The Psychological impact of Teacher Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH) on Teachers: A Scoping Review

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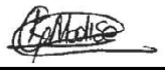
Signature: 

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ABSTRACT

Background:

Teacher-targeted bullying and harassment (TTBH) is an increasingly prevalent yet understudied issue in educational settings. It encompasses a range of harmful behaviours perpetrated by learners and parents, significantly affecting the psychological well-being of educators. Despite its growing recognition, limited research explores the specific psychological effects of TTBH or how teachers cope with these stressors.

Aim:

The aim of this study was to examine the psychological consequences of TTBH and how teachers cognitively appraise and manage these experiences using Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) Transactional Model of Stress and Coping.

Methods:

A scoping review was conducted, guided by Arksey and O'Malley's (2005) five-stage methodological framework. The review also followed the PRISMA-ScR guidelines (Tricco et al., 2018) to ensure methodological rigour. Literature published between 1998 and 2024 was sourced from EBSCOhost, SABINET, and Google searches for grey literature.

Results:

A total of 21 relevant studies were identified and analysed. These studies found that TTBH has significant psychological effects. Specifically, it leads to increased levels of fear, anxiety, emotional distress, burnout, and decreased self-efficacy among teachers. These negative outcomes not only affect individual teachers but also have a detrimental impact on the overall educational environment.

Conclusion:

The findings informed the recommendations for targeted interventions including policy development and revision, mental health support systems and the promotion of open communication and supportive leadership to enhance teacher well-being and create a healthier educational climate. Further research is essential to deepen understanding of TTBH and enhance strategies that protect and empower educators.

Keywords

Teacher-Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH), scoping review, psychological impact, interventions

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

TTBH has emerged as a pressing issue within educational institutions, highlighting a crucial yet often overlooked aspect of workplace dynamics: the reality that bullying transcends age and can significantly impact adults in professional settings (Smith & Brain, 2000). TTBH involves a spectrum of harmful behaviours directed at educators by stakeholders, including learners and parents, manifesting in both overt and covert forms (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). The psychological repercussions of TTBH are profound and multifaceted, frequently leading to severe psychological impacts such as heightened stress, anxiety, depression, and burnout among teachers (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). Terzoudi (2020) and Moon et al. (2020) argued that TTBH can result in detrimental physical health and social and organisational issues for its victims and organisations at large, underscoring the urgent need to investigate the specific implications of TTBH within the teaching profession.

Historically, the discourse surrounding bullying has predominantly focused on children and adolescents within school environments (Olweus, 1994; Phye & Sanders, 2004). However, the recognition that adults are also vulnerable to bullying in various contexts, including their workplaces, has catalysed a shift in research focus toward understanding the dynamics of adult bullying. Smith and Brain (2000) assert that bullying can manifest in diverse adult settings ranging from workplaces to prisons and nursing homes, indicating its pervasive nature and the necessity for thorough examination. While research on workplace bullying gained momentum in the 1980s, largely influenced by studies on school bullying in Scandinavian countries (Einarsen et al., 2010), a significant gap remains in the literature specifically addressing TTBH and its psychological consequences for educators.

The psychological effects of TTBH can be profoundly debilitating, often leading to cognitive strain, burnout, and decreased job performance (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). Victims of bullying frequently experience heightened levels of stress, sleep disturbances, and psychosomatic symptoms, all of which can hinder their functional capacity and overall well-being (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Moreover, the ramifications of TTBH extend beyond the individual teacher, affecting learners and the broader educational environment. Research by Niven et al. (2020), Nielsen and Einarsen (2013), and Nielsen et al. (2021) indicates that bystanders to bullying also suffer mental distress, reinforcing the

notion that TTBH is a systemic issue impacting the entire educational community. TTBH is increasingly recognised as a prevalent issue, supported by various studies. A quantitative study conducted by Kõiv (2015) in Estonia found a significant rise in TTBH over a decade, with escalating rates of victimisation among teachers by learners, colleagues, and parents. Similarly, Billett et al. (2020) reported that 84.5% of teachers experienced TTBH from learners or parents in the year preceding their study, marking an increase from the previous year. These findings underscore an increasing trend in the prevalence of TTBH within educational settings, influenced by multiple contributing factors.

Given the rising prevalence of TTBH and its detrimental effects on teacher well-being, it is crucial to undertake a comprehensive investigation into its psychological impact. This study aims to fill the existing gap in the literature through a scoping review that synthesises current research on TTBH and its psychological consequences. Utilising the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), this research will explore how educators perceive and manage the stressors associated with TTBH, providing valuable insights into their cognitive assessments and coping strategies. Understanding these dynamics is essential for developing targeted interventions and support systems that address the unique needs of teachers facing TTBH.

The significance of this research lies in its potential to inform professional development programs and implement effective strategies aimed at safeguarding and promoting teacher well-being. By thoroughly reviewing both local and international literature on TTBH, this study aspires to underscore the urgent need for targeted recommendations to alleviate the psychological burden of TTBH on educators. Ultimately, the findings from this scoping review will contribute to fostering a healthier and more supportive educational environment, enabling teachers to thrive in their professional roles free from the adverse effects of bullying and harassment.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The concern surrounding TTBH was ignited by the recognition that bullying is not limited to children and adolescents but can also occur amongst adults in workplaces, hence the term ‘workplace bullying.’. That said, to understand TTBH, it is essential to have a solid foundation in the concept of workplace bullying. Therefore, the literature review in the current chapter will provide an overview of workplace bullying. This foundation will set the stage for a more in-depth exploration of TTBH and its impact as discussed in the subsequent sections.

2.1 Workplace bullying: An overview and definition

The concept of workplace bullying emerged in the 1980s, initially stemming from research on bullying among schoolchildren in Scandinavia. Majority of the early studies were carried out in Nordic countries such as Norway, Sweden, and Finland and were primarily published in languages other than English (Einarsen et al., 2010). It was not until the 1990s that research on the topic began to grow in popularity and expand to other parts of the world, becoming more accessible in English (Einarsen et al., 2010). As the understanding of this phenomenon evolved, the terminology used to describe it varied by region: ‘workplace bullying’ is the term mostly used in English-speaking countries, ‘workplace harassment’ is prevalent in the French-speaking regions, and 'mobbing’ is the term used in many other European countries (Einarsen et al., 2010). While these terms may be used interchangeably, Branch et al. (2013) note that ‘workplace bullying’ is the term most consistently used within the research community.

Early research on the phenomenon found workplace bullying to be increasingly marked by complex interactions and subtle, covert behaviours among individuals in professional settings (Phye & Sanders, 2004; Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Researchers observed various forms of bullying, including “professional status threats (e.g., belittling opinions, public humiliation, accusations, and lack of effort); personal standing threats (e.g., name-calling, insults, intimidation, and devaluation based on age); isolation (e.g., preventing access to opportunities, physical or social isolation, and withholding of information); overwork (e.g., imposing undue pressure, setting impossible deadlines, and causing unnecessary disruptions); and destabilisation (e.g., failing to give credit when due, assigning meaningless tasks, and reducing responsibilities)” (Rayner & Hoel, 1997, p.183). This complexity has made it difficult for scholars to conceptualise workplace bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997).

Despite the complexities, a consensus emerged that workplace bullying involved a pattern of behaviours intended to harm others in environments where power imbalances existed (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Since then, several definitions of workplace bullying have emerged, with the United Kingdom emphasising workplace bullying as incidents identified by individuals feeling harassed, experiencing work-related impacts, and displaying a pattern of frequent negative actions (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Sweden, meanwhile, defined it as repeated incidents occurring at least once a week over a six-month period (Rayner & Hoel, 1997). Additionally, prominent Scandinavian researchers like Leymann describe workplace bullying as persistent and continuous negative actions that harm the victim (Leymann, 1992a, as cited in Rayner & Hoel, 1997). While these various definitions showcase the nuances of workplace bullying, they generally align in recognising its core elements: a power imbalance, intent to harm, and repeated negative behaviours. Consequently, a comprehensive definition of workplace bullying conceptualises it as a form of bullying that encompasses both verbal and non-verbal, direct and indirect aggression, resulting in an employee being consistently subjected to degrading and disrespectful treatment (Einarsen et al., 2010). Therefore, this definition will be utilised in the context of this study to ensure a consistent and comprehensive understanding of workplace bullying, drawing on the established literature from workplace settings.

2.2 Impact of workplace bullying

Workplace bullying can have a significant impact on both individuals and organisations (Lever et al., 2019; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Rajalakshmi & Gomathi, 2016; Samsudin et al., 2018). Research indicates that workplace bullying can have cognitive effects on individuals, leading to cognitive strain, burnout, and an increase in work-related accidents, particularly prevalent in industries like healthcare (Samsudin et al., 2018). Supporting this, Nielsen and Einarsen (2012) suggest that workplace bullying can result in delayed reactions, possibly due to burnout, heightened levels of stress, and sleep problems. As such, targets of workplace bullying reported the frequent use of sedatives and sleep-inducing drugs (Vartia, 2001). Consequently, individuals may experience a decrease in their functional capacity, affecting their job performance (Lever et al., 2019).

Furthermore, it is argued that workplace bullying can lead to psychological distress, including heightened levels of depression and anxiety, negative self-evaluations, and physical health problems such as musculoskeletal disorders (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Victims of workplace bullying may also exhibit psychosomatic effects like temper outbursts, anger attacks,

and a tendency towards violence, resulting in negative interactions in the workplace (Samsudin et al., 2018). Additionally, employees may report gastrointestinal issues and symptoms of nausea, which are commonly observed among healthcare workers (Lever et al., 2019).

Not only does workplace bullying have an effect on the target of bullying, but it also influences other employees or bystanders. Niven et al. (2020) suggest that research on bystanders began with the understanding that they are "victims by proxy," meaning they experience similar effects as the targets of bullying. This notion is supported by a number of studies. For instance, an earlier study conducted by Vartia (2001) found that the targets of bullying as well as the observers of workplace bullying reported significantly high levels of stress. Similarly, studies conducted by Nielsen and Einarsen (2013) and Nielsen et al. (2021) showed similar results in that observers of bullying in the workplace experienced increased levels of mental distress and related symptoms. These findings emphasise that workplace bullying is an issue that impacts not only the individual being targeted but also other employees, ultimately affecting the organisation as a whole.

From an organisational perspective, workplace bullying is linked to increased sick leave and absenteeism as employees seek to avoid bullying (Lever et al., 2019; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). This can lead to staff shortages, productivity challenges, and disengagement within the organisation (Lever et al., 2019; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012). Moreover, workplace bullying negatively impacts employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intentions to remain with the organisation (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Rajalakshmi & Gomathi, 2016). Additionally, it affects organisational performance by reducing productivity (Rajalakshmi & Gomathi, 2016), highlighting the detrimental effects of workplace bullying on both individuals and organisations.

Given these detrimental outcomes, it is critical to examine workplace bullying in the educational context to understand its specific implications for teachers and to develop effective intervention strategies. This discussion naturally leads to an exploration of TTBH, which presents a particularly complex challenge due to the unique power dynamics in schools.

2.3 Teacher-Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH): An overview and definition

TTBH, also known as Educator-Targeted Bullying (ETB), Teacher-Targeted Bullying (TTB), or Teacher-Directed Violence (TDV), is an increasingly recognised issue in educational settings (Billett et al., 2020; De Wet, 2010; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Sambo & Govender, 2023). This challenges the traditional understanding of bullying as a phenomenon primarily affecting students/learners (Billett et al., 2020; Burns et al., 2020; De Wet, 2010; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Kõiv, 2015; Pervin & Turner, 1998; Sambo & Govender, 2023).

As argued by Sambo and Govender (2023), TTBH is a form of workplace bullying, as it occurs within teachers' professional environments. Although workplace bullying typically involves interactions between colleagues or supervisors, TTBH introduces a unique dynamic where the primary perpetrators are often learners and, in some cases, parents (Sambo & Govender, 2023). Moon and McCluskey (2016) define TTBH as various forms of aggressive behaviour involving the victimisation of teachers by students, though they acknowledge that the scope can extend beyond the classroom to include parental aggression. This complexity underscores the multifaceted nature of TTBH.

Before providing a definition of TTBH and an extensive review of the literature on this topic within this research report, it is essential to clarify the terminology used. International literature utilises the term "students," while South African literature tends to refer to "learners." Consequently, the terms "students" and "learners" will be alternated based on the context of the studies referring to students, while the term "student/s" will be employed when discussing international studies, as this terminology is commonly used in those contexts, while the term "learner/s" will be utilised in discussions relevant to the South African context, where the term "learner" is predominantly recognised. This distinction is crucial for accurately reflecting the diverse educational environments addressed in the research

Santos and Tin (2018) note that the distinguishing characteristics of TTBH (repetition, intention, and power imbalance) align it with broader definitions of bullying. Kõiv and Aia-Utsal (2021) highlight these features, but other scholars argue that TTBH diverges significantly from traditional bullying. Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012) and Santos and Tin (2018) note that while teachers initially hold formal authority by virtue of their roles, this power dynamic can shift. Students and parents, particularly those who are socially

influential, may exploit weaknesses in the teacher's authority, thus enabling bullying to occur (Santos & Tin, 2018).

This shift in power dynamics is particularly concerning because it undermines the teacher's ability to maintain control in the classroom (Kauppi and Pörhölä, 2012; Santos & Tin, 2018). As Terry (1998) and Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012) explain, teachers' formal authority becomes ineffective when students and/or parents do not respect them or feel they have not earned respect. Socially dominant students can further exacerbate this dynamic by rallying their peers to challenge and erode the teacher's authority (Kauppi and Pörhölä, 2012). These power shifts illustrate why TTBH is distinct from both learner-on-learner bullying and traditional workplace bullying (Billett et al., 2020; Burns et al., 2020; De Wet, 2010; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Kõiv, 2015; Pervin & Turner, 1998; Sambo & Govender, 2023).

Furthermore, while the intent behind bullying behaviours directed at teachers may sometimes be ambiguous, the impact on the teacher remains clear and central to the definition of TTBH (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012). Furthermore, while the intent behind bullying behaviours directed at teachers may sometimes be ambiguous, the impact on the teacher remains clear and central to the definition of TTBH (Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012). As Rayner et al. (2002, as cited in Kauppi & Pörhölä, 2012) suggest, the victim's experience of feeling insulted, upset, or intimidated takes precedence over the perpetrator's intent. For this reason, this study adopts the definition of TTBH proposed by Kauppi and Pörhölä (2012): a process in which a teacher is repeatedly subjected to interactions perceived as insulting, upsetting, or intimidating. These interactions may take verbal, non-verbal, or physical forms (Billett et al., 2020; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2019).

Furthermore, understanding the specific ways in which TTBH manifests is vital, as teachers may experience various forms of bullying, each with distinct consequences for their professional and personal lives. The following section explores the different forms of TTBH that teachers encounter, shedding light on the diverse and often harmful behaviours that contribute to this pervasive issue.

2.4 Forms of TTBH experienced by teachers

Several studies have highlighted the various forms of TTBH experienced by teachers, illustrating the diverse and often harmful behaviour that falls under this definition (e.g.,

Billett et al., 2020; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2019). A study conducted by Billett et al. (2020) in schools along the Australian East Coast identified 12 distinct behaviours associated with TTBH perpetrated by students and parents. These behaviours ranged from verbal aggression to physical violence and included actions such as disparaging remarks, invading personal space, and organising others against a teacher (Billett et al., 2020). Notably, verbal aggression emerged as the most prevalent form of TTBH in this study, followed by physical violence, damage to personal property by students, and invasion of personal space (Billett et al., 2020).

Similarly, research examining a South African population found that verbal bullying was the most common form of learner-to-teacher bullying, followed by physical bullying (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). Many teachers reported instances of hurtful verbal bullying, such as name-calling and threats, as well as physical bullying, which included physical harm and theft of belongings (Woudstra et al., 2018). Furthermore, research conducted by Kõiv & Aia-Utsal (2021) in Estonia revealed various forms of TTBH experienced by victimised participants, including verbal bullying, threats of physical abuse, and social exclusion. Common forms of TTBH in this context included verbal bullying (e.g., teasing, name-calling, shouting) and exclusion (e.g., being ignored) (Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021). Overall, these studies collectively demonstrate that while TTBH manifests in different forms across various contexts, verbal bullying consistently emerges as a common and pervasive issue faced by educators worldwide.

Despite the recognition of TTBH as a significant issue, there has been considerable debate regarding the use of the terms "bullying" and "harassment" in relation to this phenomenon. Nielsen et al. (2017) argue that these terms are often used interchangeably, which can lead to the exclusion of the term "harassment" in some studies and the prevalent use of the term "TTB" instead of "TTBH" (Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Kõiv, 2015; Sambo & Govender, 2023). However, some scholars contest this notion, asserting that bullying and harassment are distinct concepts that should not be treated synonymously (Branch et al., 2013; Burns et al., 2020).

According to these scholars, a key distinction between bullying and harassment lies in the nature and duration of the aggressive behaviour (Branch et al., 2013; Burns et al., 2020). Bullying typically involves sustained aggressive behaviour that occurs over an extended period, whereas harassment may consist of aggressive behaviour that can be a one-time

incident or a series of events (Branch et al., 2013; Burns et al., 2020). Furthermore, the concept of bullying often entails a power differential, where the bully exerts control and dominance over the victim (Branch et al., 2013). In many instances, studies have overlooked the harassment experienced by teachers (Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Kõiv, 2015; Sambo & Govender, 2023).

Burns et al. (2020) emphasise the importance of studying the harassment of teachers, noting that such harassment may include attempts to belittle, intimidate, or make snide comments, as well as other harmful behaviours directed at educators. Although these acts may occur as isolated incidents, they can have a long-lasting and significant impact on teachers (Branch et al., 2013; Burns et al., 2020; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Kõiv, 2015; Sambo & Govender, 2023). Therefore, it is crucial to consider not only major bullying events but also these often-overlooked, single acts of harassment targeted at teachers (Burns et al., 2020). In light of this understanding, this study will use the term TTBH to address both bullying and harassment, emphasising the interconnectedness of these behaviours and their compounded effects on teachers' psychological well-being. By considering both elements within educational settings, the research aims to promote a safer and more supportive environment for educators. The next section explores the historical context and evolution of TTBH research, which is crucial for understanding the early foundations and development of the concept as well as the gaps in current literature that this study aims to address.

2.5 The historical context and evolution of TTBH research

As mentioned previously, research on workplace bullying grew in popularity as it became more accessible in English and expanded to other parts of the world in the 1990s (Einarsen et al., 2010). This was a turning point as it sparked interest in TTBH, leading to the emergence of research studies in the late 1990s to early 2000s, with notable studies by Pervin and Turner (1998) and Terry (1998) considered one of the first to investigate bullying among teachers (Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021; Sambo & Govender, 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). Pervin and Turner (1998) conducted a quantitative study in an inner-city school in London, with a predominantly Caucasian student population (81%) and located in a socioeconomically disadvantaged area. The study, which involved 1,303 pupils, aimed to document the nature, duration, and impact of TTBH in the classroom. The results of this study underscored the need for both public and professional recognition of TTBH as a

significant and complex issue that negatively affects teacher performance, morale, and ultimately, student learning (Pervin & Turner, 1998).

Similarly, Terry (1998) carried out a quantitative study involving a sample of 101 teaching staff from seven urban high schools. This study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of "cross-peer abuse" directed at teachers by their students, establish its prevalence, and explore the influence of factors such as gender and teaching experience (Terry, 1998). The study found that gender was not a significant factor, as female teachers did not experience higher rates of abuse compared to their male counterparts (Terry, 1998). However, the study did support the prediction that less experienced teachers were at greater risk of being targeted (Terry, 1998). This study in particular laid the foundation for subsequent research on the individual risk factors influencing the prevalence of TTBH. For example, McMahon (2014) and Lampman (2012) examined gender as a potential risk factor while De Wet (2012) focused on the role of age. Additionally, studies by Santos and Tin (2018), De Wet (2021), and Mitchell (2022) explored the intersection of race and its potential influence on the likelihood of teacher victimisation. The findings of these and other studies are explored in greater detail in subsequent sections of this chapter. Overall, these studies reflect a growing interest in TTBH in the 21st century.

Despite the growth of TTBH research in the 21st century, Sambo and Govender (2023) argue that the field has largely remained stagnant. While research into workplace bullying has progressed significantly, studies on TTBH have remained relatively underdeveloped, with much of the focus still centred on the basic understanding that students may be perpetrators of TTBH (Sambo & Govender, 2023). This is reflected in the limited scope of research, as studies have primarily concentrated on identifying the problem rather than addressing its broader implications (Sambo & Govender, 2023). For example, while Pervin and Turner (1998) provided early empirical evidence of TTBH, their study primarily documented its prevalence rather than investigating the long-term psychological consequences for teachers or potential institutional interventions.

Furthermore, an important gap in the literature remains when it comes to understanding the psychological consequences of TTBH for teachers. Several studies (Billett et al., 2020; Kõiv, 2015; Sambo & Govender, 2023) have highlighted the adverse impact of TTBH on educators' mental health, yet research on this subject remains sparse. This gap is especially concerning given the increasing prevalence of TTBH in educational

environments, as highlighted in various studies (Billett et al., 2020; Kõiv, 2015; Sambo & Govender, 2023). The psychological toll of TTBH not only affects individual teachers but also has broader implications for the educational community, making it essential to carry out further research in this area.

Understanding the psychological impact of TTBH, which will be discussed in the following section, is crucial for developing effective interventions and support systems for teachers. By addressing these research gaps, future studies can help to create a more comprehensive understanding of TTBH. This will, in turn, contribute to fostering safer and more supportive educational environments for both teachers and learners.

2.6 The impact of TTBH

The current study investigates the psychological impact of TTBH, with a particular focus on its detrimental effects on teachers' mental well-being. While the broader consequences of TTBH on physical health, social dynamics, and organisational outcomes are acknowledged, the psychological toll is the central concern of this research. This focus is essential as the mental health challenges associated with TTBH often serve as the root cause of its cascading effects on other areas of teachers' lives and their work environment (Moon et al., 2020; Sambo & Govender, 2023).

2.6.1 Psychological Impact

The psychological toll of TTBH forms the foundation of its broader impacts, affecting teachers' mental health in profound ways. TTBH has consistently been shown to harm teachers' psychological well-being, manifesting in increased rates of anxiety, depression, and personality changes (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Tolentino, 2016; Woudstra et al., 2018). Research indicates that over half of teachers exposed to TTBH report anxiety levels beyond what is considered normal, while one-third experience elevated levels of depression (Woudstra et al., 2018). Teachers subjected to prolonged bullying are likely to face more severe consequences, including post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Tolentino, 2016; Woudstra et al., 2018). This disorder, characterised by symptoms such as hypervigilance, intrusive thoughts, and avoidance behaviours, not only disrupts teachers' mental well-being but also interferes with their daily functioning and quality of life (Tolentino, 2016). The persistence of these psychological challenges underscores the gravity of TTBH's impact on mental health, which often extends to physical health consequences.

2.6.2 Physical Health Consequences

The psychological strain caused by TTBH frequently manifests in physical symptoms, further illustrating its pervasive impact. In most cases, individuals who experience bullying report a range of somatic symptoms, including tension headaches, high blood pressure, lightheadedness, and panic attacks (Tolentino, 2016). Sambo and Govender (2023) observed changes in sleeping patterns, frequent headaches, and fatigue among participants, reflecting the interconnectedness of psychological and physical health. Furthermore, cardiovascular problems such as hypertension and rapid heartbeat have been reported, demonstrating the physiological toll of prolonged stress and emotional strain caused by TTBH (Sambo & Govender, 2023). This overlap between mental and physical health not only affects individual teachers but also extends to their social relationships.

2.6.3 Social Impact

The psychological and physical consequences of TTBH often ripple into teachers' social well-being, disrupting both their professional and personal relationships. Within the workplace, teachers often experience a loss of passion for teaching, strained professional relationships, and a decline in work performance (Tolentino, 2016). Feelings of isolation, irritability, and lack of concentration further hinder their ability to collaborate effectively with colleagues (Tolentino, 2016). Outside of the professional sphere, the emotional toll of TTBH disrupts personal relationships (Sambo & Govender, 2023). Teachers subjected to bullying frequently report uncharacteristic anger and irritability, which negatively affect their interactions with family members, including spouses and children (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Tolentino, 2016). Participants in studies have described instances of harsh communication at home, heightened emotional outbursts, and ongoing marital conflicts, further demonstrating the far-reaching effects of bullying on social dynamics (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Tolentino, 2016). These social disruptions further compound the challenges within organisations (schools).

2.6.4 Organisational Impact

The social and psychological challenges faced by teachers due to TTBH inevitably translate into organisational issues within educational institutions. Teachers dealing with the mental and emotional strain of TTBH frequently report a loss of motivation and enthusiasm for teaching, leading to a high turnover rate in schools (Moon et al., 2020; Sambo & Govender, 2023). Some teachers contemplate leaving the profession entirely, while others reluctantly

remain due to financial responsibilities or commitments to their children's education (Sambo & Govender, 2023). Moon et al. (2020) noted that teachers who endure repeated victimisation often seek transfers or explore alternative career paths, further reflecting a declining interest in the profession. This trend not only undermines the retention of qualified educators but also disrupts the broader educational environment, with significant implications for students.

2.6.5 Impact on Learners/Students

The negative effects of TTBH are not confined to teachers; they also extend to students and the broader educational environment. Teachers struggling with the psychological repercussions of bullying may adopt ineffective teaching practices, reduce classroom activities, or develop negative attitudes toward students, all of which can hinder learning outcomes (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012). Thus, students who are not actually perpetrators can also be widely affected. A study by Terzoudi (2020) found that TTBH creates classroom conflicts, disrupts lessons, and leads to a hostile atmosphere where disruptive students (bullies) aim to embarrass teachers. This, in turn, influences student behaviour and academic performance negatively (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012). Moreover, the psychological distress experienced by teachers may inadvertently lead them to model negative behaviours, perpetuating cycles of aggression within the school environment (Sambo & Govender, 2023). There are also concerns about how witnessing bullying impacts students' future behaviour and interactions, emphasising the importance of addressing TTBH not only for teachers' well-being but also for the overall health of the educational community (Terzoudi, 2020).

By focusing on the psychological consequences of TTBH, this study reveals how profoundly this issue affects teachers' mental health, their ability to maintain meaningful relationships, and their professional effectiveness. These findings highlight the urgent need to address TTBH to foster healthier, more supportive environments within schools. This requires a deeper understanding of the risk factors that contribute to the prevalence of TTBH (discussed in the next section), helping us comprehend the dynamics and circumstances that enable such behaviours. Addressing this issue not only benefits teachers but also improves student outcomes and contributes to creating a more harmonious educational community.

2.7 Risk factors contributing to the prevalence of TTBH

Understanding the factors that contribute to the prevalence of TTBH is crucial for developing effective interventions and fostering a safer educational environment. Early

research, such as Terry's (1998) study, provided foundational insights into TTBH, revealing that gender was not a significant determinant in the likelihood of victimisation. However, the study identified that teachers with less experience were at greater risk of being targeted. While this research laid important groundwork, it had limitations, as it did not consider additional factors influencing the prevalence of TTBH.

Building on this foundation, subsequent studies have identified a wider range of risk factors, including individual characteristics such as age, experience, and race (Billett et al., 2020; Reddy et al., 2023; Soklis, 2021). Additionally, contextual elements, such as the education system, socio-economic disadvantage, school location, and perceived school culture, have been highlighted as significant contributors to TTBH (Billett et al., 2020). A comprehensive understanding of these factors is essential, as they shape the dynamics and circumstances that allow bullying behaviours to persist. What follows is an examination of the key individual risk factors, followed by a discussion on the contextual elements that may serve as potential risk factors.

2.7.1 Individual Risk Factors: Gender

Studies exploring gender as a potential risk factor for TTBH present mixed findings, challenging Terry's (1998) conclusion that gender does not influence teacher victimisation. For instance, a study by McMahon et al. (2014) revealed that male teachers faced significantly higher levels of victimisation, including experiences of obscene remarks and gestures, verbal threats, and even instances where weapons were drawn on them. However, despite these experiences, men were less likely than women to report feelings of intimidation (McMahon et al., 2014). In contrast, Lampman (2012) found that women were more likely than their male counterparts to report bullying and experienced more drastic forms of bullying from students.

Similarly, a study by Billett et al. (2020) highlighted differences in gender and TTBH, particularly in terms of the perpetrator (students versus parents). The study found that female teachers experienced more TTBH from parents (58.7%) compared to men (54.6%), but they reported fewer incidents of TTBH from students (70.5%) than their male counterparts (74.3%). These findings may imply that gender not only influences the prevalence of TTBH but also affects the source of victimisation, whether from students or parents.

The suggestion that women are at a greater risk of TTBH may be partially explained by the gender imbalance in the teaching profession worldwide (Billett et al., 2020; Montgomery,

2019). Since women make up the majority of teachers, they may be disproportionately affected by TTBH, particularly due to lingering patriarchal values in society (McGregor, 2020; Montgomery, 2019; Robinson, 2000). Connell (1995, as cited in Robinson, 2000) argues that men continue to hold authority within a patriarchal system, reinforcing the idea that men should wield more power, which contributes to the ongoing subordination of women. As a result, female teachers are often treated differently than their male counterparts, often facing sexualisation and harassment from students, particularly male students (McGregor, 2020; Robinson, 2000). Such experiences suggest that gender dynamics play a crucial role in the prevalence of TTBH, with women often being the primary targets (Lampman, 2012). Addressing these disparities requires a deeper understanding of the patriarchal values that contribute to teacher victimisation and the broader structural issues within educational settings, particularly in South Africa, where patriarchal values still heavily prevail.

2.7.2 Age and Experience

Age is a significant factor influencing the prevalence of TTBH. Research indicates that teachers aged 21–30 report the highest incidence of TTBH, with a staggering 92.8% experiencing such behaviour (Billett et al., 2020). While specific percentages for other age cohorts (31–35, 36–40, 41–50, 51–60, and 61–70) are not detailed, graphical data suggests these groups report slightly lower incidents of TTBH (Billett et al., 2020, p. 14). Notably, teachers over the age of 70 reported the lowest incidence of TTBH at 75.0% (Billett et al., 2020). This trend suggests that younger teachers are more likely to experience TTBH compared to their older counterparts. These findings align with studies by De Wet (2012) and Lampman (2012), which also concluded that younger teachers are more frequently targeted than older teachers.

Closely linked to age is teaching experience. Terry (1998) found that less experienced teachers are at greater risk of being targeted. One explanation for this is that younger, less experienced teachers are often in the early stages of their careers, where they may lack the confidence and authority that comes with experience (De Wet, 2012). As a result, students and parents may retaliate more readily against their disciplinary actions compared to older, more seasoned teachers, who tend to command greater respect due to their maturity and experience (De Wet, 2012). In contrast, older teachers, particularly those in the late stages of their careers, appear to experience higher rates of parent-enacted bullying (Billett et al., 2020; De Wet, 2012). Billett et al. (2020) found that these teachers are more likely to be targeted by parents compared to their early- and mid-career colleagues. This phenomenon may be linked to teacher burnout,

which arises from a prolonged cycle of stress caused by various challenges teachers face within the teaching profession (De Wet & Jacobs, 2006).

Burnout tends to peak during the late stages of a teacher's career, leading to a decrease in effectiveness (Brunsting et al., 2014, as cited in Mazzetti et al., 2022). This decline is often perceived by parents as a weakness, increasing the likelihood of them confronting or bullying the teacher (Weishew & Peng, 1993, as cited in De Wet & Jacobs, 2006). In addition, there may be an element of ageism involved, as older individuals are often discriminated against and seen as less adaptable to change, less open to learning, and assumed to be poor performers in general (Massetti et al., 2022). This bias can negatively affect the relationships older teachers have with parents, as they might be unfairly judged based on their age rather than their experience and skills, making them more susceptible to bullying (Billett et al., 2020; De Wet, 2012; Massetti et al., 2022).

Interestingly, mid-career teachers generally experience lower rates of TTBH than their younger and older counterparts (Billett et al., 2020; De Wet, 2012). This may be attributed to their accumulated experience and the established relationships they have developed with students and parents, which can act as a protective factor against bullying (Billett et al., 2020). Additionally, potential perpetrators may not harbour ageist attitudes towards them (De Wet, 2012; Massetti et al., 2022). That said, age significantly influences the prevalence of TTBH. Younger teachers face higher rates of student-perpetrated bullying due to their inexperience, while older teachers, particularly those over 60, may experience increased bullying from parents, potentially as a result of burnout stemming from the demands of long-standing roles in education and the associated ageism. In contrast, mid-career teachers appear to experience the lowest rates of TTBH, likely due to their balance of experience and professional authority.

2.7.3 Race

The role of race and ethnicity in the prevalence of TTBH remains a subject of debate. Santos and Tin (2018) found no association between race and teacher-targeted bullying in their study. Similarly, De Wet (2021) noted that none of the South African newspaper articles analysed mentioned race as a risk factor for teacher victimisation. However, other studies present contrasting findings. For example, McMahon et al. (2014) reported that African American teachers were less likely than White teachers to report victimisation across eight categories of victimisation. Similarly, Mitchell (2022) found that non-White or non-European

American teachers were less likely to experience bullying compared to their White or European American counterparts. Conversely, Lampman (2012) reported the opposite, concluding that non-White teachers were more likely than White teachers to report bullying or victimisation. These mixed findings indicate that race and ethnicity are not consistently recognised as significant risk factors for TTBH. In cases where race or ethnicity is identified as influential, there is inconsistency regarding which racial group is most at risk. In South Africa, race is very central to the way people are targeted. Cunniff and Mostert (2012) noted that Black African employees experienced the highest rate of bullying amongst employees, especially if they were juniors. There is insufficient research on TTBH and race in South Africa, but it is possible that a similar pattern could be observed.

That said, individual risk factors do not exist in isolation. In addition to characteristics such as age, experience, and race, contextual factors play a crucial role in shaping the prevalence of TTBH. Variables like the educational system, socio-economic disadvantage, school location, and perceived school culture can either mitigate or exacerbate TTBH. The next section explores how these contextual factors intersect with individual characteristics, shaping the dynamics of TTBH and providing a more comprehensive understanding of the issue to inform potential interventions.

2.7.4 Contextual Factors: Educational system

The type of educational system—whether government, independent/private, or religious—significantly influences the prevalence of TTBH (Billett et al., 2020). Research conducted in Western Australian schools by Billett et al. (2020) found that teacher bullying and violence were more common in government schools than in non-government, independent institutions. Similarly, De Wet and Jacobs (2021) reported that teachers in government schools faced a higher likelihood of bullying compared to those in independent schools, suggesting that government schoolteachers are at greater risk of violence and harassment from students and other individuals. Additionally, Riley et al. (2011, as cited in Billett et al., 2020) found that teachers in government schools were particularly vulnerable to bullying compared to their counterparts in Catholic schools. This finding aligns with Lowe et al. (2020), who reported higher incidents of teacher-directed violence (TDV) in government schools compared to private and Catholic schools in Western Australia.

The risk of TTBH also varies by educational level. Teachers in secondary education settings, such as middle and high schools, are at a greater risk of experiencing verbal abuse and threats compared to those in elementary and primary schools (Reddy et al., 2023). Conversely, elementary and middle school teachers report higher instances of physical violence than high school teachers (Reddy et al., 2023). Combined schools—institutions that include both primary and secondary levels—have been identified as having the highest risk of TTBH compared to stand-alone primary or secondary schools (De Wet & Jacobs, 2021).

Overall, these findings suggest that TTBH is more prevalent in government schools than in religious or independent schools. Additionally, it occurs more frequently in combined schools, followed by secondary schools, and is least common in elementary schools (Billett et al., 2020; Reddy et al., 2023). These differences may stem from variations in policies, practices, and support mechanisms across different education systems and school levels. Understanding these factors is essential for developing targeted interventions to reduce TTBH and create safer working environments for teachers.

2.7.5 Socio-economic Disadvantage

Socio-economic disadvantage is a critical factor influencing TTBH and is arguably one of the determinants of academic success (Billett et al., 2020; Damoah & Omodan, 2022). Socio-economic disadvantage not only impacts academic outcomes but also affects the school environment, including student behaviour and teacher safety (Damoah & Omodan, 2022). In the South African context, the legacy of apartheid has left many schools and students from disadvantaged backgrounds vulnerable (Damoah & Omodan, 2022). Schools in these areas often lack essential resources, which negatively impacts student performance (Adebayo et al., 2020). According to the TIMSS 2019 study, there is an average gap of 75 points in performance between students in non-fee-paying schools (disadvantaged) and those in fee-paying schools (Reddy et al., 2020, as cited in Soudien et al., 2022). This lack of resources not only hinders academic outcomes but also creates an environment where teachers face greater risks of victimisation.

Billett et al. (2020) found that schools in low socio-economic areas are more vulnerable to TTBH, as teachers in these schools report higher levels of victimisation and feelings of insecurity. Additionally, these schools often lack critical resources such as security personnel, visitation policies, lockable doors, intercom systems, cameras, and

protocols to support teachers following incidents of victimisation (McMahon et al., 2023). These factors underscore the importance of considering socio-educational conditions when examining the prevalence and impact of TTBH.

While low socio-economic status can contribute to higher rates of TTBH, this does not mean that TTBH is absent in wealthier, more advantaged schools. In fact, the nature of TTBH in these schools may differ significantly. Many private and independent schools operate with little to no financial assistance from the government, making them highly dependent on tuition fees paid by parents (Ogbonnaya & Awuah, 2019). Consequently, both learners and parents are often regarded as customers, which can shift power dynamics within the school environment (Jacobs & De Wet, 2018). In particular, fee-paying parents may feel a heightened sense of entitlement due to their financial investment in their child's education. This can create an environment where they exert pressure on teachers, challenge their authority, and, in some cases, engage in bullying behaviours (Nyembezi, 2023). In South Africa, where opportunities and resources are limited, parents may resort to harassment and intimidation of teachers in an attempt to secure better educational outcomes and future prospects for their children (Benbenishty et al., 2019; Ruswa & Gore, 2022). Thus, while disadvantaged schools may experience TTBH primarily due to structural challenges and student misconduct, wealthier schools often see a different form of it, with parental bullying being a more prominent factor.

2.7.6 School Location

The location of a school also influences the prevalence of TTBH. De Wet and Jacobs (2021) found that teachers in urban schools experienced higher rates of bullying compared to those in rural areas; however, this finding is not universally supported by other studies (Billett et al., 2020; McMahon, 2014; Reddy et al., 2023). Research by Billett et al. (2020) and Reddy et al. (2023) indicated that teachers in urban schools often faced higher levels of victimisation compared to their counterparts in rural and suburban schools. This aligns with McMahon's (2014) finding that teachers in rural and suburban settings were less likely to report harassment than those in urban environments.

This discrepancy may be attributed to the unique challenges faced by urban areas, such as higher population density and socio-economic disparities, which can lead to increased stress within schools (Billett et al., 2020; Reddy et al., 2023). Consequently, while urban schools

report more incidents of TTBH, rural schools can also experience such behaviours, albeit likely at lower rates (Billett et al., 2020).

2.7.7 Perceived School Culture

Perceived school culture plays a crucial role in the prevalence of TTBH. Teachers' perceptions of their school environment shape their experiences and responses to bullying. According to Soklis (2021), teachers who perceive their school culture positively feel supported and report fewer instances of bullying. Similarly, Billett et al. (2020) highlight that when teachers feel valued and supported by school management, they experience fewer negative impacts from TTBH. These findings emphasise the importance of fostering a positive school culture as a foundation for addressing bullying behaviours.

Effective leadership is key to shaping this positive school culture, as effective school leaders actively engage with staff to create an environment where open communication is encouraged and resources for conflict resolution are readily available. This connection underscores the critical role that leadership plays in not only fostering a supportive culture but also in reducing TTBH. The next section will explore how effective leadership practices can further enhance school culture and contribute to the prevention and management of TTBH, ensuring that teachers feel empowered and safe within their educational environments.

2.7.8 Effective Leadership in Schools

Research shows that supportive leadership is key in cultivating a school culture that mitigates TTBH. Effective school leaders who engage with staff foster an environment where open communication is prioritised, resources for conflict resolution are accessible, and clear anti-bullying policies are enforced (Billett et al., 2020). This proactive approach can significantly reduce or prevent TTBH (Billett et al., 2020). By providing opportunities for teachers to share their experiences, school leaders empower educators to report bullying incidents and encourage bystanders to take action (Billett et al., 2020; Qiao & Patterson, 2021). This collaborative strategy not only addresses bullying but also contributes to a culture where teachers feel valued and secure.

Despite these positive practices, many teachers express dissatisfaction with their school’s response to TTBH incidents, often feeling that school management prioritises students or parents over staff support (Billett et al., 2020). Qiao and Patterson (2021) further indicate that

reporting bullying does not always result in meaningful action, as teachers frequently find their concerns overlooked or inadequately addressed by administrators. When school leaders fail to take bullying seriously or dismiss teachers' concerns, it cultivates a culture of silence and fear, leaving educators feeling unsupported and vulnerable (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). This underscores the urgent need for school leaders to actively foster an environment that prioritises staff well-being and actively discourages bullying behaviours (Asio, 2019; Billett et al., 2020; Qiao & Patterson, 2021). Collectively, research demonstrates that effective leadership is essential in addressing TTBH and nurturing a positive school culture. Conversely, a lack of strong leadership can create a perception of tolerance or indifference towards bullying incidents.

In summary, understanding the interplay between individual and contextual factors is crucial for addressing TTBH, recognising its various forms, and fostering a supportive environment for teachers. While these factors may increase the risk of TTBH and lead to negative outcomes, individuals can adopt various coping strategies to mitigate its effects. However, the effectiveness of these strategies may vary, with some proving more beneficial than others. The following section outlines these coping mechanisms in detail.

2.8 Individual coping strategies

TTBH significantly impacts teachers' psychological well-being, contributing to increasingly stressful, demanding, and multifaceted working conditions (Woudstra et al., 2018). In response to workplace bullying, individuals adopt a range of coping strategies that can be broadly categorised into active and passive approaches (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004; Tolentino, 2016). Active coping involves taking direct action to address the problem, such as confronting the bully or seeking support, while passive coping entails avoidance or disengagement, such as ignoring the behaviour or withdrawing from the situation (Van den Brande et al., 2018).

Active coping strategies are often preferred, with teachers choosing to confront the issue directly or seek informal resolution through support from colleagues, family, or friends (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). For example, in a study by Ozkilic and Kartal (2012), teachers frequently sought help from guidance counsellors (29%), deputy headmasters (25.3%), colleagues (24.9%), headmasters (22.6%), or branch teacher leaders. These findings suggest that teachers value support systems when addressing TTBH.

Conversely, a smaller proportion of teachers opt for passive coping strategies, such as remaining silent, avoiding the issue, or distancing themselves (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016; Kõiv & Aia-Utsal, 2021). These individuals often fear retaliation, doubt their concerns will be taken seriously, or feel isolated due to the expectation that they should manage the problem independently (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). Over time, passive responses like avoidance can lead to absenteeism, illness-related leaves, or even resignation (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004; Tolentino, 2016).

The choice of coping strategy may be influenced by individual characteristics and the nature of the bullying. Gender and age play notable roles: females are more likely to seek help, while males are more inclined to confront the bully directly (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004). Additionally, older individuals often resort to passive strategies, such as ignoring or avoiding the problem, possibly due to feelings of resignation or perceived lack of options (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004). The duration and intensity of bullying can also lead to shifts in coping strategies, with some individuals transitioning from active to passive approaches over time, especially in the event of them seeing that they lack support systems and that active strategies are not successful (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004).

Coping strategies can be further categorised into problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping involves actively addressing the source of stress, such as reporting the bullying or seeking advice on how to handle the situation (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016). This approach aligns with the active coping strategies previously discussed, as it emphasises taking direct action to mitigate the impact of TTBH (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016; Van den Brande et al., 2018). On the other hand, emotion-focused coping involves managing the emotional responses to stress, such as engaging in self-care practices, seeking emotional support from friends or family, or using relaxation techniques to alleviate anxiety (Bernstein & Trimm, 2016; Van den Brande et al., 2018). Teachers may utilise either type of coping strategy to navigate the challenges presented by TTBH.

Research highlights that active coping strategies, including problem-focused approaches, are more effective in addressing TTBH and mitigating its psychological effects than passive and emotion-focused strategies (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). These strategies help teachers feel supported and validated, reducing feelings of isolation and helplessness (Woudstra et al., 2018). In contrast, passive coping strategies tend to exacerbate stress and

increase absenteeism and negatively impact both individual well-being and organisational dynamics (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004; Tolentino, 2016).

Therefore, fostering a supportive environment where teachers feel empowered to address TTBH through active coping strategies (including problem-focused strategies) is crucial for reducing its adverse effects and promoting healthier educational practices. To better understand how educators respond to TTBH, it is useful to examine the various coping strategies they employ through the lens of the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). This model provides a framework for understanding how individuals appraise and cope with stress, and it is particularly relevant in the context of TTBH. The following section explores this model in more detail.

2.9 The transactional model of stress and coping

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), posits that stress is a dynamic process involving the interaction between environmental stressors and individual responses. The model emphasises cognitive appraisal, which unfolds in two stages: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). During primary appraisal, individuals assess whether a situation is irrelevant, benign-positive, or stressful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Irrelevant situations have no impact on well-being, while benign-positive situations are viewed as beneficial. Stressful situations, on the other hand, are categorised into harm/loss, threat, or challenge (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Harm/loss refers to damage already experienced, threat anticipates potential harm or loss, and challenge presents an opportunity for growth or mastery (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

In the context of TTBH, teachers navigate these stages of appraisal when confronted with bullying. During primary appraisal, educators evaluate whether the bullying poses a threat to their psychological well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If perceived as harmful or threatening, heightened stress is likely to follow. In the secondary appraisal stage, teachers assess the coping options and resources available to manage the stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). This evaluation informs their choice of coping strategies, which can include both problem-focused approaches—such as reporting the bullying or seeking advice on how to handle the situation—and emotion-focused strategies, like engaging in self-care or seeking emotional support (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

By applying the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping to the study of TTBH, valuable insights into how educators navigate their experiences of bullying, the effectiveness of their coping strategies, and the overall impact on their psychological well-being can be gained. This framework not only elucidates the complex interactions between stressors and coping mechanisms but also underscores the importance of fostering a supportive school environment that strengthens educators' resilience and coping capacity.

Based on the review of literature, TTBH is an increasing concern. With the rising prevalence of TTBH, there is a pressing need for further research to address this issue effectively. By integrating the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, which explores the dynamic interplay between individuals' assessment of stressors, coping strategies, and psychological responses, this study aimed to gain a comprehensive understanding of how teachers perceive and manage TTBH in their professional settings, more specifically how they manage TTBH in relation to their psychological well-being.

Within the context of a scoping review and utilising the Transactional Model, this provided a valuable framework for examining the cognitive processes and coping mechanisms employed by educators when confronted with TTBH. By analysing how teachers evaluate TTBH stressors and the coping strategies they deploy, this model can shed light on the intricate ways in which TTBH influences teachers' psychological well-being. Understanding these cognitive assessments and coping mechanisms is crucial for tailoring interventions and support systems that cater to the individual needs and responses of teachers facing TTBH.

The significant psychological impact of TTBH underscores the critical need to synthesise global research findings to formulate targeted recommendations for alleviating or eliminating this pervasive source of work-related stress for educators. Through a thorough review of local and international literature on TTBH, this study aimed to uncover the psychological effects experienced by educators and to offer valuable insights to enhance professional development programs and implement interventions designed to protect and enhance teacher well-being.

Research Question

Based on the above literature review, the research question thus proposed for this scoping review was:

"What is the psychological impact of Teacher-Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH) on educators as revealed by existing literature?"

The following chapter details the proposed methodology for the scoping review (which is aimed at answering the aforementioned question), ensuring a rigorous and systematic approach to examining the psychological impact of TTBH on teachers.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodology for the current scoping review. It describes the research design and examines the ethical considerations, including reflexivity, rigour, and the study's trustworthiness.

3.1 Research design

This study was designed as a scoping review. Scoping reviews are useful for pinpointing existing evidence within a particular area and for clarifying concepts and definitions, examining research methodologies within a topic, and identifying key characteristics or factors related to a concept (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Munn et al., 2018). They also serve as precursors to systematic reviews (Laher & Hassem, 2020; Munn et al., 2018). In contrast, systematic reviews are more detailed and are based on a well-established plan and search strategy, whereas scoping reviews provide a broader overview of a topic (Smith & Duncan, 2022). Given the scope of the research report and the limited duration within which to complete it, a scoping review was deemed to be suitable. This study aimed to synthesise literature to investigate the psychological impact of TTBH on teachers, which required a broad overview of the topic that a scoping review could provide. For these reasons, a scoping review design was considered the most suitable approach for this study.

3.2 Protocol

The protocol of this review was guided by the methodological framework for scoping reviews as outlined by Arksey and O'Malley (2005) and later adapted by Levac et al. (2010). This framework consists of six stages, which are (1) identifying the research question, (2) identifying relevant studies, (3) selecting studies, (4) mapping/charting the data, (5) collating, summarising findings, and reporting results, and (6) expert consulting (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). According to Arksey and O'Malley (2005), the expert consultation stage is optional, and considering the time and resource limitations, this stage will not be undertaken in this study.

As outlined in subsequent sections, the other five stages were adhered to; in addition, the results section of the scoping review was presented following the recommendations of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension

for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) to ensure transparency and reproducibility (see Appendix A) (Tricco et al., 2018).

3.2.1 Stages One and Two: Identifying the Research Question and Identifying Relevant Studies

The first stage of this scoping review involved identifying the research question, which has been established (Levac et al., 2010). As outlined in the previous chapter, the research question of the current study is: *What is the psychological impact of Teacher-Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH) on educators as revealed by existing literature?*

The second stage focused on identifying relevant studies to include in the review (Levac et al., 2010). This was achieved by searching various databases to ensure a comprehensive collection of pertinent studies. The databases searched included EBSCOHost, which provides access to a variety of resources such as Academic Search Ultimate, APA PsycInfo, Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection, and ERIC (Education Resources Information Center), a database specifically focused on education-related literature, including studies relevant to TTBH in educational settings. Another database utilised was SABINET Online, which helped ensure that regional studies were not overlooked. Further searches were conducted on Google Scholar to identify more studies that were not indexed in the aforementioned databases, as well as to locate grey literature. Google searches were also conducted to gather grey literature to gain access to a wide range of international grey literature.

As per PRISMA-ScR guidelines, the search strategy developed was also determined by utilising the Population, Concept, Context (PCC) framework to focus on key terms related to the topic (Tricco et al., 2018) With regards to the population, The primary keywords included “teachers” and “educators.” The key terms related to the main concept of the study included "teacher-targeted bullying and harassment," along with synonyms such as "educator-targeted bullying," "teacher-targeted bullying," and "teacher-directed violence." Additionally, terms related to the psychological effects were incorporated, including "psychological impact," "psychological effect," "psychological well-being," "mental well-being," and "mental health." Furthermore, contextual terms included "educational institution," "school," and "classroom."

To effectively combine these key terms and synonyms, boolean operators (AND, OR) were utilised. This search strategy was applied across various databases using advanced search options, and to ensure that the results were relevant to the specified time frame (from

1998 to 2024), the searches were filtered by publication year. To identify additional articles and grey literature, the following search string was entered into Google Scholar and Google: ("teacher" OR "educator") AND ("Teacher Targeted Bullying and Harassment" OR "Teacher Targeted Bullying" OR "Educator Targeted Bullying" OR "Teacher Directed Violence") AND ("Psychological Impact" OR "Psychological Effect" OR "Psychological Well-being" OR "Mental Well-being" OR "Mental Health") AND ("educational institution" OR "school" OR "classroom").

As recommended by Pham et al. (2014) and Stevinson and Lawlor (2004), only the first 100 grey literature hits from Google searches (sorted according to relevance) were screened, as further screening would unlikely result in additional relevant literature. Nonetheless, as a measure to identify additional relevant studies, the reference lists of the relevant studies identified from databases, Google, and Google Scholar were searched.

3.2.2 Stage Three: Study Selection with the Establishment of Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The third stage of the scoping review involved selecting studies that aligned with the research question and met specific inclusion and exclusion criteria (Levac et al., 2010). This review incorporated both journal articles and grey literature to capture a broad spectrum of research findings and insights. It included studies employing quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods, thereby providing a more holistic view of the issue by integrating statistical data with personal experiences. However, books, book reviews, articles published within books, literature reviews, thought pieces, and other systematic or scoping reviews were excluded.

To streamline the research process and address potential time and budget constraints related to translating foreign language studies, only literature published in English was considered. The review focused on studies published between 1998 and 2024, a timeframe chosen to align with the period when early research on TTBH began. This approach ensures a comprehensive examination of relevant literature while capturing the evolution of research on TTBH over the years. The samples in the studies needed to reflect diverse demographics, including variations in gender, race, age, experience, and context, among others, to capture a wide range of perspectives. In addition, the studies' samples were required to consist solely of adults who identified as teachers or educators and had experienced TTBH in educational institutions. Furthermore, studies were only included provided that they analysed the psychological impact of TTBH on educators.

Table 1 below provides a summary of the inclusion and exclusion criteria used to identify the relevant studies included in the review.

Table 1:

A summary of the inclusion and exclusion criteria employed to identify relevant studies

Inclusion Criteria	**Exclusion Criteria**
Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method studies/literature	Studies that do not employ empirical methods
Journal articles and grey literature	Books/articles published within books, literature reviews, thought pieces and other reviews
Studies/literature published in English	Studies/literature published in other languages other than English
Studies/literature published between 1998 and 2024	Studies/literature published before 1998 and after 2024
Samples representing diverse demographics	Samples not representing diverse demographics
Involves working adults, specifically educators/teachers	Does not involve working adults/teachers as participants
TTBH in the school/educational context	TTBH, not in the school/educational context
Studies/literature that address the psychological impact of TTBH	Studies/literature that do not address the psychological impact of TTBH

The tabulated eligibility criteria were applied to the titles and abstracts and then to the full texts of all the retrieved sources. Those that were deemed unsuitable to progress to the next stage (stage 4: charting the data) were excluded, and the reasons for exclusion were recorded. The reasons for exclusion of sources following the screening of the title/abstract and full text were reported in the PRISMA flow diagram (see Appendix B).

3.1.3 Stage Four: Charting the Data

This stage entails extracting relevant data from the studies included in the scoping review using a data-charting form (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010). The process of data charting requires the study's researcher to develop the data-charting form to determine which variables are important for extraction that would help in answering the research questions (Levac et al., 2010). A data-charting form was developed independently by the primary reviewer to extract variables from the sources.

According to Arksey and O'Malley (2005), data charting often includes general information such as citation data, methodology, aims of the study, outcome measures, and important results, as well as specific information related to the study's research question(s). Levac et al. (2010) argue that the process of data charting is iterative and subject to continuous updating and revision. As such, the information initially proposed to be charted was subject to change, and the data charting form was adapted, and the information extracted included general information such as the title of the study, the author and year of publication, research question(s), the concept investigated, population, context/country, as well as general information from the sample, including the sample size, age, experience, race, and gender.

The study title, author(s), and year were charted to provide a clear reference for each source to ensure transparency to make the studies easily locatable by readers and future research studies, which may aim to explore the current topic further. The population, concept, and context (PCC) were also charted. This was to ensure that the studies selected investigated the relevant population (educators/teachers), concepts (as discussed in previous sections), and context (educational institution) as relevant to the current study and research question. The studies that were charted were all in the context of educational institutions, and so the primary reviewer made the decision to chart the country in which the study was conducted under the context heading to allow for a clear comparison of the experiences of teachers in different geographical settings. The literature discussed in the previous section of this review suggests

that individual characteristics have an influence on TTBH and its impact thereof. As a result, the primary reviewer decided to also chart the general characteristics of the sample, such as the age, work experience, gender, and race. In addition, the study research question(s) were charted to determine the focus of each study and the relevance of the selected sources of evidence in investigating the concepts of this review. The findings of the studies were summarised, and the common psychological effects were listed in a table, followed by the frequency with which these effects appeared across the sources. Furthermore, the data was charted using Excel, and each paper was assigned a unique identifying number, which is key in data management (Daudt et al., 2013).

3.1.4 Stage Five: Collating, Summarising, and Reporting the Results

This stage involved collating, summarising, and reporting the results, following the recommendations of Levac et al. (2010). To ensure a systematic, consistent, and rigorous approach, three distinct steps were undertaken. First, the results from the included studies were analysed, and key characteristics such as study design, publication year, study population, and country of origin were described, as detailed in the following chapter of this review. Secondly, the results were presented in a table and reported aligning with the overall purpose or research question of the study (Levac et al., 2010; Daudt et al., 2013). Specifically, the results section was reported in accordance with the PRISMA-ScR guidelines to ensure transparency and reproducibility (Tricco et al., 2018). In the subsequent discussion, meaning was applied to the results, and the limitations and implications for future research were highlighted. This step was crucial as it allowed the researcher to contextualise the findings and emphasise their practical relevance, thereby contributing meaningfully to the field (Levac et al., 2010; Daudt et al., 2013). Finally, based on the findings from the studies, recommendations were made, and conclusions were drawn.

3.3 Ethics

The research articles included in this scoping review were readily available in public journals and websites. Thus, this research had no risks involved, and there were no special ethical considerations for this study. Nevertheless, an application for an ethics waiver was made to the Human Research Ethics Committee, and ethics clearance and permission to conduct the study were obtained (Appendix C).

3.4 Reflexivity, rigour and trustworthiness

Scoping reviews are instrumental in charting the current literature and pinpointing areas where research is lacking; however, they are susceptible to various biases that can affect the reliability and validity of their findings (Dwan et al., 2013; Tricco et al., 2016). Among these biases, which can also be encountered in both quantitative and qualitative research, are publication bias and outcome reporting bias. Publication bias refers to the inclination to publish studies that yield positive or statistically significant results more often than those that produce negative or inconclusive outcomes. This can lead to a distorted representation of the available evidence, making it unreliable for drawing accurate conclusions (Dwan et al., 2013). Outcome reporting bias occurs when only certain outcomes from the studies included in the review are selectively reported, which can skew the findings of the scoping review and misrepresent the overall body of evidence (Dwan et al., 2013).

It is therefore important to accurately depict data while minimising bias as much as possible. In an attempt to minimise the effects of investigator bias, I, as the primary researcher, strived to maintain transparency and reflexivity throughout the research process. I sought guidance from experienced individuals, including my supervisor, to validate the logic of my decisions and ensure reflexivity in the study. Additionally, I meticulously tracked and documented the scoping review process to enhance methodological rigour and transparency. External scrutiny was welcomed, allowing for a thorough review of all study steps to identify any biases that may have been overlooked. These measures collectively assisted in upholding the credibility and trustworthiness of the scoping review findings.

This chapter outlined the methodology for the scoping review, detailing the research design, protocol, and ethical considerations guiding the study. By employing a scoping review framework, the research aimed to provide a comprehensive overview of the psychological impact of TTBH on educators, following the framework proposed by Arksey and O'Malley (2005). The importance of reflexivity, rigour, and trustworthiness was emphasised, addressing potential biases and the measures taken to mitigate them. The next chapter will present the results of the scoping review, following the recommendations of the PRISMA-ScR (Tricco et al., 2018), and will provide insights into the existing literature on TTBH and its psychological effects on teachers.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This chapter discusses the selection of sources of evidence, the characteristics of these sources, and the critical appraisal conducted within them. The chapter also presents and synthesises the results derived from the sources of evidence. By synthesising the data, this chapter aims to illuminate the impact of TTBH on teachers' psychological well-being.

4.1 Selection of sources of evidence

A flow chart for this review was developed by adapting the 2020 PRISMA flow diagram designed for new systematic reviews of databases and registers. Following that, a literature search was conducted across multiple sources (as detailed in the previous chapter) to identify relevant studies for this review. As mentioned in the previous section, the total number of citations retrieved, the duplicates removed, and the reasons for excluding studies were documented in the PRISMA flow diagram (see Appendix B) (Tricco et al., 2018).

4.2 Characteristics of sources of evidence

In accordance with the PRISMA-ScR guidelines, this section outlines the citations for each source of evidence along with the characteristics for which data were charted (Tricco et al., 2018). The characteristics of the sources of evidence are detailed as follows:

The first source of evidence is titled "Learner-Teacher Targeted Bullying in South African High Schools" by Adewusi, published in 2021 (Adewusi, 2021). Although the main aim of the study was to identify factors contributing to bullying, it is important to note that the research also explored the psychological outcomes for teachers as a secondary consideration. The study employed a qualitative research design, with the primary research question being: What factors cause students to bully teachers in schools? The study’s population consisted of secondary school teachers specifically focusing on learner-teacher-targeted bullying within the South African context across three education districts in Tshwane (North, South, and West). The sample size was 9, comprising grade 12 experienced teachers (Adewusi, 2021, p. 416). While the age, years of experience, and race of the participants were not mentioned, the sample included 5 female and 4 male teachers (Adewusi, 2021).

The second source of evidence is titled "Teacher Bullying and Harassment by Students and Parents: Reports from an Australian Exploratory Survey" by Billett et al., published in 2020 (Billett et al., 2020). The study employed a mixed-method research design, where all the participants were invited to take part in an online survey, and only teachers

from Victoria (on the east coast of Australia) were invited to participate in a one-hour semi-structured interview (the number of interviewed participants was not specified). The study's research questions were: 1. Is there evidence of teachers experiencing student- and parent-enacted bullying and harassment in Australian schools? 2. What types of bullying and harassment do teachers experience in their day-to-day classroom interactions? 3. What effects, if any, are teacher-targeted bullying and harassment having on teachers' sense of self-efficacy and well-being? The population consisted of primary and secondary school teachers. The concept under investigation was TTBH, and the study was conducted in Australia with responses from almost every Australian state and territory. Most responses came from states on the east coast of Australia (74.6%), while the Northern Territory recorded responses from fewer states (the exact percentage was not given). The sample size was 560, and the participants' ages ranged from 21 to 70, with an average age of 36 to 40 years. The work experience and race of the participants were not specified. The sample included both male and female participants, with 85.9% females and 14.1% males (Billett et al., 2020).

The third source of evidence is titled "Student-to-Teacher Victimization and Its Negative Impact on Teaching Approaches: Applying Propensity Score Matching" by Choi et al., published in 2024 (Choi et al., 2024). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were: 1. What are the possible consequences of student-to-teacher victimisation? 2. How does teacher-directed violence by students affect teachers' neglect, commitment, and pride in their profession? 3. In what ways do these outcomes (neglect, commitment, and pride) negatively impact students' achievements? The study's population consisted of middle and high school teachers. The concept under investigation was student-to-teacher victimisation, and the study was conducted in South Korea. The sample size was 1,054, with 490 participants from middle schools, 409 from academic high schools, and 161 from vocational high schools. The majority of the schools were public schools (70%), and 30% were private. The race, age, and work experience of the participants were not specified. Approximately 46% of the participants were male, and 54% were female (Choi et al., 2024).

The fourth source of evidence is titled "Victims of Educator-Targeted Bullying: A Qualitative Study" by De Wet, published in 2010 (De Wet, 2010). The study employed a qualitative research design. The research questions were: 1. What is the nature of educator-targeted bullying (ETB)? 2. What is the influence of ETB on the victims' private and

professional lives? The study's population included primary and secondary school teachers, HODs, and principals. The concept under study was ETB, and the study was conducted in South Africa in both rural and urban school locations. The study involved seven participants, with three from rural schools and four from urban schools, with an average age of 50.86 and an average of 27.29 years of experience. The race of the participants was not specified, and the sample included three males and four females (De Wet, 2010).

The fifth source of evidence selected is titled 'Learner-to-teacher bullying as a potential factor influencing teachers' mental health' by Woudstra et al., published in 2018 (Woudstra et al., 2018). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were: 1. What is the prevalence of teachers reporting exposure to bullying by learners? 2. How does exposure to learner-to-teacher bullying relate to teachers' mental health, particularly in terms of anxiety and depression? The study's population consisted of secondary school teachers, and it focused on learner-to-teacher bullying within an urban area of South Africa, specifically involving six secondary schools in Tshwane. The sample size was 153, and the ages of the participants ranged from 21 to 75. About a third of the participants (38.1%) had between one and five years of teaching experience, while 44.7% had over ten years of experience. Most of the participants were white teachers (93.3%), with smaller numbers of Black and Indian teachers. Regarding gender, 82.4% of the participants were female (Woudstra et al., 2018).

The sixth source of evidence is titled 'The prevalence of learner-on-teacher school-based violence: A qualitative study' by Mahome, published in 2019 (Mahome, 2019). This study employed a qualitative research design to explore two primary questions: 1. What is the common form of learner-on-teacher violence prevalent in South African secondary schools? 2. What are the consequences of learner-on-teacher violence? The study's population was secondary school teachers. The concept under study was learner-on-teacher violence, and the study was conducted within the Johannesburg North school district in South Africa, encompassing five schools. There were 9 participants in the study, each with a minimum of five years of teaching experience. The group comprised four male teachers, four female teachers, and a senior school administrator whose gender was not specified. Details regarding the participants' ages and races were not provided (Mahome, 2019).

The seventh source selected is titled 'The nature, extent, and impact of educator-targeted bullying on schoolteachers in West Malaysia' by Santos and Tin, published in 2018

(Santos & Tin, 2018). This study employed a quantitative research design and addressed the following research questions: 1. How do Malaysian educators report the prevalence rates of ETB, and how do these rates compare to findings from other Asian studies? 2. Is there a relationship between the ethnicity of students and educators and the levels of exposure to ETB in Malaysian schools? 3. Which forms of ETB are most frequently reported by Malaysian educators, and are verbal abuse and deliberate ignoring of educators the most prominent forms? 4. Are there significant differences in exposure to ETB among educators based on their years of teaching experience? 5. How does exposure to ETB correlate with burnout levels among educators, particularly in terms of student-related burnout? 6. Does teaching experience moderate the relationship between exposure to ETB and burnout among educators? The population studied included primary, secondary, and retired schoolteachers, with the concept under investigation being ETB. The research was conducted in both Malaysian public and private schools. The sample size consisted of 575 participants, of whom 316 (55.0%) identified as Chinese, 212 (36.9%) as Malay, and 34 (5.9%) as either from other ethnicities or abstaining from indicating their ethnicity. In terms of age distribution, 182 (31.7%) were between the ages of 22 and 30 years old, 199 (34.6%) were aged 31-40, 132 (23%) were aged 41-50, 58 (10.1%) were above 50 years, and 4 (0.6%) did not indicate their age, being categorised under ‘abstain.’ Regarding teaching experience, the largest proportion of participants (27.8%) had between 1-5 years of experience, followed by those with 6-10 years of experience (22.6%). Other participants reported less than one year of experience (3.5%), 11-15 years (16.2%), 16-20 years (12.2%), and over 20 years (16.9%), while 0.9% had an unknown work experience. In terms of gender, 102 were male, 468 were female, and 5 were of unknown gender, categorised as “abstain” (Santos & Tin, 2018).

The eighth source of evidence is titled ‘Teachers’ reactions to experiences of violence: An attributional analysis’ by Anderman et al., published in 2018 (Anderman et al., 2018). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were as follows: 1. How do teachers’ attributional beliefs and emotional responses to violence predict their communication with others about the violent event? 2. To what extent do the nature of violent incidents, teacher demographics, and teaching-related background variables (e.g., school level, urbanity, teaching experience, holding a graduate degree) influence teachers’ responses to violence? 3. Do teacher emotions such as anger and feelings of being upset mediate the relationship between attributional beliefs (e.g., characterological and behavioural self-blame) and their responses to violence? The population studied included

elementary, middle school, high school, and multigrade schoolteachers in the United States. The concept under investigation was violence perpetrated against teachers. The study sample consisted of 2,505 teachers from urban (34.2%), suburban (34.3%), and rural (31.5%) schools. The mean age of the participants was 46.4 years, with an average of 16.76 years of teaching experience. Participants ranged from first-year teachers (n = 76) to those with over 40 years of teaching experience (n = 42). The sample was predominantly White (83.7%), with 7.1% identifying as other ethnicities. Additionally, 84.2% of the participants were female (Anderman et al., 2018).

The ninth selected source is titled ‘Teacher-Directed Violence in Relation to Social Support and Work Stress’ by Bounds and Jenkins, published in 2016 (Bounds & Jenkins, 2016). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were as follows: 1. What type of teacher-directed violence is most commonly reported? 2. How frequently does teacher-directed violence occur? 3. Whom do teachers go to for social support after experiencing violence? 4. Do teachers who experience teacher-directed violence have higher levels of stress than teachers who do not experience violence? 5. What is the association between sources of support and work stress for teachers who do and do not experience teacher-directed violence? The study population consisted of primary and secondary school teachers. The concept under investigation was teacher-directed violence, and the study was conducted in the United States with a sample of 114 teachers, the majority of whom (112) worked in public schools. Of these, 49 teachers were employed in rural schools, 39 in suburban schools, and 26 worked in urban schools. Participants’ ages ranged from 23 to 68, and teaching experience varied from one semester to more than 20 years. The racial demographics were not mentioned. The sample included 85 female and 49 male teachers (Bounds & Jenkins, 2016).

The tenth source of evidence is titled ‘Teacher victimization and teachers' subjective well-being: Does school climate matter?’ by Yang et al., published in 2022 (Yang et al., 2022). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were as follows: 1. How did teacher victimisation and school level at the teacher and school levels associate with the two subfactors of teachers' subjective well-being (i.e., teaching efficacy)? and school connectedness)? 2. How did school climate moderate the association between teacher victimization and teachers' subjective well-being at the teacher and school levels and across teacher and school levels? The study population consisted of middle school, high

school, and combined grade schoolteachers. The concept under study was teacher victimisation, and the study was conducted in China with a sample of 1,711 teachers from both private (3 schools) and public (55 schools). Of these schools, 7 were in rural areas, 25 in suburban areas, and 26 in urban areas. While the age of the participants was not explicitly detailed, the sample had an average teaching experience of 14.23 years. The racial demographics of the participants were not specified. Regarding gender, the sample included 662 male teachers, 1024 female teachers, and 25 participants who did not specify their gender (Yang et al., 2022).

The eleventh source of evidence is titled 'Teacher-directed violence and anxiety and stress: Predicting intentions to transfer and quit' by McMahon et al., published in 2023 (McMahon et al., 2023). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were: 1. How do teacher experiences of verbal and threatening violence, as well as physical violence from students, parents, colleagues, and administrators, directly affect teacher anxiety and stress, intentions to transfer schools, and intentions to quit the profession? 2. What direct effects do teacher anxiety and stress have on intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession? 3. In what ways do verbal and threatening violence and physical violence from students, parents, colleagues, and administrators indirectly affect intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession through the pathway of anxiety and stress? 4. How are teacher characteristics (such as race/ethnicity and teaching experience) and school characteristics (such as school level and urbanity) associated with intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession? The population consisted of kindergarten through 12th grade teachers. The concept under study was teacher-directed violence, and the research was carried out in the United States on a sample of 9,370 teachers from all 50 states. Participants were drawn from rural (26.9%), suburban (44.5%), and urban (28.6%) areas. The age of the participants was not specified; however, teaching experience ranged from less than one year to over 45 years of teaching experience. The sample's racial composition included 79.4% White teachers, 6.4% Hispanic, 5.1% multiracial, 1.6% Asian, and 2.0% Native American or other. Regarding gender, 79% of the teachers identified as female, 20.2% as male, and less than 1% as non-binary (McMahon et al., 2023).

The twelfth source of evidence is titled 'An Exploratory Study of Violence and Aggression Against Teachers in Middle and High Schools: Prevalence, Predictors, and Negative Consequences' by Moon and McCluskey, published in 2020 (Moon & McCluskey, 2020). The study employed a quantitative research design. The research questions were as

follows: 1. What is the prevalence of different types of aggression directed against teachers (theft/property damage, physical assault, verbal abuse, sexual harassment, and non-contact aggression) in the United States? 2. How do teachers' leadership, helping behaviours toward students, and uncertainty toward students relate to their vulnerability and antagonism in the context of teacher victimisation? 3. Are teachers who exhibit vulnerability (lack of leadership and uncertainty toward students) and non-antagonistic behaviours (helping toward students) less likely to be victimised at school? 4. In the context of target congruence theory, are female teachers more likely than male teachers to experience sexual harassment? 5. What are the negative consequences of teacher victimisation on victimised teachers' job performance, distrust toward students, perceptions of school safety, and thoughts about leaving the teaching profession? The study population consisted of middle and high school teachers, with the concept of study being teacher victimisation. The research was conducted in the United States on a sample of 1,628 teachers from urban areas. Although the age of the participants was not specified, the teachers reported an average of 14 years of teaching experience. Regarding the demographic composition of the sample, 50% of the teachers (n = 811) identified as White, 42% as Hispanic (n = 679), 5% as Black (n = 81), and 4% as belonging to other racial groups (n = 57). In terms of gender, approximately 71% of the participants were female and 30% were male (Moon & McCluskey, 2020). *(Note that these percentages seem to be reported erroneously by the authors, as these figures equal 101%.). The researcher of the present study does, however, assume that the majority of the sample were female.*

The thirteenth source of evidence selected is titled ‘Violence against teachers in Sweden: The hidden side of school violence’ by Terzoudi, published in 2020 (Terzoudi, 2020). The study employed a qualitative research design. The research questions of the study were: ‘1. According to educators’ experiences, in which forms and how often does the phenomenon of violence against teachers occur during secondary education in Sweden? 2. How does violence influence educators, and what are the consequences experienced? 3. Based on the educators’ perceptions, what are the factors that motivate students to engage in violent behaviours against them?’ (Terzoudi, 2020, p. 5). The population for the study was secondary school teachers, and the concept under investigation was teacher-directed violence and victimisation. The research was conducted in Southern Sweden with a sample of 7 participants. While the age and race of the participants were not specified, their teaching experiences ranged from 2 to 40 years, with an average of 13 years. Of the 7 participants, 4 were male and 3 were female (Terzoudi, 2020).

The fourteenth source of evidence selected is titled ‘Student-on-teacher violence in South Africa’s Tshwane South District of Gauteng Province: Voices of the victims’ by Venketsamy et al., published in 2023 (Venketsamy et al., 2023). The study employed a qualitative research design. The study’s research questions were: 1. What are the lived experiences of teachers who have experienced violence from learners? 2. How does violence against teachers affect their overall well-being? 3. What strategies can be implemented to support teachers who are victims of violence? The study population comprised teachers, though the phase or grade level they taught was not specified. The concept under investigation was student-on-teacher violence. The research was conducted in South Africa within the Tshwane South District of Gauteng Province, involving a sample of six teachers from three schools. Participant demographics such as age and race were not reported. The teaching experience of the participants ranged from 3 to 7 years. Regarding gender, 5 participants were female and 1 was male (Venketsamy et al., 2023).

The fifteenth source of evidence selected is titled ‘Lived Experiences of Middle School Teachers Victimized by Students in a Mississippi Gulf Coast School District: A Phenomenological Study’ by Williams, published in 2021 (Williams, 2021). The study employed a qualitative research design to address the research question: What are the lived experiences of middle school educators on the Mississippi Gulf Coast regarding teacher victimisation? The concept under investigation was teacher victimisation, and the study focused on middle school teachers in one school district along the Mississippi Gulf Coast with a sample of 11 teachers. While the age and race of the participants were not explicitly detailed, the study noted diversity in these demographics within the sample. Participants’ teaching experience ranged from 3 to 23 years. The gender of the participants was also not specified (Williams, 2021).

The sixteenth source of evidence selected is titled ‘Violence Against Teachers: Prevalence and Consequences’ by Wilson et al., published in 2011 (Wilson et al., 2011). The study utilised a quantitative research design to address the following research questions: 1. What is the prevalence of different types of violence against teachers, both across their careers and in the previous academic year? 2. Does violence experienced by teachers adversely impact their physical, psychological, and teaching-related functioning? 3. Is violence experienced by teachers associated with fear? 4. Does fear, in turn, predict adverse functioning? 5. Does fear mediate the relationship between violence and adverse outcomes, as predicted by the theoretical model of Barling (1996)? 6. Does the gender of the victim moderate the

relationship between violence and adverse outcomes? The study focused on violence against teachers, with the population comprising all teachers in the province of British Columbia, Canada. A sample of 731 teachers participated, with the following distribution: 106 (14.5%) worked in inner-city schools, 163 (22.3%) in urban areas, 219 (30%) in suburban areas, and 195 (26.7%) in rural areas. The average age of participants was 43.7 years, and they worked in their current schools for an average of 15.9 years. While the racial demographics were not specified, regarding gender, 523 participants (71.5%) identified as female (Wilson et al., 2011).

The seventeenth source of evidence selected is titled 'Violence Against Teachers in South Korea: Negative Consequences and Factors Leading to Emotional Distress' by Moon et al., published in 2015 (Moon et al., 2015). The study employed a quantitative research design, and the research questions were: 1. What are the effects of verbal threats and non-contact physical aggression on teachers in a Korean context? 2. How do sociodemographic factors (gender, tenure as a teacher, and status as a homeroom teacher) influence emotional distress among victimised teachers? 3. How does a teacher's style of relating to students affect their emotional distress following incidents of aggression? 4. What characteristics of the incidents (such as the number of students involved, location and time of the assault, and victim-offender settlement) impact the emotional distress experienced by teachers? 5. Does reaching a settlement with an offending student reduce emotional distress for victimised teachers, and how does this facilitate the healing process? The study population consisted of middle and high school teachers, 70% of whom were employed in public schools. The study focused on the concept of violence against teachers and was conducted in South Korea with a sample of 1,054 teachers. While the participants' ages and years of experience were not specified, the study noted that all participants were Korean. Additionally, 58% of the sample were female, and 42% were male (Moon et al., 2015).

The eighteenth source of evidence selected is titled 'Influence of Teacher-Targeted Bullying Behaviour on Teachers in Selected Schools in South Africa' by Sambo and Govender, published in 2023. The study employed a qualitative research methodology to address the following research questions: 1. What types of bullying behaviour do learners use against teachers in selected schools? 2. What influence does learners' bullying behaviour have on teachers in selected schools? 3. Which strategies would assist teachers who experience learners' bullying behaviour to better manage the situation in selected schools? The study population consisted of high school teachers and focused on the concept of teacher-targeted

bullying. Conducted in a semi-rural area in the Mpumalanga Province of South Africa, the study involved six participants. The participants' ages ranged from 26 to 46, with teaching experience spanning 4 to 24 years. All participants were Black, and there were 5 females and 1 male (Sambo & Govender, 2023).

The nineteenth source of evidence selected is titled “I keep warning the new teachers, you’ll have elephant skin”: Teachers coping with physical violence perpetrated toward them by their pupils’ by Sigad, published in 2023 (Sigad, 2023). The study employed a qualitative research design, and the study explored the following research questions: 1. How do teachers experience being subjected to violence directed toward them by their pupils in their daily work? 2. How do the violent experiences affect the teachers in their professional and personal lives and their sense of self? 3. How do teachers who are victimised by student violence construct coping strategies? The study population consisted of elementary school teachers, and the concept under investigation was violence towards teachers. Conducted in various areas of Northern Israel, the study involved a sample of 32 teachers, including 11 Jewish participants and 21 Arab participants. While the age and gender of the participants were not specified, their teaching experience ranged from 5 to 25 years (Sigad, 2023).

The twentieth source of evidence selected is titled ‘A Qualitative Study: Educator-Targeted Bullying by Learners in a High School in Port Elizabeth’ by Campher, published in 2016 (Campher, 2016). The study employed a qualitative research design, and the research questions were: 1. What is the impact of educator-targeted bullying (ETB) on teaching quality and learning outcomes in a Port Elizabeth high school? 2. How severe and frequent is bullying experienced by educators from learners at this school? 3. What types of bullying do educators face from students at this school? 4. How does ETB affect educators' emotional and psychological well-being? 5. What guidelines can be proposed to reduce educator abuse by learners? The study population consisted of high school teachers, and the concept under study was ETB. The study was conducted in South Africa, focusing on a sample of 12 teachers from a private school in Port Elizabeth. Of the 12 participants, 2 were less than the age of 25, 6 were between the ages of 25 and 40, and 4 were over the age of 40. Regarding teaching experience, 6 participants had less than 5 years of experience, 3 had between 6 and 10 years, 1 had between 10 and 15 years, and 2 had over 15 years of experience. The race of the participants was not specified; however, the sample included 7 females and 5 males (Campher, 2016).

The twenty-first source of evidence selected is titled ‘Evaluation of the impact that Teacher Targeted Bullying has on Individual Perceptions and Stress’ by Byers, published in 2012 (Byers, 2012). The study employed a quantitative research design and aimed to address the following research questions: 1. How is teacher-targeted bullying related to stress experienced by affected teachers? 2. How does being a target of student bullying influence teachers’ perceptions of safety within the school and their overall safety climate evaluations? 3. How do teachers’ perceptions of the school safety climate relate to their levels of stress? 4. Does the perception of the school safety climate mediate the relationship between teacher-targeted bullying and stress? 5. How does teacher self-efficacy impact the relationship between being a victim of bullying and the level of stress experienced? 6. How does social support influence the relationship between teacher-targeted bullying and stress experienced by teachers? The study population consisted of primary school teachers, and the concept under investigation was teacher-targeted bullying. Conducted in New Zealand, the study included a sample of 113 teachers. No additional information was provided about the schools involved. With regards to the participant demographics, the ages ranged from 19 to 63 years. The teaching experience of the participants varied as follows: 25 had one year of experience, 48 had 2-5 years, 24 had 6-10 years, 10 had 11-15 years, 1 had 16-20 years, 2 had 21-25 years, and 3 had more than 26 years of teaching experience. The racial demographics of the participants were not specified. However, 83% of the participants were female, and 17% were male (Byers, 2012).

In summary, the sources of evidence analysed were published between 2010 and 2024. Among the 21 sources reviewed, 11 utilised a quantitative research design, 9 employed a qualitative research design, and only 1 used a mixed methods approach. All studies included secondary or high school teachers, except for the study by Sigad (2023), which exclusively focused solely on elementary school teachers, and studies by Byers (2012) and Williams (2021), which examined samples of primary and middle school teachers, respectively. Most of the studies were conducted in South Africa (n = 7), followed by the United States (n = 4) and South Korea (n = 2). Additional studies originated from Australia, Malaysia, China, Sweden, the Mississippi Gulf Coast, Canada, Northern Israel, and New Zealand. Where information on the school location was provided, the majority of participants were employed in suburban schools, followed by urban schools, with rural school teachers making up the smallest proportion (De Wet, 2010; Anderman et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2022; McMahon et al., 2024; Wilson et al., 2011). The study by Bounds and Jenkins (2016) was an

exception, as most of its participants were from rural schools.

Regarding the educational system, studies that specified this detail indicated that most participants worked in government/public schools, while a smaller proportion were from private schools (Choi et al., 2024; Bounds & Jenkins, 2016; Yang et al., 2022; Moon et al., 2015). The study by Campher (2016) was an exception, as all 12 participants were from private schools. Similarly, Santos and Tin (2018) included participants from both public and private schools in Malaysia, though the exact proportion was not specified.

In terms of participant demographics, the youngest individual reported in the studies was 19 years old, while the oldest was 75. Teaching experience ranged from less than a semester to over 45 years. When race was documented, most participants identified as White or belonged to other ethnic groups, including Chinese, Malay, Hispanic, and Korean. In contrast, Black, Indian, and other racial groups were under-represented. Regarding gender, the majority of participants were female, while males made up a smaller portion of the sample. These demographics and contexts discussed suggest that the sample is not fully representative, which constitutes a limitation of the current research. Further discussion on these limitations is provided in Chapter 6, Section 6.

Table 2:

A Summary of the extracted data from the selected sources of evidence

Source no.	Title	Authors (Year)	Research questions	Concept	Sample (sample size, population, context, age, work experience, race, gender).
1	'Learner-Teacher Targeted Bullying in South African High Schools'	Adewusi (2021)	- What factors cause students to bully teachers in schools?	Learner-teacher-targeted bullying	Population: Secondary school teachers Sample size: 9 Context: South Africa Age: not specified Work experience: not specified Race: not specified. Gender: Female: n = 5; Male: n = 4.
2	'Teacher Bullying and Harassment by Students and Parents: Reports from an Australian Exploratory Survey'	Billett et al (2020)	- Is there evidence of teachers experiencing parent/student-enacted bullying and harassment? - What types of bullying do teachers experience? - What effects does TTBH have on teachers' sense of self-efficacy and well-being?	TTBH	Population: Primary and secondary school teachers Sample size: 560 Context: Australia Age: 21-70 Work experience: Not specified Race: Not specified Gender: Both males and females (exact number not specified).

3	'Student-to-Teacher Victimisation and Its Negative Impact on Teaching Approaches: Applying Propensity Score Matching'	Choi et al (2024)	- What are the consequences of student-to-teacher victimisation? - How does TDV by students affect teachers' neglect, commitment, and pride in their profession? - In what way do these outcomes negatively impact students' achievements?	Student-to-teacher victimisation	Population: Middle and high school teachers Sample size: 1054 Context: South Korea Age: not specified Work experience: not specified Race: not specified Gender: Female (54%) Male (46%)
4	'Victims of Educator-Targeted Bullying: A Qualitative Study'	De Wet (2010)	- What is the nature of ETB? - What is the influence of ETB on the victims' private and professional lives?	ETB	Population: Primary and secondary school teachers Sample size: 7 Context: South Africa Age: Average age (50.86 years) Work experience: Average years (27.29) Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 4), Male (n = 3)
5	'Learner-to-teacher bullying as a potential factor influencing teachers' mental health.'	Woudstra et al (2018)	- What is the prevalence of teachers reporting exposure to bullying by learners? - How does exposure to learner-to-teacher bullying relate to teachers' mental health?	Learner-to-teacher bullying	Population: Secondary school teachers Sample size: 153 Context: South Africa Age: 21-75 Work experience: 1-5 years (38.1%), over 10 years (44.7%)

					Race: White (93.3%) with smaller numbers of Black and Indian teachers. Gender: Female (82.4%)
6	'The prevalence of learner-on-teacher school-based violence: A qualitative study'	Mahome (2019)	- What is the common form of learner-on-teacher violence prevalent in South African secondary schools? -What are the consequences of learner-on-teacher violence?	Learner-on-teacher violence	Population: Secondary School teachers Sample size: 9 Context: South Africa Age: Not specified Work experience: minimum of 5 years teaching experience Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 4), Male (n = 4), Unspecified (n = 1)
7	'The nature, extent, and impact of educator-targeted bullying on schoolteachers in West Malaysia'	Santos & Tin (2018)	-What is the prevalence and severity of ETB within Malaysian educational institutions, and how aware are educators of ETB? - How is the ethnicity of both students and educators related to levels of exposure to ETB?	ETB	Population: Primary, secondary and retired schoolteachers Sample size: 575 Context: Malaysia Age: 22-30 (182), 31-40 (199), 41-50 (132), over 50 (58), unspecified (4) Work experience: less than a year (3.5%); 1-5 years (27.8%), 6-10 (22.6%) 11-15 (16.2%), 16-20 (12.2%), over 20 (16.9%), unspecified

					(0.9%) Race: Chinese (n = 316), Malay (n = 212), Unknown (n= 34) Gender: Female (n = 468), Male (n = 102), Unknown (n = 5)
8	‘Teachers’ reactions to experiences of violence: An attributional analysis’	Anderman et al (2018)	- How do teachers' attributional beliefs influence reactions to violence perpetrated against teachers in schools? - Do teacher emotions mediate the relationship between attributional beliefs (characterological and self-blame) and the outcomes of their reactions to violence? - To what extent do attributional beliefs and emotional responses predict communication with others and subsequent interactions with the perpetrator after controlling for the nature of the violent incident, demographics, and specific variables?	Violence perpetrated against teachers	Population: Elementary, middle, high and multigrade schoolteachers Sample size: 2505 Context: United states Age: Average age (46.4 years) Work experience: Average years (16.76) Work experience: Race: White (83.7%) African American (7.1%), Other (9.2 %) Gender: Female (84.2 %)
9	‘Teacher-Directed Violence in relation to social support and work	Bounds & Jenkins (2016)	- What type of TDV is most commonly reported? - How frequently does TDV occur?	Teacher-Directed Violence (TDV)	Population: Primary and secondary school teachers Sample size: 114

	stress’		- Whom do teachers go to for social support after experiencing violence? - Do teachers who experience TDV have higher levels of stress than those who do not experience violence? - What is the association between sources of support and work stress for teachers who do and do not experience TDV?		Context: United States Age: 23-68 Work experience: Between 1 semester and 20 years+ Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 85), Male (n = 49)
10	‘Teacher victimisation and teachers' subjective well-being: Does school climate matter?’	Yang et al (2022)	- How did teacher victimisation and school level at the teacher and school levels associate with the two subfactors of teachers' subjective well-being (i.e., teaching efficacy and school connectedness)? - How did school climate moderate the association between teacher victimisation and teachers' subjective well-being at the teacher and school levels and across teacher and school levels?	Teacher Victimisation	Population: Middle and high school teachers Sample size: 1711 Context: China Age: Not specified Work experience: 14.23 years (average) Race: Not specified Gender: Not specified
11	‘Teacher-directed violence and anxiety and	McMahon (2023)	- How do teachers’ experiences of violence directly affect anxiety and stress, intentions	Teacher-Directed Violence	Population: Kindergarten to 12th grade teachers Sample size: 9370

	stress: Predicting intentions to transfer and quit’		to transfer schools, and intentions to quit the profession? -What direct effects do teacher anxiety and stress have on intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession? - In what ways does violence indirectly affect intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession through the pathway of anxiety and stress? - How are teacher characteristics and school characteristics associated with intentions to transfer schools and quit the profession?		Context: United States Age: Not specified Work experience: less than a year-45 years Race: White 79% Gender: Female (79%) Male (20.2%)
12	‘An Exploratory Study of Violence and Aggression Against Teachers in Middle and High Schools: Prevalence, Predictors, and Negative Consequences’	Moon & McCluskey (2020)	- What is the prevalence of different types of aggression directed against teachers in the United States? - How do teachers' leadership, helping behaviours toward students, and uncertainty toward students relate to their vulnerability and antagonism in the context of teacher victimisation? - Are teachers who exhibit vulnerability less likely to be victimised at school?	Teacher victimisation	Population: Middle and high school teachers Sample size: 1628 Context: United States Age: Not specified Work experience: 14 years (average) Race: White (n = 811), Hispanic (n = 679), Black (n = 81), Other (n = 57) Gender: Female (about 71%), Male (about 30%).

			- In the context of target congruence theory, are female teachers more likely than male teachers to experience sexual harassment? - What are the negative consequences of teacher victimisation on victimised teachers' job performance, distrust toward students, perceptions of school safety, and thoughts about leaving the teaching profession?		
13	'Violence against teachers in Sweden: The hidden side of school violence'	Terzoudi (2020)	- According to educators' experiences, in what forms and how often does the phenomenon of violence against teachers occur during secondary education in Sweden? - How does violence influence educators, and what are the consequences experienced? - Based on the educators' perceptions, what are the factors that motivate students to engage in violent behaviours against them?	Teacher-directed violence and victimisation	Population: Secondary school teachers Sample size: 7 Context: Sweden Age: Not specified Work experience: 2-40 years (range), 13 years average Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 3), Male (n = 4)
14	'Student-on-teacher	Venketsa	-What are the lived experiences of teachers	Student-on-	Population: Teachers (level/phase not

	violence in South Africa's Tshwane South District of Gauteng Province: Voices of the victims'	my et al (2023)	who have experienced violence from learners? - How does violence against teachers affect their overall well-being? - What strategies can be implemented to support teachers who are victims of violence?	teacher violence	specified). Sample size: 6 Context: South Africa Age: Not specified Work experience: 3-7 years (range) Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 5), Male (n = 1)
15	'Lived Experiences of Middle School Teachers Victimized by Students in a Mississippi Gulf Coast School District: A Phenomenological Study'	Williams (2021)	- What are the lived experiences of middle school educators on the Mississippi Gulf Coast in regard to teacher victimisation?	Teacher victimisation	Population: Middle school teachers Sample size: 11 Context: Mississippi Gulf Coast Age: Not specified Work experience: 3-23 years (range) Race: Not specified Gender: Not specified
16	'Violence Against Teachers: Prevalence and Consequences'	Wilson et al (2011)	- What is the prevalence of different types of violence against teachers? - Does violence experienced by teachers adversely impact their physical, psychological, and teaching-related functioning? Is violence experienced by teachers	Violence against teachers	Population: All teachers Sample size: 731 Context: Canada Age: Average age (43.7 years) Work experience: 15.9 years Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 523)

			associated with fear? -Does fear, in turn, predict adverse functioning? - Does fear mediate the relationship between violence and adverse outcomes? - Does the gender of the victim moderate the relationship between violence and adverse outcomes?		
17	'Violence Against Teachers in South Korea: Negative Consequences and Factors Leading to Emotional Distress'	Moon et al (2015)	- What are the effects of verbal threats and non-contact physical aggression on teachers in a Korean context? - How do socio-demographic factors influence emotional distress among victimised teachers? - How does a teacher's style of relating to students affect their emotional distress following incidents of aggression? - What characteristics of the incidents impact the emotional distress experienced by teachers? - Does reaching a settlement with an offending student reduce emotional distress	Violence against teachers	Population: Middle and high school teachers Sample size: 1054 Context: South Korea Age: Not specified Work experience (not specified) Race: Korean Gender: Female (58%), Male (42%)

			for victimised teachers, and how does this facilitate the healing process?		
18	'Influence of Teacher-Targeted Bullying Behaviour on Teachers in Selected Schools in South Africa'	Sambo & Govender (2023)	- What is the influence of learners' bullying on teachers?	TTB	Population: High school teachers Sample size: 6 Context: South Africa Age: 26-46 Work experience: 4-24 years (range) Race: Black Gender: Female (n = 5), Male (n = 1)
19	'I keep warning the new teachers, "You'll have elephant skin": Teachers coping with physical violence perpetrated toward them by their pupils'	Sigad (2023)	- How do teachers experience being subjected to violence directed toward them by their pupils in their daily work? - How do the violent experiences affect the teachers in their professional and personal lives and their sense of self? - How do teachers who are victimised by student violence construct coping strategies? -	Violence towards teachers	Population: Elementary school teachers Sample size: 32 Context: Northern Israel Age: Not specified Work experience: 5-25 years (range) Race: Jewish (n = 11), Arab (n = 21) Gender: Not specified
20	'A Qualitative Study: Educator-Targeted	Campher (2016)	What is the impact of ETB on teaching quality and learning outcomes?	ETB	Population: High school teachers Sample size: 12

	Bullying by Learners in a High School in Port Elizabeth'		- How severe and frequent is bullying experienced by educators? - What types of bullying do educators face? - How does ETB affect educators' emotional and psychological well-being? - What guidelines can be proposed to reduce educator abuse by learners?		Context: South Africa Age: 25-40 Work experience: less than 5 years (6), 6-10 years (3), 10-15 years (1), over 15 years (2). Race: Not specified Gender: Female (n = 7), Male (n = 5)
21	'Evaluation of the Impact that Teacher-Targeted Bullying has on Individual Perceptions and Stress'	Byers (2012)	- How is teacher-targeted bullying related to stress experienced by affected teachers? - How does being a target of student bullying influence teachers' perceptions of safety within the school and their overall safety climate evaluations? - How do teachers' perceptions of the school safety climate relate to their levels of stress? -Does the perception of the school safety climate mediate the relationship between teacher-targeted bullying and stress? - How does teacher self-efficacy impact the relationship between being a victim of bullying and the level of stress	TTB	Population: Primary school teachers Sample size: 113 Context: New Zealand Age 19-63 Work experience: 1 year (25), 2-5 years (48), 6-10 years (24), 11-15 years (10), 16-20 years (1), 21-25 years (2), more than 26 years (3) Race: Not specified Gender: Female (83%), Male (17%)

	experienced? - How does social support influence the relationship between teacher-targeted bullying and stress experienced by teachers?

4.3 Critical appraisal within sources of evidence

In the current scoping review, sources were not critically appraised because scoping reviews aim to provide a broad overview of the existing evidence, regardless of methodological quality or risk of bias (Tricco et al., 2018). This approach aligns with the distinct purpose of scoping reviews, which is to map the available evidence without excluding studies based on their quality (Tricco et al., 2018). According to Tricco et al. (2018), as per established guidelines, critical appraisal in scoping reviews is an optional step, undertaken only when it aligns with specific review objectives, and since this review did not include such an objective, no sources were appraised.

4.4 Results of Individual sources of evidence

Levac et al (2010) state that results should be reported in a way that aligns with the overall purpose or research question of the study. As such, the results were presented for each source of evidence relevant to the research question (Tricco et al., 2018).

Research question: What is the psychological impact of Teacher-Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH) on educators as revealed by existing literature?

Table 3:

The psychological impact of TTBH as outlined by the selected sources of evidence

Author (year)	Title	Results Findings
Adewus (2021)	'Learner-Teacher Targeted Bullying in South African High Schools'	'The resultant effect of bullying on teachers is severe; responsible for stress, emotional distress, isolation, teacher burnout and sometimes attrition from practice.'
Billett et al (2020)	'Teacher Bullying and Harassment by Students and Parents: Reports from an Australian Exploratory Survey'	'The impact of TTBH on teachers was profound, leading to increased anxiety, stress, and a decline in their sense of self-efficacy. Many teachers reported a reduced enjoyment of their profession and a significant desire to leave the teaching field, with 83% indicating they were either

		seeking to leave or had considered leaving due to the negative effects of bullying and harassment.'
Choi et al (2024)	'Student-to-Teacher Victimization and Its Negative Impact on Teaching Approaches: Applying Propensity Score Matching'	'Victimized teachers might fear confronting students due to past experiences, which could lead to neglect, but they may still engage in essential teaching responsibilities, indicating a complex relationship between victimization and commitment.'
De Wet (2010)	'Victims of Educator-Targeted Bullying: A Qualitative Study'	'The findings indicate that the victims of ETB were exposed repeatedly over time to verbal, non-verbal, psychological, and physical abuse during and after school hours. Shame, lack of assertiveness, feeling guilty, anger, eating disorders, stress, burnout. Powerlessness, self-repulsion, embarrassment, lack of self-esteem, and withdrawal from others are some of the effects of bullying.'
Woudstra et al (2018)	'Learner-to-teacher bullying as a potential factor influencing teachers' mental health'	'Learner-to-teacher bullying can result in negative emotions, disempowerment, low morale, and low motivation of various role players in the school system.'
Mahome (2019)	'The prevalence of learner-on-teacher school-based violence: A qualitative study'	'It was found that most of the teachers were negatively affected by the violence directed towards them, with significant repercussions for their wellbeing, i.e fear and low morale.'
Santos & Tin (2018)	'The nature, extent, and impact of educator-targeted bullying on school teachers in West Malaysia.'	'ETB exhibits a negative impact on burnout and is strongest for student-related burnout. Increased experience buffers the ETB-student-related burnout relationship, while ethnicity is unrelated to exposure to ETB.'

Anderman et al (2018)	‘Teachers’ reactions to experiences of violence: An attributional analysis’	‘Results indicated that characterological and behavioural self-blame were predictive of negative affect, which in turn predicted the majority of outcomes.’
Bounds & Jenkins (2016)	‘Teacher-Directed Violence in relation to social support and work stress’	‘There were no significant differences in stress for teachers who did and did not experience teacher-directed violence.’
Yang et al (2022)	‘Teacher victimization and teachers' subjective well-being: Does school climate matter?’	‘Hierarchical linear modelling analyses revealed that teachers who reported more frequent teacher victimization perceived a lower level of teaching efficacy; however, teachers in schools with a higher level of teacher victimization scores at the school level perceived a higher level of teaching efficacy.’
McMahon (2023)	‘Teacher-directed violence and anxiety and stress: Predicting intentions to transfer and quit’	‘Structural equation model results indicated pre-COVID-19 verbal and threatening violence from students, parents, colleagues, and administrators predicted teacher anxiety and stress and intentions to transfer schools (R^2 ranged from.18 to.23) and quit the profession during COVID-19.’
Moon & McCluskey (2020)	‘An Exploratory Study of Violence and Aggression Against Teachers in Middle and High Schools: Prevalence, Predictors, and Negative Consequences’	‘Experiences involving the five victimization types (theft/property damage, physical assault, verbal abuse, sexual harassment, and noncontact aggression) are correlated with teachers’ self-reported job performance, student trust, safety at school, and thoughts about quitting.’
Terzoudi (2020)	‘Violence against teachers in Sweden: The hidden side of school violence’	‘Violence against teachers is commonly experienced in both indirect (e.g. rumour spreading, property crime) and direct forms (e.g.

		verbal and physical violence), whereas consequences were found to impact teachers' psychological wellbeing (Guilt, sleep deprivation, stress, burnout, feeling uncomfortable, anxiety) their personal lives, the students and consequently several aspects of the school climate itself (e.g. teaching and learning experience).'
Venketsamy et al (2023)	'Student-on-teacher violence in South Africa's Tshwane South District of Gauteng Province: Voices of the victims'	'The findings revealed that teachers are experiencing social, emotional, and psychological trauma. Many teachers cannot perform their duties fruitfully and are constantly anxious to go to school.'
Williams (2021)	'Lived Experiences of Middle School Teachers Victimized by Students in a Mississippi Gulf Coast School District: A Phenomenological Study'	'Victimization is generally defined as experiences that can result in harm to a person or group of persons causing physical, psychological, and emotional harm. The results from this research validate the need for administrative support and professional development that will minimize acts of violence towards teachers.'
Wilson et al (2011)	'Violence Against Teachers: Prevalence and Consequences'	'Violence predicted physical and emotional effects, as well as teaching-related functioning. In addition, a model with fear as a potential mediator revealed that both fear and violence were independently predictive of these negative outcomes. Finally, analyses showed that, in general, women reported higher levels of physical symptoms compared to men.'
Moon et al (2015)	'Violence Against Teachers in South Korea: Negative	'The results indicate that students' verbal and noncontact physical aggression are highly

	Consequences and Factors Leading to Emotional Distress'	correlated with teachers' emotional distress. Teachers' gender, student-oriented approach, and several incident characteristics (number of offending students, direct settlement with offending students) are significant predictors of emotional distress caused by either students' verbal threat or noncontact aggressive behaviors.'
Sambo & Govender (2023)	'Influence of Teacher-Targeted Bullying Behaviour on Teachers in Selected Schools in South Africa'	'Bullying experiences reportedly evoked disturbing emotions (Negative thoughts, fear, anxiety, personality changes, depression, feeling hurt, disrespected, confused, anger, crying), affected teachers' lives at school, their personal lives, and undermined their professional standing.'
Sigad (2023)	'I keep warning the new teachers, you'll have elephant skin": Teachers coping with physical violence perpetrated toward them by their pupils'	'Violence results in "shattered beliefs," described teachers' experiences of broken professional beliefs about the nature of teacher-pupil interactions. The second described teachers' coping with the altered sense of their professional role as a negotiation of extremes involving their social environment, professional commitment, and interpretation of the violent event.'
Campher (2016)	'A Qualitative Study: Educator-Targeted Bullying by Learners in a High School in Port Elizabeth'	'Verbal abuse is the most prominent form of ETB, leading to emotional damage, feelings of incompetence, and reduced motivation to teach with innovation and enthusiasm. This in turn leads to the very concerning fact that ETB negatively affects successful teaching and learning in classrooms, adding more problems to an already embattled education system.'

Byers (2012)	‘Evaluation of the Impact that Teacher-Targeted Bullying has on Individual Perceptions and Stress’	‘The results provided evidence that social support from others outside work moderated the low-level bullying stress and severe bullying stress relationships. Most importantly, unsafe job perceptions mediated the relationship between low-level bullying and stress. The results of this research imply that student bullying can influence teachers to perceive their job as unsafe and lead to stress.’

The results of the study, which are based on 21 selected sources of evidence regarding the psychological impacts of TTBH on educators, are presented in Table 3 above. These findings highlight several key effects that illustrate the significant challenges teachers encounter as a result of bullying and harassment. The following section provides a synthesis of the results, detailing the most and least common psychological effects of TTBH.

4.5 Synthesis of results

As shown in Table 3, the selected sources of evidence reveal a range of psychological effects, including both common and less frequently reported ones. The common psychological effects, along with their frequency of occurrence in the reviewed studies, are summarised in the table below. A detailed discussion of each of these effects follows the table.

Table 4:

Common psychological effects, their frequency, and article Authors

Psychological effects	Frequency	Article Authors
Fear	6	Mahome (2019), Moon & McCluskey (2020), Sambo & Govender (2023), Wilson et al. (2011), Venketsamy et al. (2023), Williams (2021)
Anxiety	5	McMahon (2023), Sambo & Govender (2023), Terzoudi (2020), Venketsamy et al (2023), Woudstra et al. (2018)
Burnout	3	Terzoudi (2020), De Wet (2010), Santos & Tin (2018)
Self-efficacy	5	Billett et al. (2020), Campher (2016), Yang et al. (2022), Choi et al. (2024), Sigad (2023)
Emotional distress	6	Santos & Tin (2018), Moon et al. (2015), Wilson et al. (2011), Adewusi (2021), Byers (2012), Bounds & Jenkins (2016)

MOST COMMON FINDINGS

Fear

One prominent psychological effect of TTBH is fear. Mahome (2019) found that fear resulting from violence directed at teachers has severe repercussions for their well-being. Similarly, Moon and McCluskey (2020) reported that various forms of victimisation, such as theft, physical assault, verbal abuse, sexual harassment, and non-contact aggression, triggered fear among teachers. These findings are consistent with Sambo and Govender (2023), who noted that fear was a common response, regardless of the type of bullying experienced. Wilson et al. (2011) further established that fear plays a mediating role in the negative outcomes associated with both physical and emotional well-being. Additionally, studies by Venketsamy et al. (2023) and Williams (2021) emphasised fear as a significant consequence of TTBH. Collectively, these studies underscore that fear is a pervasive psychological consequence of TTBH, often contributing to diminished feelings of safety and trust within educational settings and can lead to chronic anxiety, which is another frequently reported effect.

Anxiety

Anxiety is another widespread psychological effect, documented in five studies (McMahon, 2023; Sambo & Govender, 2023; Terzoudi, 2020; Venketsamy et al., 2023; Woudstra et al., 2018). McMahon (2023) found that verbal and threatening violence from various stakeholders was a significant predictor of teacher anxiety, even before the COVID-19 pandemic. This finding was echoed by Sambo and Govender (2023) and Venketsamy et al. (2023), who noted that victimised teachers experienced constant anxiety about attending work. Woudstra et al. (2018) linked student bullying to declines in teachers' mental health, further exacerbating anxiety. Terzoudi (2020) also found that both direct and indirect forms of bullying heightened anxiety among teachers.

Burnout

Burnout is a significant psychological outcome linked to both direct and indirect violence against teachers. Terzoudi (2020) identified burnout as a key effect of TTBH, while De Wet (2010) reported that ETB led participants to experience burnout. Santos and Tin (2018) similarly found that ETB negatively impacted burnout, particularly in their interactions with students. These studies demonstrate that TTBH contributes to burnout,

which is characterised by diminished accomplishment, depersonalisation, and emotional exhaustion (De Wet, 2010; Santos & Tin, 2018; Terzoudi, 2020). Diminished accomplishment erodes teachers' self-confidence and sense of purpose, while depersonalisation fosters emotional detachment from others (Santos & Tin, 2018). Emotional exhaustion, the core of burnout, depletes the energy needed to manage daily challenges (De Wet, 2010; Terzoudi, 2020). These interconnected elements create a cycle of stress and disengagement, forming the multidimensional construct of burnout (De Wet, 2010; Santos & Tin, 2018; Terzoudi, 2020).

Self-Efficacy

TTBH significantly impacts teachers' sense of self-efficacy and professional satisfaction. Billett et al. (2020) reported that 83% of respondents affected by TTBH considered leaving the profession as a result of diminished enjoyment and confidence in their roles. Campher (2016) found that bullying reduced motivation to teach with innovation and enthusiasm, while Billett et al. (2020) highlighted decreased self-confidence and competence among affected teachers. Yang et al. (2022) observed that higher levels of victimisation were associated with low teaching efficacy, though this relationship varied depending on the school-wide levels of teacher victimisation. Additionally, Choi et al. (2024) emphasised the loss of pride in professional identity as a profound consequence, while Sigad (2023) noted that experiences of violence disrupted teachers' beliefs about their professional roles, leading to identity re-evaluation.

Emotional Distress

Emotional distress is a broad psychological effect encompassing various interrelated sub-themes, including anxiety, depression, stress, sadness, hopelessness, and feelings of disrespect. These components collectively define the emotional toll of TTBH on educators. Santos and Tin (2018) highlighted troubling emotions such as anxiety, depression, and disrespect, illustrating how these factors contribute to emotional distress. Similarly, Moon et al. (2015) and Wilson et al. (2011) emphasised sadness and hopelessness as significant aspects of this distress, further reflecting the profound psychological toll of TTBH on teachers' well-being and professional functioning. Adewusi (2021) identified bullying as a primary contributor to severe emotional distress, highlighting its role in increasing stress levels. Byers (2012) supported this by linking TTBH to perceptions of an unsafe work environment, which further exacerbates stress levels. In contrast, while Bounds and Jenkins

(2016) reported no significant differences in stress levels between teachers who experienced teacher-directed violence and those who did not, this variability suggests that the impact of TTBH on emotional distress and stress may depend on factors such as personal resilience, support systems, school culture, or the severity of the violence experienced.

LEAST COMMON FINDINGS

The less common psychological effects highlighted in the literature include:

- Anger (De Wet, 2010)
- Self-blame (Anderman et al., 2018)
- Negative thoughts (Sambo & Govender, 2023)
- Low morale (Mahome, 2019; Santos & Tin, 2018)
- Trauma (Venketsamy et al.,2023)
- Depression (Woudstra et al., 2018)
- Powerlessness (De Wet, 2010)
- Shame/guilt (De Wet, 2010)

Among the less frequently discussed psychological consequences of TTBH, negative emotions such as anger stand out as notable findings. De Wet (2010) revealed through qualitative research that anger often emerged as a direct reaction to bullying experiences, reflecting the emotional toll such incidents can take on educators. Building on this, self-blame was highlighted by Anderman et al. (2018) as another significant consequence. Their study found that victims frequently internalised the bullying, attributing it to their own character or behaviour (Anderman et al., 2018). This tendency to self-blame, often accompanied by negative thoughts, was shown to predict other psychological impacts (Anderman et al., 2018). Similarly, Sambo and Govender (2023) identified negative thoughts and personality changes, emphasising that bullying could fundamentally alter educators' mental frameworks and self-perception. In addition to anger and self-blame, low morale was a recurring issue identified in studies by Mahome (2019) and Santos and Tin (2018). Victims reported feeling emotionally drained, which diminished their enthusiasm and motivation to perform their roles effectively (Mahome, 2019; Santos & Tin, 2018). This sense of depletion underscores the profound impact of TTBH on teachers' professional lives (Mahome, 2019).

The findings also point to the deep emotional scars left by bullying. Emotional

trauma was a key theme in Venketsamy et al. (2023), who highlighted how social and psychological trauma hindered teachers' ability to function effectively in their professional capacities. Such trauma not only affects day-to-day performance but also has long-term implications for teachers' mental health and well-being (Venketsamy et al., 2023). Among the most severe consequences of TTBH is depression, as documented in Woudstra et al. (2018). Their study showed that prolonged exposure to bullying could lead to profound emotional distress and significant mental health challenges, adding another layer to the complex psychological impact of TTBH (Woudstra et al., 2018). Finally, another recurring theme in the literature is feelings of powerlessness. De Wet (2010) emphasised that victims often felt incapable of regaining control over their situations, which led to significant drops in self-esteem. Alongside powerlessness, shame and guilt were commonly reported (De Wet, 2010). De Wet (2010) noted that these emotions contributed to emotional turmoil, fostering a sense of self-repulsion and detrimental self-perception among educators. These findings highlight the multifaceted and deeply personal ways in which TTBH affects teachers, extending far beyond the classroom. The following chapter will provide a discussion of these findings.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

The psychological impact of TTBH highlights the urgent need to synthesise global research findings to develop targeted recommendations for alleviating or eliminating this pervasive source of work-related stress for educators. This study aimed to uncover the psychological effects experienced by educators through a comprehensive review of both local and international literature on TTBH, offering valuable insights to enhance professional development programs and implement interventions designed to protect and promote teacher well-being.

This scoping review followed established frameworks for conducting such analyses (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010; Tricco et al., 2018) and included a total of 21 studies—11 quantitative, 9 qualitative, and 1 mixed-methods—all meeting the eligibility criteria for inclusion. The findings consistently indicate that TTBH negatively impacts educators' psychological well-being. However, the severity and nature of these effects can vary based on several factors. It is crucial to contextualise these findings within the broader landscape of educational environments and mental health discourse, as the evidence underscores a pervasive issue that affects not only individual teachers but also has significant implications for the educational system.

A primary concern is the consistent identification of fear and anxiety as some of the key psychological effects of TTBH. Studies by Mahome (2019) and Moon and McCluskey (2020) reveal that teachers often experienced fear and anxiety, which resulted in heightened safety concerns and diminishing trust in their students. This erosion of trust can foster a hostile work environment, leading to increased absenteeism and a decline in overall job satisfaction. Further, research by Sambo and Govender (2023) and Venketsamy et al. (2023) emphasises that the anxiety experienced by victimised teachers can hinder their engagement with students, ultimately affecting educational outcomes. This cycle of fear and anxiety not only diminishes teachers' mental health but may also contribute to a negative classroom atmosphere, adversely impacting student learning.

Moreover, the relationship between TTBH and burnout is critical to address. Studies by Terzoudi (2020) and De Wet (2010) suggest that the emotional exhaustion stemming from TTBH can erode teachers' professional identity and efficacy. Burnout, characterised by depersonalisation and a sense of diminished accomplishment, can lead to high turnover rates and depersonalisation in the teaching profession. This has far-reaching implications, as

schools may struggle to retain experienced educators, thereby affecting the quality of education provided to students. The connection between TTBH and emotional distress, highlighted by Santos and Tin (2018) and Adewusi (2021), further underscores the urgent need for mental health support systems within educational institutions.

Additionally, the findings regarding diminished self-efficacy and loss of professional identity, as reported by Billett et al. (2020) and Choi et al. (2024), raise critical questions about the long-term implications for the teaching profession. When teachers begin to doubt their competence and lose pride in their roles, the overall educational environment can suffer. This loss of professional identity may lead to a decrease in innovative teaching practices, ultimately affecting student engagement and learning outcomes.

The theme of powerlessness, as described by De Wet (2010), complicates the psychological landscape for teachers experiencing TTBH. Feelings of shame and guilt can exacerbate mental health issues, leading to withdrawal and isolation. This emotional turmoil can hinder collaboration among educators, which is essential for creating a positive school culture. Additionally, the identification of less common psychological consequences, such as anger and negative thoughts, points to the multifaceted nature of TTBH's impact on teachers. These findings suggest that the repercussions of TTBH extend beyond immediate emotional responses, potentially leading to long-term changes in educators' mental frameworks and interpersonal relationships. The acknowledgement of depression as a significant outcome, as noted by Woudstra et al. (2018), reinforces the need for comprehensive mental health support for teachers.

The findings also reveal a nuanced picture regarding the psychological consequences of TTBH. For instance, Bounds and Jenkins (2016) found variability in stress responses among teachers, indicating no significant differences in stress levels for those who experienced teacher-directed violence compared to those who did not. This contrasts with the findings of Adewusi (2021), De Wet (2010), and Terzoudi (2020), who all assert that bullying and violence against teachers lead to heightened stress. Although Bounds and Jenkins (2016) did not focus primarily on this aspect, their study indicated that bullying and violence against teachers contribute to emotional distress. This notion is echoed by Moon et al. (2015), who also found that TTBH leads to emotional distress, with female teachers reporting higher levels of emotional distress than their male counterparts, suggesting that gender may moderate the experiences of bullying and its psychological impact.

While some studies support the idea that gender plays a significant role in experiences of TTBH (Lampman, 2012; Montgomery, 2019), others present contrasting findings (Billett et al., 2020; McMahon et al., 2014). For example, Billett et al. (2020) found that male teachers reported higher rates of TTBH from students compared to female teachers, while McMahon et al. (2014) indicated that men were more likely than women to report victimisation. However, Montgomery (2019) argues that the teaching profession has an unequal gender distribution, with women comprising much of the workforce globally. Consequently, it is primarily women who experience victimisation, suggesting that violence against teachers tends to be violence against women (Montgomery, 2019). This implies that women may experience more TTBH than men, aligning with the notion that females are more likely to report higher levels of emotional distress (Moon et al., 2015).

Santos and Tin (2018) examined the impact of ETB on school teachers, finding that ETB negatively affected burnout, particularly student-related burnout. Interestingly, teachers with significant teaching experience reported less student-related burnout compared to their less experienced counterparts (Santos & Tin, 2018). This relationship may be linked to age, as those with more teaching experience are often older, while younger teachers, who are typically recent graduates, may face greater challenges (Billett et al., 2020; Santos & Tin, 2018). Thus, age appears to influence the impact of TTBH, with younger teachers likely experiencing a more pronounced negative effect compared to their older colleagues (Santos & Tin, 2018). Literature supports the idea that younger teachers are often victims of TTBH, leading to greater adverse impacts (Billett et al., 2020; De Wet, 2012; Lampman, 2012).

Regarding race and ethnicity, while some studies note that this plays a role in the likelihood of victimisation and whether or not such bullying is reported, not all studies found for this. For example, Santos and Tin (2018) found no correlation between ethnicity/race and ETB, suggesting that the impact of TTBH on teachers is not influenced by race or ethnicity. This finding contrasts with other literature indicating a relationship between race and TTBH. For instance, McMahon et al. (2014) found that African American teachers were less likely than white teachers to report victimisation across various categories. In contrast, another study indicated that non-white teachers were more likely to report bullying experiences than their white counterparts (Lampman, 2012). Though most studies that specified the race of participants had samples that were predominantly White, followed by individuals from other ethnicities, including Chinese, Malay, Hispanic, and Korean. In contrast, Black, Indian, and

other racial groups were under-represented in the studies (Anderman et al., 2018; McMahon, 2023; Moon & McCluskey, 2020; Santos & Tin, 2018; Woudstra et al., 2018). This under-representation may explain disparities in the sample regarding race and support literature suggesting that white teachers are more likely to experience victimisation than non-white or Black teachers (Lampman, 2012; McMahon et al., 2014). The disparities in the samples of studies could also stem from the fact that some individuals may be more willing to participate in studies than others, leading to a sample that predominantly consists of similar characteristics, such as white teachers (Acharya et al., 2013). According to Acharya et al. (2013), individuals who volunteer for studies often share similar characteristics, which may have implications for generalisability, as the sample may differ from the general population. Consequently, the findings of the current study may not be generalisable to the broader population of teachers worldwide, given that the overall sample is not representative of the characteristics of the general population. There also, as mentioned, appears to be an unequal distribution in the sample concerning gender (Anderman et al., 2018; McMahon, 2023; Moon & McCluskey, 2020; Santos & Tin, 2018; Woudstra et al., 2018). Therefore, one cannot definitively argue that the negative impact of TTBH is greater among white teachers and females compared to other racial groups and males.

Findings from Yang et al. (2022) suggest that the impact of TTBH on teaching efficacy is influenced by contextual elements, such as the school's climate. Specifically, the study found that teachers' perceptions of their teaching efficacy can vary based on their experiences with victimisation (Yang et al., 2022). Teachers who report frequent personal victimisation often perceive a lower level of teaching efficacy, likely due to self-blame and internal attribution of the victimisation to personal shortcomings (Yang et al., 2022). However, in schools where higher levels of teacher victimisation are collectively reported, teachers tend to perceive a higher level of teaching efficacy (Yang et al., 2022). This counterintuitive finding can be explained by the attribution of victimisation to external factors, such as systemic issues or a negative school climate, rather than individual failings (Yang et al., 2022). Viewing victimisation as a shared, school-wide issue reduces self-blame and fosters a sense of solidarity among teachers, ultimately enhancing their self-efficacy (Yang et al., 2022). Additionally, a positive school climate serves as a critical resource for teacher well-being, reinforcing teaching efficacy even in challenging circumstances (Yang et al., 2022). School-wide victimization in the presence of a supportive climate can promote a sense of collective resilience and shared responsibility, which may offset the negative

impacts of victimisation (Yang et al., 2022). This finding partially contrasts with Billett et al. (2020), who reported that high levels of TTBH significantly undermined teachers' sense of efficacy, with 83% of respondents considering leaving the profession as a result. These findings highlight the severe consequences of TTBH/victimisation on teacher retention and efficacy while emphasising the mitigating role of external attribution and school climate (Billett et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022).

The literature indicates that teachers in secondary education settings, such as middle and high schools, are often at a greater risk of experiencing violence compared to those in elementary schools (Reddy et al., 2023). Billett et al. (2020) also found that TTBH is more prevalent in government schools than in religious or independent schools. Schools facing socio-educational disadvantages, such as limited resources, are more vulnerable to TTBH (Billett et al., 2020). Furthermore, McMahon (2014) found that teachers working in rural and suburban schools were less likely to report harassment than those in urban schools. In summary, teachers in middle and high schools, as well as those in government and urban schools, experience greater TTBH, which may be a common experience among educators in these environments (Billett et al., 2020; McMahon, 2014). This context suggests that TTBH may become normalised in these schools, potentially leading to a lesser perceived impact on teachers. Consequently, teachers in schools with higher levels of teacher victimisation may report a higher level of teaching efficacy (Yang et al., 2022). However, it is the researcher’s opinion that while this may indicate the potential use of 'shared victimisation strategies’ to manage the psychological impact of TTBH, the widely reported negative psychological consequences of TTBH in other studies indicate that such bullying should be reduced or circumvented completely by other coping strategies, without teachers having to resort to shared experiences of a highly negative stressor as a means of coping.

To conclude, while the focus of the current study was to identify the various psychological outcomes of TTBH, it is equally important to examine other means of how teachers cope with bullying. Understanding their methods of coping and their effectiveness can help develop more efficacious interventions to strengthen teachers’ ability to manage TTBH if and when it occurs.

Methods of Coping

As the literature indicates, teachers often employ various coping mechanisms when faced with bullying situations (Jóhannsdóttir & Ólafsson, 2004; Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012;

Tolentino, 2016). For instance, a study by Ozkilic and Kartal (2012) revealed that teachers who experienced bullying from students preferred to seek help from guidance counsellors (29%), followed by deputy headmasters (25.3%), colleagues (24.9%), headmasters (22.6%), and branch teachers' chairpersons. However, some teachers chose to remain silent about their experiences due to fear of retaliation, disbelief, or the expectation that they should resolve these issues independently, leading to feelings of helplessness and isolation (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). These instances may partly explain the disparities in the severity of the negative psychological impact of TTBH on teachers.

The Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984), can be applied to understand how educators cope with TTBH and its impact on their well-being. The model highlights the dynamic interaction between environmental stressors and individual responses, emphasising cognitive appraisal in two stages: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). During primary appraisal, individuals categorise a situation as irrelevant, benign-positive, or stressful (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Irrelevant situations have no impact on well-being, while benign-positive situations are viewed positively. Stressful situations, however, can be categorised into harm/loss, threat, or challenge (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Harm/loss refers to damage already experienced, a threat that anticipates harm or losses to come, and a challenge that presents opportunities for mastery or gain (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

In the context of TTBH, teachers may appraise their experiences in two stages (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). During primary appraisal, teachers assess whether bullying behaviour poses a threat to their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). If perceived as harmful or threatening, teachers may experience heightened stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). However, if bullying is perceived as less threatening, it may have no impact on their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Studies suggest that teachers often perceive bullying as a threat to their well-being, leading to negative effects such as heightened stress and its associated negative outcomes, particularly in relation to poor psychological well-being (Adewusi, 2021; De Wet, 2010; Terzoudi, 2020). However, as mentioned, the study by Yang et al. (2022) suggests that teachers in schools with higher levels of teacher victimisation may perceive TTBH as far less threatening, leading to a counter effect and higher levels of teaching efficacy. The study found that in contexts with prevalent teacher victimisation, where teachers tend to not attribute incidents of bullying to their actions but instead view

them as a collective issue affecting the entire school (Billett et al., 2020; Qiao & Patterson, 2021; Yang et al., 2022), they suffer fewer negative outcomes. These teachers are less likely to blame themselves, and the negative impact of TTBH is minimised, allowing them to maintain higher levels of teaching efficacy (Yang et al., 2022).

Teachers working in environments characterised by teacher victimisation may thus tend to be less sensitive to negative experiences than those in healthier, adversity-free environments, as suggested by the "healthy context paradox" (Yang et al., 2022). Consequently, TTBH may have a negative effect on them, and some positive effects may even ensue, indicating that they are still able to thrive and continue their daily routines despite the challenges posed by TTBH (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018). This suggests the presence of internal and external coping mechanisms that help individuals manage stressors, ultimately having a positive impact on their well-being. In the instance of teachers such as those in the Yang et al. (2022) study, their ability to attribute differently, engage in less self-blame, and having supportive working environments enhanced their ability to cope overall.

Teachers thus typically reappraise a stressor during the secondary stage of appraisal, and if there are external resources (along with their internal resources), this can reduce their reappraisal of the stressor of TTBH and enhance their resilience and ability to cope (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). More specifically, during the secondary appraisal stage, educators assess their coping options and the resources available to them for managing stressors (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The availability of external resources where they can seek and get social support, along with their own coping strategies of engaging in self-care and reporting the bully or bullies, can lead to overall enhanced coping and less negative psychological outcomes.

Additional research has indicated that teachers who work in environments where they feel empowered and supported are more likely to adopt adaptive coping strategies (problem-focused and/or emotion-focused), which in turn leads to better psychological outcomes (Billett et al., 2020; Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Soklis, 2021). On the other hand, teachers who perceive a lack of control or external sources of support may resort to maladaptive coping mechanisms, which can worsen their stress and mental health challenges (Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Woudstra et al., 2018).

Thus, it is essential to recognise that a positive school climate can still serve as a buffer against the negative effects of bullying. Numerous studies support the idea that a

supportive environment enhances effective coping strategies among educators (Billett et al., 2020; Ozkilic & Kartal, 2012; Soklis, 2021; Woudstra et al., 2018). Therefore, fostering a positive school climate should be a priority for educational institutions to promote the well-being of teachers and mitigate the adverse effects of bullying and harassment.

Although this was not explicitly identified as a theme in the reviewed literature, variations in how teachers cope—framed by the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping—were noted across the studies. Understanding these differences is vital because successful coping strategies, whether based on personal resources or external support, can inform the design of interventions for teachers experiencing bullying. Based on this analysis, the ways in which teachers cope can help guide the development of intervention strategies aimed at enhancing interpersonal coping and providing resources to reduce TTBH occurrences or assist teachers both during and after such events. *(A more in-depth discussion of interventions is continued in the following chapter in Section 6.2 Implications and Recommendations.*).

CHAPTER 6: CONTRIBUTIONS, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter highlights the key contributions, implications, recommendations, and limitations of the review. Additionally, it identifies limitations, offering recommendations for future research. These insights aim to guide efforts toward creating safer and more supportive educational environments for teachers worldwide.

6.1 Contributions

The current review offers significant contributions to understanding TTBH, offering a multidimensional framework for comprehensively addressing the issue. By situating workplace bullying within educational environments, the study offers insights into how traditional power hierarchies are disrupted as students or parents become the perpetrators rather than authority figures. This challenges existing workplace bullying models and calls for revised frameworks that account for the redefinition of authority in educational spaces. Additionally, it makes an important distinction between bullying and harassment while acknowledging their overlap in the context of TTBH, thereby enhancing conceptual clarity and providing future researchers with tools to better differentiate and address these behaviours in schools.

The study adopts a systemic perspective, theorising that the psychological effects of TTBH extend beyond individual teachers to influence students and school communities. This systemic perspective links teacher well-being to student performance and the overall school climate. Through the lens of the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping, the research further emphasises how teachers cognitively appraise TTBH as a stressor, illustrating how primary and secondary appraisals are shaped by contextual and personal factors. This not only validates the model's relevance to non-traditional workplace settings but also provides a theoretical basis for designing stress management interventions tailored to educators.

The study also adopts an intersectional perspective, exploring how individual characteristics such as gender, age, experience, and race shape teachers' experiences of TTBH. This nuanced understanding underscores the need for tailored interventions that address these intersecting vulnerabilities. Finally, by synthesising findings from diverse cultural and geographical contexts, the research advances cross-cultural theories of workplace bullying, revealing how socio-economic conditions, cultural norms, and educational policies influence the prevalence and forms of TTBH. These insights highlight the importance of culturally

sensitive and context-specific approaches to addressing TTBH globally.

6.2 Implications and Recommendations

To alleviate the psychological burden of TTBH on educators and foster a healthier educational environment, several key recommendations are proposed:

6.2.1 Policy Development and Revision:

One of the most effective ways to alleviate TTBH is to address it through the development of comprehensive anti-bullying legislation specifically focusing on teacher bullying (Mahome, 2019; Sambo & Govender, 2023). The need for such policies is underscored by Mahome (2019), who highlights that the absence of coherent safety policies leaves teachers feeling helpless, alienated, and vulnerable. Education authorities are urged to create or revise policies to provide clear guidelines ensuring the safety and security of educators (Billett et al., 2020; Mahome, 2019; Sambo & Govender, 2023). Existing policies, particularly in South Africa, such as the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1995, the Employment Equity Act (EEA) 55 of 1998, the Regulations for Safety in Public Schools (2001), and the South African Schools Act 85 of 1996, have been found inadequate and require revision (Mahome, 2019).

Due to the inadequacies of existing policies, particularly the EEA, the Code of Good Practice on the Prevention and Elimination of Harassment in the Workplace was introduced (Calitz, 2022). While the Code aims to address workplace harassment broadly, it does not specifically focus on teacher bullying (Ally, 2023). However, it can serve as a valuable starting point for developing legislation that directly addresses TTBH (Ally, 2023). The Code outlines what constitutes harassment, the procedures for reporting incidents, and the necessity for proper investigations and appropriate disciplinary actions against perpetrators (Ally, 2023; Calitz, 2022). Furthermore, it emphasises the importance of preventative measures, ensuring that all employees are well informed of their rights and responsibilities (Calitz, 2022). By utilising the framework established in the Code, education authorities can review and enhance existing procedures and disciplinary actions to better protect teachers from bullying (Ally, 2023).

To effectively address TTBH, a thorough examination of current policies, along with the responses to TTBH incidents, is essential to identify additional measures necessary for teacher protection (Billett et al., 2020). Additionally, developing a clear and accessible code

of conduct for parents, students, and teachers within schools is crucial (Billett et al., 2020). This initiative can help foster a culture of respect and accountability, ultimately contributing to a safer and more supportive educational environment for all educators (Calitz, 2022). That said, the Code of Good Practice, if fully and effectively implemented in schools, can significantly help prevent or reduce the occurrence of negative situations such as TTBH (Ally, 2023; Billett et al., 2020).

6.2.2 Teacher Training and Support

Teachers, particularly new and inexperienced ones, should receive training focused on managing aggressive learner behaviour (Mahome, 2019; Venketsamy et al., 2023). Such training should cover conflict resolution, behavioural monitoring, and early identification of potential violence (Mahome, 2019). Furthermore, professional development initiatives should emphasise classroom management techniques to strengthen teacher-student relationships, helping to prevent the development of bullying dynamics (Woudstra et al., 2018). Teachers should also receive support in building their confidence and promoting positive early teaching experiences (Moon & McCluskey, 2020). These measures can contribute to a positive school environment and enhance teacher performance.

6.2.3 Mental Health Support

Schools should prioritise the mental health of teachers, offering support through counselling services, peer support groups, and access to mental health professionals (Moon & McCluskey, 2020; Santos & Tin, 2018; Woudstra et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018). Employing psychologists, social workers, and counsellors at school or district levels will provide necessary support for teachers dealing with trauma and violence (Venketsamy et al., 2023). Byers (2012) suggests contracting professionals outside the school organisation, as this provides a confidential space for teachers to seek assistance without the pressure of being closely associated with the school environment. These mental health services should also extend to students to address behavioural issues and promote positive changes through behavioural modification strategies or anger management therapy (Campher, 2016; Sambo & Govender, 2023). Psychologists can also assist in designing and implementing comprehensive intervention programs to address bullying effectively (Sambo & Govender, 2023).

6.2.4 Fostering Open Communication and Supportive Leadership:

Creating a culture of open communication is essential for addressing TTBH effectively. School administrators should establish platforms where teachers can express concerns and discuss challenges, particularly those they face in the classroom (Mahome, 2019). This will encourage teachers to report incidents of bullying without fear of retaliation, reducing feelings of isolation (Sigad, 2024; Woudstra et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020). School leadership plays a crucial role in fostering a positive climate by promoting team-building activities and collaborative initiatives that strengthen a sense of community among staff (Billett et al., 2020). Mahome (2019) emphasises that a unified approach among educators is necessary for addressing behavioural issues and creating a safe, positive learning environment.

6.2.5 Whole-School and Community Involvement:

Not only should unity be promoted among educators, but there must also be collaboration between school management and the school governing body (De Wet, 2010). According to De Wet (2010) and Camphor (2016), developing, implementing, and monitoring whole-school programs that are tailored to the unique needs of each school is crucial. Woudstra et al. (2018) argue that interventions should occur at local, national, and even international levels to create meaningful change. Partnerships with external entities such as communities, non-governmental organisations, and law enforcement agencies can reinforce the message that violence and misbehaviour against teachers have serious consequences (Sambo & Govender, 2023; Venketsamy et al., 2023).

That said, addressing TTBH requires a multi-faceted approach that includes robust policy implementation, targeted teacher training, mental health support, and collaborative efforts among all stakeholders. By focusing on these areas, educational institutions can create an environment where teachers feel supported, valued, and empowered to thrive professionally. Ultimately, fostering a respectful and safe educational environment benefits not only teachers but also learners and the broader school community.

6.3 Limitations

The current review is not without its limitations. A significant limitation is the choice to conduct a scoping review rather than a systematic review. According to Smith and Duncan (2022), scoping reviews lack a predefined plan or search strategy, which may restrict the comprehensiveness and reproducibility of the findings. Additionally, the decision to exclude non-English literature limited the review to studies published solely in English, potentially omitting valuable insights from non-English sources.

Another limitation is the restriction of literature searches to a specific time frame, from 1998 to 2024. This narrow focus may have excluded earlier relevant studies, hindering the review's ability to capture the full evolution of research on TTBH. Furthermore, the exclusion of books, book reviews, and literature reviews may have limited the range of perspectives and insights relevant to understanding TTBH. While these sources may not provide empirical data, they can offer important theoretical frameworks or contextual analyses that enhance understanding of the topic. The decision to forgo the expert consultation stage due to time and resource constraints may have also limited the depth of insights gained from experienced researchers in the field, potentially affecting the rigour and trustworthiness of the review.

As mentioned previously, the studies included in this review may also pose limitations. The distribution of studies reveals a predominance of research conducted in South Africa (n = 7), part of the Global South, followed by the United States (n = 4) and South Korea (n = 2), both generally considered part of the Global North. Additional studies from Australia, Malaysia, China, Sweden, the Mississippi Gulf Coast, Canada, Northn = 4 Israel, and New Zealand contribute to this mix. While there is representation from both the Global North and Global South, the distribution is uneven, with a stronger focus on South Africa compared to other countries. This concentration may limit the applicability of findings to other contexts, as the experiences and systemic factors influencing TTBH can differ significantly between these regions. That said, the educational environments and contexts related to TTBH may not be adequately represented, potentially restricting the generalisability of the findings.

There are also limitations regarding the samples and sample sizes used in the twenty-one articles included in this review. The sample distribution shows an uneven representation of

gender, race, and age, with female, white, and younger teachers forming the majority of the population in the included studies. This unequal distribution may limit the generalisability of the findings, leading to results that may not accurately reflect the experiences of non-white, male, and older participants.

Regarding sample sizes, the review included twenty-one studies—eleven quantitative, nine qualitative, and one mixed-methods study. Of the eleven quantitative studies, two had relatively small sample sizes compared to the populations studied (Bounds & Jenkins, 2016; Woudstra et al., 2018). Small sample sizes can affect the generalisability of findings, raising concerns about the trustworthiness and reliability of the results (Rahman, 2016). For the qualitative studies, while eight appeared to have appropriate sample sizes, the ninth study (Sigad, 2023) had a sample of 32, which may be considered relatively large. Hagaman and Wutich (2016) recommend larger samples of around 20 interviews to yield rich data, suggesting that a sample of 32 could be appropriate. However, a disadvantage of using large sample sizes in qualitative research is that meaning can change during the data analysis stage, leading to the risk of incorrectly accepting insignificant results as significant, thereby compromising the quality of the findings (Rahman, 2016). Overall, these limitations highlight areas for improvement in future research on TTBH.

6.4 Future research recommendations

To enhance the comprehensiveness and reliability of research on TTBH, future studies could adopt systematic review methodologies rather than scoping reviews. By implementing predefined protocols and rigorous search strategies, researchers can ensure a thorough and reproducible examination of the available literature. This approach would provide a more exhaustive understanding of the prevalence, causes, and impacts of TTBH while strengthening the evidence base for developing interventions and policies. Expanding the scope of reviews to include studies published in non-English languages could also offer valuable insights into the cultural and systemic factors influencing TTBH in non-English-speaking regions. This multilingual perspective would contribute to a more global understanding of TTBH, highlighting cultural nuances and region-specific dynamics.

Future studies should consider expanding the temporal scope to include research published prior to 1998. Doing so would enable researchers to track the historical evolution of TTBH research, revealing trends and shifts in its conceptualisation and prevalence over time.

Additionally, the inclusion of non-empirical sources, such as books, theoretical literature, and book reviews, could enrich the theoretical frameworks and contextual analyses informing TTBH research. Engaging with these sources could complement empirical findings by offering a broader perspective on the factors shaping TTBH.

Future research could also integrate an expert consultation stage to enhance the depth and rigour of the findings. Collaborating with experienced researchers and practitioners in the field would provide valuable insights into underexplored areas and help refine methodologies. This approach could bridge gaps in the literature and ensure that the research remains aligned with practical and theoretical advancements in understanding TTBH. Furthermore, conducting comparative studies across diverse educational contexts, such as public vs. private schools or urban vs. rural settings, may reveal contextual factors that influence the prevalence and nature of TTBH. Such analyses could uncover region- and institution-specific dynamics, offering actionable insights into localised intervention strategies.

Additionally, it could be beneficial to address the uneven demographic and geographic representation found in existing TTBH research. Future studies should strive to diversify participant demographics by including more male, non-white, and older teachers, as well as under-represented regions. This approach would ensure that findings are more generalisable and reflective of the diverse experiences of teachers worldwide. Additionally, incorporating larger sample sizes in quantitative research would enhance the reliability and validity of findings while maintaining an appropriate balance in qualitative studies to preserve depth and nuance.

Furthermore, future studies could focus on emerging forms of bullying, such as cyberbullying, which have become increasingly relevant in the digital age. Investigating the prevalence and psychological impact of online harassment directed at teachers could help identify effective strategies for addressing this modern phenomenon. Similarly, longitudinal studies could provide crucial insights into the long-term impacts of TTBH on teachers' mental health, professional performance, and personal lives. This approach would allow researchers to track recovery trajectories and evaluate the effectiveness of interventions over time.

Additionally, it is important to evaluate the effectiveness of existing interventions and explore barriers to reporting TTBH incidents. Many teachers hesitate to report bullying due to fear of retaliation, stigma, or doubts about the responsiveness of their institutions. Future research could investigate how to create safer, more supportive reporting mechanisms and

foster a culture of openness within schools. By addressing these challenges, researchers can contribute to the development of evidence-based interventions and policies aimed at reducing the prevalence of TTBH and supporting the well-being of educators worldwide.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this scoping review has provided a comprehensive examination of the psychological impact of TTBH on educators. The analysis has revealed numerous studies that highlight the detrimental effects of TTBH on schools, which often lead to high turnover rates and a declining interest in the teaching profession. The prevalence of TTBH is influenced by various contextual elements, including the educational system, perceived school culture, socio-educational disadvantages, and school location. Additionally, individual characteristics such as gender, age, and race play a significant role in the prevalence of TTBH.

The coping strategies employed by educators in response to TTBH can be effectively understood through the lens of the Transactional Model of Stress and Coping proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). This model emphasises cognitive appraisal, which involves two stages: primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. During primary appraisal, educators assess whether the bullying behaviour poses a threat to their well-being. If they perceive the situation as harmful or threatening, they may experience heightened stress. In the secondary appraisal stage, educators evaluate their coping options and the resources available to them to manage the stressor.

Understanding the interplay of contextual factors, individual characteristics, and cognitive appraisal is vital for addressing TTBH and fostering a supportive environment for educators. This scoping review highlights the urgent need for comprehensive strategies to address TTBH and its psychological ramifications on educators. The findings indicate that TTBH not only impacts individual teachers' mental health but also has broader implications for the educational environment, including increased turnover rates and diminished job satisfaction. The interplay of contextual factors, such as school culture and socio-economic conditions, along with individual characteristics like race, gender, age, and tenure, significantly influences the prevalence and impact of TTBH.

To enhance teacher well-being and create a healthier educational environment, it is essential to implement targeted interventions that address the unique challenges faced by educators. These interventions should include policy development and revision, teacher training, mental health support systems, fostering open communication, supportive leadership, and community involvement. In terms of policy development and revision, the recent Code of Good Practice on the Prevention and Elimination of Harassment in the Workplace can also serve as a vital framework for addressing TTBH in the South African

context. While it does not specifically target teacher bullying, its comprehensive guidelines on harassment can be adapted to create tailored policies that protect educators. By emphasising preventative measures, the Code requires employers to take proactive steps to safeguard the well-being of their employees, fostering a culture of accountability through clear reporting procedures and appropriate disciplinary actions against perpetrators.

Through the implementation of this Code, education authorities can create a safer, more supportive environment that not only protects teachers but also promotes their overall well-being and effectiveness in the classroom. This approach aligns with the necessity for a thorough examination of current policies and the development of a clear code of conduct for all stakeholders, ultimately contributing to a culture of respect and accountability within educational institutions. Future research should continue to explore the complexities of TTBH, refining strategies that empower educators and contribute to a more positive teaching landscape.

CHAPTER 8: FUNDING

The following section outlines the funding sources for each piece of evidence, as well as the financial support for the ongoing scoping review. If the involvement of funders is indicated in any of the selected evidence, it will be noted in this section.

8.1 Funding for Each Source of Evidence

The primary reviewer manually analysed each source of evidence and found that some studies reported receiving funding. For instance, Adewusi (2021) indicated that their research was financed by the University of Pretoria. Anderman et al. (2018) stated that their study received support from the American Psychological Association's Centre for Psychology in Schools and Education. Similarly, McMahon (2023) noted funding from the American Psychological Association and various universities. Moon and McCluskey (2018) reported that their project was funded by the National Institute of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, U.S. Department of Justice; however, they clarified that the opinions, findings, conclusions, or recommendations expressed in the publication were solely those of the authors and not the funders. Sigad (2023) mentioned support from the Academics Program, Research & Evaluation Authority, Academic Center of Education and Society, Oranim. Billett et al. (2020) indicated that their study was funded by the DVC (R) Research Engagement Income Growth Fund and the HuSS IRGS Supplementary Support Fund. The following authors—Bounds and Jenkins (2016), Campher (2016), De Wet (2010), Mahome (2019), Moon et al. (2015), Sambo and Govender (2023), Santos and Tin (2018), Terzoudi (2020), Venketsamy et al. (2023), Williams (2021), Woudstra et al. (2018), and Yang et al. (2022)—did not disclose whether they received any funding. Additionally, Choi et al. (2024) and Wilson (2011) stated that their studies did not receive any financial support.

8.2 Funding for the Current Scoping Review

The current scoping review did not receive any funding, and all financial matters related to this study were managed by the primary reviewer. This lack of funding may be considered a further limitation, as the primary reviewer, being a student, had very limited financial resources to contribute to the research and broaden its scope.

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APPENDICES

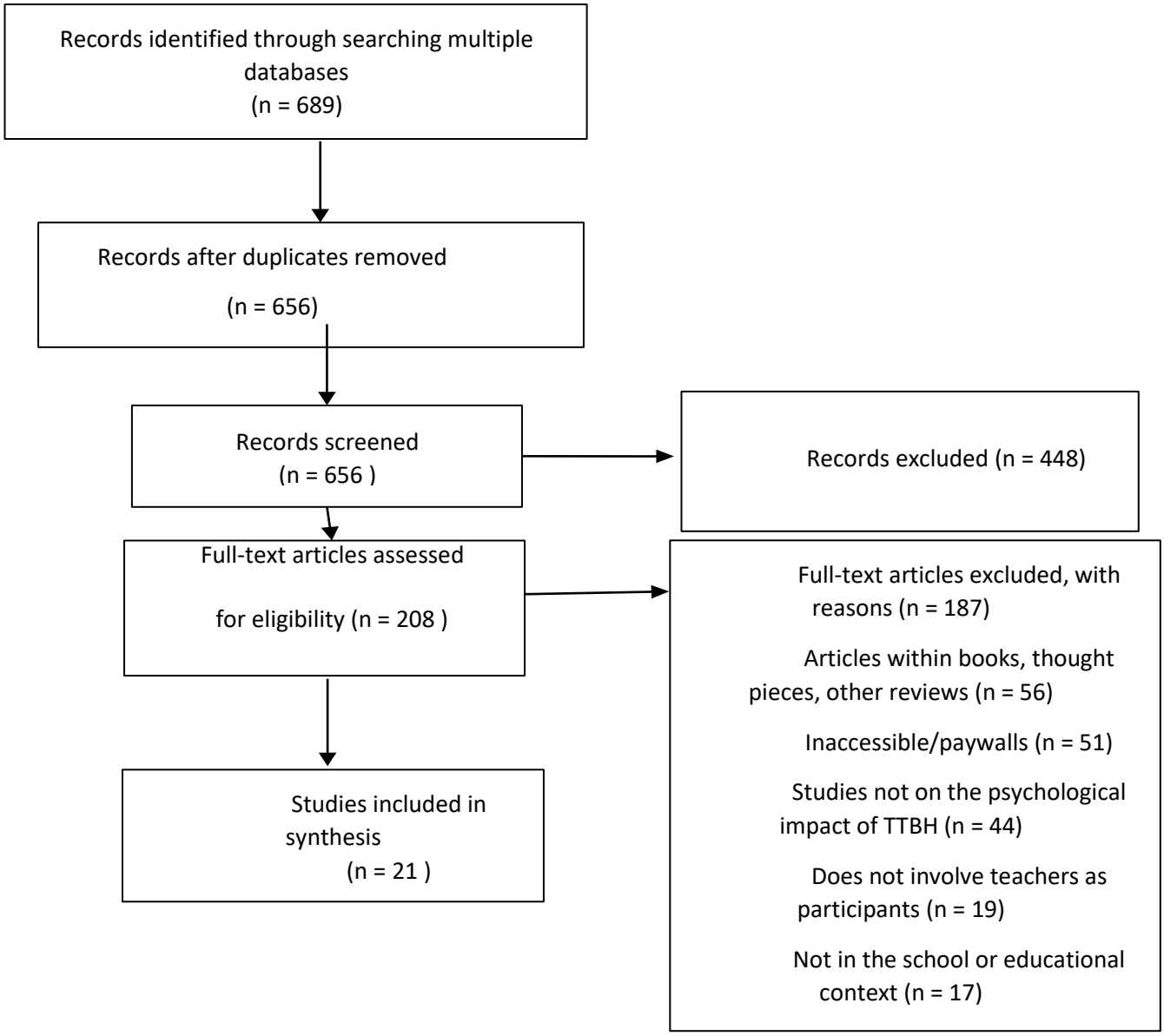
Appendix A: PRISMA-ScR

Table. PRISMA-ScR Checklist

Section	Item	PRISMA-ScR Checklist Item
Title	1	Identify the report as a scoping review.
Abstract		
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary that includes (as applicable) background, objectives, eligibility criteria, sources of evidence, charting methods, results, and conclusions that relate to the review questions and objectives.
Introduction		
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known. Explain why the review questions/objectives lend themselves to a scoping review approach.
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of the questions and objectives being addressed with reference to their key elements (e.g., population or participants, concepts, and context) or other relevant key elements used to conceptualize the review questions and/or objectives.
Methods		
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate whether a review protocol exists; state if and where it can be accessed (e.g., a Web address); and if available, provide registration information, including the registration number.
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify characteristics of the sources of evidence used as eligibility criteria (e.g., years considered, language, and publication status), and provide a rationale.
Information sources*	7	Describe all information sources in the search (e.g., databases with dates of coverage and contact with authors to identify additional sources), as well as the date the most recent search was executed.
Search	8	Present the full electronic search strategy for at least 1 database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.
Selection of sources of evidence†	9	State the process for selecting sources of evidence (i.e., screening and eligibility) included in the scoping review.
Data charting process‡	10	Describe the methods of charting data from the included sources of evidence (e.g., calibrated forms or forms that have been tested by the team before their use, and whether data charting was done independently or in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought and any assumptions and simplifications made.
Critical appraisal of individual sources of evidence§	12	If done, provide a rationale for conducting a critical appraisal of included sources of evidence; describe the methods used and how this information was used in any data synthesis (if appropriate).
Summary measures	13	Not applicable for scoping reviews.
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling and summarizing the data that were charted.
Risk of bias across studies	15	Not applicable for scoping reviews.
Additional analyses	16	Not applicable for scoping reviews.
Results		
Selection of sources of evidence	17	Give numbers of sources of evidence screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally using a flow diagram.
Characteristics of sources of evidence	18	For each source of evidence, present characteristics for which data were charted and provide the citations.
Critical appraisal within sources of evidence	19	If done, present data on critical appraisal of included sources of evidence (see item 12).
Results of individual sources of evidence	20	For each included source of evidence, present the relevant data that were charted that relate to the review questions and objectives.
Synthesis of results	21	Summarize and/or present the charting results as they relate to the review questions and objectives.
Risk of bias across studies	22	Not applicable for scoping reviews.
Additional analyses	23	Not applicable for scoping reviews.
Discussion		
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main results (including an overview of concepts, themes, and types of evidence available), link to the review questions and objectives, and consider the relevance to key groups.
Limitations	25	Discuss the limitations of the scoping review process.
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results with respect to the review questions and objectives, as well as potential implications and/or next steps.
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the included sources of evidence, as well as sources of funding for the scoping review. Describe the role of the funders of the scoping review.

JBI = Joanna Briggs Institute; PRISMA-ScR = Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses extension for Scoping Reviews.
* Where *sources of evidence* (see second footnote) are compiled from, such as bibliographic databases, social media platforms, and Web sites.
† A more inclusive/heterogeneous term used to account for the different types of evidence or data sources (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy documents) that may be eligible in a scoping review as opposed to only studies. This is not to be confused with *information sources* (see first footnote).
‡ The frameworks by Arksey and O'Malley (6) and Levac and colleagues (7) and the JBI guidance (4, 5) refer to the process of data extraction in a scoping review as data charting.
§ The process of systematically examining research evidence to assess its validity, results, and relevance before using it to inform a decision. This term is used for items 12 and 19 instead of "risk of bias" (which is more applicable to systematic reviews of interventions) to include and acknowledge the various sources of evidence that may be used in a scoping review (e.g., quantitative and/or qualitative research, expert opinion, and policy documents).

Appendix B: PRISMA Flow Diagram



Appendix C: Ethics clearance certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

SCHOOL OF HUMAN AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ETHICS COMMITTEE
CONSTITUTED UNDER THE UNIVERSITY HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: MAORG-24-05W**
PROJECT TITLE:	The Psychological impact of Teacher Targeted Bullying and Harassment (TTBH) on Teachers: A Scoping Review.
INVESTIGATOR	Modise Karabo
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT OF INVESTIGATOR	SHCD/Psychology
DATE CONSIDERED	08 July 2024
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved unconditionally
RISK LEVEL	No Risk
EXPIRY DATE	31 December 2026

ISSUE DATE OF CERTIFICATE 23 July 2024 **CHAIRPERSON** Aline Ferreira Correia
(Prof. Aline Ferreira Correia)

cc: Prof. Colleen Bernstein (Supervisor)

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR

To be completed in duplicate and **ONE COPY** returned to the Chairperson of the School/Department ethics committee.

I/we fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, I/we undertake to submit an amendment of the protocol to the Committee.

GModise
Signature

26 / 07 / 2024
Date

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES