork and cooperation—Collaboration reduces workplace conflicts and promotes mutual respect.

5. Addressing External Workplace Bullying

Bullying does not only occur between employees—it can also stem from clients, customers, patients, or other external stakeholders (Allen et al., 2024). Organizations should implement measures to protect employees from external bullying.

Recommended Control Measures:

- i. Establish behaviour expectations in contracts and agreements—Clear policies ensure external stakeholders understand appropriate conduct.
- ii. Empower employees to refuse service if mistreated—Workers should have the authority to disengage from abusive clients (Jouannard, 2024).
- iii. Provide support for employees facing external bullying—Organizations should offer mental health resources and intervention strategies (Gur & Inchi, 2024).

Preventing workplace bullying requires strong leadership, clear policies, and a culture of respect. By implementing proactive measures, organizations can foster a safe and productive work environment. Addressing bullying at both the organizational and individual levels ensure

long-term success in maintaining a positive workplace culture and protecting employee well-being.

5. Designing Safe Work Systems

A well-structured work environment plays a critical role in minimizing workplace bullying. Organizations can implement specific work design control measures to reduce the likelihood of bullying and foster a positive work culture (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2025).

Key Work Design Strategies:

- i. Clearly define job roles—Providing employees with well-defined responsibilities minimizes role ambiguity, reducing workplace tension (García-Cid et al., 2025).
- ii. Seek regular feedback—Encouraging employees to express concerns about their roles helps identify and address potential sources of conflict (Zhou et al., 2025).
- iii. Provide adequate resources and training—Ensuring that employees have access to the necessary tools and knowledge enhances workplace efficiency and reduces frustration (Badran et al., 2025).
- iv. Monitor workloads and staffing levels—Preventing excessive working hours mitigates stress and burnout, which are contributing factors to workplace bullying (Liao et al., 2025).
- v. Offer support programs—Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) provide workers with mental health support, particularly during stressful periods (Veerabhadraiah, 2024).
- vi. Implement control measures during workplace changes—Restructuring and downsizing increase uncertainty, making employees more vulnerable to bullying. Proactive change management strategies help minimize risks (Tang et al., 2024).

6. Implementing Reporting and Response Procedures

A transparent and well-structured reporting system is essential for preventing and addressing workplace bullying (Zhou et al., 2025). Employees are more likely to report bullying incidents when they trust that their concerns will be taken seriously and addressed promptly.

Strategies for Encouraging Reporting:

- i. Ensure zero tolerance for victimization—Employees should feel safe when reporting bullying, knowing they will not face retaliation (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2025).
- ii. Provide timely and consistent responses—Ensuring that all reports are addressed effectively prevents further escalation (Canning et al., 2025).
- iii. Enhance transparency—Regularly sharing anonymized reports on workplace bullying cases and their resolutions builds trust in the reporting system (Negussie et al., 2024).

Effective Reporting and Response Procedures:

- i. Reports should be handled confidentially to protect employees from retaliation.
- ii. Policies should clearly define the roles of managers and supervisors in handling complaints.
- iii. Employees should have access to external reporting avenues when internal resolutions are ineffective (Kumar et al., 2025).
- iv. Workers and safety representatives should be involved in developing reporting procedures to ensure fairness and effectiveness (Badran et al., 2025).

7. Providing Training and Information

Workplace training programs are essential in preventing and managing bullying by equipping employees with the skills needed to recognize and address inappropriate behaviour (Moosmann, 2025).

Training for Employees Should Cover:

- i. Standards of workplace behaviour—Including policies on social media conduct and professional communication (Liao et al., 2025).
- ii. How to report bullying—Clearly outlining the reporting process and available support services (Karan, 2024).
- iii. How to respond to workplace bullying—Providing conflict resolution techniques to prevent escalation (Tang et al., 2024).
- iv. The impact of workplace bullying—Raising awareness of the and professional consequences of workplace bullying (García-Cid et al., 2025).

Training for Managers and Supervisors Should Include:

- i. Identifying hazards—Recognizing early signs of workplace bullying and addressing them proactively (Veerabhadraiah, 2024).
- ii. Managing workplace relationships—Developing skills in effective communication, conflict resolution, and performance management (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2025).
- iii. Fostering diversity and inclusion—Promoting tolerance and respect in multicultural work environments (Canning et al., 2025).

Modes of Training Delivery:

- i. Online courses and webinars—Flexible learning options that can be accessed remotely.

- ii. Face-to-face training sessions—Interactive workshops that allow employees to practice skills in real-time.
- iii. Podcasts and informational videos—Engaging formats for ongoing education on workplace behaviour.

8. Providing Workers with Information

Ensuring that employees are informed about workplace bullying policies and prevention strategies is crucial for fostering a safe work environment (Badran et al., 2025).

Effective Methods for Sharing Information:

- i. Team meetings and toolbox talks—Encouraging open discussions about workplace behaviour.
- ii. Company newsletters and pamphlets—Providing written guidelines on anti-bullying policies.
- iii. Posters and digital displays—Reinforcing key messages about workplace respect and reporting procedures.
- iv. Emails and intranet updates—Ensuring all employees receive timely information about new policies and training opportunities.

Workplace bullying prevention requires a multi-faceted approach involving clear work systems, transparent reporting mechanisms, comprehensive training, and proactive leadership. By prioritizing employee well-being and open communication, organizations can create a respectful work environment that reduces bullying risks and enhances overall productivity.

Once workplace bullying prevention measures are implemented, organizations must continuously monitor and review their effectiveness. Failure to do so may result in ineffective

policies that fail to address workplace bullying or lead to unintended consequences (Bender, 2024). Research suggests that proactive monitoring and evaluation can significantly reduce workplace bullying incidents and improve employee well-being (Smith, 2024).

Key Strategies for Monitoring Workplace Bullying Policies:

- i. Regular scheduled discussions—Managers should include workplace bullying updates in staff meetings, health and safety meetings, and management discussions (Leon, 2024).
- ii. Monitoring key workplace indicators—Tracking employee grievances, staff turnover rates, sick leave records, and the use of Employee Assistance Programs (EAPs) can highlight workplace bullying trends (Warnick, 2024).
- iii. Analyzing bullying incident reports—Assessing reports helps identify patterns in bullying behaviour and determine whether interventions are working (Wang et al., 2025).

Reviewing Workplace Bullying Policies and Procedures

Policies and procedures should be reviewed regularly to ensure they remain effective and relevant. Workplace bullying reviews should be conducted in consultation with employees and their health and safety representatives (Bender, 2024).

Recommended Review Triggers:

A policy review should take place under the following circumstances:

- i. When an instance of workplace bullying has been substantiated through an investigation.
- ii. If requested by a health and safety representative or committee.

- iii. When new research or legal requirements regarding workplace bullying are published.
- iv. If bullying incident reports increase, suggesting the policy may not be effective.
- v. At a scheduled review date as part of standard policy evaluation procedures (Smith, 2024).

Sources of Information for Review:

To assess policy effectiveness, organizations should collect qualitative and quantitative data from:

- i. Confidential employee surveys—Assessing workplace culture and bullying perceptions.
- ii. Exit interviews—Understanding if bullying contributed to an employee’s decision to leave.
- iii. Sick leave records—Examining if workplace stress or bullying is leading to higher absenteeism (Leon, 2024).

Key Questions to Assess Policy Effectiveness

When reviewing workplace bullying policies, organizations should gather evidence to answer the following questions:

- i. Are managers and supervisors trained to recognize and address workplace bullying?
- ii. Has workplace bullying awareness been effectively raised among staff?
- iii. Do employees feel comfortable speaking up about unreasonable behaviour?
- iv. Has workplace morale improved or deteriorated over time?
- v. Are workplace bullying policies consistently enforced?

- vi. Are bullying reports being addressed promptly and effectively?

Reporting Findings and Implementing Improvements

The results of workplace bullying policy reviews should be reported to senior management, board members, and health and safety representatives. If necessary, policy changes should be implemented to improve effectiveness.

Best Practices for Reporting and Implementing Changes:

- i. Transparency—Regular updates should be provided on how bullying complaints are handled and what actions have been taken (Leon, 2024).
- ii. Employee Consultation—Involving employees in policy revisions ensures that changes reflect real workplace experiences (Smith, 2024).
- iii. Adaptability—Policies should be flexible enough to accommodate organizational growth and changes (Wang et al., 2025).

Responding to Workplace Bullying and Abuse

1. Identifying and Reporting Workplace Bullying

Workplace bullying may be identified and reported by victims or witnesses through verbal or written means (Du, 2024). Employees can report bullying by:

- i. Informing a supervisor, manager, or business owner.
- ii. Reporting through a health and safety representative or union representative.
- iii. Using formal reporting mechanisms such as incident reporting systems.

Managers and supervisors can also proactively identify workplace bullying by recognizing warning signs such as increased absenteeism, declining work performance, or low staff morale

(Lickiewicz et al., 2024). A proactive approach to identifying bullying is essential in preventing escalation (Banibakr et al., 2024).

2. Responding to a Report of Workplace Bullying and Abuse

The most effective way to manage workplace bullying is to respond immediately once it is reported or suspected (Du, 2024). Responses will vary depending on the situation, the severity of the complaint, and the organizational structure. In general, the first attempt should be to resolve the issue internally, escalating the matter to external agencies only if necessary (García-Cid et al., 2025).

Key Considerations in Responding to Workplace Bullying:

- i. Determine if the behaviour qualifies as bullying—Some behaviours may involve physical violence, discrimination, or sexual harassment, requiring a different response (Banibakr et al., 2024).
- ii. Minimize the risk of ongoing harm—Temporary measures such as reassigning tasks or separating the involved parties may be necessary to protect employees (Lickiewicz et al., 2024).
- iii. Gather additional information—Speaking to witnesses or reviewing past incidents helps establish a clear understanding of the situation (Du, 2024).
- iv. Seek expert assistance—HR professionals, legal experts, or mental health professionals can help resolve complex cases (García-Cid et al., 2025).
- v. Determine whether the issue can be resolved informally—In some cases, mediation or conciliation may help stop the unreasonable behaviour (Banibakr et al., 2024).
- vi. Decide if a formal investigation is necessary—If the matter is severe or persists despite initial intervention, a formal investigation should be conducted (Du, 2024).

Role of Employees in Addressing Workplace Bullying:

- i. Self-managing the situation—If comfortable, an individual may approach the perpetrator and ask them to stop the behaviour.
- ii. Seeking support from management or HR—If direct confrontation is not possible, employees should escalate the issue through appropriate channels.
- iii. Ensuring confidentiality and due process—Individuals reporting workplace bullying should not face retaliation, and alleged perpetrators must be presumed innocent until proven otherwise (Lickiewicz et al., 2024).

3. The Role of Supervisors and Line Managers

Supervisors and line managers play a critical role in preventing and responding to workplace bullying. Studies suggest that managerial intervention is one of the most effective strategies in reducing workplace bullying incidents (Du, 2024).

Key Responsibilities of Supervisors and Line Managers:

- i. Proactively identifying and addressing bullying behaviour before it escalates.
- ii. Intervening when requested by an employee or when they observe misconduct.
- iii. Recording incidents and actions taken to ensure accountability and transparency (García-Cid et al., 2025).
- iv. Escalating unresolved issues to HR or external agencies when necessary (Banibakr et al., 2024).

4. The Role of Health and Safety Representatives

Health and safety representatives can:

- i. Raise workplace bullying concerns on behalf of workers.
- ii. Provide advice to employees on how to address workplace bullying.

- iii. Support employees but are not responsible for resolving complaints (Lickiewicz et al., 2024).

A structured and well-defined response system ensures that workplace bullying is addressed effectively. Organizations must implement clear reporting mechanisms, immediate intervention strategies, and transparent resolution processes. By fostering a proactive and supportive environment, companies can minimize workplace bullying, protect employee well-being, and enhance workplace morale.

2.2.10 The Relationship Between Workplace Bullying and Employee Well-being

Workplace bullying is a deeply rooted organizational issue that impacts not only the psychological health of employees but also the overall productivity and sustainability of institutions. It includes a pattern of mistreatment—verbal abuse, social exclusion, intimidation, and professional sabotage—that, when unchecked, creates toxic work environments with significant implications for employee well-being.

1. Psychological and Emotional Toll

Workplace bullying has a profound negative effect on employees' mental health. Victims commonly experience emotional exhaustion, anxiety, and depressive symptoms (Rodríguez-Muñoz et al., 2025). The prolonged exposure to hostility at work may even lead to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), particularly when bullying is systematic and unaddressed by leadership.

“A significant negative association was found between exposure to bullying and emotional well-being, suggesting that bullying deteriorates emotional regulation and psychological resilience”

(Rodríguez-Muñoz & Antino, 2025).

2. Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Employees subjected to bullying often report lower levels of job satisfaction and engagement, leading to increased absenteeism and turnover intentions. According to Ahmad et al. (2025), toxic leadership and bullying behaviours diminish morale, resulting in disengagement and alienation from workplace goals. Workplace bullying not only affects individual morale but also reduces collective motivation, creating a disengaged workforce (Ahmad *et al.*, 2025).

3. Physical Health Consequences

The stress from bullying does not remain confined to mental health. Victims often suffer from physical symptoms such as insomnia, fatigue, gastrointestinal problems, and cardiovascular issues. According to research by Saravanan (2024), bullying-related stress contributes to somatic health complaints, further amplifying absenteeism and reducing employee functionality.

4. Professional Performance and Innovation

Bullying diminishes cognitive focus, confidence, and creativity, which are essential for high-performing workplaces. Employees who are targeted may avoid decision-making, fear risk-taking, and resist collaboration, thereby decreasing innovation and productivity (Lee & Kim, 2025).

5. Organizational Climate and Culture

When bullying is tolerated or inadequately addressed, it fosters a toxic organizational culture. A supportive work environment, on the other hand, mediates the effects of bullying and

promotes psychological well-being (Saravanan, 2024). Institutions with clear anti-bullying policies and active leadership accountability see significantly better well-being outcomes.

6. The Role of Support and Resilience

Organizational support plays a critical role in buffering the effects of workplace bullying. A study by Selçuk [and](#) Okutan (2025) found that emotional intelligence and resilience-building mechanisms helped mitigate the psychological impact of cyberbullying in hospitality workplaces.

The link between workplace bullying and employee well-being is strong and unequivocally negative. Bullying leads to emotional, psychological, and physical harm while undermining productivity, innovation, and institutional loyalty. Preventing workplace bullying requires strategic interventions—enforcing anti-bullying policies, providing psychological support, and building emotionally intelligent leadership—to cultivate healthier, more sustainable work environments.

2.2.8 Conceptual Framework

This study adopts the Theory of Learned Helplessness (Seligman, 1975) and the Wellness Star Model (Hettler, 1984). From a theory of Learned Helplessness perspective, individuals who experience repeated negative situations in which they perceive no control become passive, unmotivated, and emotionally exhausted. The Wellness Star Model presents well-being as a multidimensional construct, emphasizing that a balanced state of health involves multiple interconnected dimensions

The conceptual framework of the study is schematically presented in Figure 2.1. It depicts the relationship between the dimensions of workplace bullying decomposed as: verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, exclusion and academic sabotage and employee well-being. The conceptual framework is specified to determine the extent to which verbal abuse,

aggressive workplace behaviour, exclusion, academic sabotage influences well-being of early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.

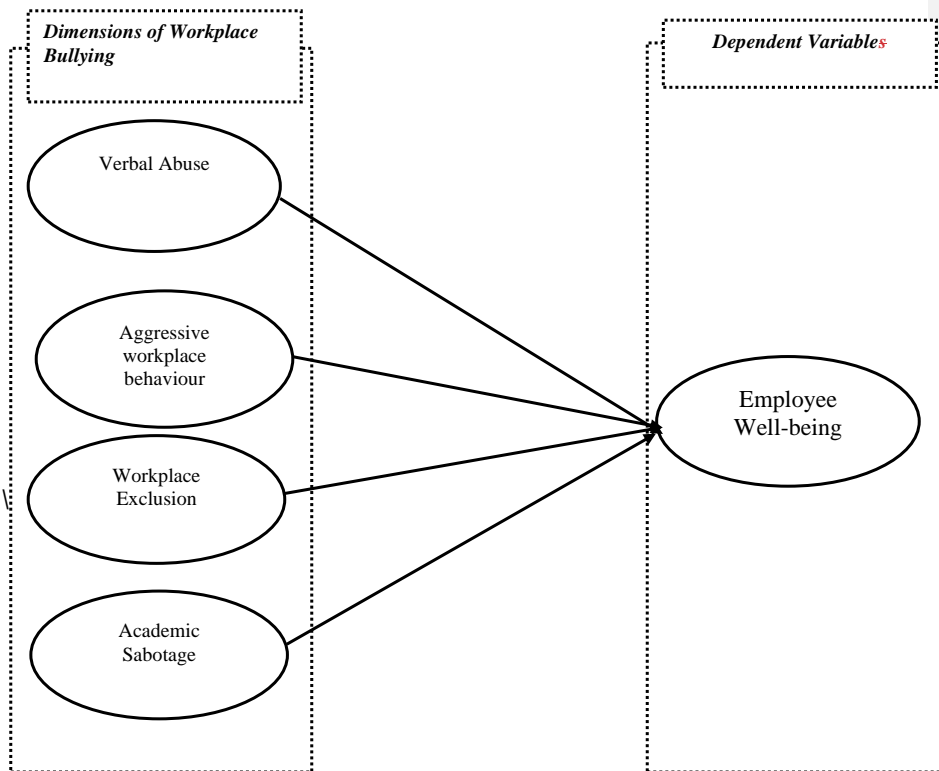


Figure 2.1: Researcher’s Conceptualisation (2025)

2.3 Theoretical Review

Theories Underpinning Workplace Bullying

This review examines six key theories: Affective Events Theory (AET), Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress (CATS), Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model, Social Exchange Theory (SET), Routine Activities Theory (RAT), Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, and

Disempowerment Theory. Each of these frameworks provides unique insights into workplace experiences and their implications for employees.

Affective Events Theory (AET)

Affective Events Theory (AET), introduced by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), posits that workplace events trigger emotional reactions, which in turn influence job satisfaction and performance. AET highlights the role of emotions in work behaviour, challenging the traditional view that employee reactions are purely cognitive or rational. The theory suggests that daily workplace events—such as receiving praise from a manager or experiencing conflict with a coworker—lead to emotional reactions that shape long-term attitudes toward work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

A recent review by Zhan et al. (2024) extends AET by incorporating the role of emotional intelligence in buffering negative workplace events. Their study demonstrates that employees with high emotional intelligence are better at managing emotional fluctuations caused by workplace interactions, thereby maintaining higher levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, Kulik et al. (2023) emphasize that remote work has altered the nature of affective workplace events, shifting emotional responses toward virtual interactions.

Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress (CATS)

The Cognitive Activation Theory of Stress (CATS) developed by Ursin and Eriksen (2004) explains how individuals react to stressors by either activating effective coping mechanisms or experiencing chronic stress. CATS posits that when employees perceive stressors as predictable and manageable, they exhibit positive adaptation; however, prolonged exposure to unpredictable stressors results in negative health outcomes.

A systematic review by Lundberg et al. (2023) applies CATS to occupational health, revealing that employees who experience high job control report lower stress levels despite demanding

workloads. Additionally, Smith & Karasek (2022) integrate CATS with the Job Demand-Control Model, demonstrating that workplace training programs can enhance employees' cognitive coping strategies and reduce burnout.

Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model

The JD-R model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) classifies workplace factors into job demands (e.g., workload, role ambiguity) and job resources (e.g., autonomy, social support). High job demands increase stress and burnout, while job resources promote motivation and engagement.

Recent research by Xanthopoulou et al. (2025) explores how leadership styles influence JD-R dynamics. Their study finds that transformational leadership fosters resource accumulation, reducing burnout and increasing employee engagement. Similarly, Schaufeli & Taris (2024) highlight the moderating effect of job crafting, where employees proactively reshape their tasks to balance demands and resources.

Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964) explains workplace relationships as reciprocal exchanges between employees and employers. Positive exchanges, such as fair compensation and supportive management, lead to organizational commitment, whereas negative exchanges (e.g., exploitation) result in disengagement.

Recent studies have expanded SET's application. Nguyen & Rafferty (2025) analyze how SET underpins contracts, demonstrating that when employers fulfill implicit agreements (e.g., career development opportunities), employees reciprocate with loyalty. Additionally, Cropanzano et al. (2023) examine how negative exchanges, such as abusive supervision, trigger emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions.

Routine Activities Theory (RAT)

Routine Activities Theory (Cohen & Felson, 1979) is traditionally used in criminology but has been applied to workplace misconduct. The theory suggests that workplace aggression occurs when three factors align: motivated offenders, suitable targets, and lack of guardianship.

Nguyen, Wu and Li (2024) apply RAT to workplace bullying, finding that organizations with weak policies and absent managerial oversight have higher rates of harassment. Their findings suggest that increasing workplace guardianship—such as enforcing strict anti-harassment policies—can mitigate misconduct. Similarly, Felson & Boba (2023) emphasize the role of digital surveillance in preventing cyberbullying among employees.

Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory

Hobfoll's Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory (1989) argues that individuals strive to acquire and protect resources (e.g., energy, social support). When resources are threatened or lost, stress increases, whereas resource gains enhance well-being.

A study by Sharma [and](#) Kumar (2025) integrates COR with JD-R, showing that employees with strong social networks are better at buffering job demands. Guo et al. (2025) further investigate how personal brand equity functions as a resource, demonstrating that employees with strong reputations are more resilient to workplace stressors.

Disempowerment Theory

Disempowerment Theory explains how systemic barriers and power imbalances suppress individuals' autonomy and influence in the workplace. It is particularly relevant in discussions on workplace diversity, equity, and inclusion.

A recent review by Bayoumy (2024) examines how organizational structures contribute to minority employee disempowerment. Their study highlights how lack of representation in leadership roles perpetuates feelings of exclusion. Furthermore, Quisumbing (2024) explores

gender-based disempowerment, revealing those discriminatory policies significantly hinder career progression for women.

Theories such as AET, CATS, JD-R, SET, RAT, COR, and Disempowerment Theory provide essential frameworks for understanding workplace bullying. While AET focuses on emotional responses to workplace events, CATS explains stress adaptation. The JD-R model highlights the balance between job demands and resources, while SET underscores reciprocal workplace relationships. RAT provides insight into workplace misconduct, COR emphasizes resource conservation, and Disempowerment Theory critiques structural inequalities. By integrating these theories, researchers and practitioners can develop holistic strategies to enhance employee well-being and organizational effectiveness.

Theories Underpinning Employee Well-Being

Understanding human motivation and well-being is essential in various fields, including psychology, organizational behaviour, and healthcare. Several theories have been proposed to explain the mechanisms that drive individuals toward fulfillment and satisfaction. This review critically examines five prominent theories: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the Wellness Star Model, Ed Diener's Three Dimensions of Well-being, and Carol Ryff's Factor Model of Well-being. Each theory offers a unique perspective on motivation and well-being, supported by extensive empirical research.

Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Frederick Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory (1959) is a well-established framework that differentiates between two factors influencing job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. According to Herzberg, motivators, such as achievement, recognition, and meaningful work, drive job satisfaction, while hygiene factors, such as salary, company policies, and job security, prevent dissatisfaction but do not necessarily enhance motivation (Herzberg, 1959).

Empirical studies support Herzberg's model, demonstrating that intrinsic motivators strongly correlate with job satisfaction. Judge et al. (2001) conducted a meta-analysis revealing that motivators are more predictive of job performance than hygiene factors. However, some scholars argue that extrinsic rewards can enhance motivation in certain conditions. For example, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) found that financial incentives and job security significantly impact motivation when employees experience high job demands. These findings suggest that Herzberg's strict separation between motivators and hygiene factors may need revision to account for varying workplace dynamics.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) is one of the most widely recognized motivation theories. Maslow proposed that human needs are arranged in a five-tier hierarchy: physiological needs (e.g., food, water, shelter), safety needs (e.g., security, stability), love and belongingness (e.g., relationships, social connections), esteem needs (e.g., recognition, self-respect), and self-actualization (e.g., personal growth, achieving one's potential) (Maslow, 1943). Individuals must satisfy lower-level needs before progressing to higher levels of self-fulfillment.

Although Maslow's model remains influential, contemporary research suggests that the rigid hierarchical structure may not apply universally. Tay and Diener (2011) examined well-being across 123 countries and found that while basic needs are essential, higher-order needs can be pursued simultaneously rather than sequentially. Cross-cultural studies (Hofstede, 1984) further demonstrate that cultural differences influence the prioritization of needs. Neuroscientific research also challenges Maslow's conceptualization of self-actualization, suggesting that personal growth is an ongoing and dynamic process rather than a final stage (Krentzman, 2013).

The Wellness Star Model

The Wellness Star Model conceptualizes well-being as a multidimensional construct comprising five key dimensions: physical wellness (exercise, nutrition), emotional wellness (mental health, self-awareness), social wellness (interpersonal relationships, community engagement), intellectual wellness (learning, creativity), and spiritual wellness (meaning, purpose) (Hettler, 1984). Unlike traditional theories that focus primarily on needs, this model emphasizes holistic well-being.

Huppert and So (2013) found that multidimensional wellness predicts life satisfaction more effectively than any single factor. Their study demonstrated that individuals with strong social and intellectual wellness report higher overall well-being. However, some critics argue that wellness dimensions, particularly spiritual wellness, are difficult to measure quantitatively (Seligman, 2011). The model's broad scope makes it useful for workplace well-being programs and public health interventions, but its effectiveness varies across individuals due to differences in personal values and cultural backgrounds.

Ed Diener's Three Dimensions of Well-being

Ed Diener (1984) developed a widely accepted framework for subjective well-being (SWB), which consists of three key components: life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect. According to Diener, well-being is not solely about happiness but involves an individual's cognitive evaluation of their life and the balance between positive and negative emotions (Diener, 1984).

Empirical research strongly supports Diener's model. Steptoe et al. (2015) conducted a longitudinal study showing that high subjective well-being predicts better physical health and increased longevity. Additionally, Diener and Seligman (2002) found that individuals with high SWB engage in healthier behaviours, such as regular exercise and social interaction, leading to

better mental and physical health outcomes. However, some researchers argue that Diener's model lacks a meaningful life component, which is crucial for long-term well-being (Ryff & Singer, 2008). This has led to the integration of eudaimonic well-being, which focuses on purpose and meaning in life, into broader well-being models.

Carol Ryff's Factor Model of Well-being

Carol Ryff (1989) developed a six-factor model of well-being that goes beyond happiness to include self-acceptance, positive relationships, autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, and purpose in life (Ryff, 1989). Ryff's model is based on the concept of eudaimonia, which emphasizes fulfillment through personal development and meaningful life experiences.

Extensive research supports Ryff's model as a robust measure of well-being. A study by Ryff and Keyes (1995) found that individuals with high levels of well-being experience better mental health, stronger social relationships, and greater life satisfaction. Longitudinal studies also show that high well-being correlates with reduced stress levels and better physical health outcomes (Keyes et al., 2010). However, there is ongoing debate regarding whether all six dimensions are distinct or interrelated. Springer and Hauser (2006) found that some dimensions, such as self-acceptance and environmental mastery, may overlap conceptually, raising questions about the model's structure.

Theories of motivation and well-being provide valuable insights into human behaviour, but each has its limitations. Herzberg's and Maslow's models have been widely used in organizational settings, yet they may require modifications to account for contemporary workforce dynamics. The Wellness Star Model offers a holistic perspective, but measuring spiritual and intellectual wellness remains challenging. Diener's framework is highly effective in understanding subjective well-being, but it may lack the depth of eudaimonic well-being.

Ryff's model is one of the most comprehensive, yet ongoing debates about the distinctiveness of its dimensions highlight the need for further refinement.

Future research should integrate these theories to create a comprehensive model of well-being that incorporates both hedonic (happiness, pleasure) and eudaimonic (meaning, purpose) elements. By understanding the complex interplay between motivation and well-being, researchers and practitioners can develop more effective interventions for improving life satisfaction and mental health.

2.3.1 Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the Theory of Learned Helplessness (Seligman, 1975) and the Wellness Star model (Hettler, 1984) in our understanding of the relationship between workplace bullying and employee wellbeing. The study's adoption of the Theory of Learned Helplessness (Seligman, 1975) and the Wellness Star Model (Hettler, 1984) provides a robust theoretical framework for understanding the relationship between workplace bullying and employee wellbeing.

The Theory of Learned Helplessness, originally developed by Seligman (1975), posits that individuals who experience repeated negative situations in which they perceive no control become passive, unmotivated, and emotionally exhausted. In the context of workplace bullying, employees exposed to persistent bullying may feel powerless to change their situation, leading to decreased motivation, emotional distress, and burnout (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012).

The Wellness Star Model presents well-being as a multidimensional construct, emphasizing that a balanced state of health involves multiple interconnected dimensions:

- i. **Physical Well-being** – health status, physical energy, and fitness.
- ii. **Emotional Well-being** – mental health, self-awareness, and emotional stability.
- iii. **Social Well-being** – relationships, social support, and belongingness.

- iv. **Intellectual Well-being** – engagement in meaningful activities, creativity, and learning.
- v. **Spiritual Well-being** – sense of meaning, purpose, and personal values.

This model is useful for assessing the various ways workplace bullying disrupts employee well-being, as it extends beyond effects to include social, physical, and spiritual health.

Research shows that workplace bullying contributes to learned helplessness by creating an environment in which employees feel trapped and powerless. Rodriguez-Munoz et al. (2015) found that employees who experience chronic bullying report higher levels of emotional exhaustion and depressive symptoms, supporting the idea that continued exposure to workplace bullying leads to resignation. In extreme cases, learned helplessness can result in severe mental health issues, including suicidal ideation (Coyne et al., 2017).

2.4 Empirical Review

2.4.1 Verbal Abuse and Employee Wellbeing

Dzuka and Dalbert (2007) explored the issue of student violence against teachers in Slovakian secondary schools. The primary aim of the research was twofold. The first study focused on assessing how widespread student violence is, while the second examined the psychological effects of such violence on teachers, particularly how it relates to their belief in a just world (BJW) and their overall well-being. In the first study, the researchers investigated a representative sample of 364 teachers from one of Slovakia's eight provinces. They found that nearly half of the respondents—177 teachers, or 49%—had experienced at least one incident of student violence in the preceding 30 days. The data revealed that reports of violence were especially common in vocational schools located in the provincial capital, highlighting a significant concern in specific educational contexts. The second study narrowed its focus to a

group of 108 teachers working in Slovakian vocational schools. Here, 60 teachers (55%) reported at least one violent incident in the past 15 days. This study went further by examining how these experiences influenced teachers' emotional states and overall life satisfaction. The results indicated a clear pattern: the more frequently a teacher experienced violence, the more often they reported feelings of negative affect, and the less often they experienced positive emotions. Additionally, their satisfaction with life tended to decline in correlation with the frequency of violent incidents. An important psychological variable considered in this study was the Belief in a Just World (BJW)—the notion that the world is a fair place where people get what they deserve. The findings suggest that BJW played a protective role in teachers' well-being. Teachers who held stronger beliefs in a just world reported higher levels of life satisfaction and more frequent positive emotions. Among those who had experienced violence, a stronger BJW was also linked to less frequent negative emotions, suggesting that this belief may help mitigate the emotional damage caused by student aggression. Based on these findings, the researchers recommend that teacher well-being initiatives take into account the psychological impact of student violence and incorporate strategies that bolster teachers' sense of justice and fairness in their work environment. They also call for future research to delve deeper into how beliefs like BJW can serve as buffers against workplace stressors. Moreover, the study encourages the integration of organizational justice frameworks into research on teacher health and school climate to better understand and support educators facing challenging classroom dynamics.

| Sprigg et al. (2007) investigated the prevalence and perceived causes of verbal abuse in a National Health Service (NHS) ambulance service control room (ASCR), as well as its relationship to the psychological well-being of staff. The research sought to understand how frequently verbal abuse occurs, who the typical perpetrators are, and how such abuse affects the mental health and retention intentions of control room personnel. To achieve

this, a questionnaire survey was conducted among ASCR staff, with a sample size of 48 participants. The findings revealed that, on average, 7% of calls received during a shift were verbally abusive. The most common sources of such abuse were identified as patients or emergency callers—individuals who might be in distress or crisis, yet directed aggression toward control room staff. Importantly, the study found a negative correlation between exposure to verbal abuse and staff mental health. Personnel who reported higher exposure to abusive calls also tended to report poorer psychological well-being and a stronger desire to leave their roles. These results highlight the emotional toll that repeated verbal aggression can impose on frontline communication staff in emergency services. Based on these findings, the authors recommended that organizational support mechanisms be strengthened. Specifically, they proposed the implementation of clear protocols for handling abusive callers and the provision of targeted training in verbal de-escalation techniques. Such measures could help reduce the psychological burden on staff and improve retention within this vital sector of the NHS.

Ravenswood, Douglas and Haar (2017) extends the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model into the relatively under-researched context of home and community-based aged care, specifically exploring how abuse from clients fits into the model. Using structural equation modelling (SEM), the researchers tested a mediated model with a sizable sample of 574 aged-care employees. The results underscore the significant impact of job conditions on both the prevalence of abuse and the well-being of employees. Training emerged as a crucial resource, found to enhance job satisfaction and reduce the frequency of abusive incidents. In contrast, high job demands were associated with an increased risk of abuse—both physical and verbal. Moreover, the experience of abuse itself was shown to have a direct negative impact on job satisfaction and was positively associated with employees' intention to leave the organization. These findings highlight the importance of improving training and managing job demands as

strategies for reducing workplace abuse and improving employee retention in aged-care roles. The study adds valuable insight into the broader field of healthcare by focusing specifically on the often-overlooked sector of home and community aged care. It emphasizes that abuse from clients is not only a safety concern but also a critical workforce issue that affects organizational stability and employee well-being.

Bhandari et al., (2022) examine the prevalence of physical and verbal abuse in Japan during the COVID-19 pandemic and to identify the factors associated with such experiences. While the harmful impacts of abuse on victims are well documented both globally and in Japan, the unique stresses and disruptions brought about by the pandemic were believed to have potentially intensified abuse in domestic and community settings. However, until now, there had been limited empirical data to evaluate the extent of this issue within the Japanese context during the pandemic. To address this gap, researchers conducted a nationwide, cross-sectional internet survey between August and September 2020. A total of 25,482 participants took part in the survey, and the researchers used sampling weights to ensure the results were nationally representative. Multivariable logistic regression analysis was then employed to explore the relationship between various demographic, behavioural, and health-related factors and the likelihood of experiencing abuse. The results revealed that 3.8% of participants reported physical abuse, while 7.6% reported verbal abuse during the period from April to September 2020. Women were more likely than men to experience both forms of abuse, indicating a gendered vulnerability. The study also found that individuals living in areas under a declared “state of emergency” were at greater risk of physical abuse, suggesting that lockdown-related stress and confinement may have exacerbated interpersonal tensions. A number of vulnerable groups were identified as being at heightened risk. These included minors under 18, people with low incomes, those in strained family relationships, and individuals with disabilities. These groups were more likely to experience both physical and verbal abuse, underlining how

social and economic marginalization may intersect with risk for victimization. Additionally, participants who reported COVID-19 symptoms, poor general health, or who were widowed or divorced were significantly more likely to face verbal abuse. This could reflect the psychological distress, stigmatization, or isolation that many individuals in these categories experienced during the pandemic. Another significant finding was that individuals who did not comply with public health guidelines, such as not wearing masks, or those who engaged in substance abuse or heavy drinking, were also more likely to be abused. This may suggest a breakdown in social cohesion or increased conflict triggered by perceived non-compliance or behavioural issues. In conclusion, the study demonstrates that the COVID-19 pandemic not only posed a public health threat but also amplified social vulnerabilities and interpersonal risks, resulting in an increased incidence of abuse—especially verbal abuse—across Japan. The researchers emphasize the need for targeted intervention strategies, including public education, psychosocial support for high-risk groups, and enhanced services for victims of abuse. The findings underscore the importance of integrating abuse prevention into broader emergency and health response frameworks, particularly in times of national crisis.

Brick et al. (2022) explores the impact of verbal and physical abuse on the mental health and career intentions of sports officials, a group often exposed to hostility from athletes, coaches, and spectators. While the issue of abuse in sports is well known, the psychological effects on those responsible for enforcing rules—such as referees, umpires, and judges—have received relatively little scholarly attention. To fill this gap, the study focused on Gaelic Games match officials and aimed to determine how abuse correlates with distress, mental health outcomes, and intentions to quit officiating. Data were collected through a survey of 438 match officials. The results showed that verbal abuse was almost universal, with 94.29% of participants reporting such experiences during their officiating careers. In contrast, 23.06% had been physically abused. Verbal abuse was a recurring issue—43.83% of respondents said they were

verbally abused a few times each season, and 31.48% experienced it every few games. Physical abuse, although less common, was still significant; 85.15% of those affected experienced it once or twice in their careers. To understand how abuse influenced psychological well-being and retention, the researchers used structural equation modelling to assess three potential relationship models: a direct pathway from abuse to outcomes, an indirect pathway through psychological distress, and a combination of both. For verbal abuse, the results supported the combined model, showing that it had both a direct and an indirect impact (via distress) on several outcomes. Specifically, verbal abuse explained: 9.4% of the variation in mental well-being; 15.2% in anxiety; 15.6% in depression, and; 19.1% in intentions to quit officiating. This suggests that verbal abuse can significantly deteriorate an official's mental health and increase their likelihood of leaving the role, not only by causing emotional strain but also by exerting a direct negative effect on their psychological resilience. In contrast, the analysis for physical abuse did not yield a single model that adequately explained all outcomes. While higher levels of distress were associated with worse mental health and stronger intentions to quit, the relationship between physical abuse and these outcomes appeared more complex and less consistent than for verbal abuse. The findings of this study offer compelling evidence that verbal abuse in sports is a serious psychological hazard for officials. It highlights the urgent need for system-level interventions—including mental health support, conflict resolution training, and stricter consequences for abusive behaviour by players, coaches, and spectators. Supporting the mental well-being of sports officials is not only a matter of occupational health but also crucial for maintaining the integrity and sustainability of sports officiating.

Cao et al., (2023) assessed how exposure to verbal violence affects healthcare workers' emotional and occupational outcomes—specifically emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and work engagement—and to inform practical interventions. The study sampled 1,567 healthcare workers across six tertiary public hospitals located in three different provinces or

municipalities. By intentionally excluding cases involving physical and sexual violence, the researchers isolated the effects of verbal abuse alone. A combination of descriptive statistics, univariate analysis, Pearson correlation, and mediated regression analyses were used to examine the relationships between exposure to verbal violence and various psychological and job-related outcomes. The findings revealed that nearly half of all healthcare workers surveyed had experienced verbal violence within the past year. These experiences triggered strong emotional responses, with statistically significant associations found between verbal violence and several key outcomes. The study found that exposure to verbal abuse in the workplace has significant psychological and professional implications for healthcare workers. Specifically, it showed a positive correlation with emotional exhaustion, meaning that individuals who experience more verbal abuse tend to feel more emotionally drained. At the same time, verbal abuse was negatively associated with both job satisfaction and work engagement, indicating that such exposure leads to decreased enthusiasm for work and lower overall job contentment. Interestingly, despite these adverse effects, verbal abuse did not significantly influence workers' intentions to leave their jobs. This suggests that although verbally abused employees may feel emotionally burdened and less engaged, they are not necessarily planning to resign. A key insight from the study is that emotional exhaustion acts as a partial mediator, meaning it helps explain how verbal violence leads to decreased job satisfaction and engagement. This adds to the understanding of how workplace violence indirectly undermines organizational functioning by diminishing the emotional capacity and motivation of healthcare workers. The authors emphasize the urgency of organizational-level interventions to address this persistent form of workplace aggression. They recommend implementing specialized training programs aimed at helping healthcare workers recognize, respond to, and recover from verbal abuse. Such programs could reduce both the frequency and emotional impact of these incidents, ultimately preserving workforce well-being and healthcare service quality.

Qian et al. (2023) explores the experience of verbal violence among Chinese nursing students during clinical practice and investigates the coping strategies they employ. While workplace violence is known to be widespread in the nursing profession, nursing students—often seen as the most [early-career](#) members of the clinical hierarchy—are particularly vulnerable. Notably, the psychological consequences of verbal violence may be more damaging than physical violence, yet this issue has been underexplored in the Chinese context. The study used a descriptive qualitative design, guided by the COREQ (Consolidated Criteria for Reporting Qualitative Research) standards. Data were collected between January and June 2022 through semi-structured interviews with 21 nursing students using purposive snowball sampling. The interviews were transcribed and analyzed using Nvivo12 software and inductive content analysis, which allowed for emergent themes to be systematically categorized. The analysis revealed three central themes regarding the experiences of nursing students facing verbal violence in clinical settings. First, Multifaceted Verbal Violence was a common experience, encompassing a range of hostile behaviours such as insults, reprimands, sarcasm, and dismissive conduct. These actions came not only from patients and their families but also from clinical instructors and physicians. The entrenched hierarchy within hospital environments amplified students' vulnerability, particularly to mistreatment from those in positions of authority. Second, the Hurting and Impacting theme highlighted the deep emotional and psychological toll this verbal abuse had on students. They frequently reported feelings of humiliation, powerlessness, anxiety, and diminished self-worth. Beyond the immediate emotional distress, these experiences posed a risk to their long-term engagement with the nursing profession, potentially undermining their sense of professional identity and contributing to a growing concern over future nursing shortages. Finally, under the theme of Struggling or Coping, students described two main strategies for dealing with such abuse. One involved seeking emotional support from friends, peers, or family members to help them

process their experiences and feel understood. The other was a more internalized response—compelling themselves to develop emotional resilience by "toughening up" and accepting verbal mistreatment as an unfortunate but necessary rite of passage in becoming a nurse. The study underscores the urgency of addressing verbal violence in clinical training environments. It highlights how such experiences not only harm the immediate well-being of student nurses but could also have broader implications for staff retention and the future sustainability of the healthcare system. The findings suggest a need for systematic interventions, including education on respectful communication for all healthcare staff, formal reporting channels for verbal abuse, and institutional support systems to protect students during their clinical education.

Yue, Qin and Men (2024) explores the impact of supervisors' verbal aggressiveness on various aspects of the workplace, including emotional culture, employee-organization relationships, and counterproductive work behaviours. Using a quantitative research design, the study collected data from 392 full-time employees across different organizations and industries in the USA. The findings reveal that supervisors' verbal aggressiveness is significantly associated with a negative emotional culture and increased counterproductive work behaviours among employees. However, it does not directly affect employee-organization relationships. Notably, the study found that a negative team-level emotional culture mediates the relationship between supervisor verbal aggressiveness and employee counterproductive work behaviours. This research contributes to the leadership communication literature by highlighting the detrimental effects of supervisors' verbal aggressiveness on workplace outcomes. By identifying negative emotional culture and counterproductive work behaviours as outcomes of supervisor verbal aggressiveness, the study advances our understanding of the dark side of leadership communication. The findings also underscore the importance of managing emotional culture in organizations to prevent negative outcomes and promote a healthier work environment.

Overall, this study provides valuable insights into the impact of supervisors' communication style on employee and organizational outcomes, emphasizing the need for leaders to adopt more constructive and respectful communication approaches.

Serra-Sastre (2024) examines the impact of workplace violence on NHS staff's intention to quit their jobs. Analyzing data from the NHS Staff Survey between 2018 and 2022, which includes over 1.8 million observations, the researchers found that experiencing physical or verbal violence significantly increases staff's intention to leave. Specifically, physical violence increases the intention to leave by 10 percentage points, while verbal violence has an even greater effect, increasing intention to leave by 21 percentage points. The study also reveals that the perpetrator of violence matters, with violence from managers having the most detrimental effect, followed by violence from multiple perpetrators and colleagues. Furthermore, the impact of violence varies across different occupational groups, genders, ages, and ethnicities. The COVID-19 pandemic did not significantly exacerbate the effects of violence on staff's intention to quit. The researchers suggest that staff health, trust in management, and quality of patient care are possible mechanisms through which violence influences the intention to quit. The findings highlight the need for targeted interventions to support staff who have experienced violence and improve retention rates. By addressing workplace violence and its consequences, the NHS can work towards creating a safer and more supportive work environment for its staff.

2.4.2 Workplace Aggression and Employee Wellbeing

Farley et al. (2023) asserted that workplace bullying has been repeatedly shown to harm employee well-being, yet research into moderating factors—elements that might intensify or reduce its negative effects—remains fragmented due to the absence of a unified theoretical framework. Study by Farley et al. (2023) sought to address that gap by examining moderating variables through the lens of the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model, a widely used theory

in occupational health psychology. The review analyzed 68 studies, yielding 209 moderation tests, and categorized the moderators using a structured taxonomy into five domains: home demands/resources (2 instances), personal demands/resources (136), job demands/resources (4), social demands/resources (24), and organizational demands/resources (43). Key findings revealed that social and organizational resources—such as co-worker support and supportive organizational climates—were the most effective buffers against the harmful effects of workplace bullying. In contrast, personal resources (e.g., self-esteem, resilience) were generally less effective as moderators. The study highlights the importance of creating supportive workplace environments over relying solely on individual coping mechanisms. It also calls for further longitudinal and cross-cultural research to assess how these moderators' function over time and in varied cultural contexts.

Hasan et al. (2023) examined the impact of workplace bullying on employee performance in the hotel industry of North Cyprus and investigated the mediating roles of emotional intelligence and psychological resilience. Data were collected from 442 randomly selected employees working in four- and five-star hotels across the island. The study employed descriptive statistics and used partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) to test a heuristic model of the relationships among the variables. Findings confirmed that workplace bullying has a significant negative impact on employee performance. However, the presence of emotional intelligence and psychological resilience served as positive mediators, helping to buffer the adverse effects of bullying on performance. In other words, employees with higher levels of these psychological traits were better able to maintain their performance despite being subjected to bullying. The study concludes by emphasizing the need for further cross-cultural and longitudinal research to assess whether the mediating effects of emotional intelligence and resilience persist over time and across diverse work environments.

Mensah [et al.](#) (2024) explored the impact of workplace bullying on employee wellbeing, with a particular focus on how psychological capital and emotional intelligence can help buffer this negative effect. Conducted among 224 nurses in a teaching hospital in Ghana, the research aimed to uncover the psychological mechanisms that can protect employees from the harmful consequences of bullying. The results clearly indicated that workplace bullying has a detrimental effect on the psychological wellbeing of employees. Nurses who experienced bullying reported lower levels of mental and emotional wellbeing. However, the study found that this negative impact was less severe for individuals with higher levels of psychological capital—which includes personal traits such as hope, resilience, self-efficacy, and optimism—and emotional intelligence, or the capacity to understand and manage one's own and others' emotions. These two psychological resources were shown to moderate the relationship between bullying and wellbeing, meaning that employees who possessed them were better equipped to withstand the emotional strain caused by bullying. Theoretically, this study extends the Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model by demonstrating that personal resources can play a crucial role in mitigating the harmful effects of workplace stressors. Practically, the findings suggest that organizations, especially in high-pressure sectors like healthcare, should prioritize training programs and support systems that enhance emotional intelligence and build psychological capital to foster resilience against workplace bullying.

Pariona-Cabrera et al. (2024) explores how human resource management (HRM) can help healthcare workers manage the emotional and psychological challenges caused by workplace violence, a growing concern in the healthcare sector. While much of the existing research has focused on the causes, frequency, and consequences of violence in healthcare settings, this study shifts attention to how HRM practices can buffer these negative effects and support employee wellbeing. Grounded in the conservation of resources (COR) theory, the study investigates the moderating role of wellbeing-oriented HRM practices (WBHRM) on the

relationship between workplace violence and job stress, as well as the mediating role of job stress in the link between workplace violence and quality of care provided by healthcare workers. The research was conducted in two waves across two countries. Study 1 included 254 and 225 aged care workers (nurses and personal care assistants) in Australia, and Study 2 involved 136 doctors and nurses in China. Using a newly developed measure of WBHRM, the study tested its hypotheses with robust data. The results showed that WBHRM practices significantly reduce the impact of workplace violence on job stress, confirming their moderating effect. Additionally, it was found that job stress acts as a mediator—when workplace violence increases job stress, it can lead to a decline in the quality of patient care. These findings offer a meaningful contribution to the HRM literature by introducing and validating the concept of WBHRM as a protective strategy. The study underscores the importance of supportive HRM policies in helping healthcare workers recover from the emotional toll of workplace violence and maintain the quality of their professional care.

Ullah and Ribeiro (2024) examined the relationship between workplace bullying and job burnout among employees in Pakistan's automobile sector, with a particular focus on the moderating role of employee voice—the extent to which employees feel empowered to express concerns, suggestions, or feedback. Using data from 303 employees, the researchers applied statistical methods including Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and regression analyses via SPSS, AMOS, and the PROCESS macro to test their hypotheses. Grounded in the Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory, the study found that workplace bullying significantly increases job burnout, highlighting the psychological toll bullying takes on employees by depleting their emotional and mental resources. Importantly, the study also revealed that employee voice serves as a moderating factor in this relationship. When organizations foster a culture where employees feel safe and encouraged to speak up, the negative impact of bullying on burnout is reduced. This suggests that active listening and responsiveness from top management can serve

as a protective mechanism, shielding employees from the full effects of workplace hostility. The findings carry practical implications for organizational leadership, especially in high-pressure industries like automotive manufacturing. By promoting open communication channels and supporting employee voice, companies can mitigate the risk of burnout even in environments where bullying may occur.

Gururaj and Schat (2024) in a study involving 200 employees from various sectors, researchers adopted a person-oriented approach to explore patterns of workplace aggression. They identified four distinct victim subgroups based on the frequency and severity of aggression experienced: a high–high group (15%) characterized by both frequent and severe aggression; a moderate–moderate group (15%) experiencing moderate levels of both; a high–low group (26.5%) encountering frequent but less severe aggression; and a low–low group (43%) exposed to minimal aggression in both frequency and severity. Further analysis revealed that individuals most vulnerable to being in the high–high group were typically women, younger employees, and those with shorter job tenures. Additionally, employees with high negative affect and psychopathy-related traits were also more likely to be in this group. Drawing on learned helplessness theory, the study investigated the psychological toll on these groups and found that those in the high–high group reported the most severe internalizing issues, including heightened anxiety, loss of self-confidence, and social dysfunction.

Rafferty (2025) explores how societal culture influences workplace aggression and its impact on employee engagement, using a cross-national dataset covering 20 countries. The researchers applied the Focus Theory of Normative Conduct to examine how cultural values and practices jointly shape employee behaviour and workplace dynamics. Drawing from GLOBE survey measures, the study distinguishes between cultural dimensions such as power distance, assertiveness, institutional collectivism, and in-group collectivism, assessing them both as values (what societies believe is ideal) and as practices (what societies actually do). The

findings revealed that societies scoring higher on power distance, assertiveness, and both types of collectivism reported lower levels of workplace aggression. This suggests that cultural norms around authority, group belonging, and social assertiveness can act as buffers against hostile behaviour at work. However, the study also uncovered a nuanced effect: in societies where power distance, assertiveness, and in-group collectivism practices were stronger, the negative impact of workplace aggression on employee engagement was more pronounced. Conversely, in societies that exhibited higher institutional collectivist practices or valued in-group collectivism, the detrimental effect of aggression on engagement was less severe. In other words, while some cultural dimensions reduce the frequency of aggression, they can also intensify its emotional and motivational consequences when it does occur. The study highlights the importance of culturally tailored HR strategies and suggests that interventions to mitigate workplace aggression must consider both the values and practices prevalent in a given society to be effective. This has significant implications for multinational organizations and cross-cultural workplace management.

Zhong et al. (2025) explores why workplace aggression harms employee performance, focusing on three key outcomes: task performance, citizenship behaviour, and deviant behaviour. By analyzing data from 405 empirical studies involving 471 unique samples and 149,341 participants across 36 countries, the researchers identified five core theoretical mechanisms that explain the effects of aggression: relationship quality, justice perception, psychological strain, negative affect, and state self-evaluation. When these mechanisms were tested together, only relationship quality and state self-evaluation consistently showed meaningful, incremental effects across all performance outcomes. However, the dominance of each mechanism varied by outcome: task performance was most affected by negative affect and state self-evaluation. Citizenship behaviour was primarily influenced by relationship quality. Deviant behaviour was best explained by negative affect. Cultural factors also shaped these

relationships. For instance, individualism and masculinity enhanced the impact of relationship quality, while masculinity alone intensified the effect of state self-evaluation. These findings highlight the complex psychological pathways through which workplace aggression undermines employee effectiveness and emphasize the importance of cultural context. Practically, the study suggests that organizations should focus on fostering positive interpersonal relationships and supporting employees' self-worth to buffer the damaging effects of aggression.

2.4.3 Workplace Exclusion and Employee Wellbeing

Lang et al. (2022) examined the prevalence of workplace bullying among perioperative nurses in Australia and explored how it correlates with burnout and resilience. Recognizing that perioperative nursing can involve exposure to verbal, physical, and psychological violence, the research aimed to fill a gap in the literature by systematically assessing these experiences and their psychological consequences. Conducted as a descriptive correlational study, the research used an online survey incorporating four validated instruments to gather data from 257 nurses. Statistical analysis, including descriptive statistics and regression models, was applied to explore patterns and associations. The findings revealed that over 60% of the nurses reported experiencing workplace bullying. Among those affected, a significant number reported fatigue and exhaustion (67%), anxiety (64%), and sleeplessness (63%). Workplace bullying was strongly associated with increased burnout, particularly through negative organizational processes, bullying behaviours, and avoidant or withdrawal behaviours at work. Conversely, resilience was negatively impacted by psychosocial distress, indicating that bullying undermines nurses' ability to cope effectively. The study concludes that workplace bullying is a persistent and damaging issue that contributes to burnout and erodes resilience among perioperative nurses. To address this, it recommends that nursing management prioritize the psychological safety of employees by fostering an organizational culture of psychosocial

support, which can reduce bullying, enhance well-being, and promote engagement and productivity in high-stress healthcare environments.

Fatima et al., (2023) investigated how workplace ostracism is experienced by teaching faculty in Pakistani Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and how it impacts their psychological well-being. Recognizing that ostracism is a subjective and context-specific phenomenon, the research aims to identify specific behaviours perceived as exclusionary and to examine the factors that influence the severity of its psychological effects. Drawing on belongingness theory, the study highlights the emotional and professional toll such experiences can take on faculty members. Using a phenomenological research design, the study involved 30 semi-structured interviews with faculty members in HEIs based in Lahore, Pakistan. The qualitative data were transcribed, coded, and analyzed using inductive thematic analysis through NVivo 12 Plus software. The findings revealed five key behaviours perceived as workplace ostracism: biased treatment, exclusion from formal and informal interactions, interpersonal alienation, delayed sharing or hiding of knowledge, lack of work-related, social, and emotional support. These behaviours had a negative impact on faculty members' psychological well-being, leading to emotional distress and decreased satisfaction with their jobs, careers, and personal lives. Moreover, several contextual factors were found to shape the extent of these impacts. These included the level of support from the Head of Department (HOD), the faculty member's salary, quality of workplace relationships, fear of confrontation, availability of alternative employment options, and their academic rank or designation. Overall, the study sheds light on how ostracism manifests in academic environments and underscores the importance of addressing such exclusionary behaviours to protect faculty mental health and foster a more inclusive institutional culture.

Chen (2024) explored how digital ostracism—the feeling of being ignored or excluded in digital communication—affected the work engagement and mental well-being of remote

employees during the COVID-19 pandemic. It specifically examined whether certain challenges common in virtual work environments served as mediators in this relationship. These challenges included feelings of virtual isolation, procrastination, blurred boundaries between work and personal life, and communication difficulties. To analyze these relationships, the researchers used Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM). The results showed that digital ostracism had a significant negative effect on both remote work engagement and mental well-being. Moreover, the mediating factors—especially virtual isolation, poor communication, remote procrastination, and work-life boundary issues—partially explained how digital ostracism led to lower engagement and well-being. The study concluded by discussing its practical implications and acknowledged certain limitations, suggesting areas for further research and organizational intervention to support remote workers.

Nasir et al. (2024) investigates how ostracism from supervisors and co-workers impacts employees' emotional, psychological, and behavioural responses, particularly within healthcare settings. It also examines whether this relationship is mediated by employees' fundamental needs—specifically their efficacy needs (feeling competent and capable) and relational needs (feeling connected and valued by others). Additionally, the study considers the moderating role of psychological capital, which includes qualities like resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy, in helping employees cope with ostracism. A three-wave quantitative approach was employed, collecting data via structured questionnaires from 510 employee-supervisor pairs across various healthcare units. The data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) through SmartPLS. The findings confirmed that ostracism from both supervisors and peers significantly harms employees' psychological well-being, emotions, and behaviour. However, this negative impact is partially mediated by unmet efficacy and relational needs—meaning that when these needs are not fulfilled, the negative effects of ostracism are exacerbated.

Importantly, the study also demonstrated that higher psychological capital can buffer these adverse effects, helping employees better manage the emotional and psychological toll of being ostracized.

Khan and Saeed (2024) examined how despotic leadership—a domineering and authoritarian leadership style—affects emotional exhaustion among employees working in public sector Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). It particularly explores how this relationship is shaped by workplace ostracism as a mediating factor, and psychological capital as a moderating factor. Data collected from 187 employees in various public HEIs revealed that employees who reported working under despotic leaders also experienced higher levels of emotional exhaustion. The analysis confirmed that workplace ostracism mediates this relationship, meaning that authoritarian leadership fosters a sense of exclusion or isolation at work, which in turn contributes to employees' emotional burnout. Importantly, the study also found that psychological capital—comprising traits like hope, resilience, optimism, and self-efficacy—can weaken the link between despotic leadership and ostracism. Employees with stronger psychological resources were found to be less affected by the harmful interpersonal environment created by despotic leaders. These findings highlight the toxic impact of despotic leadership in academic settings and emphasize the need for institutional strategies to reduce workplace ostracism and cultivate psychological capital among employees to safeguard their well-being.

Anjum and Hassan (2024) investigated the interrelationships between ostracism, job stress, and psychological well-being among college and university teachers. Designed as a correlational study, it involved a sample of 400 educators, equally split between college and university teachers and balanced by gender. The research employed validated instruments, including the Workplace Ostracism Scale (Ferris et al., 2008), General Work Stress Scale (De Bruin, 2006), Role Conflict and Ambiguity Scale (Rizzo et al., 1970), and the Eudaimonic Workplace

Wellbeing Scale (Bartel et al., 2019), to assess the key variables. Using correlation analysis, the study revealed a significant positive relationship between workplace ostracism and job stress, indicating that teachers who experienced more ostracism also reported higher stress levels. In contrast, ostracism was negatively correlated with psychological well-being, suggesting that feelings of exclusion diminish teachers' sense of purpose, engagement, and fulfillment at work. A similar negative correlation was found between job stress and psychological well-being. Further analysis using multiple linear regression confirmed that both ostracism and job stress significantly predict lower levels of psychological well-being. These findings underscore the harmful impact of exclusion and stress on educators' mental health and highlight the importance of fostering inclusive, supportive work environments in academic institutions. The study offers meaningful implications for improving teacher welfare and promoting their psychological resilience.

Zhang et al. (2025) explores how employees psychologically and behaviourally respond to workplace exclusion, using self-enhancement theory as a guiding framework. Specifically, it investigates how the motivation to enhance one's self-image mediates the relationship between exclusion and ingratiation behaviours—actions like flattery or strategic friendliness aimed at regaining approval. The study also examines how political skill, or the ability to effectively manage social dynamics, moderates these effects. Data were gathered from 359 employees using a multi-source design in enterprises located in Zhejiang Province, China. Analyses were conducted using SPSS and AMOS, employing hierarchical regression and bootstrapping techniques to test the research hypotheses. The findings reveal that employees who feel excluded in the workplace are more likely to engage in ingratiation, and this is largely driven by a self-enhancement motive—a psychological drive to restore one's self-worth and social standing. Importantly, employees who possess higher political skill are more capable of channeling the effects of exclusion into self-enhancing behaviours and ingratiation, thus

showing that political skill not only strengthens the self-enhancement drive in response to exclusion but also amplifies its effect on ingratiation. By identifying why and when employees respond to exclusion in seemingly positive or strategic ways, the study extends the application of self-enhancement theory to workplace dynamics. It contributes new insights into the antecedents of ingratiation, expands the understanding of political skill as a boundary condition, and provides practical recommendations for managers and HR professionals. These include the importance of recognizing exclusion experiences, understanding employee coping mechanisms, and leveraging individual traits like political skill to support employee well-being and enhance workplace harmony.

2.4.4 Academic Sabotage and Employee Wellbeing

Wallace et al. (2019) investigates the phenomenon of sabotage among tenured university academics, aiming to understand both its nature and underlying causes. Employing a collaborative method known as Interactive Management (IM), the researchers held three structured workshops where academic participants collectively generated, categorized, and analyzed ideas to construct a conceptual model of sabotage behaviour. Through this process, six central components of sabotage were identified: deliberate anti-collegial actions, professional dishonesty, misuse of power, pervasive negativity, willful non-compliance, and consistent underperformance. These behaviours were found to stem from a combination of organizational factors—such as leadership practices and institutional structures—as well as individual motivations like self-interest and personality traits. This research is notable for being the first systematic exploration of sabotage within academia. It provides practical recommendations for performance management and strategies to reduce such destructive behaviours. Furthermore, the study highlights the value of collective intelligence methodologies in unpacking the intricate dynamics of employee attitudes and workplace dysfunction.

Zhou, Rasool and Ma (2020) examines the detrimental impact of workplace violence—specifically harassment, mobbing, and sabotage—on employees’ ability to engage in innovative work behaviour (IWB) within small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Guangdong Province, China. Although interpersonal dynamics at work can be positive, the research emphasizes that they can also become toxic, undermining employee performance and creativity. Using data collected through a structured questionnaire, the study confirms that all three forms of workplace violence are significantly and negatively correlated with innovation. It also reveals that employee wellbeing acts as a crucial mediator in this relationship: exposure to workplace violence harms employees’ psychological and subjective wellbeing, which in turn hampers their ability to think creatively and contribute innovative ideas. The findings underscore the need for SME leaders to prioritize a respectful and healthy work environment, as doing so is vital not just for employee morale but also for sustaining innovation and organizational competitiveness.

Zahid et al. (2024) examines the connection between the Imposter Phenomenon (IP) and two harmful behavioural patterns—self-sabotage and workaholism—among faculty in higher education institutions. The Imposter Phenomenon refers to the psychological tendency of high-achieving individuals to discount their own competence and attribute success to luck or external validation. Surveying 290 faculty members from two universities, the researchers used statistical methods to explore how imposter feelings manifest in workplace behaviour. The findings show a strong positive correlation between imposter feelings and both self-sabotaging behaviours (such as procrastination and over-preparing) and compulsive overworking. Faculty who struggle with IP often doubt their abilities and thus push themselves excessively, not out of ambition but from fear of being exposed as incompetent. These patterns are explained through Control-Mastery Theory—which suggests such behaviours are subconscious attempts to gain control over deep-seated insecurities—and Social Comparison

Theory, which highlights the pressure individuals feel when constantly comparing themselves to peers. The study emphasizes the need for both institutional reforms and psychological interventions to address the mental health challenges posed by IP. It advocates for supportive environments in academia that can help mitigate the negative consequences of imposter-driven behaviours.

Perotti et al. (2024) explores the detrimental role of knowledge sabotage—intentional efforts by employees to withhold, distort, or obstruct information—on the overall climate of knowledge sharing within organizations. Drawing on microfoundations theory and rational choice sociology, the research seeks to understand how individual-level motivations and behaviours contribute to collective organizational dysfunction, especially in knowledge-dependent environments. Using survey data from 329 employees across various European firms, the study applied structural equation modeling to examine how factors like organizational trust, job satisfaction, and sabotage interact. The findings reveal that while trust within an organization generally promotes knowledge sharing, this effect is significantly weakened when employees experience low job satisfaction or actively engage in sabotage. These behaviours disrupt the trust-sharing link, thereby undermining efforts to foster a healthy, cooperative knowledge environment. Importantly, the study introduces a multilevel conceptual framework based on Coleman's "bathtub model," mapping how micro-level behaviours scale up to influence macro-level organizational outcomes. By positioning knowledge sabotage as a critical barrier to effective knowledge management, the study calls attention to its strategic implications and encourages further research on preventive measures to safeguard intellectual collaboration.

Shoukat et al. (2024) investigates how feelings of envy among coworkers contribute to service sabotage in the hospitality sector, specifically within three-star coastline hotels. It emphasizes the often-overlooked emotional dynamics in workplace behaviour and explores how

psychological detachment—the mental disconnection from one’s job—acts as a bridge between envy and destructive actions. Using a time-lagged survey involving 637 hotel employees, the researchers examined not just the direct impact of envy but also how this emotional strain interacts with individual perceptions of employability and performance. The results reveal that employees who experience envy are more likely to mentally withdraw from work, and this detachment can lead to intentional acts of service sabotage. Interestingly, this relationship is even stronger among high-performing employees, who are more likely to turn their disengagement into deliberate harm to service quality. This suggests that top performers, when emotionally strained by envy, may pose unexpected risks to team harmony and customer satisfaction. The study brings to light the nuanced and potentially volatile mix of emotions, performance, and disengagement in service environments. It offers important lessons for hotel managers: emotional wellbeing and workplace fairness must be actively managed to prevent envy from escalating into behaviour that undermines service excellence.

2.4.5 Studies in Nigeria

Ezeh and Osineme (2017) explores the relationship between pay satisfaction, job security, and sabotage behaviour among employees at Nnamdi Azikiwe University in Awka, Nigeria. Drawing on responses from 274 academic and non-academic staff members, the researchers used validated psychological tools to assess each participant’s level of satisfaction with their compensation, perception of job security, and propensity for sabotage. Through multiple regression analysis, the study found that both pay satisfaction and job security are significant negative predictors of sabotage behaviour. This means that when employees feel adequately compensated and secure in their employment, they are less likely to engage in destructive or counterproductive acts within the workplace. Conversely, dissatisfaction with pay and job insecurity may provoke or exacerbate such behaviours. The findings underscore the critical role of financial stability and employment assurance in promoting ethical and constructive

employee conduct. The study concludes with a call to action for organizational leaders and policymakers to prioritize fair compensation and secure job structures as essential strategies for reducing sabotage and fostering a healthier organizational culture.

Edosomwan [et al.](#) (2023) investigated a relatively unexplored issue in organizational behaviour: how perceived employability—an employee's belief in their ability to secure employment elsewhere—can lead to sabotage behaviour, which poses a serious threat to organizational effectiveness. Using social exchange theory as a framework, the study explores whether perceived organizational support (POS) and procedural justice (PJ) can moderate this relationship. A quantitative, correlational research design was employed, with data collected from 171 employees in manufacturing organizations through simple random sampling. Analysis was conducted using regression techniques with Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 1) in SPSS. The findings revealed that higher perceived employability was significantly associated with increased sabotage behaviour, suggesting that when employees feel they have strong alternative job options, they may be more inclined to engage in behaviours that intentionally harm the organization. However, the study also found that POS and PJ both moderated this relationship, meaning that when employees felt supported by their organization and perceived procedures as fair, the link between employability and sabotage was weakened. These results emphasize the critical role of organizational support and fairness in preventing destructive employee behaviours, even among those who feel confident about their external job prospects. The study concludes with practical recommendations: organizations should foster a culture of recognition, fairness, and well-being to buffer against the potential negative effects of perceived employability on workplace conduct.

Omotade et al. (2023) investigated the prevalence, patterns, and consequences of workplace violence among healthcare workers—particularly nurses—in key healthcare facilities in Ogun

State, Nigeria. Recognizing that all categories of healthcare personnel face varying degrees of violence, the research aimed to highlight specific forms of abuse encountered by nurses compared to other health professionals. Using a quantitative approach and random sampling, the study distributed 1,000 questionnaires, of which 372 were returned and 257 properly completed and analyzed using SPSS. The findings revealed a troubling trend: between 41% and 45% of nurses reported experiencing workplace violence regularly. This indicates that roughly one in three nurses is subjected to violent behaviour in the workplace. The perpetrators included senior colleagues, doctors, other healthcare workers, and external individuals. Among the various forms of violence reported, the most common was being undermined due to overwhelming and unhealthy workloads, followed by verbal abuse and constant criticism. Interestingly, while attacks by doctors were reported frequently, their occurrence was not statistically more significant than those by other groups. What stood out most was the emotional toll of these incidents. While physical harm was rarely inflicted, the psychological impact—stemming from humiliation, ridicule, and toxic work relationships—was significant. The study emphasizes the need for workplace reforms, including policies that address hostile environments and encourage mutual respect among healthcare professionals. Counseling and structured interventions are recommended to foster a more supportive and safe working atmosphere.

Ikpae and Buowari (2023) conducted a cross-sectional study between March and April 2022 to assess the prevalence, types, sources, and risk factors associated with violence directed at doctors and nurses in the emergency setting. Data were gathered using self-administered questionnaires distributed among 51 respondents, comprising 35.3% doctors and 64.7% nurses. The findings revealed that workplace violence is widespread, with 72.5% of respondents reporting having been victims. Verbal abuse was the most common form, experienced by 86.2% of those affected. Patient relatives emerged as the predominant perpetrators, responsible

for 83.8% of violent incidents. The leading perceived cause of these assaults was a lack of communication, cited by 41.2% of the participants. Alarming, the majority of victims (86.5%) chose not to report the incidents. The study also identified a significant association between the occurrence of violence and the specific category of healthcare professional, with nurses being disproportionately impacted. The research underscores the urgent need for targeted interventions to mitigate violence in EDs. Hospital management must implement robust policies and preventive strategies, including training healthcare workers in effective communication and establishing a more accessible and trusted reporting system to protect staff and uphold the quality of patient care.

Erimife and Iduozee (2024) explored how different forms of workplace discrimination—specifically gender, ethnic, and age-related—affect the wellbeing of healthcare workers. Conducted at Stella Obasanjo Hospital in Benin City, the study involved 158 employees and was carried out between November 2023 and February 2024 using a cross-sectional design with both descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Findings revealed that gender and age discrimination significantly undermined employee wellbeing, while ethnic discrimination did not show a statistically significant effect. These results highlight the importance of addressing specific discriminatory practices that directly affect the mental and emotional health of healthcare staff. In response, the study recommended a holistic approach to combating workplace discrimination. This includes implementing gender sensitivity training, developing inclusive organizational cultures, and enacting policy reforms and educational initiatives that promote respect, equity, and inclusiveness in the healthcare workplace.

Elom et al. (2024) conducted a cross-sectional study involving 205 employees across various hospital departments, including Clinical, Nursing Services, Pharmacy, Laboratory, and Administration. The aim was to evaluate the prevalence of workplace violence, reasons for

underreporting, and the level of knowledge regarding prevention—crucial factors for designing effective intervention strategies. The findings reveal a troublingly high prevalence of workplace violence, reported by 70% of participants. Despite the frequency of such incidents, many cases remain unreported. The primary deterrents to reporting were the complicated and time-consuming nature of existing reporting mechanisms (26.5%), and fear of career-related retaliation (22.4%). Notably, while the majority (69.8%) demonstrated good knowledge of violence prevention strategies, this awareness has not translated into higher reporting rates. Statistical analysis revealed significant associations between workplace violence experiences and several variables: gender ($p = 0.03$), work setting ($p = 0.006$), prior training on workplace violence ($p = 0.005$), and knowledge of preventive strategies ($p = 0.04$). These results highlight the impact of targeted education and structured work environments on the likelihood of encountering violence. The study underscores an urgent need for a comprehensive workplace violence prevention program. This should include simplified reporting procedures and ongoing staff training. The significant role of prior training in shaping awareness and potentially mitigating violence suggests that educational interventions could form a cornerstone of future prevention efforts.

Ebhote and Ehomhanyin (2024) explored the impact of workplace violence—specifically assault and physical violence—on the performance of primary health workers in Edo State, Nigeria. Its main objective was to determine whether such forms of violence significantly influence job quality and effectiveness among healthcare personnel. Using a survey research method, the researchers gathered primary data through questionnaires administered to staff across selected primary health facilities, drawing from a total population of 651 employees. A sample size of 248 was calculated using the Taro Yamane formula, and 232 completed responses were analyzed, yielding a strong response rate of 94%. Multiple regression analysis was employed to test the study's two hypotheses. The results indicated an insignificant negative

effect of workplace violence—measured through incidents of assault and physical aggression—on employee performance, as measured by job quality and effectiveness. Despite this statistical insignificance, the findings still underscored a negative relationship between violence and performance, suggesting that any form of workplace aggression has detrimental implications for staff morale and productivity. The study concluded that workplace violence adversely affects employees' performance, even if the effect was not statistically strong in this specific sample. To mitigate this, it recommends that the government and relevant stakeholders improve the work environment in primary health facilities by ensuring adequate medical supplies, employing qualified staff, and providing essential logistics. These steps are essential to safeguard workers' well-being and enhance their performance.

Isara [et al.](#) (2024) focused on assessing the prevalence and types of violence experienced by HCWs in the Emergency Department (ED) of the University of Benin Teaching Hospital (UBTH) in Benin City, Nigeria. Using a cross-sectional design, data were collected through a standardized, interviewer-administered questionnaire from all 282 HCWs working in the ED. The workforce included doctors, nurses, paramedics, porters, and laboratory scientists, with an average age of 36.1 years. The results revealed a significant incidence of violence: 22.3% of participants reported experiencing physical violence, while a striking 87.6% reported psychological violence. The most common forms of abuse included verbal assaults (99.5%), kicking (96.8%), slapping (60.3%), bullying (45.3%), threats (40.4%), and sexual harassment (32.4%). Most violent acts were perpetrated by patients' relatives—accounting for over 93% of both physical and psychological incidents. These experiences led to serious psychological consequences among HCWs, including symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder and reduced job satisfaction. The study underscores an urgent need for effective interventions to address WPV in healthcare settings. It calls for the establishment of monitoring

systems to track and support the mental health of affected staff and the implementation of policies aimed at creating a safer work environment.

Oguegbe and Chukwu (2024) investigated the influence of organizational frustration and psychological wellbeing on workplace hostility among non-teaching staff at Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Nigeria. A sample of 120 employees, aged 25 to 50, was randomly selected from eight administrative units. Using established psychological scales—the Workplace Hostility Scale, the Organizational Frustration Scale, and Ryff's Psychological Wellbeing Scale—the study aimed to test three hypotheses about the predictors of workplace hostility. The results supported the first hypothesis, indicating that organizational frustration significantly and positively predicts workplace hostility ($\beta = .392, t = -3.580, p < .05$). This suggests that when employees face bureaucratic inefficiencies, unmet expectations, or workplace obstacles, they are more likely to exhibit or experience hostility in the workplace. However, the second hypothesis—that psychological wellbeing would positively predict workplace hostility—was rejected ($\beta = -0.009, t = -0.086, p > .05$), showing that wellbeing levels did not meaningfully correlate with hostile behaviour. Furthermore, the third hypothesis, which proposed a joint predictive relationship of organizational frustration and psychological wellbeing on workplace hostility, was also rejected, indicating no significant interaction effect between the two variables. These findings underscore the central role of organizational frustration in fostering hostile behaviours among employees, while psychological wellbeing alone may not directly influence hostility in a measurable way. The research calls for employers to address sources of frustration in the work environment and to enhance employee wellbeing through supportive policies and psychological interventions to foster a healthier, more sustainable organizational climate.

Onwuakagba et al. (2025) investigated the occurrence and contributing factors of workplace bullying (WPB) among clinical physiotherapists in Nigeria—a subject previously

underexplored in research. The study involved a cross-sectional survey of 372 physiotherapists from various hospitals using a self-administered questionnaire, including the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised (NAQ-R). Findings revealed that 42.1% of respondents had personally experienced bullying in the past six months, while a striking 83.1% had witnessed others being bullied at work. The majority of bullying incidents involved hierarchical aggression, with superiors bullying subordinates in 83.7% of cases. Common forms of bullying reported included verbal aggression (64.4%), intimidation (59.4%), insulting comments and gossip (58.3%), emotional manipulation (29.8%), and the dismissal of personal opinions (37.6%). No statistically significant links were found between bullying and demographic factors such as gender, religion, marital status, ethnicity, education, or professional rank. However, bullying was significantly associated with years of professional experience and the type of employing organization. The study concludes that WPB is a widespread issue among Nigerian physiotherapists, emphasizing the urgent need for targeted interventions and robust policy frameworks to ensure a safer and more supportive work environment.

2.5.6 Summary of Empirical Studies

Table 2.1: Summary of Empirical Studies

S/n	Author(s) and Year	Variables of Interest	Location and Population	Methodology	Findings
1	Dzuka and Dalbert (2007)	Students Violence, Well-being	Slovenia, 364 teachers	Survey research	The results indicated a clear pattern: the more frequently a teacher experienced violence, the more often they reported feelings of negative affect, and the less often they experienced positive emotions.
2	Sprigg et al. Armitage and Hollis (2007)	Verbal Abuse, Psychological Well-being	48 participants	A questionnaire survey	The findings revealed that, on average, 7% of calls received during a shift were verbally abusive.

3	Ravenswood et al., Douglas and Haar (2017)	Physical and verbal abuse, work demands, training and job satisfaction	574 aged-care employees	Structural equation modelling (SEM)	The results underscore the significant impact of job conditions on both the prevalence of abuse and the well-being of employees.
4	Ezeh and Osineme (2017)	Pay satisfaction, job security, sabotage behaviour	Nigeria, 274 academic and non-academic staff	Multiple regression analysis	The study found that both pay satisfaction and job security are significant negative predictors of sabotage behaviour.
5	Wallace et al. (2019)	Sabotage	Academic participants	structured workshops	The study highlights the value of collective intelligence methodologies in unpacking the intricate dynamics of employee attitudes and workplace dysfunction.
6	Zhou, Rasool and Ma (2020)	Workplace violence, innovative work behaviour, employee wellbeing	China	Structured questionnaire	Employee wellbeing acts as a crucial mediator in this relationship: exposure to workplace violence harms Employees' psychological and subjective wellbeing, which in turn hampers their ability to think creatively and contribute innovative ideas
7	Bhandari et al., (2022)	Physical and verbal abuse	Japan, 25,482 participants	Cross-sectional internet survey, Multivariable logistic regression analysis	The results revealed that 3.8% of participants reported physical abuse, while 7.6% reported verbal abuse during the period from April to September 2020. Women were more likely than men to experience both forms of abuse, indicating a gendered vulnerability.
8	Brick et al. (2022)	Verbal and physical abuse, distress, mental health, intentions to quit	438 match officials	Survey	The results showed that verbal abuse was almost universal, with 94.29% of participants reporting such experiences during their officiating careers.
9	Lang et al. (2022)	Workplace bullying, burnout	Australia, 257 nurses	Descriptive statistics and regression models	The findings revealed that over 60% of the nurses reported experiencing workplace bullying

10	Cao et al., (2023)	Verbal violence, satisfaction, work engagement, emotional exhaustion	China, 1,567 healthcare workers	Pearson correlation, regression analyses	The study found that exposure to verbal abuse in the workplace has significant psychological and professional implications for healthcare workers.
11	Qian et al. (2023)		China, 21 nursing students	purposive snowball sampling, semi-structured interviews, inductive content analysis	Multiform Verbal Violence was a common experience, encompassing a range of hostile behaviours such as insults, reprimands, sarcasm, and dismissive conduct.
12	Farley et al. (2023)	workplace bullying, employee well-being	68 studies		Social and organizational resources—such as co-worker support and supportive organizational climates—were the most effective buffers against the harmful effects of workplace bullying.
13	Hasan et al., Shafiq and Akter (2023)	Workplace bullying, organizational performance	North Cyprus, 442 employees	descriptive statistics, partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM)	Workplace bullying has a significant negative impact on employee performance.
14	Fatima et al., (2023)	Workplace ostracism	Pakistan	Phenomenological research design	The findings revealed five key behaviours perceived as workplace ostracism: biased treatment, exclusion from formal and informal interactions, interpersonal alienation, delayed sharing or hiding of knowledge, lack of work-related, social, and emotional support.

15	Edosomwan et al., Oguegbe and Joe Akunne (2023)	Perceived employability, sabotage behaviour	Nigeria, 171 employees in manufacturing organizations	A quantitative, correlational research design, Regression techniques	The findings revealed that higher perceived employability was significantly associated with increased sabotage behaviour.
16	Omotade et al. (2023)	Workplace Violence	Ogun State Nigeria, 372 health professionals	A quantitative approach, random sampling	The findings revealed a troubling trend: between 41% and 45% of nurses reported experiencing workplace violence regularly.
17	Ikpae and Buowari (2023)	Workplace violence	Nigeria, 51 doctors	Self-administered questionnaires	The findings revealed that workplace violence is widespread, with 72.5% of respondents reporting having been victims. Verbal abuse was the most common form, experienced by 86.2% of those affected.
18	Yue et al., Qin and Men (2024)	Verbal aggressiveness, workplace culture, counterproductive work behaviours	USA, 392 full-time employees	quantitative research design	Supervisors' verbal aggressiveness is significantly associated with a negative emotional culture and increased counterproductive work behaviours among employees.
19	Serra-Sastre (2024)	Workplace violence, intention to quit	1.8 million observations	Survey	Experiencing physical or verbal violence significantly increases staff's intention to leave.
20	Mensah et al., Amponsah-Fawiah and Baafi (2024)	Workplace bullying, wellbeing	Ghana, 224 nurses		Workplace bullying has a detrimental effect on the psychological wellbeing of employees
21	Ullah and Ribeiro (2024)	Workplace bullying, job burnout	Pakistan, 303 employees	Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and regression analyses	Workplace bullying significantly increases job burnout, highlighting the psychological toll bullying takes on employees by depleting their emotional and mental resources

22	Gururaj and Schat (2024)	workplace aggression, employee wellbeing	200 employees		Employees with high negative affect and psychopathy-related traits were also more likely to engage in workplace aggression
23	Chen (2024)	Workplace ostracism, employee well-being		Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)	The results showed that digital ostracism had a significant negative effect on both remote work engagement and mental well-being.
24	Nasir et al. (2024)	Exclusion, ostracism, psychological capital	510 employee-supervisor	A three-wave quantitative approach, structured questionnaires	The findings confirmed that ostracism from both supervisors and peers significantly harms employees' psychological well-being, emotions, and behaviour.
25	Anjum and Hassan (2024)	Ostracism, Job Stress, Psychological Wellbeing	Pakistan, 400 educators	correlation analysis	the study revealed a significant positive relationship between workplace ostracism and job stress, indicating that teachers who experienced more ostracism also reported higher stress levels
26	Zahid et al., Fiaz and Taus (2024)	Self-Sabotaging Behaviour, Workaholism	290 faculty members	Survey	The findings show a strong positive correlation between imposter feelings and both self-sabotaging behaviours (such as procrastination and over-preparing) and compulsive overworking.
27	Perotti et al. (2024)	Job satisfaction, knowledge sabotage	329 employees	Survey, structural equation modeling	The findings reveal that while trust within an organization generally promotes knowledge sharing, this effect is significantly weakened when employees experience low job satisfaction or actively engage in sabotage.

28	Shoukat et al. (2024)	Psychological detachment, service sabotage behaviour	637 hotel employees	Time-lagged survey	The results reveal that employees who experience envy are more likely to mentally withdraw from work, and this detachment can lead to intentional acts of service sabotage.
29	Erimife and Iduozee (2024)	Workplace discrimination, employees' wellbeing	Benin City Nigeria, 158 healthcare workers	Cross-sectional design	Findings revealed that gender and age discrimination significantly undermined employee wellbeing
30	Elom et al. (2024)	Workplace violence	Nigeria, 205 healthcare workers	A cross-sectional study, a survey research method	The findings reveal a troublingly high prevalence of workplace violence, reported by 70% of participants.
31	Ebhote and Ehomhanyin (2024)	Workplace violence, employees performance	Nigeria, 651 primary health workers	A survey research method, Multiple regression analysis	The results indicated an insignificant negative effect of workplace violence—measured through incidents of assault and physical aggression—on employee performance, as measured by job quality and effectiveness.
32	Isara et al., Akpososo and Aigbovbiosa (2024)	Violence	Benin City, Nigeria, 282 health care workers	A cross-sectional design, standardized, interviewer-administered questionnaire	The results revealed a significant incidence of violence: 22.3% of participants reported experiencing physical violence, while a striking 87.6% reported psychological violence.
33	Oguegbe and Chukwu (2024)	Organizational frustration, psychological wellbeing, workplace hostility	Awka, Nigeria, non-teaching staff	Multiple regression analysis	Psychological wellbeing would positively predict workplace hostility

34	Khan and Saeed (2024)	Workplace Ostracism, Despotic Leadership, Emotional Exhaustion	187 employees		The analysis confirmed that workplace ostracism mediates this relationship, meaning that authoritarian leadership fosters a sense of exclusion or isolation at work, which in turn contributes to employees' emotional burnout.
35	Rafferty (2025)	Workplace Aggression, Employee Engagement	20 countries	GLOBE survey measures, cross-national dataset	Societies scoring higher on power distance, assertiveness, and both types of collectivism reported lower levels of workplace aggression
36	Zhong et al. (2025)	Workplace aggression, employee performance	149,341 participants across 36 countries		The findings highlight the complex psychological pathways through which workplace aggression undermines employee effectiveness and emphasize the importance of cultural context.
37	Zhang et al. (2025)	Workplace exclusion, ingratiation	China, 359 employees	Hierarchical regression, bootstrapping techniques	The findings reveal that employees who feel excluded in the workplace are more likely to engage in ingratiation, and this is largely driven by a self-enhancement motive—a psychological drive to restore one's self-worth and social standing.
38	Onwuakagba et al. (2025)	Bullying	Nigeria, 372 physiotherapists	Self-administered questionnaire, a cross-sectional survey	Findings revealed that 42.1% of respondents had personally experienced bullying in the past six months, while a striking 83.1% had witnessed others being bullied at work.

2.5 Research Gaps

Verbal Abuse and Employee Well-Being

While many studies identify a negative correlation between verbal abuse and psychological well-being, few delve into sector-specific psychological mechanisms. For example, Cao et al.

(2023) found emotional exhaustion mediates abuse impacts among healthcare workers, and Yue et al. (2024) linked supervisor verbal aggressiveness to emotional culture. However, most studies lack a deeper exploration of sector-specific cognitive responses (e.g., identity threat in nursing students or moral dissonance in teachers). More nuanced, sector-tailored models are needed to explain how verbal abuse affects mental health, decision-making, and occupational identity.

Most studies employ cross-sectional or correlational designs, which limits the ability to draw causal inferences. For instance, while Dzuka & Dalbert (2007) and Brick et al. (2022) establish statistical relationships between abuse and negative outcomes, they do not explore how these unfold over time or whether specific interventions reduce abuse's effects. There is a need for longitudinal studies to determine the lasting impact of verbal abuse and assess the effectiveness of support mechanisms over time.

Several studies, such as those by Sprigg et al. (2007) and Cao et al. (2023), call for training and protocol improvements but rarely evaluate real-world implementation of such measures. The effectiveness of interventions (e.g., de-escalation training, reporting protocols) remains mostly theoretical. Empirical studies are needed to evaluate intervention efficacy, adoption barriers, and staff perceptions of organizational responses to verbal abuse.

The focus is overwhelmingly on direct victims of verbal abuse. However, verbal violence often occurs in shared environments (e.g., classrooms, hospital wards, control rooms), and witnesses may also suffer distress or disengagement, influencing team dynamics and morale. There is a need to investigate the vicarious effects of verbal abuse on observers and bystanders, particularly in high-stress, collaborative settings.

Studies like Bhandari et al. (2022) and Serra-Sastre (2024) briefly touch on gender, ethnicity, and age as moderators of abuse outcomes. However, these dimensions are not systematically

explored across most studies. The complex intersection of identity factors with exposure and response to verbal abuse remains under-theorized. Future research should integrate intersectional frameworks to understand how social identities shape vulnerability and resilience to verbal abuse.

Dzuka [and](#) Dalbert (2007) and Qian et al. (2023) begin to address verbal abuse in educational and clinical training environments, yet these domains—particularly how early-career individuals cope and adapt—are vastly underexplored. More research is needed on verbal abuse during professional training and early career stages, especially regarding how it shapes future engagement, confidence, and retention.

Some studies (e.g., Cao et al., 2023) show verbal abuse causes emotional exhaustion but doesn't influence intentions to quit, while others (e.g., Serra-Sastre, 2024; Brick et al., 2022) find strong associations between abuse and turnover intentions. This inconsistency suggests a missing moderating or contextual variable, such as economic dependency, professional calling, or support systems. Research should aim to identify moderators that explain why some employees stay despite high emotional strain, while others leave.

The literature is dominated by quantitative survey designs, with limited qualitative or mixed-methods research to explore the lived experiences, narratives, and subjective interpretations of verbal abuse—particularly in underrepresented regions and professions. There is a strong need for qualitative and mixed-methods studies that capture emotional nuance, workplace culture, and personal coping narratives.

While some studies focus on specific national contexts (e.g., Slovakia, China, Japan, USA), comparative international research is lacking. Cultural norms may influence how verbal abuse is perceived, reported, and addressed. Future studies should consider cross-cultural

comparisons to examine how cultural, legal, and institutional factors shape both abuse dynamics and organizational responses.

Workplace Aggression and Employee Well-Being

Although individual studies (e.g., Farley et al., 2023 using JD-R; Pariona-Cabrera et al., 2024 using COR theory) apply recognized frameworks, the overall landscape of research lacks theoretical integration. Many studies remain fragmented in conceptual approach, making cross-study comparison and theory-building difficult. A unifying, cross-disciplinary theoretical framework is needed to bridge findings across JD-R, COR, emotional intelligence, and social-cultural models to provide a cohesive understanding of workplace aggression's impact.

Moderating and mediating variables—such as psychological capital, emotional intelligence, employee voice, and well-being-oriented HRM practices—are frequently identified, yet the durability of their buffering effects over time remains unexamined. Most studies are cross-sectional, limiting causal conclusions. More longitudinal research is needed to test whether these psychological and organizational resources have lasting effects on employee well-being and performance under aggression.

While Rafferty (2025) and Zhong et al. (2025) address cultural influences, most empirical studies are geographically limited (e.g., North Cyprus, Pakistan, Ghana, Australia), and findings may not generalize across different national or organizational cultures. Cultural values deeply influence responses to aggression, yet comparative research is rare.

Workplace Exclusion and Employee Well-Being

Across multiple studies (e.g., Lang et al., 2022; Fatima et al., 2023; Anjum & Hassan, 2024), findings rely on cross-sectional or correlational designs, which limits the ability to determine causality or track how the psychological effects of ostracism/exclusion and bullying evolve over time. While studies from Pakistan, Australia, and China offer important localized insights,

few cross-cultural comparisons exist that assess how cultural norms (e.g., power distance, collectivism, communication style) influence the experience and outcomes of ostracism and bullying. Many studies (e.g., Lang et al., 2022; Khan & Saeed, 2024) focus on individual psychological traits (resilience, emotional intelligence, psychological capital) as buffers. Yet few empirically evaluate the impact of organizational-level interventions (e.g., leadership training, reporting systems, policy frameworks) that aim to prevent or reduce ostracism. Although studies like Zhang et al. (2025) and Nasir et al. (2024) explore behavioural and psychological responses (e.g., ingratiation, self-enhancement), most research tends to oversimplify coping strategies or focus primarily on internal, individual traits without sufficiently addressing contextual and social resources (e.g., peer networks, formal mentorships). Future work should explore diverse and contextually grounded coping mechanisms, including collective responses, workplace alliances, and use of digital platforms for peer support and resilience.

Chen (2024) is one of the few studies examining digital ostracism during remote work. However, given the rise of hybrid and remote workplaces, there is still limited understanding of how virtual exclusion shapes psychological well-being and productivity in the long term. Although Khan and Saeed (2024) and Nasir et al. (2024) touch on supervisor ostracism and despotic leadership, the broader leadership literature lacks nuanced exploration of how different leadership styles (e.g., transformational, passive, narcissistic) amplify or mitigate exclusion and its effects. Most studies frame responses to exclusion as either maladaptive (e.g., stress, withdrawal) or reactive (e.g., ingratiation), but less is known about positive transformations (e.g., creativity, advocacy, upskilling) that may emerge as post-traumatic growth responses to exclusion. Studies use a range of psychological theories—Belongingness Theory, Self-Enhancement Theory, Conservation of Resources, JD-R Model—but few attempts have been made to synthesize these into a unified or comparative model to explain the

dynamics of workplace ostracism and bullying. Few studies examine how gender, age, tenure, disability, or minority status interact with ostracism experiences. Gururaj and Schat (2024) hint at such patterns, but most works treat employees as a homogeneous group, ignoring how intersectionality shapes vulnerability to workplace exclusion and coping resources.

Academic Sabotage and Employee Well-Being

While individual studies draw on varied theoretical frameworks—Interactive Management (Wallace et al., 2019), Control-Mastery and Social Comparison (Zahid et al., 2024), and Rational Choice Sociology (Perotti et al., 2024)—there is no unifying framework that cohesively explains different forms of sabotage, whether they are interpersonal (e.g., envy-driven), self-directed (e.g., imposter-induced), or knowledge-based. All reviewed studies use cross-sectional or time-lagged survey designs, which restrict our understanding of how sabotage behaviours evolve over time—particularly in response to organizational changes, interventions, or fluctuating team dynamics.

Findings are largely sector-specific—academia (Wallace; Zahid), hospitality (Shoukat), SMEs in China (Zhou), and European firms (Perotti)—and may not generalize across industries or cultural contexts. Cultural norms about hierarchy, competition, and emotional expression may alter how sabotage is perceived and enacted. Most studies highlight negative impacts on innovation, service quality, and knowledge sharing, but offer limited attention to how organizations can recover from sabotage or how employees can rebuild trust and reintegrate post-sabotage. Although Wallace et al. (2019) distinguishes between types of academic sabotage (e.g., anti-collegiality, dishonesty), most studies treat sabotage as a monolithic behaviour. This limits insight into whether specific types (e.g., passive-aggressive withdrawal vs. direct obstruction) have different triggers, trajectories, and impacts.

Studies such as Zahid et al. (2024) and Shoukat et al. (2024) emphasize internal psychological traits (e.g., imposter syndrome, envy) but underplay the role of organizational climate, structural inequities, or leadership styles that may facilitate or exacerbate sabotage. As digital collaboration increases, digital forms of sabotage—such as withholding key information, deleting shared files, or passive resistance in remote work environments—are likely rising. Yet none of the reviewed studies specifically address this emerging threat. Lastly, several studies provide recommendations (e.g., supportive culture, emotional regulation, fairness), but few empirically test the effectiveness of these strategies in reducing sabotage behaviours or improving well-being outcomes.

Studies in Nigeria

While various studies explore related constructs—sabotage (Ezeh & Osineme, 2017; Edosomwan et al., 2023), bullying (Onwuakagba et al., 2025), hostility (Oguegbe & Chukwu, 2024), and violence (Omotade et al., 2023; Ikpae & Buowari, 2023)—there is no integrated conceptual framework that unites these behaviours as part of a continuum of workplace bullying or dysfunction. Although predictors like pay dissatisfaction, job insecurity, perceived employability, and organizational frustration are identified, few studies examine mediating mechanisms (e.g., burnout, emotional exhaustion, cognitive dissonance, moral disengagement) that explain how or why these predictors lead to sabotage or violence. Most studies use cross-sectional survey designs, limiting the ability to infer causality or assess how destructive behaviours evolve over time, particularly in response to changing leadership, organizational policy, or external crises (e.g., economic downturns, public health emergencies). A majority of studies are concentrated in healthcare and higher education, with little comparative analysis across private, public, or industrial sectors. As a result, it is unclear how sector-specific cultures and stressors influence workplace aggression differently. While some studies use validated scales, few employ qualitative or mixed methods to explore the lived experiences of employees

who face sabotage, violence, or ostracism. This limits our understanding of the emotional depth, contextual nuances, and informal coping strategies used by workers.

While several studies call for reforms (e.g., Elom et al., 2024; Omotade et al., 2023), few evaluate the actual impact of existing organizational policies, training programs, or HR frameworks aimed at reducing workplace hostility and sabotage. Leadership style is rarely analyzed in these studies—despite strong evidence from other literature that toxic, passive, or authoritarian leadership often enables or amplifies workplace aggression. Multiple studies (e.g., Ikpae & Buowari, 2023; Elom et al., 2024) note underreporting of violence, but rarely examine organizational silence, fear of retaliation, or the lack of confidential reporting systems in depth. While some findings acknowledge gendered patterns (e.g., *Erimife & Iduozee, 2024*), few studies apply a gender-sensitive or intersectional lens to examine how workplace violence or sabotage differentially affects employees based on gender, age, ethnicity, or role. Despite identifying high rates of workplace aggression, few studies explore how some individuals or teams successfully resist or recover from such environments, or what protective organizational factors (e.g., social cohesion, peer support, ethical leadership) foster resilience.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preamble

This chapter presents the methodology adopted for this study. It provides a detailed discussion of the research design, population of the study, sampling technique, sample size determination, sources of data, research instrument, validity and reliability of the instrument, model specification, operationalisation of variables, and the methods of data analysis.

3.2 **Research Design**

This study adopted a survey research design, specifically the cross-sectional approach. Cross-sectional surveys are effective for collecting data at a single point in time to assess relationships between variables (Creswell, 2014; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). This design allows for a snapshot of workplace bullying and well-being among early-career academic staff without the need for long-term data collection. It also enables the use of statistical techniques such as regression analysis to identify associations between independent and dependent variables (Field, 2013).

3.3 **The Study Population**

The population for this study comprised all early-career academic staff within the rank of Graduate Assistant to Lecturer I across three selected universities in Edo State: the University of Benin (UNIBEN), Ambrose Alli University (AAU), and Benson Idahosa University (BIU). These institutions were purposively selected to provide a broad and representative sample of early-career academic staff within the state's higher education sector, thereby enabling a comprehensive examination of workplace bullying and its impact on employee well-being.

According to the Records and Statistics Units of the respective universities (2025), the total population of early-career academic staff is as follows:

Table 3.1: Population of Early-Career Academic Staff of Selected Universities in Edo State (2025)

S/No	University	Academic Staff Rank	Estimated Number of Junior <u>Early-Career</u> Academic Staff
1	University of Benin (UNIBEN)	Graduate Assistant – Lecturer I	1,826
2	Ambrose Alli University (AAU)	Graduate Assistant – Lecturer I	807
3	Benson Idahosa University (BIU)	Graduate Assistant – Lecturer I	524
Total			3157

Source: Researchers' compilation from university records (2025).

This yields a combined population of 3157 ~~junior~~early-career academic staff across the three universities.

These institutions represent a diverse cross-section of Nigeria's academic environment, with varying organisational structures, governance systems, and cultural dynamics. UNIBEN, as a federal university, offers a robust setting with a wide range of faculties and departments, providing rich contextual data on workplace experiences in a highly diverse academic environment. AAU, a state university, reflects the administrative and operational realities of publicly funded higher education institutions. BIU, a private university, presents a different organisational dynamic shaped by private governance and distinct employment practices.

Focusing on ~~junior~~early-career academic staff within these universities allows the study to capture the particular challenges and vulnerabilities experienced by this group, including power dynamics, career progression barriers, and exposure to workplace bullying. The findings will have significant implications for policy and practice, providing evidence-based insights to inform institutional strategies for mitigating bullying, enhancing employee well-being, and improving overall academic productivity. This multi-institutional scope enhances the generalisability of the findings and strengthens the contribution of the study to the broader discourse on workplace bullying in Nigerian higher education.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The population of this study comprises all early-career academic staff within the rank of Graduate Assistant to Lecturer I across three selected universities in Edo State: the University of Benin (UNIBEN), Ambrose Alli University (AAU) and, Benson Idahosa University (BIU). Since the total population (N = 3,157) is known, the sample size was determined using Yamane's formula (Yamane, 1967) for sample size determination. Yamane's formula provides a simplified way to calculate the required sample size based on the total population and a desired margin of error, which is 5% for this study.

The formula is as follows:

$$n = \frac{N}{(1 + N(e^2))}$$

Where:

n = sample size

N = population size (3,157)

e = level of precision (0.05)

Applying the formula:

$$n_{3,157} = 1(3,157 + (0.05^2))$$

$$n = \frac{3,157}{(1 + 3,157(0.05^2))}$$

$$n = \frac{3,157}{(1 + 3,157(0.0025))}$$

$$n = \frac{3,157}{(1 + 7.8925)}$$

$$n = \frac{3,157}{(8.8925)}$$

$$n = 355.16 \approx 355$$

Thus, the sample size for this study is 355 early-career academic staff across the three universities. Given the diversity of the academic workforce across the universities, a stratified random sampling technique was used to ensure proper representation of early-career academic staff from each university. This technique involves dividing the population into strata (i.e., individual universities), then proportionally selecting samples from each stratum based on the population size of each university. This method ensures that each university's early-career academic staff are represented according to their proportion in the overall population.

To allocate the sample size to each university, the Pandey and Verma (2008) formula for proportional allocation was used:

$$n_i = (N_i / N) \times n$$

Where:

n_i = sample size for stratum i (i.e., individual university)

N_i = population size for stratum i

N = total population size (3,157)

n = total sample size (355)

Using this formula, the sample size for each university is calculated and shown in the table below:

Table 3.2: Sample Size Distribution Across Selected Universities in Edo State

UNIVERSITY	POPULATION STRATIFICATION (N_i)	CALCULATION	SAMPLE SIZE (n_i)
University of Benin (UNIBEN)	1,826	$(1,826/3,157) \times 355$	205
Benson Idahosa University (BIU)	524	$(524/3,157) \times 355$	59
Ambrose Alli University (AAU)	807	$(807/3,157) \times 355$	91
Total	3,157		355

Source: Researcher's computation (2025).

This proportional allocation ensures that the sample size is representative of the distribution of [early-career](#) academic staff across the three universities, thereby enhancing the reliability and generalisability of the findings.

Within each stratum, a convenience sampling technique will be used to select respondents across the identified academic ranks (Graduate Assistant to Lecturer I). Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling method that allows researchers to select participants who are most accessible, thereby facilitating an efficient and cost-effective data collection process (Etikan et al., 2016).

In the context of this study, convenience sampling is particularly suitable because [early-career](#) academic staff, the target population, are often approachable and available, enabling the attainment of the desired sample size without extensive bureaucratic delays. This is important given the challenges of accessing complete staff lists and securing ethical clearance in Nigerian universities (Saunders et al., 2019).

While convenience sampling does not guarantee complete representativeness, combining it with stratified proportional allocation allows the study to balance methodological rigour with practical feasibility. This approach ensures sufficient coverage of the target population while capturing authentic workplace experiences of [early-career](#) academic staff across the three selected universities.

3.5 Sources of Data

The source of data for this study is primary data, which was collected through the administration of a structured questionnaire. This method was considered appropriate for obtaining large volumes of data within a relatively short time frame, thereby enabling efficient analysis of the relationships between the variables under investigation. The questionnaire was self-administered, allowing respondents to complete it independently. This approach

minimised researcher's bias and provided respondents the flexibility to respond at their own pace, thereby enhancing the accuracy and reliability of the data collected.

[Please provide details of the sources of secondary data used for literature review](#)

3.6 Model Specification

This study adopted a multiple regression framework to examine the influence of workplace bullying on employee wellbeing among [early-career](#) academic staff in selected universities in Edo State. The choice of multiple regression analysis is premised on its capacity to estimate the simultaneous effects of several independent variables on a single dependent variable, thereby providing robust and reliable empirical insights. The model is adapted from the work of previous scholars (

) and modified to reflect the specific dimensions of workplace bullying under investigation in this study.

The functional form of the model is expressed as:

$$EWB = WBU \quad (3.1)$$

Where:

$$WBU = (VER, AGG, EXC, SAB)$$

$$EWB = f(VER, AGG, EXC, SAB) \quad (3.2)$$

The model is further expressed in its econometric form as:

$$EWB = \beta_0 + \beta_1 VER + \beta_2 AGG + \beta_3 EXC + \beta_4 SAB + \varepsilon \quad (3.3)$$

Where:

EWB = Employee Wellbeing

WBU = Workplace Bullying

VER = Verbal Abuse

AGG = Aggressive Workplace Behaviour

EXC = Workplace Exclusion

SAB = Academic Sabotage

ε = Error term

β_0 = Constant term

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ = Coefficients of the independent variables

Apriori Expectations

Based on the objective of this study, which is to examine the impact of workplace bullying on employee wellbeing, the apriori expectation is that all independent variables will have a negative relationship with employee wellbeing. This expectation is expressed as:

$$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4 < 0 \quad (3.4)$$

Signifying that:

$\beta_1 < 0$: A negative relationship is expected between verbal abuse and employee wellbeing in selected universities in Edo State.

$\beta_2 < 0$: A negative relationship is expected between aggressive workplace behaviour and employee wellbeing in selected universities in Edo State.

$\beta_3 < 0$: A negative relationship is expected between workplace exclusion and employee wellbeing in selected universities in Edo State.

$\beta_4 < 0$: A negative relationship is expected between academic sabotage and employee wellbeing in selected universities in Edo State.

This model will enable the study to quantitatively assess the extent to which various dimensions of workplace bullying influence employee wellbeing, thereby providing empirical evidence for institutional policies aimed at mitigating bullying and improving staff welfare.

3.7 The Research Instrument

The primary research instrument for this study is a structured questionnaire, specifically designed to collect data relevant to the variables under investigation. The instrument is titled

the Workplace Bullying and Employee Wellbeing Questionnaire (WBEEWQ) and was developed to align with the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was structured into two main sections: Section A collects demographic information, including gender, age, marital status, educational qualifications, academic rank, and years of teaching experience. Section B addresses the core constructs of the study: workplace bullying and employee wellbeing. It contains statements related to the dimensions of workplace bullying: verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage, alongside items measuring employee wellbeing.

All items in Section B are measured using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5), allowing for variability in responses and facilitating quantification of subjective perceptions. Higher scores indicate stronger agreement with the statements, except in cases where reverse coding is applied.

[Please explain how the objectives of the study were translated into a structured questionnaire.](#)

3.8 Validity of the Research Instrument

Validity refers to the extent to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure. To ensure validity for this study, both face validity and content validity approaches were employed. Face validity was ensured by designing questionnaire items that directly reflect the study's research objectives. Content validity was established through expert review by academic supervisors and scholars in human resource management, who evaluated the relevance and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire items. Additionally, a pilot study was conducted with twenty (20) respondents from a population similar to the study sample but not included in the main study. Feedback from the pilot test was used to refine the instrument for clarity, relevance, and comprehensiveness. This process strengthened the ability of the questionnaire to capture the dimensions of workplace bullying and their impact on employee wellbeing.

Please include construct validity to demonstrate how the research instrument was developed in line with the theoretical framework.

3.9 Reliability of the Research Instrument

Reliability reflects the consistency of an instrument in measuring variables of interest. In this study, reliability was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, which measures internal consistency. A coefficient of 0.70 or higher is generally regarded as acceptable for research instruments (Cortina, 1993).

The pilot test data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v24.0), and the results are shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Reliability Test Results

S/N	Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
1	Verbal Abuse (VER)	13	0.826
2	Aggressive Workplace Behaviour (AGG)	10	0.937
3	Workplace Exclusion (EXC)	5	0.769
4	Academic Sabotage (SAB)	12	0.925
5	Employee Wellbeing (EWB)	14	0.761

Source: Researcher's computation, 2025.

The Cronbach's Alpha results indicate high reliability for all constructs, confirming that the instrument is consistent and capable of producing dependable data.

3.10 Operationalisation of Variables (please move this section to Section 3.5)

The study utilised one dependent variable, and four independent variables. The dependent variable is employee wellbeing, while the independent variables are verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage. The items for operationalization of variables were sub-sectionalized along the identified dimensions of dependent variable (employee well-being), and the independent variables (verbal abuse,

aggressive workplace behaviour, exclusion, and academic sabotage). The variable items of the study were measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Table 3.1 presents the operationalization and measurement of these variables.

Employee well-being was measured with The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS). This scale was adapted from Tennant et al. (2007) to measure mental well-being of employees. It consists of 14 positively worded items that assess subjective well-being and psychological functioning of employee over the past two weeks. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (None of the time) to 5 (All of the time).

The independent variable, workplace bullying was disaggregated into four. Verbal abuse was measured with Shea (1998) Verbal Questionnaire Scale (VAQ) The VAQ consists of 13 items that measure frequency and severity of verbal abuse across different contexts. It assesses the following dimensions:

a. Shouting and Yelling

- i. Frequency of raised voices, aggressive tone, or shouting at the respondent.
- ii. Example Item: *"How often has someone yelled at you in a hostile tone?"*

b. Name-Calling and Insults

- i. Use of demeaning words, personal insults, or offensive language.
- ii. Example Item: *"How frequently have you been called offensive names (e.g., stupid, useless)?"*

c. Sarcasm and Mockery

- i. Mocking tone, belittling comments, or sarcasm aimed at the respondent.
- ii. Example Item: *"How often have you been insulted through sarcasm or a condescending tone?"*

d. Criticism and Blame

- i. Unfair or excessive criticism directed at the respondent.

- ii. Example Item: *"Have you been repeatedly blamed for things beyond your control?"*

e. Threats and Intimidation

- i. Verbal threats of harm, job loss, or retaliation.
- ii. Example Item: *"Has anyone ever threatened you verbally in a work or personal setting?"*

Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Aggressive workplace behaviour: This will be measure with the Workplace Aggression Research Questionnaire (WARQ), developed by Neuman & Baron (2005). WARQ is a widely used tool to assess aggressive behaviours in workplace settings, including verbal aggression, physical aggression, passive aggression, and workplace incivility. The scale contains 10-items that was adapted from WARQ. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Workplace Exclusion: The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) developed by Einarsen [et al.](#) (2009) will be used to measure exclusion. To be more precise, exclusion will be measure with 5-item adapted from Einarsen [et al.](#) (2009). The Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ) developed by Einarsen [et al.](#) (2009) is one of the most widely used instruments for assessing forms of workplace bullying including exclusion. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Academic sabotage: This will be measured with Academic Sabotage Questionnaire (ASQ). The scale was adapted from Iyalla (2023) and Bellido-Medina (2023) and contains 12-items which will be used to measure academic sabotage. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Table 3.4: Operationalization of Variables

S/N	Variables	Operational Definition	Measurement	Question Number
1	Institution	Name of Institution	Three-point categorical scale	1
2	Gender	Sex of respondents	Two-point categorical scale	2
3	Age	Age of respondents	Four-point categorical scale	3
4	Marital Status	Marital status of respondents	Two-point categorical scale	4
5	Educational Qualification	Highest educational qualification attained by the respondents	Five-point categorical scale	5
6	Work Experience	Number of months or years respondents have worked in the university	Five-point categorical scale	6
7	Job Status	Current role position or position held by respondent	Four-point categorical scale	7
8	Employee Wellbeing	It encompasses physical, mental, emotional, and social health, all of which contribute to an employee's ability to perform effectively.	Likert-type five-point scale	8-21
Workplace Bullying				
9	Verbal Abuse	Refers to the use language, or communication that is hostile, intimidating, or humiliating, and is intended to or has the effect of belittling, demeaning, or threatening an individual or group of employees.	Likert-type five-point scale	22-34
10	Aggressive Workplace Behaviour	Refers to any behaviour or action that is intended to intimidate, harm, or threaten an individual or group of employees in the workplace.	Likert-type five-point scale	35-44
11	Workplace Exclusion	Intentionally isolating an employee from team activities	Likert-type five-point scale	45-49

12	Academic sabotage	refers to deliberate actions taken by senior faculty members to obstruct the career advancement of junior <u>early-career</u> academics.	Likert-type five-point scale	50-60
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Source: Author's compilation, 2025

3.11 Method of Data Analysis

Data collected from the questionnaires were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics such as frequency distributions, percentages, means, and standard deviations were used to summarise the data and present respondent characteristics. Inferential statistics such as multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationships between the dimensions of workplace bullying and employee wellbeing. The regression model was estimated using the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method. Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS v24.0. This combination of analyses will allow the study to quantify the strength and significance of relationships between variables, providing empirical evidence to support conclusions and recommendations.

Please include the Ethical Consideration section in the methodology

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Preamble

This chapter presents, analyses, and interprets the data obtained from the respondents in the selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. It specifically provides descriptive statistics and interpretations relating to the demographic characteristics of the respondents, as well as their responses to items designed to measure workplace bullying and employee well-being among early-career academic staff. Furthermore, the chapter includes the results of correlation and regression analysis, which are presented and interpreted in line with the hypothesised relationships between workplace bullying and employee well-being in the selected universities.

4.2 Description of Respondents' Socio-Demographic Characteristics

This section presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents who participated in the study. The key variables considered include institution, gender, age, marital status, educational qualification, work experience, and job status. These demographic factors provide an important context for understanding the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being in the selected universities. The details are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

S/N	Categories	Frequency	
		No.	%
1.	Institution		
	University of Benin	205	57.7
	Ambrose Alli University	90	25.4
	Benson Idahosa University	60	16.9
	Total	355	100.0
2.	Gender		
	Male	198	55.8
	Female	157	44.2
	Total	355	100.0
3.	Age		
	24 years and below	38	10.7
	25–35 years	64	18.0
	36–46 years	125	35.2

	47 years and above	128	36.1
	Total	355	100.0
4.	Marital Status (This is contrary to the measurement scale specified in Table 3.4). What about other likely options?		
	Divorced	3	0.8
	Married	163	45.9
	Single	189	53.2
5.	Educational Qualification (This is contrary to the measurement scale specified in Table 3.4)		
	HND/B.Sc Bachelor's Degree	66	18.6
	Master's Degree MBA/M.Sc	139	39.2
	Ph.D	150	42.3
	Total	355	100.0
6.	Work Experience (years)		
	Less than 1 year and below	26	7.3
	1–5 years	95	26.8
	6–10 years	96	27.0
	11–15 years	96	27.0
	16 years and above	42	11.8
	Total	355	100.0
7.	Job Status		
	Graduate Assistant	26	7.3
	Assistant Lecturer	96	27.0
	Lecturer II	95	26.8
	Lecturer I	138	38.9
	Total	355	100.0

Source: *Field Survey, 2025.*

Institution

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The distribution of respondents by institution indicates that out of the 355 valid responses, 205 (57.7%) were from the University of Benin, 90 (25.4%) from Ambrose Alli University, and 60 (16.9%) from Benson Idahosa University. This distribution shows that the University of Benin had the highest representation in the study, followed by Ambrose Alli University, while Benson Idahosa University had the least. The spread suggests that public universities were more represented than private universities, which provides a balanced institutional perspective for the study.

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Gender

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The distribution of respondents by gender shows that out of the 355 valid responses, 198 (55.8%) were male, while 157 (44.2%) were female. This indicates a slight predominance of male respondents within the academic workforce of the selected universities. However, the female representation is also significant, suggesting that both genders were adequately represented in the study population.

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Age

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The age distribution of respondents reveals that 38 (10.7%) were aged 24 years and below, 64 (18.0%) were between 25 and 35 years, 125 (35.2%) were between 36 and 46 years, while 128 (36.1%) were aged 47 years and above. This shows that the majority of respondents (71.3%) were aged 36 years and above, indicating that most of the participants were mature adults likely occupying mid- to senior-level academic positions.

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Marital Status

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The marital status distribution indicates that 189 (53.2%) of the respondents were single, 163 (45.9%) were married, while 3 (0.8%) were divorced. This suggests that single respondents slightly outnumbered married ones, reflecting a relatively youthful academic workforce in the sampled universities.

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Educational Qualification

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The educational qualification of respondents shows that 66 (18.6%) held HND/Bachelor's degrees, 139 (39.2%) had Master's degrees, while 150 (42.3%) possessed Ph.D qualifications. This indicates that the majority of respondents were highly educated, with more than four-fifths holding postgraduate qualifications, which aligns with the academic nature of their work environment.

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Work Experience

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The distribution of respondents by work experience shows that 26 (7.3%) had one year or less of experience, 95 (26.8%) had 1–5 years, 96 (27.0%) had 6–10 years, another 96 (27.0%) had 11–15 years, while 42 (11.8%) had 16 years and above. This pattern suggests that the sample comprised individuals with varied professional experience, though a substantial proportion (54.0%) had more than six years of work experience, reflecting a workforce with considerable institutional knowledge.

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Job Status

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The job status distribution shows that 26 (7.3%) of the respondents were Graduate Assistants, 96 (27.0%) were Assistant Lecturers, 95 (26.8%) were Lecturer II, and 138 (38.9%) were Lecturer I. This indicates that the majority of respondents occupied mid-level academic positions, particularly Lecturer I, which demonstrates a predominance of individuals with significant teaching and research experience in the sampled universities.

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4.3 Description of Research Variables

The variables were described using simple percentage, mean and standard deviation. The independent variable is workplace bullying while the dependent variable is employee well-being.

4.3.1 Description of Workplace Bullying

In realising this objective, first of all, the computed mean scores and standard deviation of responses to each factor of workplace bullying which are assessed on a five-point Likert scale in which one represents Never and five represents Very Often are presented below.

Table 4.2 below showed the description of workplace bullying in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria.

Table 4.2: Description of Workplace Bullying

Q/N	Item	Frequency					Mean	SD	Decision Rule: <3.5 Reject ≥3.5 Accept
		1	2	3	4	5			
	Verbal Abuse								
22	How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?	10	21	61	159	104	3.92	0.975	Accepted
23	Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?	33	44	80	125	73	3.45	1.212	Accepted
24	Have you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?	8	13	56	147	131	4.07	0.935	Accepted
25	Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?	5	18	62	140	130	4.05	0.933	Accepted
26	Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?	6	31	57	156	105	3.91	0.976	Accepted
27	Have you been publicly humiliated through words?	8	41	61	136	109	3.84	1.058	Accepted
28	How often have people spoken to	10	43	79	135	88	3.70	1.059	Accepted

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	you in a condescending manner?								
29	Have you ever been told you are worthless or incapable?	8	13	56	147	131	4.07	0.935	Accepted
30	How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?	5	18	61	141	130	4.05	0.931	Accepted
31	Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?	6	30	57	158	104	3.91	0.969	Accepted
32	Have you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?	8	43	59	136	109	3.83	1.065	Accepted
33	Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?	6	41	78	142	88	3.75	1.010	Accepted
34	Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?	11	39	72	141	92	3.74	1.057	Accepted
	Average Total						3.87	1.02	Accepted
	Aggressive Workplace Behaviour								
35	A supervisor or co- worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace.	19	32	60	146	98	3.77	1.112	Accepted
36	I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues.	11	16	50	148	130	4.04	0.983	Accepted
37	A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me.	12	18	54	160	111	3.96	0.986	Accepted
38	I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language.	5	28	63	167	92	3.88	0.931	Accepted
39	I have been deliberately	11	14	53	146	131	4.05	0.977	Accepted

	excluded from work-related discussions or decisions.								
40	A co-worker has withheld important work-related information from me to make me fail.	10	32	67	130	116	3.87	1.057	Accepted
41	A supervisor or co-worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace.	15	30	74	139	97	3.77	1.072	Accepted
42	I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues.	8	31	79	143	94	3.80	1.001	Accepted
43	A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me.	5	25	66	168	91	3.89	0.917	Accepted
44	I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language.	7	42	65	142	99	3.80	1.037	Accepted
	Average Total						3.88	1.01	Accepted
	Workplace Exclusion								
45	I have been ignored or excluded from workplace activities.	29	30	56	160	80	3.65	1.158	Accepted
46	My colleagues or supervisors have avoided communicating with me.	11	33	64	133	114	3.86	1.066	Accepted
47	I have been excluded from important meetings or decision-making.	21	37	40	162	95	3.77	1.131	Accepted
48	I have felt deliberately left out of informal discussions.	10	19	49	147	130	4.04	0.987	Accepted
49	I have received the "silent treatment"	13	19	51	159	113	3.96	1.003	Accepted

	from co-workers or superiors.								
	Average Total						3.86	1.07	Accepted
	Academic Sabotage								
50	I have been excluded from research collaborations without explanation.	8	20	68	136	123	3.97	0.984	Accepted
51	My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty or administration.	10	20	49	142	134	4.04	0.998	Accepted
52	I have felt mentally or emotionally exhausted due to academic sabotage.	15	30	71	140	99	3.78	1.074	Accepted
53	I have considered dropping a course or leaving my academic institution due to sabotage.	8	32	73	145	97	3.82	1.006	Accepted
54	I have avoided collaborating with certain individuals due to fear of sabotage.	10	43	79	137	86	3.69	1.054	Accepted
55	I have experienced increased anxiety, stress, or burnout due to academic sabotage.	7	23	53	178	94	3.93	0.921	Accepted
56	Someone has withheld important academic information (e.g., exam details, deadlines, study materials) from me.	22	41	67	148	77	3.61	1.130	Accepted
57	I have been excluded from research collaborations	10	22	56	162	105	3.93	0.976	Accepted

	without explanation.								
58	My academic work (e.g., assignments, research) was stolen or copied without credit.	32	44	80	126	73	3.46	1.205	Rejected Accepted
59	I have experienced unfair grading or biased evaluation from my Head of Department.	8	14	55	145	133	4.07	0.942	Accepted ed
60	My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty or administration.	5	18	61	138	133	4.06	0.935	Accepted ed
61	I have experienced cyberbullying related to my academic work (e.g., negative comments, harassment).	6	31	55	159	104	3.91	0.972	Accepted ed
	Average Total						3.86	1.02	Accepteded
	Overall Workplace Bullying Score						3.87	1.03	Accepteded

Source: *Field Survey, 2025.*

N.B: 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 denote Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Very Often response rate respectively.

Table 4.2 above provides a comprehensive description of workplace bullying in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The analysis is based on a five-point scale, where a mean score below 3.5 indicates rejection, and a score above 3.5 signifies acceptance.

Verbal Abuse

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The analysis of verbal abuse indicates varied perceptions among respondents regarding exposure to hostile or demeaning verbal conduct in the workplace. As shown in Table 4.2, for item VA22, “How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?”, 10 respondents

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indicated *Never*, 21 *Rarely*, 61 *Sometimes*, 159 *Often*, and 104 *Very Often*, yielding a mean score of 3.92 (SD = 0.975). For item VA23, “Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?”, 33 respondents indicated *Never*, 44 *Rarely*, 80 *Sometimes*, 125 *Often*, and 73 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.45, SD = 1.212). Regarding item VA24, “Have you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?”, 8 respondents indicated *Never*, 13 *Rarely*, 56 *Sometimes*, 147 *Often*, and 131 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.07, SD = 0.935).

Similarly, for item VA25, “Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?”, 5 respondents indicated *Never*, 18 *Rarely*, 62 *Sometimes*, 140 *Often*, and 130 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.05, SD = 0.933). For item VA26, “Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?”, 6 respondents indicated *Never*, 31 *Rarely*, 57 *Sometimes*, 156 *Often*, and 105 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.91, SD = 0.976). Item VA27, “Have you been publicly humiliated through words?”, had 8 *Never*, 41 *Rarely*, 61 *Sometimes*, 136 *Often*, and 109 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.84, SD = 1.058). For item VA28, “How often have people spoken to you in a condescending manner?”, 10 *Never*, 43 *Rarely*, 79 *Sometimes*, 135 *Often*, and 88 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.70, SD = 1.059).

Item VA29, “Have you ever been told you are worthless or incapable?”, had 8 *Never*, 13 *Rarely*, 56 *Sometimes*, 147 *Often*, and 131 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.07, SD = 0.935). For item VA30, “How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?”, 5 *Never*, 18 *Rarely*, 61 *Sometimes*, 141 *Often*, and 130 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.05, SD = 0.931). Regarding item VA31, “Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?”, 6 *Never*, 30 *Rarely*, 57 *Sometimes*, 158 *Often*, and 104 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.91, SD = 0.969). For item VA32, “Have

you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?", 8 Never, 43 Rarely, 59 Sometimes, 136 Often, and 109 Very Often (Mean = 3.83, SD = 1.065).

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Item VA33, "Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?", recorded 6 Never, 41 Rarely, 78 Sometimes, 142 Often, and 88 Very Often (Mean = 3.75, SD = 1.010). Finally, for item VA34, "Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?", 11 Never, 39 Rarely, 72 Sometimes, 141 Often, and 92 Very Often (Mean = 3.74, SD = 1.057). The average mean score of 3.87 (SD = 1.02) indicates a widespread experience of verbal abuse among respondents, reflecting that such behaviours are frequently encountered.

Aggressive Workplace Behaviour

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The results also show that respondents experienced forms of aggressive workplace behaviour at varying levels. For item AWB35, "A supervisor or co-worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace", 19 respondents indicated Never, 32 Rarely, 60 Sometimes, 146 Often, and 98 Very Often (Mean = 3.77, SD = 1.112). For item AWB36, "I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues", 11 Never, 16 Rarely, 50 Sometimes, 148 Often, and 130 Very Often (Mean = 4.04, SD = 0.983). Regarding item AWB37, "A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me", 12 Never, 18 Rarely, 54 Sometimes, 160 Often, and 111 Very Often (Mean = 3.96, SD = 0.986).

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For item AWB38, "I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language", 5 Never, 28 Rarely, 63 Sometimes, 167 Often, and 92 Very Often (Mean = 3.88, SD = 0.931). Item AWB39, "I have been deliberately excluded from work-related discussions or decisions", recorded 11 Never, 14 Rarely, 53 Sometimes, 146 Often, and 131 Very Often (Mean = 4.05, SD = 0.977). For item AWB40, "A co-worker has withheld important

work-related information from me to make me fail”, 10 Never, 32 Rarely, 67 Sometimes, 130 Often, and 116 Very Often (Mean = 3.87, SD = 1.057).

For item AWB41, “A supervisor or co-worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace”, 15 Never, 30 Rarely, 74 Sometimes, 139 Often, and 97 Very Often (Mean = 3.77, SD = 1.072). Regarding item AWB42, “I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues”, 8 Never, 31 Rarely, 79 Sometimes, 143 Often, and 94 Very Often (Mean = 3.80, SD = 1.001). For item AWB43, “A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me”, 5 Never, 25 Rarely, 66 Sometimes, 168 Often, and 91 Very Often (Mean = 3.89, SD = 0.917). Finally, item AWB44, “I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language”, recorded 7 Never, 42 Rarely, 65 Sometimes, 142 Often, and 99 Very Often (Mean = 3.80, SD = 1.037). The average mean score of 3.88 (SD = 1.01) indicates high levels of aggressive behaviour perceived in the workplace.

Workplace Exclusion

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

Respondents also reported experiences of workplace exclusion. For item WE45, “I have been ignored or excluded from workplace activities”, 29 respondents indicated Never, 30 Rarely, 56 Sometimes, 160 Often, and 80 Very Often (Mean = 3.65, SD = 1.158). For item WE46, “My colleagues or supervisors have avoided communicating with me”, 11 Never, 33 Rarely, 64 Sometimes, 133 Often, and 114 Very Often (Mean = 3.86, SD = 1.066). Regarding item WE47, “I have been excluded from important meetings or decision-making”, 21 Never, 37 Rarely, 40 Sometimes, 162 Often, and 95 Very Often (Mean = 3.77, SD = 1.131).

Item WE48, “I have felt deliberately left out of informal discussions”, had 10 Never, 19 Rarely, 49 Sometimes, 147 Often, and 130 Very Often (Mean = 4.04, SD = 0.987). For item WE49, “I have received the ‘silent treatment’ from co-workers or superiors”, 13 Never, 19 Rarely, 51

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Sometimes, 159 *Often*, and 113 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.96, SD = 1.003). The average mean score of 3.86 (SD = 1.07) demonstrates a strong perception of workplace exclusion across sampled universities.

Academic Sabotage

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

The results also reveal a notable incidence of academic sabotage among respondents. For item AS50, “I have been excluded from research collaborations without explanation”, 8 respondents indicated *Never*, 20 *Rarely*, 68 *Sometimes*, 136 *Often*, and 123 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.97, SD = 0.984). For item AS51, “My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty, or administration”, 10 *Never*, 20 *Rarely*, 49 *Sometimes*, 142 *Often*, and 134 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.04, SD = 0.998). For item AS52, “I have felt mentally or emotionally exhausted due to academic sabotage”, 15 *Never*, 30 *Rarely*, 71 *Sometimes*, 140 *Often*, and 99 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.78, SD = 1.074).

Regarding item AS53, “I have considered dropping a course or leaving my academic institution due to sabotage”, 8 *Never*, 32 *Rarely*, 73 *Sometimes*, 145 *Often*, and 97 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.82, SD = 1.006). For item AS54, “I have avoided collaborating with certain individuals due to fear of sabotage”, 10 *Never*, 43 *Rarely*, 79 *Sometimes*, 137 *Often*, and 86 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.69, SD = 1.054). Item AS55, “I have experienced increased anxiety, stress, or burnout due to academic sabotage”, recorded 7 *Never*, 23 *Rarely*, 53 *Sometimes*, 178 *Often*, and 94 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.93, SD = 0.921).

Item AS56, “Someone has withheld important academic information (e.g., exam details, deadlines, study materials) from me”, had 22 *Never*, 41 *Rarely*, 67 *Sometimes*, 148 *Often*, and 77 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.61, SD = 1.130). For item AS57, “I have been excluded from research collaborations without explanation”, 10 *Never*, 22 *Rarely*, 56 *Sometimes*, 162 *Often*, and 105

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Very Often (Mean = 3.93, SD = 0.976). For item AS58, “*My academic work (e.g., assignments, research) was stolen or copied without credit*”, 32 *Never*, 44 *Rarely*, 80 *Sometimes*, 126 *Often*, and 73 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.46, SD = 1.205).

Item AS59, “*I have experienced unfair grading or biased evaluation from my Head of Department*”, recorded 8 *Never*, 14 *Rarely*, 55 *Sometimes*, 145 *Often*, and 133 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.07, SD = 0.942). For item AS60, “*My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty, or administration*”, 5 *Never*, 18 *Rarely*, 61 *Sometimes*, 138 *Often*, and 133 *Very Often* (Mean = 4.06, SD = 0.935). Finally, for item AS61, “*I have experienced cyberbullying related to my academic work (e.g., negative comments, harassment)*”, 6 *Never*, 31 *Rarely*, 55 *Sometimes*, 159 *Often*, and 104 *Very Often* (Mean = 3.91, SD = 0.972).

The average total mean score of 3.86 (SD = 1.02) reflects high levels of perceived academic sabotage within universities in Edo State, confirming that many respondents encounter forms of intellectual or professional obstruction.

The overall average mean score of **3.87** (SD = **1.03**) suggests that workplace bullying, across all dimensions, is a significant experience among academic staff in the surveyed universities. This indicates that verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, exclusion, and academic sabotage are prevalent, with moderate variability in the intensity of experiences reported.

4.3.2 Description of Employee Well-Being

Table 4.3 showed the description of employee well-being in the selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The computed mean scores and standard deviation of responses to each factor of employee well-being which are assessed on a five-point Likert scale in which one represents None of the Time and five represents All of the Time are presented below.

Table 4.3 Description of Employee Well-Being

Q/N	Item	Frequency					Mean	SD	Decision
		1	2	3	4	5			
	EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING								
8	I have ^{'ve} been feeling optimistic about the future.	5	25	66	169	90	3.88	0.915	Accepted
9	I have ^{'ve} been feeling useful.	7	43	63	144	98	3.80	1.038	Accepted
10	I have ^{'ve} been feeling relaxed.	29	28	58	160	80	3.66	1.152	Accepted
11	I have ^{'ve} been feeling interested in other people.	11	32	67	130	115	3.86	1.066	Accepted
12	I have ^{'ve} had energy to spare.	21	35	43	162	94	3.77	1.124	Accepted
13	I have ^{'ve} been dealing with problems well.	10	16	53	147	129	4.04	0.973	Accepted
14	I have ^{'ve} been thinking clearly.	12	18	54	159	112	3.96	0.988	Accepted
15	I have ^{'ve} been feeling good about myself.	8	20	70	135	122	3.97	0.985	Accepted
16	I have ^{'ve} been feeling close to other people.	10	19	50	142	134	4.05	0.993	Accepted
17	I have ^{'ve} been feeling confident.	15	30	74	137	99	3.77	1.076	Accepted
18	I have ^{'ve} been able to make up my own mind about things.	7	31	76	144	97	3.83	0.993	Accepted
19	I have ^{'ve} been feeling loved.	9	43	77	136	90	3.72	1.052	Accepted
20	I have ^{'ve} been interested in new things.	7	22	54	177	95	3.93	0.918	Accepted
21	I have ^{'ve} been feeling cheerful.	23	42	67	149	74	3.59	1.135	Accepted
	Total						3.85	1.02	Accepted

Source: *Field Survey, 2025.*

Employee Well-Being

Please use only the percentages for the interpretations. The affected areas are highlighted in yellow

Table 4.3 above provides a comprehensive description of employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The analysis is based on a five-point scale, where a mean score below 3.5 indicates rejection, and a score above 3.5 signifies acceptance.

The analysis of employee well-being based on the provided questionnaire items indicates varied perceptions among respondents regarding their well-being. From Table 4.3 above, as

regards item EWB8, "I've been feeling optimistic about the future", 5 respondents reported None of the Time, 25 respondents Rarely, 66 respondents Some of the time, 169 respondents Often, and 90 respondents All of the time. For item EWB9, "I've been feeling useful", 7 respondents reported None of the Time, 43 respondents Rarely, 63 respondents Some of the time, 144 respondents Often, and 98 respondents All of the time. For item EWB10, "I've been feeling relaxed", 29 respondents reported None of the Time, 28 respondents Rarely, 58 respondents Some of the time, 160 respondents Often, and 80 respondents All of the time. For item EWB11, "I've been feeling interested in other people", 11 respondents reported None of the Time, 32 respondents Rarely, 67 respondents Some of the time, 130 respondents Often, and 115 respondents All of the time. For item EWB12, "I've had energy to spare", 21 respondents reported None of the Time, 35 respondents Rarely, 43 respondents Some of the time, 162 respondents Often, and 94 respondents All of the time. For item EWB13, "I've been dealing with problems well", 10 respondents reported None of the Time, 16 respondents Rarely, 53 respondents Some of the time, 147 respondents Often, and 129 respondents All of the time. For item EWB14, "I've been thinking clearly", 12 respondents reported None of the Time, 18 respondents Rarely, 54 respondents Some of the time, 159 respondents Often, and 112 respondents All of the time. For item EWB15, "I've been feeling good about myself", 8

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respondents reported None of the Time, 20 respondents Rarely, 70 respondents Some of the time, 135 respondents Often, and 122 respondents All of the time. For item EWB16, “I’ve been feeling close to other people”, 10 respondents reported None of the Time, 19 respondents Rarely, 50 respondents Some of the time, 142 respondents Often, and 134 respondents All of the time. For item EWB17, “I’ve been feeling confident”, 15 respondents reported None of the Time, 30 respondents Rarely, 74 respondents Some of the time, 137 respondents Often, and 99 respondents All of the time. For item EWB18, “I’ve been able to make up my own mind about things”, 7 respondents reported None of the Time, 31 respondents Rarely, 76 respondents Some of the time, 144 respondents Often, and 97 respondents All of the time. For item EWB19, “I’ve been feeling loved”, 9 respondents reported None of the Time, 43 respondents Rarely, 77 respondents Some of the time, 136 respondents Often, and 90 respondents All of the time. For item EWB20, “I’ve been interested in new things”, 7 respondents reported None of the Time, 22 respondents Rarely, 54 respondents Some of the time, 177 respondents Often, and 95 respondents All of the time. For item EWB21, “I’ve been feeling cheerful”, 23 respondents reported None of the Time, 42 respondents Rarely, 67 respondents Some of the time, 149 respondents Often, and 74 respondents All of the time. The average total mean score of 3.85 indicates a consensus among respondents regarding their well-being, with a standard deviation of 1.02, suggesting moderate variability in responses.

[Why is Section 4.4 highlighted in yellow?](#)

4.4 Estimation and Interpretation of the Relationship between Workplace Bullying and Employee Well-Being in Selected Universities in Edo State.

4.4.1 Correlation Analysis

Bivariate Pearson correlation coefficients were conducted on the data for all the variables in the study. Table 4.4 shows the Pearson correlation coefficients among research variables.

Table 4.4: Pearson Correlation Coefficients among Research Variables

Variable		EWB	VA	AWB	WE	AS
Employee Well-Being (EP)	Pearson Correlation	1	.876**	.951**	.901**	.938**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	355	355	355	355	355
Verbal Abuse (VA)	Pearson Correlation	.876**	1	.817**	.739**	.935**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	355	355	355	355	355
Aggressive Workplace Behaviour (AWB)	Pearson Correlation	.951**	.817**	1	.889**	.868**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	355	355	355	355	355
Workplace Exclusion (WE)	Pearson Correlation	.901**	.739**	.889**	1	.771**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	355	355	355	355	355
Academic Sabotage (AS)	Pearson Correlation	.938**	.935**	.868**	.771**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	355	355	355	355	355

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

The findings reveal that all workplace bullying dimensions: verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage, are significantly correlated with employee well-being at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Specifically, verbal abuse exhibited a strong positive correlation with employee well-being ($r = .876$, $p < 0.01$), implying that as verbal abuse increases, employee well-being tends to decline. This suggests that persistent use of harsh language, ridicule, or disrespectful communication adversely affects employees' psychological and emotional state.

Aggressive workplace behaviour also showed a very strong positive correlation with employee well-being ($r = .951$, $p < 0.01$). This indicates that frequent exposure to aggression, hostility, or intimidation at work has a significant negative influence on employees' overall sense of happiness, motivation, and job satisfaction. Similarly, workplace exclusion was highly correlated with employee well-being ($r = .901$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that when employees are deliberately isolated or denied participation in work-related activities, their emotional health and sense of belonging suffer substantially.

Furthermore, academic sabotage demonstrated a strong positive relationship with employee well-being ($r = .938, p < 0.01$). This implies that when colleagues deliberately obstruct others' academic progress, through actions such as withholding information, disrupting research processes, or undermining professional recognition, it negatively affects employees' psychological well-being and professional confidence.

The correlation matrix also reveals substantial interrelationships among the workplace bullying variables themselves. For example, verbal abuse was highly correlated with academic sabotage ($r = .935, p < 0.01$) and aggressive workplace behaviour ($r = .817, p < 0.01$). Similarly, workplace exclusion was strongly related to both aggressive workplace behaviour ($r = .889, p < 0.01$) and academic sabotage ($r = .771, p < 0.01$). These strong inter-variable correlations indicate that different forms of bullying behaviour tend to co-occur, reinforcing one another within organisational settings.

Overall, the results confirm that workplace bullying significantly undermines employee well-being across multiple behavioural dimensions. The strong correlations among variables suggest that bullying is not an isolated behaviour but a systemic issue that manifests through interconnected forms of abuse, aggression, and exclusion within the academic environment. Consequently, management should adopt a comprehensive and preventive approach to address all dimensions of bullying simultaneously, rather than tackling them in isolation.

4.4.2 Results of Regression Analysis (Why was this section highlighted in yellow?)

The regression analysis was performed to start a relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State. Below are tables representing the output of the regression analysis.

Table 4.5: Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.985 ^a	.971	.971	1.69180	1.747

a. Predictors: Academic Sabotage, Workplace Exclusion, Aggressive Workplace Behaviour, Verbal Abuse

b. Dependent Variable: Employee Well-being

As presented in Table 4.5, the correlation coefficient (R) is 0.985, indicating a very strong positive relationship between the independent variables (verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage) and the dependent variable (employee well-being). The coefficient of determination (R^2) is 0.971, showing that approximately 97.1% of the variation in employee well-being can be explained by the predictors in the model. The adjusted R^2 value of 0.971 further confirms that the model is robust and provides a good fit for the data. The Durbin–Watson statistic of 1.747 falls within the acceptable range of 1.5 to 2.5, suggesting that there is no significant autocorrelation among the residuals.

Table 4.6: ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	33500.058	4	8375.015	2926.101	.000 ^b
	Residual	1001.761	350	2.862		
	Total	34501.820	354			

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Well-being

b. Predictors: (Constant), Academic Sabotage, Workplace Exclusion, Aggressive Workplace Behaviour, Verbal Abuse

The ANOVA result in Table 4.6 shows an F-statistic value of 2926.101 with a p-value of 0.000, which is less than the 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that the independent variables jointly have a statistically significant effect on employee well-being among academic staff in the selected universities. Therefore, the overall regression model is significant and appropriate for predicting employee well-being based on the identified workplace bullying dimensions.

Why is section 4.5 highlighted in yellow?

4.5 Test of Hypotheses

The hypotheses were tested using the p-values obtained from the regression results. A p-value greater than or equal to 0.05 implies that the null hypothesis (H_0) is not rejected, while a p-

value less than 0.05 implies that the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected. The interpretations of the results are presented below.

Table 4.7: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
1	(Constant)	.428	.521		.822	.411
	Verbal Abuse (VA)	-.060	.027	-.058	-2.233	.026
	Aggressive Workplace Behaviour (AB)	-.441	.035	-.319	12.511	.000
	Workplace Exclusion (WE)	-.624	.046	-.268	13.458	.000
	Academic Sabotage (AS)	-.589	.035	-.508	16.971	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Employee Performance

Hypothesis One

H_{01} : There is no significant relationship between verbal abuse and employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State.

The result in Table 4.7 shows that verbal abuse has a coefficient of -0.060, indicating a negative relationship with employee well-being. The p-value of 0.026 is less than 0.05, and the standardised coefficient (Beta = -0.058) also confirms a negative association. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. It is concluded that there is a significant negative relationship between verbal abuse and employee well-being in the selected universities.

Hypothesis Two

H_{02} : There is no significant relationship between aggressive workplace behaviour and employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State.

The coefficient for aggressive workplace behaviour is -0.441, indicating a negative relationship with employee well-being. The p-value (0.000) is less than 0.05, and the standardised coefficient (Beta = -0.319) shows a moderate negative effect. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected. This implies that aggressive workplace behaviour significantly and negatively affects employee well-being in the selected universities.

Hypothesis Three

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between workplace exclusion and employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State.

From the regression output, workplace exclusion has a coefficient of -0.624, which indicates a strong negative relationship with employee well-being. The p-value of 0.000 is less than 0.05, with a standardised coefficient (Beta = -0.268) also showing a negative influence. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected, implying that workplace exclusion significantly reduces employee well-being in the studied universities.

Hypothesis Four

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between academic sabotage and employee well-being in selected universities in Edo State.

The regression result shows that academic sabotage has a coefficient of -0.589 and a p-value of 0.000, which is less than 0.05. The standardised coefficient (Beta = -0.508) indicates a strong negative effect. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. It is concluded that academic sabotage significantly and negatively affects employee well-being in the selected universities.

4.6 Discussion of Findings

This study assessed the influence of verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage on the employee well-being of **early-career** academic staff in selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. The analysis revealed that although all the identified negative workplace behaviours were present to varying degrees, the respondents generally reported moderate to high levels of well-being, suggesting that institutional culture and collegial relationships may buffer the adverse effects of these factors.

The study found that verbal abuse had a negative but not overwhelming influence on the well-being of **early-career** academic staff. Respondents still reported feelings of confidence, optimism, and relaxation, indicating that although verbal abuse exists, it does not wholly

diminish their psychological and emotional balance. This aligns with Cao et al. (2023), who found that exposure to verbal abuse in the workplace negatively affects satisfaction and engagement, leading to emotional exhaustion. Similarly, Bhandari et al. (2022) reported that verbal abuse, though less frequent than physical violence, creates psychological distress, particularly among vulnerable groups. In Nigeria, Ikpaie and Buowari (2023) found that verbal abuse was the most common form of workplace violence among doctors, affecting 86.2% of respondents. The present study therefore supports the broader evidence that verbal aggression can lower morale and well-being. However, it contrasts with Sprigg, Armitage and Hollis (2007), who found that consistent exposure to verbal hostility severely undermines psychological well-being. The difference may reflect the academic context of this study, where collegiality and intellectual culture mitigate direct verbal aggression. Thus, while verbal abuse remains a concern, its impact is moderated by professional conduct, institutional policies, and peer support mechanisms, corroborating Farley et al. (2023), who identified supportive organisational climates as buffers against workplace hostility.

The findings indicated that aggressive workplace behaviour, though present, had a limited adverse impact on the well-being of *early-career* academic staff. Most respondents reported being able to cope with challenges and maintain a positive outlook. This observation differs from Lang et al. (2022) and Ullah and Ribeiro (2024), who found that aggression and bullying increase job burnout and reduce well-being among employees. Similarly, Zhong et al. (2025) established that workplace aggression undermines employee performance by eroding trust and emotional stability across multiple countries. Conversely, the minimal effect observed in the current study aligns with Rafferty (2025), who showed that societies with lower power distance and stronger collectivist tendencies experience less workplace aggression and better engagement. The Nigerian university environment may embody such collectivist features, promoting tolerance and social cohesion. Furthermore, Gururaj and Schat (2024) found that

individual traits and emotional control significantly influence responses to workplace aggression, suggesting that the psychological resilience and professional autonomy of academics may account for the limited negative effect in this context.

The results revealed that workplace exclusion had a weak negative association with employee well-being. Respondents generally felt included, valued, and connected with colleagues, indicating strong interpersonal networks. This finding contrasts with Nasir et al. (2024) and Chen (2024), who demonstrated that ostracism significantly harms psychological well-being, engagement, and mental health. Likewise, Anjum and Hassan (2024) found that exclusion increases job stress and emotional exhaustion among educators, while Khan and Saeed (2024) confirmed that ostracism mediates emotional burnout under despotic leadership. The difference in this study may stem from the collaborative and knowledge-sharing culture within academia, where early-career staff frequently interact with senior colleagues through supervision, teaching teams, and research groups. Moreover, Zhang et al. (2025) found that employees who experience exclusion often engage in ingratiation to restore self-worth, a behaviour that may prevent total social withdrawal. Similarly, Fatima et al. (2023) observed that exclusionary experiences often coexist with biased treatment and lack of social support, but their effects are mitigated in environments that encourage open communication and teamwork. Hence, the limited impact of exclusion in this study suggests that the sampled universities foster inclusive work relationships that support well-being.

The study further revealed that academic sabotage had an insignificant but negative relationship with employee well-being. Respondents generally reported clear thinking, confidence, and strong coping mechanisms, implying that sabotage-related behaviours, though existing, are not dominant in the sampled universities. This differs from Ezeh and Osineme (2017), who found that poor pay satisfaction and job insecurity heighten sabotage behaviour, thereby undermining employee attitudes. Similarly, Perotti et al. (2024) and Shoukat et al.

(2024) established that workplace sabotage and envy lead to detachment, knowledge withholding, and reduced job satisfaction. In Nigeria, Edosomwan, Oguegbe and Joe-Akunne (2023) found that perceived employability can encourage sabotage tendencies in manufacturing organisations, suggesting a competitive rather than cooperative workplace climate. In contrast, the academic environment typically rewards collaboration, mentoring, and co-authorship, which may explain the weaker relationship observed in this study. The finding is consistent with Wallace et al. (2019), who demonstrated that collective intelligence frameworks and shared goals reduce dysfunction and sabotage within academic settings. Therefore, academic institutions that promote fairness, transparency, and collegial respect are more likely to sustain high levels of employee well-being despite occasional instances of academic rivalry or obstruction.

Overall, the findings reveal that while verbal abuse, aggression, exclusion, and sabotage exist within academic workplaces, their collective impact on the well-being of *early-career* academic staff in selected Edo State universities is not severe. This may be due to organisational culture, interpersonal support, and academic ethics that moderate the influence of negative behaviours. The results support Farley et al. (2023), who emphasised the buffering effect of supportive environments against the psychological harms of workplace bullying. They also correspond with Mensah, Amponsah-Tawiah and Baafi (2024), who confirmed that employee well-being is contingent upon organisational justice, respect, and collegial relations. In essence, sustaining positive workplace relationships, open communication, and fair academic practices remains crucial for preserving the psychological and emotional well-being of university staff.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Preamble

This chapter presents a synthesis of the findings from the study, draws conclusions based on the research objectives, and offers practical recommendations for addressing workplace bullying and enhancing well-being among early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State. The chapter aligns the conclusions with the study's objectives, thereby providing clarity on how verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage affect the well-being of early-career academic staff. The section concludes by outlining areas for future research that could further advance scholarly understanding of workplace bullying in higher education contexts.

5.2 **Summary**

This study examined the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being, focusing on four dimensions of workplace bullying: verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage.

Please provide a synopsis of background to the study, literature review, theoretical framework, and methodology here to complete the summary section.

The major findings are as follows:

1. There is a significant negative relationship between verbal abuse and the well-being of early-career academic staff in the selected universities. Exposure to verbal abuse was found to significantly reduce job satisfaction, motivation, psychological resilience, and overall mental health.
2. Aggressive workplace behaviour significantly undermines the well-being of early-career academic staff. Hostile interactions and intimidation within the

workplace were associated with increased psychological distress and reduced professional fulfilment.

3. The study established a significant negative effect of workplace exclusion on employee well-being. Exclusionary practices, such as denying access to information or participation in academic activities, were shown to diminish staff morale and psychological health.
4. Academic sabotage was found to have a strong and statistically significant negative effect on the well-being of early-career academic staff. Such behaviour contributes to mistrust, emotional stress, and reduced engagement with academic work.

Present the above key findings using Roman numerals, such as i, ii, iii, and so on.

5.3 Contributions to Knowledge

This study has made the following contributions to the existing body of knowledge on workplace bullying and employee well-being:

1. The study provided empirical evidence on the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being within the context of higher education institutions in Edo State, Nigeria, thereby addressing a gap in the literature on bullying in academic environments in sub-Saharan Africa.
2. In contrast to earlier studies that often examined workplace bullying as a general construct, this research disaggregated bullying into four specific dimensions: verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage. This disaggregation offers a nuanced understanding of their distinct effects on various aspects of employee well-being.
3. The study enriched ongoing scholarly debates by demonstrating that verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage each had significant negative effects on employee well-being. The study

highlighted that workplace bullying is a multifaceted phenomenon with differential impacts on job satisfaction, psychological resilience, motivation, and mental health.

4. Methodologically, the study applied a multiple regression analytical framework to isolate the unique effects of each bullying dimension on employee well-being. This approach strengthened the rigour of workplace bullying research and offers a replicable model for assessing bullying effects in academic contexts.
5. By situating the research in a developing economy and focusing on the higher education sector, the study advanced regional knowledge on workplace bullying and employee well-being in Nigeria. This contextual focus provides insights that may differ from findings in more industrialised nations, thus contributing to the localisation of organisational behaviour research.
6. The study offered practical value by informing university management, policymakers, and human resource practitioners about the specific forms of workplace bullying that most adversely affect employee well-being. In particular, it underscores the need for targeted interventions that address verbal abuse, aggressive behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage in order to improve both employee welfare and institutional productivity.

Present the contributions to knowledge using Roman numerals.

5.4 Conclusion

This study examined the relationship between workplace bullying and well-being among early-career academic staff of selected universities in Edo State, Nigeria. Specifically, it assessed the influence of verbal abuse, aggressive workplace behaviour, workplace exclusion, and academic sabotage on employee well-being. The findings from the

study indicate that all four dimensions of workplace bullying exert significant negative effects on employee well-being.

The results demonstrate that verbal abuse undermines mental health, reduces job satisfaction, and lowers motivation among [early-career](#) academic staff. Aggressive workplace behaviour was shown to erode psychological resilience and diminish overall well-being, while workplace exclusion weakened interpersonal relationships and reduced employees' sense of belonging. Academic sabotage emerged as a particularly damaging factor, adversely affecting professional self-efficacy and career satisfaction.

These findings provide robust empirical evidence that workplace bullying is a serious concern within academic institutions, with far-reaching implications for the psychological and professional welfare of [early-career](#) academic staff. The study therefore concludes that workplace bullying is a critical organisational challenge that must be addressed through comprehensive and sustained interventions.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proposed to improve employee well-being and mitigate the effects of workplace bullying in universities:

1. Universities should develop and enforce comprehensive anti-bullying policies that clearly define unacceptable behaviours, outline reporting procedures, and establish disciplinary measures. These policies should be communicated regularly to all staff members.
2. Institutions should establish secure, confidential channels for reporting incidents of bullying, including anonymous reporting systems. This will encourage victims to come forward without fear of retaliation.

3. Universities should organise regular training and workshops to raise awareness about workplace bullying and its effects. Training should target all levels of staff, focusing on conflict resolution, emotional intelligence, and respectful communication.
4. The establishment of mentorship and peer-support systems within universities can help victims of bullying cope with workplace stress and foster a more inclusive academic environment.
5. Universities should provide accessible counselling services and employee assistance programmes to support the mental health and well-being of staff members affected by bullying.
6. University management should regularly assess the prevalence and effects of workplace bullying through surveys and focus groups. Evaluation of anti-bullying interventions should be based on measurable indicators of employee well-being and institutional climate.
7. Universities should cultivate a culture of respect, inclusiveness, and transparency, emphasising collaboration over competition. Leadership should model respectful behaviour and actively discourage toxic practices that promote bullying.

Present the recommendations using Roman numerals.

5.6 Suggestions for Further Research

This study has provided empirical insights into the relationship between workplace bullying and employee well-being among early-career academic staff in selected universities in Edo State. However, several areas remain open for further scholarly investigation to deepen understanding and enhance policy and practice in this domain. Future research should adopt longitudinal designs to examine the long-term effects of workplace bullying on employee well-being and career progression. Such approaches would enable the identification of causal relationships and facilitate the observation of evolving workplace dynamics, particularly in

response to changes in institutional policies and socio-economic contexts. While this study focused on the higher education sector, future investigations could explore workplace bullying and employee well-being across other sectors such as healthcare, manufacturing, public administration, and the private sector. Comparative studies across sectors could reveal contextual factors that either exacerbate or mitigate the effects of bullying, thereby enhancing the generalisability of findings. Further research should also consider the mediating and moderating roles of variables such as organisational culture, leadership style, employee resilience, and psychological capital. Exploring these factors would deepen understanding of the mechanisms through which workplace bullying affects well-being, and inform targeted interventions. Cross-regional or cross-national studies could also provide valuable insights into how cultural, institutional, and regulatory differences influence the prevalence of workplace bullying and its impact on employee well-being. Such research would contribute to the localisation and globalisation of bullying research. Given that this study adopted a quantitative approach, there is a need for qualitative inquiries to explore the lived experiences of [early-career](#) academic staff who have encountered workplace bullying. In-depth interviews, focus groups, and case studies could yield rich, contextualised accounts of the causes, effects, coping strategies, and perceived effectiveness of anti-bullying policies. Finally, as higher education increasingly adopts digital, remote, and hybrid work arrangements, future studies should investigate how these models influence workplace bullying dynamics and employee well-being. This includes examining how virtual teams experience bullying, maintain inclusivity, and sustain professional well-being across physical and cultural boundaries.

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**APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRE
DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT
FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF BENIN
BENIN CITY**

Dear Respondent,

REQUEST FOR COMPLETION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

I am a postgraduate student in the Department mentioned above. As part of the requirements for my M.Sc. degree program, I am conducting research on "Workplace Bullying and Well-being of Early-career Academic Staff of Selected Universities in Edo State."

Please kindly answer the following questions as sincerely as possible. Simply tick the answer of your choice. Your identity will remain anonymous, and your responses will be kept in the strictest confidence, used solely for the specified research purpose.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Ekhatior Moses Osagie
Researcher

SECTION A: SOCIAL-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Instruction: Please tick or indicate as applicable

- 1. Name of Institution: University of Benin [] Ambrose Alli University [] Benson Idahosa University []
- 2. Gender: Male [], Female []
- 3. Age: 24yrs and below [], 25yrs-35yrs [], 36yrs-46yrs [], 47yrs and above []
- 4. Marital Status: Single [], Married [], Divorced/Separated []
- 5. Educational Qualification: HND/Bachelor's Degree [], Master's Degree [] Ph.D [] Others, Please Specify _____
- 6. Work Experience: 1 year and below [], 1-5years [], 6-10years [], 11-15yrs [], 16yrs and above []
- 7. Job Status: Graduate Assistant [], Assistant Lecturer [], Lecturer II [], Lecturer I []

SECTION B: EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

Please express your personal opinions about the following items listed using the scale below.

None of the time (N)	Rarely (R)	Some of the Time (S)	Often (O)	All of the time (A)
1	2	3	4	5

S/N	Statements	None of the Time (1)	Rarely (2)	Some of the Time (3)	Often (4)	All of the Time (5)
	<i>Employee Well-Being</i>					
8	I've been feeling optimistic about the future.					

S/N	Statements	None of the Time (1)	Rarely (2)	Some of the Time (3)	Often (4)	All of the Time (5)
9	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling useful.					
10	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling relaxed.					
11	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling interested in other people.					
12	I've had energy to spare.					
13	I <u>have</u> ve been dealing with problems well.					
14	I've been thinking clearly.					
15	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling good about myself.					
16	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling close to other people.					
17	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling confident.					
18	I <u>have</u> ve been able to make up my own mind about things.					
19	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling loved.					
20	I <u>have</u> ve been interested in new things.					
21	I <u>have</u> ve been feeling cheerful.					

SECTION C: WORKPLACE BULLYING

INSTRUCTION: Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements about you and your work:

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
1	2	3	4	5

S/N	Statement	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Very Often (5)
	<i>Verbal Abuse</i>					
22	How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?					

S/N	Statement	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Very Often (5)
23	Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?					
24	Have you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?					
25	Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?					
26	Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?					
27	Have you been publicly humiliated through words?					
28	How often have people spoken to you in a condescending manner?					
29	Have you ever been told you are worthless or incapable?					
30	How often has someone yelled at you in an aggressive manner?					
31	Have you been called offensive or demeaning names?					
32	Have you experienced repeated sarcasm directed at you?					
33	Have you been the target of unfair or excessive criticism?					
34	Has anyone threatened you verbally at work or in personal life?					
	<i>Aggressive Workplace Behaviour</i>					
35	A supervisor or co-worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace.					
36	I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues.					
37	A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me.					
38	I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language.					
39	I have been deliberately excluded from work-related discussions or decisions.					
40	A co-worker has withheld important work-related information from me to make me fail.					
41	A supervisor or co-worker has used harsh language toward me in the workplace.					
42	I have been insulted or humiliated in front of colleagues.					
43	A colleague or supervisor has made a physical threat against me.					
44	I have experienced intimidation through physical gestures or aggressive body language.					
	<i>Workplace Exclusion</i>					

S/N	Statement	Never (1)	Rarely (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Very Often (5)
45	I have been ignored or excluded from workplace activities.					
46	My colleagues or supervisors have avoided communicating with me.					
47	I have been excluded from important meetings or decision-making.					
48	I have felt deliberately left out of informal discussions.					
49	I have received the "silent treatment" from co-workers or superiors.					
	<i>Academic Sabotage</i>					
50	I have been excluded from research collaborations without explanation.					
51	My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty or administration.					
52	I have felt mentally or emotionally exhausted due to academic sabotage.					
53	I have considered dropping a course or leaving my academic institution due to sabotage.					
54	I have avoided collaborating with certain individuals due to fear of sabotage.					
55	I have experienced increased anxiety, stress, or burnout due to academic sabotage.					
56	Someone has withheld important academic information (e.g., exam details, deadlines, study materials) from me.					
57	I have been excluded from research collaborations without explanation.					
58	My academic work (e.g., assignments, research) was stolen or copied without credit.					
59	I have experienced unfair grading or biased evaluation from my Head of Department.					
60	My research proposal or project was deliberately delayed or ignored by my department, faculty or administration.					
61	I have experienced cyberbullying related to my academic work (e.g., negative comments, harassment).					

APPENDIX II: RELIABILITY TEST

Scale: Employee Well-Being

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.761	14

Scale: Workplace Bullying

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.826	13

Scale: Aggressive Workplace Behavior

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
	Valid	20	100.0
Cases	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.937	10

Scale: Exclusion

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
	Valid	20	100.0
Cases	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.769	5

Scale: Academic Sabotage

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
	Valid	20	100.0
Cases	Excluded ^a	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.925	12

```

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Institution Gender Age MaritalStatus
EducationalQualification WorkExperience
  JobStatus EWB8 EWB9 EWB10 EWB11 EWB12 EWB13 EWB14 EWB15 EWB16 EWB17
EWB18 EWB19 EWB20 EWB21 VA22
  VA23 VA24 VA25 VA26 VA27 VA28 VA29 VA30 VA31 VA32 VA33 VA34 AWB35 AWB36
AWB37 AWB38 AWB39 AWB40
  AWB41 AWB42 AWB43 AWB44 WE45 WE46 WE47 WE48 WE49 AS50 AS51 AS52 AS53
AS54 AS55 AS56 AS57 AS58 AS59
  AS60 AS61
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  /ORDER=ANALYSIS.

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Frequencies

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	Cases Used	Statistics are based on all cases with valid data.

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	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.08

Statistics

	Institution	Gender	Age	MaritalStatus	EducationalQuali fication	Work Experience
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		1.59				3.09
Std. Deviation		.762				1.140

Statistics

	Job Status	EWB8	EWB9	EWB10	EWB11	EWB12	EWB13
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		2.97	3.88	3.80	3.66	3.86	4.04
Std. Deviation		.977	.915	1.038	1.152	1.066	1.124

Statistics

		EWB14	EWB15	EWB16	EWB17	EWB18	EWB19	EWB20
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.96	3.97	4.05	3.77	3.83	3.72	3.93
Std. Deviation		.988	.985	.993	1.076	.993	1.052	.918

Statistics

		EWB21	VA22	VA23	VA24	VA25	VA26	VA27
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.59	3.92	3.45	4.07	4.05	3.91	3.84
Std. Deviation		1.135	.975	1.212	.935	.933	.976	1.058

Statistics

		VA28	VA29	VA30	VA31	VA32	VA33	VA34
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.70	4.07	4.05	3.91	3.83	3.75	3.74
Std. Deviation		1.059	.935	.931	.969	1.065	1.010	1.057

Statistics

		AWB35	AWB36	AWB37	AWB38	AWB39	AWB40	AWB41
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.77	4.04	3.96	3.88	4.05	3.87	3.77
Std. Deviation		1.112	.983	.986	.931	.977	1.057	1.072

Statistics

		AWB42	AWB43	AWB44	WE45	WE46	WE47	WE48
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.80	3.89	3.80	3.65	3.86	3.77	4.04
Std. Deviation		1.001	.917	1.037	1.158	1.066	1.131	.987

Statistics

		WE49	AS50	AS51	AS52	AS53	AS54	AS55
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.96	3.97	4.04	3.78	3.82	3.69	3.93
Std. Deviation		1.003	.984	.998	1.074	1.006	1.054	.921

Statistics

		AS56	AS57	AS58	AS59	AS60	AS61
N	Valid	355	355	355	355	355	355
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.61	3.93	3.46	4.07	4.06	3.91
Std. Deviation		1.130	.976	1.205	.942	.935	.972

Frequency Table

		Institution			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	University of Benin	205	57.7	57.7	57.7
	Ambrose Alli University	90	25.4	25.4	83.1
	Benson Idahosa University	60	16.9	16.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

		Gender			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	157	44.2	44.2	44.2
	Male	198	55.8	55.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

		Age			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	24yrs and below	38	10.7	10.7	10.7
	25yrs-35yrs	64	18.0	18.0	28.7
	36yrs-46yrs	125	35.2	35.2	63.9
	47yrs and above	128	36.1	36.1	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

MaritalStatus

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Divorce	3	.8	.8	.8
	Married	163	45.9	45.9	46.8
	Single	189	53.2	53.2	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EducationalQualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	HND/B.Sc	66	18.6	18.6	18.6
	MBA/M.Sc	139	39.2	39.2	57.7
	Ph.D	150	42.3	42.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

Work Experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 year and below	26	7.3	7.3	7.3
	1-5 years	95	26.8	26.8	34.1
	6-10 years	96	27.0	27.0	61.1
	11-15 years	96	27.0	27.0	88.2
	16 years and above	42	11.8	11.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

Job Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Graduate Assistant	26	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Assistant Lecturer	96	27.0	27.0	34.4
	Lecturer II	95	26.8	26.8	61.1
	Lecturer I	138	38.9	38.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	25	7.0	7.0	8.5
	Some of the time	66	18.6	18.6	27.0
	Often	169	47.6	47.6	74.6
	All of the time	90	25.4	25.4	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Rarely	43	12.1	12.1	14.1
	Some of the time	63	17.7	17.7	31.8
	Often	144	40.6	40.6	72.4
	All of the time	98	27.6	27.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	29	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Rarely	28	7.9	7.9	16.1
	Some of the time	58	16.3	16.3	32.4
	Often	160	45.1	45.1	77.5
	All of the time	80	22.5	22.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	11	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Rarely	32	9.0	9.0	12.1
	Some of the time	67	18.9	18.9	31.0
	Often	130	36.6	36.6	67.6
	All of the time	115	32.4	32.4	100.0

Total	355	100.0	100.0
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EWB12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	21	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Rarely	35	9.9	9.9	15.8
	Some of the time	43	12.1	12.1	27.9
	Often	162	45.6	45.6	73.5
	All of the time	94	26.5	26.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	16	4.5	4.5	7.3
	Some of the time	53	14.9	14.9	22.3
	Often	147	41.4	41.4	63.7
	All of the time	129	36.3	36.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	12	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Rarely	18	5.1	5.1	8.5
	Some of the time	54	15.2	15.2	23.7
	Often	159	44.8	44.8	68.5
	All of the time	112	31.5	31.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	8	2.3	2.3	2.3

Rarely	20	5.6	5.6	7.9
Some of the time	70	19.7	19.7	27.6
Often	135	38.0	38.0	65.6
All of the time	122	34.4	34.4	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	19	5.4	5.4	8.2
	Some of the time	50	14.1	14.1	22.3
	Often	142	40.0	40.0	62.3
	All of the time	134	37.7	37.7	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB17

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	15	4.2	4.2	4.2
	Rarely	30	8.5	8.5	12.7
	Some of the time	74	20.8	20.8	33.5
	Often	137	38.6	38.6	72.1
	All of the time	99	27.9	27.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB18

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Rarely	31	8.7	8.7	10.7
	Some of the time	76	21.4	21.4	32.1
	Often	144	40.6	40.6	72.7
	All of the time	97	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB19

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	9	2.5	2.5	2.5
	Rarely	43	12.1	12.1	14.6
	Some of the time	77	21.7	21.7	36.3
	Often	136	38.3	38.3	74.6
	All of the time	90	25.4	25.4	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB20

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Rarely	22	6.2	6.2	8.2
	Some of the time	54	15.2	15.2	23.4
	Often	177	49.9	49.9	73.2
	All of the time	95	26.8	26.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

EWB21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None of the Time	23	6.5	6.5	6.5
	Rarely	42	11.8	11.8	18.3
	Some of the time	67	18.9	18.9	37.2
	Often	149	42.0	42.0	79.2
	All of the time	74	20.8	20.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA22

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	21	5.9	5.9	8.7
	Sometimes	61	17.2	17.2	25.9

Often	159	44.8	44.8	70.7
Very Often	104	29.3	29.3	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA23

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	33	9.3	9.3	9.3
	Rarely	44	12.4	12.4	21.7
	Sometimes	80	22.5	22.5	44.2
	Often	125	35.2	35.2	79.4
	Very Often	73	20.6	20.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA24

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	13	3.7	3.7	5.9
	Sometimes	56	15.8	15.8	21.7
	Often	147	41.4	41.4	63.1
	Very Often	131	36.9	36.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA25

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	18	5.1	5.1	6.5
	Sometimes	62	17.5	17.5	23.9
	Often	140	39.4	39.4	63.4
	Very Often	130	36.6	36.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA26

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Rarely	31	8.7	8.7	10.4
	Sometimes	57	16.1	16.1	26.5
	Often	156	43.9	43.9	70.4
	Very Often	105	29.6	29.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA27

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	41	11.5	11.5	13.8
	Sometimes	61	17.2	17.2	31.0
	Often	136	38.3	38.3	69.3
	Very Often	109	30.7	30.7	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA28

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	43	12.1	12.1	14.9
	Sometimes	79	22.3	22.3	37.2
	Often	135	38.0	38.0	75.2
	Very Often	88	24.8	24.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA29

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	13	3.7	3.7	5.9
	Sometimes	56	15.8	15.8	21.7
	Often	147	41.4	41.4	63.1
	Very Often	131	36.9	36.9	100.0

Total	355	100.0	100.0
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VA30

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	18	5.1	5.1	6.5
	Sometimes	61	17.2	17.2	23.7
	Often	141	39.7	39.7	63.4
	Very Often	130	36.6	36.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA31

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Rarely	30	8.5	8.5	10.1
	Sometimes	57	16.1	16.1	26.2
	Often	158	44.5	44.5	70.7
	Very Often	104	29.3	29.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA32

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	43	12.1	12.1	14.4
	Sometimes	59	16.6	16.6	31.0
	Often	136	38.3	38.3	69.3
	Very Often	109	30.7	30.7	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA33

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	1.7	1.7	1.7

Rarely	41	11.5	11.5	13.2
Sometimes	78	22.0	22.0	35.2
Often	142	40.0	40.0	75.2
Very Often	88	24.8	24.8	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

VA34

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	11	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Rarely	39	11.0	11.0	14.1
	Sometimes	72	20.3	20.3	34.4
	Often	141	39.7	39.7	74.1
	Very Often	92	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB35

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	19	5.4	5.4	5.4
	Rarely	32	9.0	9.0	14.4
	Sometimes	60	16.9	16.9	31.3
	Often	146	41.1	41.1	72.4
	Very Often	98	27.6	27.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB36

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	11	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Rarely	16	4.5	4.5	7.6
	Sometimes	50	14.1	14.1	21.7
	Often	148	41.7	41.7	63.4
	Very Often	130	36.6	36.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB37

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	12	3.4	3.4	3.4
	Rarely	18	5.1	5.1	8.5
	Sometimes	54	15.2	15.2	23.7
	Often	160	45.1	45.1	68.7
	Very Often	111	31.3	31.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB38

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	28	7.9	7.9	9.3
	Sometimes	63	17.7	17.7	27.0
	Often	167	47.0	47.0	74.1
	Very Often	92	25.9	25.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB39

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	11	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Rarely	14	3.9	3.9	7.0
	Sometimes	53	14.9	14.9	22.0
	Often	146	41.1	41.1	63.1
	Very Often	131	36.9	36.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB40

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	32	9.0	9.0	11.8
	Sometimes	67	18.9	18.9	30.7

Often	130	36.6	36.6	67.3
Very Often	116	32.7	32.7	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB41

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	15	4.2	4.2	4.2
	Rarely	30	8.5	8.5	12.7
	Sometimes	74	20.8	20.8	33.5
	Often	139	39.2	39.2	72.7
	Very Often	97	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB42

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	31	8.7	8.7	11.0
	Sometimes	79	22.3	22.3	33.2
	Often	143	40.3	40.3	73.5
	Very Often	94	26.5	26.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB43

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	25	7.0	7.0	8.5
	Sometimes	66	18.6	18.6	27.0
	Often	168	47.3	47.3	74.4
	Very Often	91	25.6	25.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AWB44

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Rarely	42	11.8	11.8	13.8
	Sometimes	65	18.3	18.3	32.1
	Often	142	40.0	40.0	72.1
	Very Often	99	27.9	27.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

WE45

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	29	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Rarely	30	8.5	8.5	16.6
	Sometimes	56	15.8	15.8	32.4
	Often	160	45.1	45.1	77.5
	Very Often	80	22.5	22.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

WE46

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	11	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Rarely	33	9.3	9.3	12.4
	Sometimes	64	18.0	18.0	30.4
	Often	133	37.5	37.5	67.9
	Very Often	114	32.1	32.1	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

WE47

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	21	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Rarely	37	10.4	10.4	16.3
	Sometimes	40	11.3	11.3	27.6
	Often	162	45.6	45.6	73.2
	Very Often	95	26.8	26.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

Total	355	100.0	100.0
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WE48

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	19	5.4	5.4	8.2
	Sometimes	49	13.8	13.8	22.0
	Often	147	41.4	41.4	63.4
	Very Often	130	36.6	36.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

WE49

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	13	3.7	3.7	3.7
	Rarely	19	5.4	5.4	9.0
	Sometimes	51	14.4	14.4	23.4
	Often	159	44.8	44.8	68.2
	Very Often	113	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS50

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	20	5.6	5.6	7.9
	Sometimes	68	19.2	19.2	27.0
	Often	136	38.3	38.3	65.4
	Very Often	123	34.6	34.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS51

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8

Rarely	20	5.6	5.6	8.5
Sometimes	49	13.8	13.8	22.3
Often	142	40.0	40.0	62.3
Very Often	134	37.7	37.7	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS52

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	15	4.2	4.2	4.2
	Rarely	30	8.5	8.5	12.7
	Sometimes	71	20.0	20.0	32.7
	Often	140	39.4	39.4	72.1
	Very Often	99	27.9	27.9	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS53

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	32	9.0	9.0	11.3
	Sometimes	73	20.6	20.6	31.8
	Often	145	40.8	40.8	72.7
	Very Often	97	27.3	27.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS54

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	43	12.1	12.1	14.9
	Sometimes	79	22.3	22.3	37.2
	Often	137	38.6	38.6	75.8
	Very Often	86	24.2	24.2	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS55

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	7	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Rarely	23	6.5	6.5	8.5
	Sometimes	53	14.9	14.9	23.4
	Often	178	50.1	50.1	73.5
	Very Often	94	26.5	26.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS56

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	22	6.2	6.2	6.2
	Rarely	41	11.5	11.5	17.7
	Sometimes	67	18.9	18.9	36.6
	Often	148	41.7	41.7	78.3
	Very Often	77	21.7	21.7	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS57

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	10	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Rarely	22	6.2	6.2	9.0
	Sometimes	56	15.8	15.8	24.8
	Often	162	45.6	45.6	70.4
	Very Often	105	29.6	29.6	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS58

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	32	9.0	9.0	9.0
	Rarely	44	12.4	12.4	21.4
	Sometimes	80	22.5	22.5	43.9

Often	126	35.5	35.5	79.4
Very Often	73	20.6	20.6	100.0
Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS59

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	8	2.3	2.3	2.3
	Rarely	14	3.9	3.9	6.2
	Sometimes	55	15.5	15.5	21.7
	Often	145	40.8	40.8	62.5
	Very Often	133	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS60

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	5	1.4	1.4	1.4
	Rarely	18	5.1	5.1	6.5
	Sometimes	61	17.2	17.2	23.7
	Often	138	38.9	38.9	62.5
	Very Often	133	37.5	37.5	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

AS61

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	6	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Rarely	31	8.7	8.7	10.4
	Sometimes	55	15.5	15.5	25.9
	Often	159	44.8	44.8	70.7
	Very Often	104	29.3	29.3	100.0
	Total	355	100.0	100.0	

CORRELATIONS
/VARIABLES=EmployeeWellBeing VerbalAbuse AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour
WorkplaceExclusion
AcademicSabotage

```

/PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG
/MISSING=PAIRWISE.

```

Correlations

		Notes
Output Created		08-OCT-2025 09:30:36
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\JP P S\Desktop\Joseph Permanent 2025\Moses EKHATOR\Moses New Data.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	355
	Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing
	Cases Used	Statistics for each pair of variables are based on all the cases with valid data for that pair.
Syntax		CORRELATIONS /VARIABLES=EmployeeWellBeing VerbalAbuse AggressiveWorkplaceBehavior WorkplaceExclusion AcademicSabotage /PRINT=TWOTAIL NOSIG /MISSING=PAIRWISE.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.02
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.02

Correlations

		EmployeeWellBeing	VerbalAbuse	AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour
EmployeeWellBeing	Pearson Correlation	1	.876**	.951**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	355	355	355
VerbalAbuse	Pearson Correlation	.876**	1	.817**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	355	355	355
AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour	Pearson Correlation	.951**	.817**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	355	355	355
WorkplaceExclusion	Pearson Correlation	.901**	.739**	.889**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	355	355	355
AcademicSabotage	Pearson Correlation	.938**	.935**	.868**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	355	355	355

Correlations

		WorkplaceExclusion	AcademicSabotage
EmployeeWellBeing	Pearson Correlation	.901**	.938**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	355	355
VerbalAbuse	Pearson Correlation	.739**	.935**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	355	355
AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour	Pearson Correlation	.889**	.868**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	355	355
WorkplaceExclusion	Pearson Correlation	1	.771**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	355	355
AcademicSabotage	Pearson Correlation	.771**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	355	355

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

REGRESSION
/MISSING LISTWISE

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/STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) BCOV R ANOVA CHANGE
/CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
/NOORIGIN
/DEPENDENT EmployeeWellBeing
/METHOD=ENTER VerbalAbuse AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour WorkplaceExclusion
AcademicSabotage
/SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
/RESIDUALS DURBIN.

```

Regression

Notes		
Output Created		08-OCT-2025 09:30:49
Comments		
Input	Data	C:\Users\JP P S\Desktop\Joseph Permanent 2025\Moses EKHATOR\Moses New Data.sav
	Active Dataset	DataSet1
	Filter	<none>
	Weight	<none>
	Split File	<none>
	N of Rows in Working Data File	355
Missing Value Handling	Definition of Missing	User-defined missing values are treated as missing.
	Cases Used	Statistics are based on cases with no missing values for any variable used.

Syntax		REGRESSION /MISSING LISTWISE /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) BCOV R ANOVA CHANGE /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10) /NOORIGIN /DEPENDENT EmployeeWellBeing /METHOD=ENTER VerbalAbuse AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour WorkplaceExclusion AcademicSabotage /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED) /RESIDUALS DURBIN.
Resources	Processor Time	00:00:00.52
	Elapsed Time	00:00:00.34
	Memory Required	6672 bytes
	Additional Memory Required for Residual Plots	0 bytes

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	AcademicSabotage, WorkplaceExclusion, AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour, VerbalAbuse ^b		. Enter

a. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the	Change Statistics
-------	---	----------	------------	-------------------	-------------------

		Square	Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	
1	.985 ^a	.971	.971	1.69180	.971	2926.101	4

Model Summary^b

Model	Change Statistics		
	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	350	.000	1.747

- a. Predictors: (Constant), AcademicSabotage, WorkplaceExclusion, AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour, VerbalAbuse
b. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	33500.058	4	8375.015	2926.101	.000 ^b
	Residual	1001.761	350	2.862		
	Total	34501.820	354			

- a. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing
b. Predictors: (Constant), AcademicSabotage, WorkplaceExclusion, AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour, VerbalAbuse

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.428	.521		.822	.411
	VerbalAbuse	-.060	.027	-.058	-2.233	.026
	AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour	-.441	.035	-.319	12.511	.000
	WorkplaceExclusion	-.624	.046	-.268	13.458	.000
	AcademicSabotage	-.589	.035	-.508	16.971	.000

Coefficients^a

Model		95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)		
	VerbalAbuse		
	AggressiveWorkplaceBehaviour		
	WorkplaceExclusion		

AcademicSabotage	-520	-657
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a. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		AcademicSabota ge	WorkplaceExclus ion	AggresiveWorkpl aceBehaviour
1	Correlations	AcademicSabotage	1.000	.069
		WorkplaceExclusion	.069	1.000
		AggresiveWorkplaceBehaviou r	-.413	-.695
		VerbalAbuse	-.790	-.085
Covariances	AcademicSabotage	.001	.000	-.001
	WorkplaceExclusion	.000	.002	-.001
	AggresiveWorkplaceBehaviou r	-.001	-.001	.001
	VerbalAbuse	-.001	.000	3.465E-5

Coefficient Correlations^a

Model		VerbalAbuse	
1	Correlations	AcademicSabotage	-.790
		WorkplaceExclusion	-.085
		AggresiveWorkplaceBehaviour	.036
		VerbalAbuse	1.000
Covariances	AcademicSabotage	-.001	
	WorkplaceExclusion	.000	
	AggresiveWorkplaceBehaviour	3.465E-5	
	VerbalAbuse	.001	

a. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	14.2453	69.6341	53.8225	9.72795	355
Residual	-5.48752	12.00340	.00000	1.68221	355
Std. Predicted Value	-4.068	1.625	.000	1.000	355
Std. Residual	-3.244	7.095	.000	.994	355

a. Dependent Variable: EmployeeWellBeing

Charts

