

# *Shame, Pride and Workplace Bullying*

ELIZA AHMED AND JOHN BRAITHWAITE

## I. SHAME, PRIDE AND JUSTICE

**E**MOTIONS ARE INHERENT to human behaviour and social conflict (Lazarus 1991). They are central to understanding how individuals think about and respond to certain situations (Frijda and Mesquita 1994). This is particularly true for self-conscious emotions (eg, shame, pride), which often have been considered disruptive to everyday interactions (Fischer and Tangney 1995; Keltner 1995).

The relevance of shame in explaining wrongdoing has long been supported by a body of psychological, sociological and criminological literature which suggests a link between shame, anger and antisocial behaviour (Ahmed et al 2001; Gilligan 1997; Lewis 1971; Scheff and Retzinger 1991; Tangney 1990). For example, Lewis (1971) has argued that unacknowledged shame provoked anger and angry reactions in her clients during psychotherapeutic sessions. Support for unacknowledged shame in triggering anger can also be found in studies using a variety of methodologies, such as videotaping of facial expressions (Retzinger 1991). While focusing on the non-adaptive aspects of shame, none of these researchers has denied adaptive aspects of shame. Indeed some have conceded the possibility that shame acknowledgement plays a central role in maintaining adaptive interpersonal relationships (see Retzinger 1996).

The emotion of shame/guilt following wrongdoing is an experience with which we are all familiar. According to shame management theory (Ahmed et al 2001), just as shame/guilt can be adaptive, it can also crush people and their relationships. When we acknowledge these feelings, take responsibility for the harm done, and take steps to make amends, it is adaptive. Shame management is not adaptive if we displace those feelings to escape from negative consequences of the wrongdoing. In the latter case, we blame others. This damages interpersonal relationships.

Shame management and bullying is a topic that has attracted research attention in recent years, with a number of studies replicating the result that shame acknowledgment is associated with lower levels of bullying, and that shame displacement into anger, blaming and other externalising reactions is associated with higher levels of bullying (Ahmed and Braithwaite 2005; Braithwaite et al 2003; Morrison 2006, 2007). Pride management, in contrast, has been ignored in terms of its effect on bullying. This is surprising, since many endorse Scheff and Retzinger's (1991: xix) frame that emotion and social relationships come in conjugate pairs, specifically: 'pride is the emotional conjugate of social solidarity, and shame is the emotional conjugate of alienation'. Bullying is the antithesis of social solidarity, so good pride management should be implicated in bullying prevention. Scheff and Retzinger (1991: 175) specifically critique Braithwaite (1989) for his failure to give equal weight to pride as to shame in the study of social control. Scheff and Retzinger supply the revisionist perspective that we bring to this research.

Webb (2003) shows that shame and pride share the feature that people tend to distinguish good and bad forms of shame and pride. Positive pride is seen as about self-esteem and self-respect in our own accomplishments. It encompasses accepting our limitations, knowing we never succeed by ourselves, and promotes collaborative relationships (Cherney, [www.team-buildinginc.com/article\\_ai.htm](http://www.team-buildinginc.com/article_ai.htm)). Negative pride is about hubris and arrogance, which seems to be the essence of narcissism. It is an excessive pride in oneself as a whole person, instead of pride in a specific competence or a specific performance. Webb (2003: 162) shares this intuition of his subjects, seeing 'authentic pride' as tinged with humility, thereby avoiding the trap of hubris.

While there is research finding an undifferentiated conception of pride to be inversely related to destructive aggression in children (Ornstein 1997), Tangney's (1990) work that distinguishes good and bad pride (beta and alpha pride, respectively) has found healthy pride to be negatively associated with behavioural problems (see Ahmed 2001), and pathological pride to have a positive association. Baumeister (2001) has warned about thinking highly of ourselves in ways that are devoid of modest and realistic self-opinion. He proposes that violent pride has negative ramifications in damaging the balance of power of interpersonal relationships.

This chapter distinguishes narcissistic pride from humble pride. Narcissistic pride, we hypothesise, means putting ourselves above others by status assertion. Humble pride is about self-respect for what we have done and who we are. But it is quiet self-esteem; it is not vaunting pride that projects our sense of superiority over others. It is about respecting oneself as we respect others. With humble pride, superiority above others is not projected to others, because this is not the way the person with humble pride feels. They feel intrinsic pride in what they have accomplished and who they are,

not extrinsic pride in being better than others around them. At its most pathological, narcissistic pride, in contrast, means being self-obsessed about one's superiority over others and indeed domination of weaker others. This evokes our hypothesis that narcissistic pride will explain bullying.

Bullying is often defined as an act of domination through an abuse of power (Einarssen and Skogstad 1996; WorkCover Corporation 2004). If narcissistic pride as a perception of self is about feeling dominant over others, then it should conduce to acts of domination. If humble pride, in contrast, involves feeling secure in the face of the strengths of others, then the person with humble pride has no need to affirm their self-esteem by acts of domination. If humble pride is quiet pride, it also does not provoke others to contest status with us. Vicious circles, where they bully us and we bully back, become less likely. The respect and humility that are definitional of humble pride are conducive to building relationships, while the disrespect and arrogance of narcissistic pride threaten social bonds.

## II. EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT MANAGEMENT OF SOCIAL PROBLEMS

In criminology, the debate around shame and shaming has moved beyond opposed views that shame is a good or a bad thing. There is now considerable agreement that there is good and bad shame; the empirical and normative debates are about what distinguish them. Unfortunately, the debate on pride is not so mature. Delinquency scholars today, just as they did half a century ago, routinely throw a measure of self-esteem into their survey instruments. Their presupposition is that self-esteem is a healthy thing, that therefore must explain delinquency. The argument we develop implies that self-esteem is not necessarily healthy, and this explains why it has not proved a robust predictor of delinquency. When it does predict, higher self-esteem is sometimes associated with higher delinquency (Baumeister, Boden and Smart 1996). Measures of predominantly narcissistic self-esteem predict the latter result; measures dominated by items capturing humble self-esteem should reduce delinquency.

School pride is often presented to our children as unequivocally good. Little thought is given to how the hard core variants of this pride marginalise children who are branded failures according to the value system of the school. Albert Cohen (1955) taught criminology that delinquent subcultures in schools solve the status problem such children suffer. They solve it collectively, by taking pride in values that are the exact opposite of those of the dominant school culture: open expression of aggression instead of impulse control, contempt for property instead of respect for it, and so on. They become successes according to the values of the delinquent subculture, precisely because they are failures in the culture of the school.

National pride is also often viewed as an unmitigated virtue. But if we take vaunting pride in America as a nation with Christian traditions, this may marginalise Muslims. Vaunting pride in Nazi Germany as an Aryan nation marginalised Jews and Roma. So we see the biggest crimes of the past century—genocides, mass terrorism and counter-terrorist crimes against humanity such as Abu Ghraib and Guantanamo Bay—as explicable in terms of our theoretical framework. Narcissistic national pride conduces to humiliation of other peoples. This engenders defiance (Sherman 1993), which can be violent. It need not be, however: Valerie Braithwaite's current work distinguishes the 'dismissive defiance' of the drop-out from the 'resistant defiance' of the angry young man (Braithwaite 2009). Narcissistic white pride, according to the theory, risks both black despair/drop-out and black violence.

But before we become too vaunting about the macro explanatory potential of our theory of shame and pride management, we must do more humble micro work in a context where it is possible to refute or develop the theory on a large sample.

### III. THE BULLYING PROBLEM

In recent years, increased incidents of workplace bullying (Hoel 2004) have attracted the attention of not only the media and the general public, but also organisations and researchers interested in investigation of the phenomenon. Despite its importance, scholarly work on bullying in the workplace is only beginning to accumulate, and theoretical propositions and empirical tests of these propositions are only beginning to emerge (Rayner 2004).

Bullying is a serious and continuing problem in many workplaces (see Di Martino, Hoel, and Cooper 2003; Einarsen et al 2003). Its negative effects on employees' well-being are widely documented. These include the risk of a variety of adjustment difficulties, including anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, post-traumatic stress and suicide (Mikkelsen and Einarsen, 2002; Nielsen, Matthiesen, and Einarsen 2004; Quine 1999). Organisational costs are also significant. Sickiness, absence from work, high turnover, complaints resulting in lawsuits, and impaired job performance or job satisfaction have been reported in the literature (Glendinning 2001; Kinimäki, Elorainio, and Vahtera 2000; Voss, Floderus, and Diderichsen 2001).

Workplace bullying is a heterogeneous phenomenon, with different styles, intensities, contexts, motivations, and statuses of both the perpetrator and the victim. It ranges from a threat to one's professional status and social exclusion, to the threat of physical injury (Di Martini, Hoel and Cooper 2003; Einarsen et al 2003; for a review, see Rayner and Hoel 1997). Workplace bullying has been defined as negative behaviour arising

from the deliberate intent to cause psychological and/or physical distress to others in the workplace (Leymann 1990; Einarssen and Skogstad 1996). It is characterised as persistent, offensive, abusive, or intimidating behaviour which can make the victim feel threatened, humiliated and/or stressed, affecting his/her health, safety, and well-being at work (Di Martini, Hoel and Cooper 2003). The experience of bullying also undermines the victim's self-confidence and dignity (Di Martini, Hoel and Cooper 2003).

The above studies that have demonstrated the adverse consequences of bullying in the workplace certainly have inspired further explorations of the factors that contribute to its occurrence. This work has suggested that adults who bully their co-workers are more likely to have authoritarian parents (eg, Randall 1997), to feel anxiety, aggression, and depression (eg, Quine 1999; Randall 1997), and to perceive hypocrisy in their workplaces (Braithwaite, Ahmed and Braithwaite 2008). Given that bullying is an abuse of power within human relationships (see WorkCover Corporation 2004), and relationships are shaped through emotions (Lazarus 1991), it is surprising that little research has been devoted to the extent to which emotions regulate bullying in the workplace.

#### IV. THE WORKPLACE BULLYING STUDY

This study aims to investigate the extent to which management of shame and pride affects bullying in the workplace. Bullying is a relational issue. Emotions of shame and pride are chosen for study in this context particularly because these two social emotions arise from viewing one's self from the standpoint of another (Scheff 1990). Both these emotions involve an evaluation of self, and are reflected in a manner of interacting with others. Therefore, they can speak to a deep civility and accountability in relation to everyday interactions in the workplace or of incivility and unaccountability.

We argue that unless these two emotions are managed adaptively in interpersonal interaction, neither of them will realise their full potential in preventing injustice such as bullying at work. Shame is often regarded as clearly linked to social alienation, whereas pride is about social solidarity. Contrary to this, however, we posit that both shame and pride can bring social solidarity on the one hand, and social alienation on the other. Which form they take largely depends on how those emotions are managed. For example, shame can create social solidarity if it is acknowledged. Shame can also create social alienation if it is not acknowledged but rather is displaced. Similarly, pride can create social solidarity if it is felt humbly. Pride can also lead to social alienation if it involves an excessive self-admiration, that is arrogance.

From this point of view, bullying can be explained as a function of an individual's shame displacement and narcissistic pride. According to the

	<u>Shame</u>	<u>Pride</u>
<u>Constructive</u>	<b>A</b> Shame acknowledgment (Social solidarity)	<b>C</b> Humble pride (Social solidarity)
<u>Destructive</u>	<b>B</b> Shame displacement (Social alienation)	<b>D</b> Narcissistic pride (Social alienation)

Figure 3.1: A conceptual model of relationship management through shame and pride

model in Figure 3.1, we need Cell A (shame acknowledgment) and Cell C (humble pride) to promote constructive interpersonal relationships. Because shame acknowledgment and humble pride build social bonds through respect, dignity and social inclusion, they should be conducive to less bullying and more justice in the workplace. In contrast, the disrespect and arrogance of Cell B (shame displacement) and Cell D (narcissistic pride) are destructive and thereby damage the social bond. Hence, they should be conducive to acts of social domination, such as bullying.

Neither the idea of shame nor pride is new in the literature. Psychologists and criminologists have long argued over the implications of shame and pride on human behaviour. The most significant contribution this study brings to our knowledge is the empirical examination of the implications of both shame and pride management on bullying at work.

## A. Hypotheses

From the foregoing discussion, we derive six hypotheses in total.

*Hypothesis 1:* pride as a domain of emotion consists of two inversely related pride management factors—narcissistic versus humble pride.

Then we hypothesise that shame acknowledgment reduces bullying, but shame displacement increases it (*Hypothesis 2*) and narcissistic pride may be positively associated with bullying, while humble pride is negatively associated (*Hypothesis 3*).

*Hypothesis 2a:* shame acknowledgment is negatively related to workplace bullying;

*Hypothesis 2b:* shame displacement is positively related to workplace bullying.

*Hypothesis 3a:* narcissistic pride is positively related to workplace bullying;

*Hypothesis 3b:* humble pride is negatively related to workplace bullying.

Finally, we expect that such pride management effects are robust and have explanatory power over and above the established effects of shame management (*Hypothesis 4*). While correlations confirm our expectation that humble pride is associated with shame acknowledgment (because

acknowledging shame tends also to involve humility), and narcissistic pride is associated with shame displacement (because both involve an extrinsic preoccupation with putting others down to defend the self), we predict that pride management will have effects on bullying net of shame management effects.

*Hypothesis 4:* the pride management variables (narcissistic pride and humble pride) contribute to predicting workplace bullying, above and beyond the effect of shame management variables (shame acknowledgment and shame displacement).

## **B. Participants and procedure**

Some 1500 questionnaires were distributed in workplaces in the large metropolis of Dhaka, Bangladesh, in 2002. A total of 824 completed questionnaires were returned from employees of various organisations (24 per cent from the government sector,<sup>1</sup> 20 per cent the semi-government sector,<sup>2</sup> and 56 per cent the private sector,<sup>3</sup> which is broadly representative of the formal Dhaka economy). Thirty-five per cent of the respondents were coded as lower status (eg, garment employees, clerical employees), 33 per cent as middle status (eg, school teachers, public servants who do not hold supervisory roles, support staff), and 32 per cent as higher status (eg, employees who hold supervisory and professional positions). Sixty-three per cent of the respondents were male, reflecting the disproportionate representation of men in the formal organisational economy of Bangladesh. The average age was 34.4 years. Sixty-eight per cent of respondents had had a university education. Even allowing for the fact that non-university

<sup>1</sup> This comprises of the departments and agencies fully controlled by the Bangladesh Government. The primary function of the government sector is to provide public services for the collective consumption of the community. Examples of government-owned departments are National Board of Revenue, Bangladesh Bank, Bangladesh Post Office, and Power Development Board.

<sup>2</sup> Organisations in this sector are operated by a board of directors appointed by the Bangladesh Government, and receive an annual subvention from the Government. Employers in the semi-government sector are private legal entities. The budget available for part of this sector is decided at central policy level, and thereafter the employers are responsible for pay and working conditions, and for the level of services provided to the employees. Examples of semi-government organisations in Bangladesh are University of Dhaka, Bangladesh Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (BCSIR), and Rural Electrification Board.

<sup>3</sup> This sector is a self-sustaining and non-government entity which aims to improve the effectiveness of social policies, programmes and community initiatives. Employees working in this sector are not entitled to privileges accorded to government employees. Most private organisations by and large have some sort of rules, usually partially based on local labour laws. However, some private organisations have their own rules and regulations governing all the conditions of payment and work. Mostly these are foreign investment entities or joint ventures where the foreign partner usually adopts its home country standards to an extent. Examples of private organisations are Grameen Cybernet, Southeast Bank Ltd, Bangladesh Centre for Advanced Studies, and most garment industries.

educated people in Bangladesh are more likely to be found in the rural and informal urban economies than in the formal organisational sector in the metropolis, there is a substantial bias for the survey to be more likely to be completed by more educated people. The average organisational tenure of respondents was 5.5 years and their average monthly salary was 19,576 taka (US\$289.52), ranging from 400 taka (US\$5.84) to 280,000 taka (US\$4087.77). Such a wide range in income reflects the social and economic inequality existing in Bangladesh.

### C. Measures

#### *i. Dependent Variable—Workplace Bullying*

Workplace bullying was assessed using Quine's (1999) measure, which was originally derived from the literature (eg, Adams 1992; Bassman 1992). In the measure, there were 20 kinds of bullying acts, representing the five categories signified by Rayner and Hoel (1997). The categories are: threat to professional status (sample item: persistent attempts to belittle and undermine your work), threat to personal standing (sample item: making inappropriate jokes about you), isolation (sample item: withholding necessary information from you), overwork (sample item: undue pressure to produce work), and destabilisation (sample item: shifting of goal posts without consulting you). Participants used a five-point rating scale (1 = never, 2 = on occasion, 3 = sometimes, 4 = mostly, and 5 = almost always) to indicate the extent to which they had targeted co-workers with any of the 20 tactics listed (for details on items and construction of the workplace bullying scale, see Appendix below).

#### *ii. Predictor Variables—Shame Management and Pride Management*

Shame management was measured through the Management Of Shame State-Shame Acknowledgment and Shame Displacement (MOSS-SASD) instrument. Originally, this was developed in the context of school bullying. Since then, the instrument has proved to be psychometrically valid and reliable (for details on psychometric properties of the MOSS-SASD instrument, see Ahmed 2001), and has provided the foundation for further research on rule violation.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>4</sup> See Ahmed and Braithwaite (2004<sup>a</sup>) and Morrison (2006) for support for the relationships between shame management and school bullying; see Braithwaite et al (2003) and Ahmed (2005, 2006) for support for the relationships from a follow-up study; see Ahmed and J Braithwaite (2005) for a replication of the relationship in a different cultural context; see Ahmed and Braithwaite (2004<sup>b</sup>) for application of shame management in the context of tax compliance.

MOSS-SASD is a scenario-based self-report measure. In the current study, the items were contextualised by using one of the most common incidents (threat to professional status) that occurs in the workplace. Respondents were asked: ‘Suppose you just had voiced a “criticism of work and undervalued the efforts” of a co-worker in front of other staff, including subordinates of the co-worker. How likely is it that you would feel the following ...’.

Respondents were then presented with a list of 12 shame-related reactions. Participants used a five-point rating scale (1 = definitely not, 2 = unlikely, 3 = unsure, 4 = probably, 5 = definitely) to indicate the extent to which they felt they would have felt those shame reactions.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to test the factor structure underlying the concept of ‘shame’. Two conceptually meaningful factors were obtained: shame acknowledgment and shame displacement. The process of factor derivation including item details is given in the Appendix.

Following the CFA, six items were averaged to construct the shame acknowledgment scale (sample item: regretting what you have said). All these six items represented owning shame/guilt, whereby an individual acknowledges wrongdoing and seeks to put matters right. A high score on this scale indicates greater shame acknowledgment.

The second dimension of shame management is shame displacement, which comprises four items (sample item: angry with your co-workers). All these four items represented disowning shame/guilt by displacing it—blaming others. Displacement as disowning is not a new concept. Shame displacement has always been conceptualised as disowning shame by blaming others. We have made a very minor change to the wording here that we hope simplifies the communication. The four items were averaged to produce the shame displacement scale, where a high score indicates greater shame displacement.

Like shame management, pride management was assessed through a scenario-based self-report measure—the Management Of Pride State (MOPS; Cross National Restorative Justice Research Project, [www.crj.anu.edu.au/crossnational.html](http://www.crj.anu.edu.au/crossnational.html)). The MOPS was developed following a thorough review of the relevant literature (eg, Cherney, [www.teambuildinginc.com/article\\_ai.htm](http://www.teambuildinginc.com/article_ai.htm); Fischer, Manstead, and Mosquera 1999; Raskin and Terry 1988; Webb 2003). The 22 items that were generated were contextualised using one of the most common incidents that occurs in the workplace. Respondents were asked to imagine that they had been successful in achieving an important task: ‘Suppose that you were required (asked) to solve an old and difficult problem at your workplace. You solved it successfully. How likely is it that you would feel the following ...’.

Respondents were then presented with a list of 22 pride-related reactions. Participants used a five-point rating scale (1 = definitely not, 2 = unlikely,

3 = unsure, 4 = probably, 5 = definitely) to indicate the extent to which they would have felt those pride reactions.

A CFA was performed to test the conceptualisation of ‘pride’ which suggested two conceptually meaningful factors: narcissistic pride and humble pride. The factor derivation procedure including item details is given in the Appendix.

Suffice it for now to say that nine items (sample item: ‘feel superior over your co-workers’) were averaged to construct the narcissistic pride scale which represented hubris that is not tinged with humility. To construct the humble pride scale, seven items (sample item: ‘respect the contribution of others to solving the problem’) were averaged that represented one’s feelings of pride about the achievement without having an inflated sense of the superiority of one’s global self over co-workers.

### *iii. Control Variables*

In previous studies on workplace bullying (for a review, see Rayner and Hoel 1997), gender, age, type of organisation, job status and income were all found to be somewhat important in explaining bullying. They are, therefore, included as control variables for the models to predict bullying in organisations.

The type of organisation was measured by asking: ‘What best describes the job you do?’ There were three response categories: government sector, semi-government sector, and private sector. Respondents’ job status was measured by asking ‘What kind of work do you do?’ There were three response categories: lower-, middle- and higher-ranking positions. Finally, personal income was measured in taka per month.

## **D. Results—Outline**

The results are reported in three parts. First, we evaluate the hypothesised factor structure of pride management items in the MOPS by using a CFA. Then we test for the correlations between predictor variables and the dependent variable. Finally, we test the multivariate effects of pride management and shame management on workplace bullying through a hierarchical regression analysis.

### *i. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)*

In order to test the hypothesised two-factor model, we undertook the following two-step procedure (Byrne 2001): (a) separate one-factor congeneric modelling to develop a measurement model with an acceptable fit to the data before putting each factor into the structural equation model; and (b) CFA to test the structural model once an acceptable measurement model was developed.

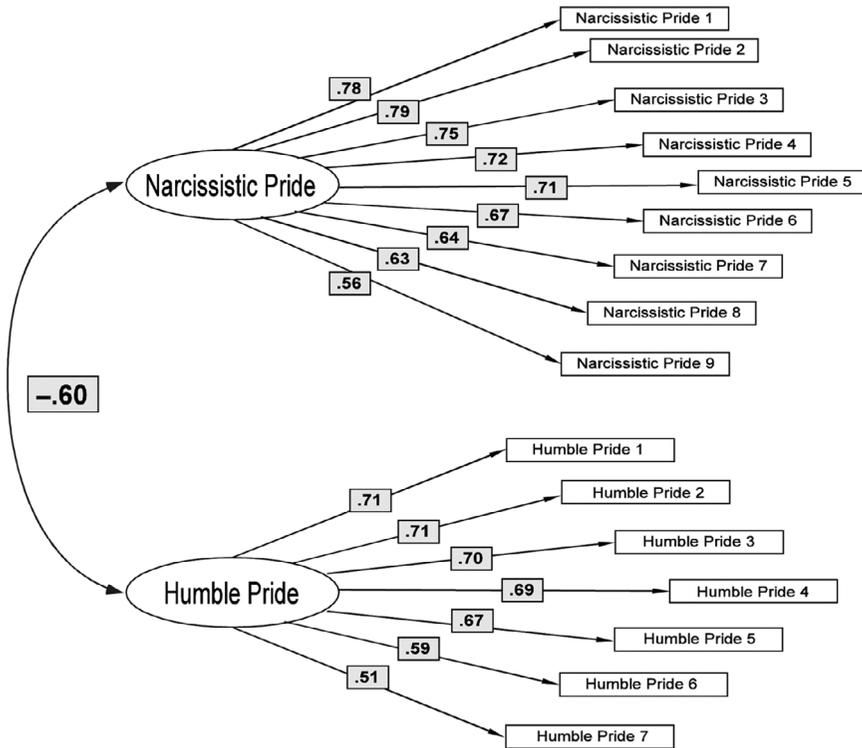


Figure 3.2: Final two-factor Pride management model. The circles designate latent constructs whereas the rectangles are the measured variables. Factor loadings are standardised (all  $p < .001$ ). Titles of the measured variables should be read in conjunction with MOPS items in the Appendix. [ $\chi^2 = 192.40$  (df = 55), CFI = .98, IFI = .98, TLI = .96, GFI = .97 and RMSEA = .05]

The AMOS 4.0 program (Arbuckle and Wothke 1999) was used to perform these analyses. Model testing was done using the covariance matrices and a maximum likelihood estimation procedure. These are detailed in the Appendix.

Figure 3.2 displays the factor loadings of the final two-factor model. It also presents fit statistics of the model. As can be seen, all fit indices supported the hypothesised two-factor model (Hypothesis 1) as best accounting for the conceptualisation of pride management. The factors represented in the final model are narcissistic pride and humble pride.

*ii. Correlational Analyses*

Table 3.1 indicates that both shame management variables, shame acknowledgment and shame displacement, were significantly correlated

**Table 3.1: Correlation coefficients (between bullying and predictor variables), and standardised beta coefficients from a hierarchical regression analysis in predicting workplace bullying (N = 728)**

Variables	Correlations	Control Model	Shame Model	Shame and Pride Model
Gender	-.21 <sup>b</sup>	-.20 <sup>b</sup>	-.09 <sup>c</sup>	-.08 <sup>c</sup>
Age	.11 <sup>b</sup>	-.01	-.02	-.04
Type of organisation <sup>a</sup>				
Type of organisation (government)		-.25 <sup>b</sup>	-.11 <sup>c</sup>	-.12 <sup>b</sup>
Type of organisation (semi-government)		-.11 <sup>d</sup>	-.04	-.04
Job status <sup>a</sup>				
Job status (low)		-.12 <sup>d</sup>	-.10 <sup>d</sup>	-.08
Job status (middle)		-.11 <sup>d</sup>	-.03	-.03
Personal income	.21 <sup>b</sup>	.14 <sup>c</sup>	.04	.06
Shame acknowledgment	-.22 <sup>b</sup>	–	-.18 <sup>b</sup>	-.15 <sup>b</sup>
Shame displacement	.66 <sup>b</sup>	–	.61 <sup>b</sup>	.44 <sup>b</sup>
Narcissistic pride	.63 <sup>b</sup>	–	–	.17 <sup>b</sup>
Humble pride	-.50 <sup>b</sup>	–	–	-.08 <sup>d</sup>
Adj R square	na	.13	.45	.47

## Notes

<sup>a</sup>These are indicator variables, and hence, an analysis of variance was performed to see their association with workplace bullying. The F value for ‘Type of organisation’ was 13.31 ( $p < .001$ ) and for ‘Job status’ was 15.21 ( $p < .001$ ) suggesting statistically significant associations.

<sup>b</sup> $p < .001$

<sup>c</sup> $p < .01$

<sup>d</sup> $p < .05$

with workplace bullying. Respondents who reported bullying co-workers were less likely to acknowledge their shame ( $r = -.22, p < .001$ ) by admitting shame/guilt and making amends, and were more likely to displace shame ( $r = .66, p < .001$ ) by blaming others and expressing anger at others. These findings support Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Also as expected (Hypothesis 3a), narcissistic pride was positively related to bullying ( $r = .63, p < .001$ ). Pride that was vaunting, associated with a feeling of dominance over co-workers, was correlated with higher bullying in the workplace.

As for humble pride, the obtained relationship with bullying was also as predicted in Hypothesis 3b. Humble pride was strongly and negatively

related to bullying ( $r = -.50, p < .001$ ). Employees who took a pride in their achievements that was tinged with humility and a sense of respect for the capabilities of others were less likely to engage in bullying.

2. Prior to conducting the hierarchical regression analysis, initial analyses explored multicollinearity issues. Although the intercorrelations between shame displacement and narcissistic pride were strong ( $r = .79, p < .001$ ), multicollinearity did not appear to be of major concern. The condition index and tolerance values were all within the acceptable range. Most importantly, our major interest in this article is on the independent effects of pride management variables—narcissistic pride and humble pride. Eliminating variables or creating a single construct to reduce multicollinearity is thus not reasonable options for substantive reasons.

### *iii. Ordinary Least Square Regression Analysis*

An OLS regression analysis was performed to test for the contribution of pride management variables (narcissistic pride and humble pride) above and beyond the effects of shame management variables (shame acknowledgment and shame displacement) as specified in Hypothesis 4 (see Table 3.1).

The variables were entered in three steps. First, five control variables were included in the equation (Control Model). These were respondents' gender, age, type of organisation, job status, and income. Both type of organisation and job status were entered as indicator variables. For type of organisation, government and semi-government types were entered simultaneously leaving out the private type of organisation for comparison. Similarly, for job status, lower and middle status were entered as indicator variables simultaneously leaving out the upper status for comparison.

As can be seen from the 'Control Model', bullying was more prevalent among males. It was also common among private sector employees. Workers with higher job status and higher income also reported participating in higher rates of bullying of their co-workers. Altogether, this set of variables accounted for 13 per cent of the variance in the bullying measure.

In the next step, the shame management variables were entered (see Shame Model). Both shame acknowledgment and shame displacement emerged as significant predictors of bullying ( $\beta = -.18, p < .001$ ;  $\beta = .61, p < .001$ , respectively), explaining an additional 32 per cent of the variance in the outcome.

On the third step, the pride management variables were added (see Shame and Pride Model). Narcissistic pride ( $\beta = .17, p < .001$ ) significantly increased bullying and humble pride ( $\beta = -.08, p < .05$ ) reduced it. Together, the pride management variables accounted for an additional 2 per cent of the variance in workplace bullying.

These results, therefore, show moderate support for Hypothesis 4—pride management variables have a contribution to make above and beyond

shame management variables—though the additional contribution is modest. It is of note that adding the pride management variables did not cause a marked change in the contribution of the shame management variables. The final model accounted for a total of 47 per cent of the variance in bullying in the workplace.

## V. DISCUSSION

To remedy the neglect of the role of the emotions in explaining workplace bullying, this research adopted an earlier model of shame management, and offered a new conceptual model of pride management. A measurement scale, MOPS, was developed from a thorough literature review to assess how people manage their feelings of pride in the workplace. Then, a CFA was conducted to validate the construct of pride management.

Findings from the CFA have provided strong evidence that MOPS is a psychometrically valid and reliable instrument. Findings have confirmed the two-factor structure (narcissistic pride and humble pride) of the pride management construct. The absence of cross-loadings of items and the existence of significant negative inter-factor correlation indicate that pride management as measured by MOPS reflects two distinguishable domains as consistent with our conceptualisation.

The regression analysis reveals that both shame and pride management variables make significant independent contributions to the explanation of workplace bullying. The integrated shame management/pride management model has formidable explanatory power. While effects of both pride management variables are clearly significant, they do not add hugely to the explanatory power of the shame management model. Obversely, if we put the pride management variables into the regression equation first, the shame management variables add an extra 4 per cent to the variance in workplace bullying already explained by the controls and the pride management variables.

The question that then arises is whether shame management or pride management offers the better emotional intelligence account of bullying prevention. Given the high intercorrelations among the shame and pride management variables, an appealing choice is not to choose between shame management and pride management as a preferred theoretical framework. Some similar skills seem to be involved in both constructive shame management (shame acknowledgment) and healthy pride management (humble pride). They are skills of humility and respect of self and others.<sup>5</sup> Such skills

<sup>5</sup> There is evidence that respectful treatment in organisations nurtures pride in membership of those organisations (Tyler, DeGoey and Smith 1996), and that disrespectful treatment such as stigmatisation is associated with shame displacement and respectful treatment with shame acknowledgment (Shin 2006).

sustain a healthy, socially interdependent self. This returns us to Scheff and Retzinger's (1991) theoretical framework that shame is the central emotion when social bonds are threatened, pride the central emotion when bonds of solidarity are strengthened.

Shame management and pride management are both about healthy management of our social bonds. Emotionally intelligent people manage shame reintegratively so that connections with others are not permanently severed; they manage pride in being a certain kind of person in a way that protects others from feeling exclusion because they are not that kind of person. They do not externalise shame in a way that creates exclusion, nor do they vaunt inclusionary pride in a way that creates feelings of exclusion among others. Communication with others about the experience of shame and pride is certainly necessary, desirable and hard to avoid. But both can be communicated quietly, without bombast, respectfully, empathically. Humility in the way we experience and communicate shame and pride averts the feeling in others that we are stripping them of honour, humiliating them. Our humility averts their humiliation. This is what we mean by suggesting that humility and respect hold the key to emotionally intelligent management of both shame and pride.

While acknowledging shame/guilt can mitigate the threatened bond and restore social solidarity, displacing shame can escalate a vengeful sense of bitterness in relationships, and create alienation. Similarly, pride can create alienation, if communication is conducted with narcissistic arrogance and disrespect. It can, however, strengthen interpersonal relationships if communication consolidates quiet honour among those sharing in the pride without loudly dishonouring those who do not.

When we learn how to manage shame well, we learn something about how to manage pride well, and vice versa. Nevertheless, healthy pride management has positive effects on our relationships with others over and above the positive effects of healthy shame management, and constructive shame management has good effects on our relationships with others over and above the effects of pride management. The bullying results reported here are consistent with the interpretation that shame and pride management are an emotional intelligence package that together is somewhat more than the sum of its parts. The most important implication about the model and findings concerns a different understanding of workplace bullying that portrays bullying as an outcome of non-adaptive management of shame (low shame acknowledgment but high shame displacement) and pride (low humble pride but high narcissistic pride). By teaching our children and employees, or perhaps more importantly by displaying in our own interactions with them, the values of humility and respect for self and others, we may be simultaneously teaching them the underlying principles of both healthy pride management and healthy shame management. Teaching emotional intelligence is therefore suggested as a promising approach to workplace bullying (see Sheehan 1999).

A more sophisticated design than we have here would be required to test this dynamic account of the relationship between the display of emotional intelligence and bullying prevention. Further progress on the questions raised will require panel designs where changes in behaviour can be observed following shame and pride management interventions, or, as suggested in the last paragraph, educative interventions to display values like humility, respect for self and others—values that are fundamental to healthy management of both shame and pride. For the moment, all we have shown is that pride management has an importance very comparable to shame management, and effects on bullying over and above shame management. If the theory of pride management and bullying is correct, it may have macro implications beyond the micro context of workplace relationships studied here. These results come from an Islamic society. Muslim people, sensitised by Islamic teaching on vaunting pride as a vice, see an association between hubris and bullying, in their view of the world. Our data suggest that this perception is based on a realistic understanding of patterns of bullying internal to a Muslim society. Americans in particular need to be careful that the national pride they have in greater measure than people of any other country (Evans and Kelly 2002)<sup>6</sup> is humble pride, quiet pride—not bombastic, vaunting pride. Americans are exceptional in the extent to which they view pride positively and in the way they see pride as something to wear on the national shoulder. If Americans are seen in the Muslim world as vaunting in their national pride, equally they may be more prone to be seen as bullies. And if Western pride is genuinely humble, the West in general may indeed be less likely to be seen as a bully in its interactions with other people. These are at least hypotheses that the results suggest are worthy of future exploration, both within the Muslim world and in the West.

We hypothesise that Muslim teaching on the dangers of vaunting pride is relevant not only in Muslim societies but to all societies. History's winners are no less vulnerable to its truth; they are, however, less willing to see it. The reason for this is that hubris can be gratifying to human beings who win. This is why bad pride can help win elections. In the short term, many vices such as gluttony, lust, greed and sloth, like hubris, supply short-term gratification. Unless they are tempered by virtues such as kindness, respect, humility and justice itself, they can inflict deep destruction and injustice upon human societies. This is why we persist in the theoretical perspective that virtuous shame and pride management are topics of profound importance for the social sciences and for humanity.

<sup>6</sup> See also Sommers (1984) on pride being viewed more negatively in some cultures (eg, Chinese) than others (eg, American).

APPENDIX

**Workplace Bullying**

The *Threat to professional status* scale (M = 1.91; SD = 1.20; alpha = .93) items:

- (1) persistent attempts to belittle and undermine your work;
- (2) persistent and unjustified criticism and monitoring of your work;
- (3) persistent attempts to humiliate you in front of colleagues;
- (4) intimidatory use of discipline or competence procedures.<sup>7</sup>

The *Threat to personal standing* scale (M = 1.82; SD = .91; alpha = .78) items:

- (1) undermining your personal integrity;
- (2) destructive sarcasm with you;
- (3) verbal threats to you;
- (4) making inappropriate jokes about you;
- (5) persistently teasing you;
- (6) threat for physical violence to you;
- (7) threat of violence to your property.

The *Isolation* scale (M = 1.77; SD = 1.24; alpha = .94) items:

- (1) withholding necessary information from you;
- (2) ignoring/excluding; and
- (3) unreasonable refusal of applications for leave/training/promotion.

The *Overwork* scale<sup>8</sup> (M = 2.25; SD = 1.13; alpha = .26) items:

- (1) undue pressure to produce work; and
- (2) setting of impossible deadlines.

The *Destabilisation* scale (M = 1.71; SD = 1.01; alpha = .77) items:

- (1) shifting of goal posts without consulting you;
- (2) constant undervaluing of your efforts;
- (3) persistent attempts to demoralise you; and
- (4) removal of areas of responsibility without consultation.

<sup>7</sup> This item was dropped, as it led to low alpha reliability of the scale.

<sup>8</sup> This scale was dropped from the study due to low alpha reliability.

**Workplace Bullying Scale Construction:**

Workplace bullying scale items in the respective categories (see above) were significantly and positively inter-correlated (ranged from .46 to .65,  $p < .001$ ), and hence, responses were averaged to produce the subscale scores for each participant. Because there were no hypotheses specific to any one bullying form, responses on these subscales (correlations between subscales ranged from  $r = .47$  to  $r = .81$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were averaged to produce an aggregated score of workplace bullying ( $M = 1.80$ ,  $SD = .93$ ). A higher score indicates greater involvement in bullying in the workplace.

Some might suggest that because of the nature of the bullying variable, using logarithmic/square-root transformations/logistic regression would be appropriate. However, in circumstances where the bullying measure is not skewed, OLS captures more information on variation than logistic regression, and therefore, provides the superior method of analysis. Because the bullying variable in this study was not skewed (1.01), we preferred to use the OLS regression analytical method.

*Shame Management*

While adapting the MOSS-SASD instrument in the workplace bullying context, the wording of some of the items measuring Shame Acknowledgment and Shame Displacement was modified to suit adult respondents and the workplace context better. In addition, some items were taken from Harris (2001) to extend the measure of Shame Acknowledgment. To obtain a comparable Bengali translation of the MOSS-SASD, the items which have previously been used in our studies were translated and back-translated by a bilingual scholar who was native to the region of Bangladesh where the study was conducted. The translations were then reviewed for accuracy and cultural appropriateness by another bilingual scholar who is also native to the region. Both these scholars had excellent English knowledge and experience with psychological terminology.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the hypothesised two-factor model with the Bengali version of the MOSS-SASD. Prior to performing the CFA, two separate one-factor congeneric modellings were completed (one for shame acknowledgment, the other for shame displacement). All these analyses were performed using the AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) 4.0 program (Arbuckle and Wothke 1999) with the covariance matrices and a maximum likelihood estimation procedure.

Six items loaded significantly on the shame acknowledgment factor and four loaded significantly on the shame displacement factor. Because of lower squared multiple correlations (less than .30), that is the amount of explained variance, one item ('feel angry with myself') from the shame acknowledgment factor was excluded. Another item ('pretend that nothing

was happening') was not included in the CFA because it represents shame avoidance (for details on shame avoidance, see Ahmed, 2006; Ahmed and Braithwaite, 2005). The final standardised regression weight estimates demonstrated excellent convergent validity of the two factors, meaning items that are theoretically supposed to be highly interrelated with the factor are highly interrelated in the data.

### **MOSS-SASD Scenario and Question Items to Measure Shame Acknowledgment and Shame Displacement**

#### *MOSS-SASD Scenario*

Suppose you just had voiced a 'criticism of work and undervalued the efforts' of a co-worker in front of other staff, including subordinates of the co-worker. How likely is it that you would feel the following ...

#### *MOSS-SASD Items (Retained in the Final Scale)*

##### **Shame Acknowledgment**

1. ashamed of yourself
2. you had let down your co-workers
3. regretting what you have said
4. concerned to put matters right and put it behind you
5. you have harmed your professional reputation
6. feel hesitant to come at the office

Scale mean = 2.28 (SD = .83, alpha = .80)

##### **Shame Displacement**

1. angry with your co-workers
2. unable to decide, in your mind, whether or not you had done the wrong thing;
3. placing the blame somewhere else for what you said
4. you wanted to get even with someone else

Scale mean = 2.29 (SD = 1.13, alpha = .86)

##### **Pride Management**

#### *One-Factor Congeneric Modelling:*

Two separate one-factor congeneric modellings were done to test the adequacy of the measurement models for narcissistic pride and humble

pride. Twelve items loaded significantly on the narcissistic pride factor and eight items significantly on the humble pride factor.<sup>9</sup> Because of lower squared multiple correlations, three items ('having compliments from everyone', 'yourself very powerful', and 'rule the world to make it a much better place') from the narcissistic pride factor, and one item ('I could have made a mistake') from the humble pride factor, were excluded. Item standardised regression weight estimates demonstrate excellent convergent validity of the two factors—narcissistic pride with nine items, humble pride with seven items. This is an important finding which suggests that unidimensionality for both factors was evidenced by moderate to high range standardised loadings ( $p < .001$ ) on their intended factors.

### *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

In this analysis, each item is restricted to load on its prespecified factor, with the two factors allowed to correlate freely. The chi-square for this model is significant ( $\chi^2 = 192.40$ ,  $df = 55$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Because the chi-square statistic is over-sensitive to sample size, we also assess additional fit indices: the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Incremental Fit Index (IFI), the Tucker-Lewis Fit Index (TLI), the Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), and Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).<sup>10</sup> As is evident from Figure 3.2, the CFI, IFI, TLI, GFI and RMSEA of this model are .98, .98, .96, .97, and .05 respectively. Hence, despite the significant chi-square, the fit indices reveal that the final structural model is an excellent fit to the data.

## **MOPS Scenario and Items to Measure Narcissistic Pride and Humble Pride**

### *MOPS Scenario*

Suppose that you were required (asked) to solve an old and difficult problem at your workplace. You solved it successfully. How likely is it that you would feel the following...

<sup>9</sup> Prior to performing one-factor congeneric modelling, two items were excluded from consideration because it was advised that the items represent an extrovert personality instead of a context-based pride reaction. The advice was sought from two experts who had extraordinary experience with psychological scaling. The excluded items are: (1) feel like increasing social encounters; and (2) feel like telling everyone about your achievement. Therefore, 12 items were retained for measuring narcissistic pride whereas eight items were retained for humble pride.

<sup>10</sup> The CFI and RMSEA are generally the preferred indices for assessing adequacy of model fit (Byrne 2001; Loehlin 1998). Values greater than .95 for CFI, IFI, TLI, and GFI are considered to indicate good model fit (Byrne 2001; Hu and Bentler 1999; Loehlin 1998). An RMSEA of .05 or less is suggested as an indicator of acceptable fit (Arbuckle and Wothke 1999; Bollen 1989).

*MOPS Items (Retained in the Final Scale)*

Narcissistic Pride

1. good about yourself
2. superior over your co-workers
3. dominant over your co-workers
4. admiration from your co-workers
5. you are a very talented person
6. an increased sense of self-confidence
7. you had authority over your co-workers
8. putting down your co-workers
9. Putting your needs over your co-workers' needs

Scale mean = 2.32 (SD = 1.12, alpha = .91)

*Humble Pride*

1. show humility in all respects
2. respect the contribution of others to solving the problem
3. your co-workers could have solved the problem as well
4. proud of yourself without being arrogant
5. respect all co-workers irrespective of their status
6. considerate to your co-workers' comments on this solution
7. a sense of achievement without being arrogant

Scale mean = 3.05 (SD = 1.00, alpha = .86)

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