WHAT ROLE DO TEACHERS PLAY IN BULLYING BEHAVIOR?

by

ERIKA VENZOR

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Arlington in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT ARLINGTON

August 2015

Acknowledgements

Thank God, for all the strength, guidance, and grace He has given me through this process. I could never have done this without His love and blessings.

I would like to acknowledge my parents, Oscar and Martha, for all their love and endless support. Thank you both for sacrificing your lives and work hard so I could have an education. For having faith in me and encouraging me in every decision, I made in my life. This accomplishment would not have been possible without your help. Gracias!! I would like to thank my siblings, Claudia, Lizeth, Hugo, and Anabel. Thanks for giving me constant love, encouragement, and support. To Emily, Victoria, and Adrian, who have brightened my life with their cuteness and their shenanigans. I would like to thank Priya Iyer-Eimerbrink. Thanks for listening, offering advice, and supporting me through all these years. Thanks to Rosalba and Paulina for all the help, prayers, and for being there whenever I needed a friend. To my Neocat Community that has offered me their spiritual support and countless advice. To Oscar for all his love and support.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Lauri Jensen-Campbell, for your guidance, caring, patience, motivation, and understanding. Thanks for the opportunity to learn from you. You have been supportive throughout my research and professional life. To my committee members: Dr. Scielzo, Dr. Lopez, Dr. Dougall, and Dr. Kenworthy. Thanks for providing me with insight and suggestions; I appreciate your help.

I would like to thank my lab mates: Allyson Arana, Maria Guarneri-White, and Erin Boyd. To all my research assistants from the Personality and Social Lab, who were regularly sending e-mails to recruit participants.

August 12, 2015

Abstract

WHAT ROLE DO TEACHERS PLAY IN BULLYING BEHAVIOR--

THE BULLY, THE VICTIM, OR THE BULLY-VICTIM?

Erika Venzor, PhD

The University of Texas at Arlington, 2015

Supervising Professor: Lauri Jensen-Campbell

Despite the fact that bullying is still viewed as a common behavior among adolescents, extensive research has established that bullying behavior can occur throughout life. After decades of investigation, it is clear that bullying leads to adverse outcomes. However, limited information is available on teacher-to-student bullying, principal-to-teacher bullying, and student-to teacher-bullying behavior, as well as the consequences of such. This dissertation examined whether teacher bullying was due to personality and/or enviromental factors. Teachers around the DFW area (*N* = 451) participated in this study. As expected, teachers who were less conscientious were more likely to bully students. Furthermore, teachers who experienced stress and job disatisfaction were more likely to engage in bullying behavior compared to their less-stressed counterparts. There were also interactions between personality traits and enviromental factors predicting bullying behavior. Specifically, teachers who were neurotic and experienced stress or job dissatisfaction were more likely to bully students. This dissertation also examined the influence of being victimized on teachers' health outcomes.Teachers who were victimized by students, parents, other teachers, and principals were more likely to report depressive symptoms, physical health complaints, job dissatisfaction, and higher levels of stress than teachers who did not report being victimized. Overall, being victimized causes physical and psychological health compalints.

Table of Contents

List of Illustrations

List of Tables

Chapter 1

Introduction

"Knowing what's right doesn't mean much unless you do what's right." -- T. Roosevelt

On May 14, 2014, the *New York Daily News* reported that a school surveillance camera had caught Barb Williams, an Ohio kindergarten teacher, grabbing a 6-year old student and pinning him against the wall. The school administration decided to suspend her for two weeks without pay; however, the student's parents did not agree with the sanction and pushed to have the case heard in a municipal court. In spite of the video and witnesses who reported that the teacher was bullying the student, in June of that year Barb Williams received a child endangerment charge, which is a first-degree misdemeanor (Rosenkrans, 2014). Reports suggest that this was not the first time she was harsh toward students (Long, 2014).

The teacher's conduct is an example of teacher bullying, which is a behavior by a teacher that harms the student either physically or emotionally. Sadly, this is not an isolated incident. Studies estimate that teacher bullying rates range from 1.7% to 40 % (Olweus, 1996; Delfabbro, et al., 2006). Teachers have even admitted to bullying their students; Twemlow and colleagues (2006) found that 45% of their teacher sample answered in the affirmative when asked if they had ever bullied a student. As such, this dissertation is going to examine the rates of teacher bullying. Furthermore, an attempt to understand why teachers bully behavior is going to be made.

Definition of Teacher Bullying

McEvoy (2005) was one of the first researchers to operationalize teacher bullying as "a pattern of conduct, rooted in a power differential that threatens, harms, humiliates, induces fear, or causes students substantial emotional distress" (p. 1). Evidence

suggests that teacher bullying is similar to peer bullying in that weaker students are often the targets, the behavior repeatedly happens over time, and the victims do not usually report the incident (McEvoy, 2005). Weaker students can include those who are more isolated from the peer group, have few (if any) friends, and are less liked by their peers in general. Consistent with Olweus' (1996) definition of bullying, an important characteristic of teacher bullying is the imbalance of power between student and teacher.

There are several different subtypes of teacher bullying, including physical, relational, and verbal. Physical teacher bullying includes throwing things at and grabbing or shaking students (Sharpe, 2011), as well as pushing or slapping them (Whitted & Dupper, 2007). Relational teacher bullying consists of humiliation, terrorizing, spurning, and not letting the students go to the bathroom (Sharpe, 2011), in addition to harshly criticizing a child's performance and withholding warmth and affection (McEachern, Alude, & Kenny, 2008). Verbal bullying involves name-calling and yelling at students (McEachern et al., 2008). Teacher bullying can be experienced in any of these forms or in combination. However, most teacher bullying probably involves relational or verbal bullying since it is covert in nature. In fact, the employment of relational bullying increases with age because it requires planning and sophisticated social skills; additionally, there are laws against physical bullying (Forrest, Eatough, & Shevlin, 2005; Walker & Richardson, 1998).

Few studies have examined gender differences associated with teacher bullying behavior. Research by Shumba (2001, 2002) found that male teachers are more likely to bully students in the classroom as well as use physical bullying, whereas female teachers were more likely to scold and use verbal bullying toward students. However, Theokilout and Kabitsi (2012) found no gender differences associated with teacher bullying. It is possible that there is no overall gender differences associated with teacher bullying

behavior, but rather with the *type* of bullying teachers use on students. That is, male teachers may choose more overt and physical forms of bullying while female teachers may use more covert and relational forms of bullying. This prediction would match research findings that have noted that boys are more likely to engage in physical aggression while girls engage more in relational aggression (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). These gender differences associated with bullying behavior persist into adulthood (Archer, 2004) and may be displayed in the workplace, including school environments.

Consequences of Teacher Bullying

Understanding the personal and situational factors that may lead to teacher bullying is essential as it is often associated with students' lower intentions to complete school, a greater likelihood to use drugs (Delfabro et al., 2006), lower adherence to diets (Peeters, Storch, Geffken, Heidgerken, & Silverstein, 2008), and increased likelihood of conduct problems (Pottinger & Stair, 2009). In addition, victims of teacher bullying tend to exhibit more somatic complaints such as headaches and stomachaches (Krugman & Krugman, 1984, as cited in McEachern, Aluede & Kenny, 2008). Furthermore, students who experience teacher bullying are more likely to report higher rates of anxiety and depressive symptoms, and exhibit a greater tendency to break rules and display aggressive behavior. Being bullied by a teacher is also related to school performance outcomes, including higher amotivation, lower extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, lower GPA, and lower rates of enjoyment in class (Venzor & Jensen-Campbell, 2011). These findings remain significant even when controlling for peer bullying.

What Causes Teacher Bullying Behavior?

Given the implications that teacher bullying has on students' academic performance, psychological health, and physical health (Venzor & Jensen-Campbell, 2012), the current study will examine predictors of teacher bullying behavior. No studies

to date have estimated the independent effects of personal and situational factors on the likelihood that teachers will self-report using bullying behaviors toward their students. More importantly, this dissertation will move past a simple main effects model and examine whether personal and situational factors interact to influence behavior. The idea that social behavior is a product of the person and situation interacting to influence behavior is not new to psychology (Lewin, 1935). Kurt Lewin, one of the leading pioneers of social psychology, argued that the influence of personality was part of a larger interdependent system. Borrowing from his field theory (1936), teacher-bullying behavior should be a function of the interaction between the teacher's personality and the school environment (B = f (P, E); Lewin, 1935). In other words, bullying behavior is not solely the result of a flawed personality, but rather is due to the interplay between individual differences (e.g., conscientiousness, agreeableness) and the specific social-contextual forces surrounding the teacher in his/her workplace (Higgins & Parsons, 1983).

The first focal goal of this dissertation is: (1) examine possible individual and environmental factors that explain why teachers engage in bullying behavior toward their students and (2) whether personal and situational factors interact to produce these outcomes (see Figure 1). I will provide a brief literature review of each predictor, as well as rationale utilizing each one. In particular, individual factors will focus on the teacher's personality. Environmental factors will focus on job stress and job dissatisfaction, since the literature shows that most teachers face the former in their job and as a result, then experience the latter. This list of possible predictors is not meant to be exhaustive, but rather is meant to provide a starting point for understanding why some teachers resort to bullying their students.

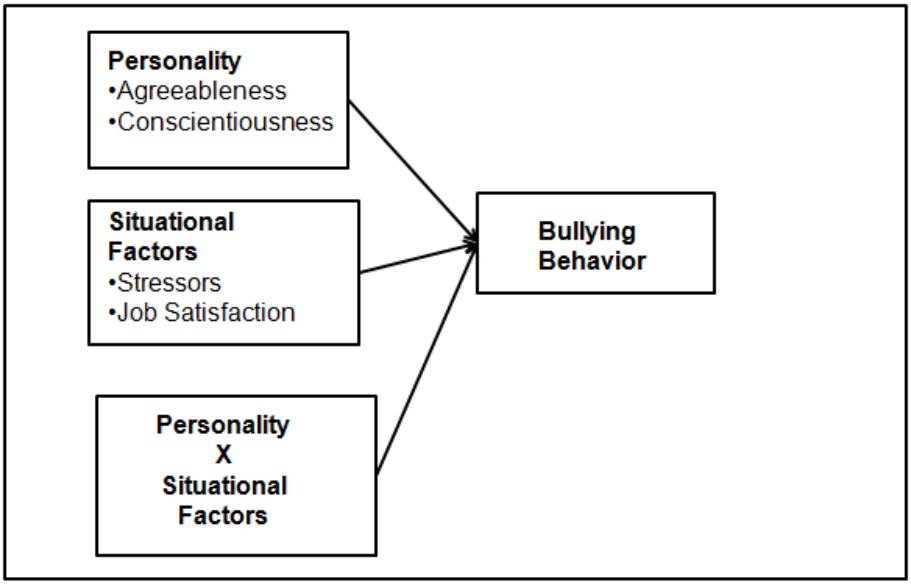

Figure 1. Model for Focal Hypothesis One: Predictors of Teacher Bullying Behaviors

Personality

As suggested by Lewin (1935), personality might influence behavior; that behavior can be bullying. In fact, Bollmer, Harris, and Milich (2006) proposed a bully-victim model suggesting that personality affects bullying behavior through affective and cognitive responses that an individual might have when victimized or when bullying others. That is, whether a person becomes a bully or a victim will be shaped by personality traits (Bollmer et al., 2006). Using this example, personality might influence how an individual interprets life events, which in turn may influence how he or she responds to that event. Additionally, Spector and Fox (2005) suggested that personality is an important construct to consider when determining why one engages in workplace bullying. While only a handful studies have examined teacher-bullying behavior (and none have looked at personality processes), the peer and workplace bullying literature can be used to elucidate what personality traits bullies tend to have. As such, I will

explore the contribution to teacher bullying of a hitherto neglected factor – teachers' personality.

Personality is (1) "an individual's unique variation on the general evolutionary design for human nature, expressed as a developing pattern of (2) dispositional traits, (3) characteristic adaptations and (4) self-defining life narratives, complexly and differentially situated in (5) culture and social context" (McAdams & Pals, 2006, p. 204). McAdams (1995) suggested that to further understand personality, one should consider different levels of analysis associated with personality. Level I consists of decontextualized and non-conditional constructs in which individuals can be compared to others (e.g., traits such as the Big Five). Level II consists of personal concerns, where individuals look for strategies to accomplish their goals such as classroom management. Finally, Level III consists of frameworks and constructs in which individuals are trying to understand the meaning of their life. For example, a teacher who is low on conscientiousness (Level I) may act more impulsively and aggressively when trying to discipline students (Level II). Subsequently, that teacher may then describe him/herself as a good teacher because he/she is managing his/her students (Level III) and that "old school" discipline works. The present dissertation will focus only on Levels I and II.

Although there are hundreds of potentially relevant personality traits associated with bullying behavior, the Big Five has been a widely-accepted approach to examining broad-based Level I traits or domains (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Finch, 1997; McAdams et al., 2004; McAdams & Olson, 2010). This five-factor model shows stability across time and consistency across self- and other-reports as well as behavioral observations (e.g., McAdams, 1992). The Big Five traits consist of (1) Agreeableness (the degree to which one is generous, gentle, kind, and maintains good relationships with others [Jensen-Campbell, Knack, Waldrip, & Campbell, 2007; Jensen-Campbell, Knack,

& Gomez, 2010; Schmitt, Allik, McCrae, & Benet-Martinez, 2007]); (2) Extraversion (the degree to which one is active, assertive, talkative, and outgoing) [Ashton, Lee, & Paunonen, 2002]); (3) Neuroticism (the degree to which one is anxious, depressed, irritable, and emotionally unstable) [Jensen-Campbell et al., 2007]); (4) Conscientiousness (the degree to which one is dutiful, organized, and reliable) [Jensen-Campbell & Malcolm, 2007]); and (5) Openness to Experience (the degree to which one is creative, imaginative, introspective, and intelligent [Schmitt et al., 2007]).

Research has revealed that bullies tend to be less agreeable than those that do not engage in bullying behaviors (Bolle & Tackett, 2013; Fossati, Borroni, & Maffei, 2012; Book, Volk, & Hosker, 2012; Kodžopeljić, Smederevac, Mitrović, Dinić, & Čolović, 2014). For example, when Bollmer and colleagues (2006) asked students to complete a survey examining personality and bullying behavior, it was found that bullies reported lower levels of agreeableness when compared to victims. In addition, bullies tend to be less conscientious than other children (Bollmer et al., 2006; Book et al., 2012; Fossati et al., 2012; Gleason, Jensen-Campbell, & South Richardson, 2004; Jensen-Campbell et al., 2007). When parents and teachers provided information about students' bullying behavior and personality traits, the results again showed a negative association between conscientiousness and bullying behavior (Bolle & Trackett, 2012; Book et al., 2012; Fossati et al., 2012). One potential reason for this relationship is that individuals low in conscientiousness tends to be more impulsive and act on their anger, especially when they are also low on agreeableness (Jensen-Campbell et al., 2007). As such, it would be expected that those teachers who report that they engage in bullying behavior would be more likely to be less agreeable and conscientious than teachers who do not report bullying.

The relationship between bullying, neuroticism, openness to experience, and extraversion has not been well established. Some researchers have found a positive relationship between neuroticism and bullying (Fossati et al., 2012; Menesini, Camodeca, & Nocentini, 2010; Turner & Ireland, 2010) while others have found a negative association (Kodzopeljic et al., 2013; Mynard & Joseph, 1997). Similarly, findings on the relationship between openness to experience and extraversion are mixed; the association between personality and bullying associated with these two traits has been found to be positive, negative, and non-existent (Bolle & Tackett, 2013; Book, Volk & Hosker, 2012; Menesini et al., 2010; Turner & Ireland, 2010). That being said, while I have no specific hypotheses, the relationship between teacher bullying and neuroticism, openness to experience, and extraversion will be explored for completeness.

Stress

Situational factors may also affect teachers' bullying behavior, as it has been found to be a very stressful occupation (Borg, Riding & Falzon, 1991). Stress has been defined as the "nonspecific response of the body to any demand made upon it" (Selye, 1973, p. 692). The "nonspecific response" is any action or event that can lead the body to readjust to a new situation (Selye, 1973). However, as many researchers have noted, the term "nonspecific response" is very broad. As a result, many different definitions have been proposed and used in the literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; McEwen, 2000; McVicar, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2005). For the purpose of this dissertation, a stressor will be defined as an "event or events that are interpreted as threatening to an individual and which elicit physiological and behavioral responses" (McEwen, 2000, p. 273). Stressors that are experienced by teachers range from interacting with challenging students and parents to not having support from their colleagues or supervisors (e.g., lead teachers, principals, administration) (Chaplain, 2008).

As many as 50% of teachers report leaving their profession due to stressors such as a lack of support from the administration and a shortage of teacher influence over school-wide and classroom decision-making (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003). Teachers often have large class sizes, inadequate time to prepare, and intrusions on teaching time (Ingersoll, 2003). In addition, teachers experience stress due to being held "responsible" for students' standardized test scores. Oftentimes, teachers feel they must try to do whatever is possible to avoid low student test scores, as those scores might be used to evaluate their competence as an educator (Smith, 1991). As such, these stressors can lead teachers to report being stressed, something that can lead to engaging in bullying behavior (Sharpe, 2011). Several studies reveal that bullies report high levels of stress when compared with non-bullied individuals (Estévez, Murgui, & Musitu, 2009; Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2009; Mathisen & Einarsen, 2007).

In fact, when education major students reported on teacher bullying behavior they witnessed while in their practicum, they found teachers' stress level to be the most common cause of bullying (Sharpe, 2011). Additionally, participants stated that teachers' stress level was due to high levels of frustration with managing students and inability of the teacher to handle the classroom. Additionally, 17.6% of teachers admitted to bullying students; when these teachers were asked about their behavior, the most common response as to why they bullied students was experiencing high levels of stress (Twemlow et al., 2006). Interestingly, individuals accused of bullying their coworkers in the workplace also state that one of the main reasons for engaging in such behavior is a loss of control due to the stressful environment in which they work (Jenkins, Zapf, Winefield, & Sarris, 2012). Thus, stressors in the workplace may affect the way teachers behave toward students. As such, it is expected that teachers who report being highly stressed due to the work environment will be more likely to bully students.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, defined as the degree to which an individual likes his/her work (Spector, 1997), is not entirely independent from workplace stressors, and may influence teacher-bullying behavior. Astonishingly, 56% of teachers in the United States leave the profession after the third year due to job dissatisfaction (Clark & Antonelli, 2009). What is more, those teachers who try to escape their current school stressors by moving to different schools are required to give up their seniority (Fahie & Devine, 2014). Teachers also report dissatisfaction due to low salaries, student discipline problems, and lack of administrative support (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003).

No study to date has examined whether teachers' job satisfaction influences their behavior toward students. However, the literature on workplace bullying has shown that individuals who are dissatisfied at work are more likely to use negative behaviors toward their colleagues in order to gain control (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010). In fact, unsatisfied employees are more likely to sabotage their coworkers, arrive late to work, work more slowly on tasks, and even bully their colleagues in an effort to deal with their dissatisfaction (Dalal, 2005; Guo, 2012; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Moretti, 1986; Pseekos, Bullock-Yowell, & Dahlen, 2011). Additionally, individuals with expectations of job satisfaction tend not to engage in bullying behavior toward employees in an organization (Gottfredson & Holland, 1990) or toward the organization itself (Mount, Ilies, & Johnson, 2006). As such, I predict that teachers who are dissatisfied with their job will be more likely to bully their students even after controlling for perceived stress levels, especially given that there is a power differential between teachers and students. Furthermore, teachers might not only be bullies but they also might be the victims of bullying behavior in their workplace.

Chapter 2

Workplace Bullying in Academia

Interestingly, teachers may also be the victims of bullying behavior in the workplace. Workplace bullying has been described as behavior delivered to an individual with the intention to harm the person or organization for which they work (Laymann, 1996). The behavior has to occur frequently over an extended period, and an imbalance of power between the perpetrator and the victim exists (Olewus, 1991). The rates of workplace bullying lie between 3.5% up to 50% (Einarsen, 2000; Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Leymann, 1996; McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2006). Workplace bullying behavior includes isolation, intimidation, and humiliation (McCormack, et al., 2006), as well as gossiping, name-calling, insults, and teasing (Quine, 2001). The second focal goal of this dissertation, then, is to examine what percentage of teachers report being bullied by students, colleagues, supervisors, and parents. More importantly, I want to examine whether teachers experience the same negative psychological and physical consequences associated bullying that is found in the peer-to-peer bullying literature. Finally, I will examine whether the source of the bullying behavior (student, colleague, supervisor, parents) influences these outcomes.

Teacher-to-Teacher Bullying

Research has repeatedly listed education as a high-risk profession for bullying behavior (Fahie & Devine, 2014); indeed, teachers are often the targets of bullying behavior by their colleagues (Björkqvist, Österman, & Hjelt-Bäck, 1994). Teachers often experience others withholding information from them which can affect their performance, receiving orders to do work below their level of competence (Cemaloglu, 2007a), having their opinions be ignored, and receiving ridicule (Cemaloglu, 2007b). One of the main reasons that teachers will bully other teachers is because they are in direct competition

for job status or are jealous of the other teachers' resources/accomplishments (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994).

Consequences that teachers experience when bullied by colleagues include physical deterioration, sleeplessness, headaches, skin irritations, anxiety, suicidal ideation, inability to interact socially, and reluctance to seek promotion (Fahie & Devine, 2014). Additionally, victimized teachers often experience more job dissatisfaction and health-related problems than those who are not victimized (Fox & Stallworth, 2010). For that reason, some teachers decide to move away from their school, choose another career, or even retire early (Fahie & Devine, 2014).

Principal-to-Teacher Bullying

Teachers may also be bullied by their school principals. On September 16, 2014, Jasponica Florence Moore, an Alabama high school principal, was accused of bullying her teachers; the superintendent of the school district was informed that Mrs. Moore had fired teachers improperly. Furthermore, Mrs. Moore was accused of belittling and disrespecting teachers (Devenport, 2014); teachers reported that she was using foul language toward them and harassed other employees in Bessemer High School (Araiza, 2014). Some teachers stated that they never reported Mrs. Moore because they were afraid they were going to be fired. After such allegations against Mrs. Moore, the superintendent offered a meeting with teachers and parents from Bessemer High School to discuss the issue and come up with a resolution. However, Mrs. Moore did not attend the meeting due to being on two weeks' medical leave (Denvenport, 2014).

This is not a random story about principal-to-teacher bullying. In fact, up to 79% of the victims of workplace bullying suggest that the bully was a superior (Einarsen, 2005). Principals tend to bully their teachers by ignoring or withholding resources that would allow them to do their job effectively (Blase & Blase, 2002). Furthermore, principals

who bully often withhold praise from teachers who are performing well, belittle their contributions, exclude them from important decisions, and even intimidate (Blase, Blasé, & Du, 2008), and ridicule them (Cemaloglu, 2007). Victims of principal-to-teacher bullying tend to be submissive, have low self-esteem, and blame themselves for the behavior (De Wet, 2010). Those who are victimized by their principal tend to have less teaching experience and lack confidence in their teaching abilities (Blasé et al., 2008).

Furthermore, teachers know that education department works in hierarchies. In other words, that teachers report to assistant principals, then to principals and so on. By knowing this, teachers are less likely to report the bullying behavior because they are aware that the principal's friends will not do anything about it (De Wet, 2010). Consequently, cases of principal-to-teacher bullying are infrequently reported and little is known about them. Moreover, as mentioned before, only a few studies have examined principal-to-teacher bullying. Most of those studies have interviewed participants and used qualitative data to understand what principal-to-teacher bullying is. An empirical study on principal-to-teacher bullying reported that when teachers are bullied, 68.6% of the time the perpetrator is the principal. What is more, teachers reported that 12.8% of the time, the principal bullies them persistently (Riley, Duncan, & Edwards, 2012). Thus, more research needs to be done to understand what behaviors principals use to bully teachers. As such, this dissertation is going to examine the rates of principal-to-teacher bullying and what bullying behaviors principals use toward teacher victims.

Student-to-Teacher Bullying

Sadly, teachers are not only bullied by principals but also by their students. For instance, teacher from Canada Vienna Malko-Monterrosa reported that an eighth-grade student had bullied her for over 18 months by prank phone calls, nasty emails, and Facebook messages (CBS News, 2014). When the student was expelled from school

because of her behavior, she retaliated by sending an e-mail to Malko-Monterrosa referring to her as “an insult to the human race." Sadly, there are no laws to protect teachers against students’ bullying behavior.

Student-to-teacher bullying has been defined as “a student [or group] of students who tends to control the classroom with disruptive behavior that implies contempt for the teacher and who uses coercive tactics to deskill the teacher” (Twemlow et al., 2006, p. 191). This definition suggests that this kind of bullying is slightly different from the peer-to-peer type. For instance, when looking at the imbalance of power, researchers have argued that it might not exist right away, but rather develops over time (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012). That is, if students frequently make fun of the teacher, the teacher might feel embarrassed at first but unable to stop the students’ behavior later on. As such, an imbalance of power is created.

Furthermore, the imbalance of power may depend on the circumstances (Terry, 1998). In other words, if someone is evaluating a teacher’s performance and class management, students might act out so the teacher receives a bad evaluation. In this case, an imbalance of power is present because the teacher is powerless, but if the students perform the same behavior in another circumstance, the imbalance of power may no longer be present. Additionally, the number of students in a class outnumbers the teacher; that is, on average one teacher is in charge of 25 or more students depending on the grade and overcrowding situations, which could create power imbalance.

Additionally, researchers have argued that peer bullying occurs repeatedly. However, there is some debate about this requirement in the student-to-teacher bullying literature. For example, Kauppi and Porhola (2012) suggest that bullying does not necessarily need to happen regularly over time. Even if a student acts violently against a teacher once in the classroom, it could be considered bullying because various students

are involved as it is in a classroom setting. What is more, when teachers are bullied via electronic means (i.e., cyberbullying) a single criticism posted on the internet remains there for other students to see. More recently, students are using cyberbaiting, which:

> Is when students irritate or bait a teacher until the teacher gets so frustrated they yell or have a breakdown. Students are ready for the teacher to crack and film the incident on cell phones so they can later post their footage online, causing further shame or trouble for the teacher or school (Smollin, 2011, p.1).

As such, student-to teacher-bullying behavior does not necessarily have to happen repeatedly over time (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012).

On the other hand, Purvin and Turner (1998) suggested that the repetition of the act is key for the behavior to be categorized as bullying and not simply misbehavior. For instance, if a student ignores a teacher once, it may be considered misbehavior. However, if the student ignores the teacher repeatedly over time it would then considered to be bullying behavior. As such, for this dissertation, student-to-teacher bullying will be defined as

> Bullying that occurs in situations where the victim cannot easily escape. It happens when an uneven balance of power is exploited and abused by an individual or individuals, who in that particular circumstance have the advantage. Bullying is characterized by “persistent, repetitive acts of physical or psychological aggression. (Terry, 1998, p. 261)

Student-to-teacher bullying is similar to peer bullying in that victims rarely report the abuse, especially given that many teachers believe the bullying behavior is because of their [teacher] own self-characteristics (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012). When teachers believe that bullying behavior is due to the school’s environment, they are more likely to talk to the school’s principal to try to stop the bullying (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012).

Student bullying can include acts such as making negative comments about teachers, talking back (De Wet, 2010; Khoury-Kassabri, Astor, & Benbenishty, 2009; Pervin & Turner, 1998), throwing objects at and slapping teachers (De Wet, 2010; Kauppi & Porhola, 2012; Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009), purposefully getting to class late, mimicking the teacher's communication, and gossiping (Kauppi & Porhola, 2012; Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009). Additionally, students might furtively take the teacher's belongings, destroy the teacher's personal property, egg their car, and even damage their classroom (De Wet & Jacobs, 2006; James et al., 2008; Kauppi & Porhola, 2012; Pervin & Turner, 1998; Terry, 1998). Once again, there are no laws to protect teachers against this type of abuse.

Rates of Student to Teacher Bullying

A few studies have examined student bullying of teachers and estimate that the rates of this behavior range from 3.3% to 75.7% (James et al., 2008; Kauppi & Porhola, 2012; Khoury-Kassabri et al., 2009; McKay et al., 2008; Riley et al., 2012; Terry, 1998). Surprisingly, up to 57.5% of teachers have seen other colleagues being bullied by students (Terry, 1998). Most of these studies have focused on understanding what types of behavior students use against their teacher, rather than the consequences. However, De Wett (2010) surveyed a group of teachers who were victims of student bullying in an effort to determine consequences of being bullied. Teachers revealed that they had feelings of shame, powerlessness, and embarrassment, as well as a lack of enthusiasm and problems implementing disciplinary action in the classroom. As such, research should examine what other consequences student bullying might have on teachers.

Parent-to-Teacher Bullying

Some people have suggested that a part of what contributes to a child's success at school is the relationship between a parent and a teacher. However, many parents

would like for their children to perform well in class, to be the best on their sport team, receive a trophy every time he/she plays, etc. For that reason, these parents might start going to school to talk to the teacher about how the classroom should be managed (Maglio, 2014). What is more, parents might bully teachers because their children did not get a chance to play sports. For instance, in Crownover Middle School in Denton, Texas, parents were concerned about their children not being able to play sports due to bad grades. These parents are now blaming the district for implementing a new and stricter grading policy than before and more difficult math classes, and are requesting a grading policy change (Corinth, 2014). This type of behavior can escalate to bullying behavior against one or more teachers who are responsible for these classes.

In May 2014, Susana Vidal was sent to court because she physically abused a her child's teacher:school administrators reported that Susana took the teacher by her hair, pulled her to the floor, and gave her several kicks in the mouth (Subrayado, 2014). Susana decided to go to the school to talk with the teacher, who had reported the poor behavior of Vidal's son. Susana justified her behavior to the judge by saying that she just wanted to defend her child and that the teacher was laughing while they were arguing about the incident (El Caribe, 2014). Further anecdotal evidence can be found online, such as teacher blogs. For instance, Ask Amy (2010) reported that often parents bully teachers via the Internet rather than face-to-face. By doing so, parents ensure that teachers are not allowed to present their side of the story.

Much like the previous forms of bullying I have discussed, parent-to-teacher bullying occurs at high rates. One of the first empirical studies on this topic noted that 81.4% of school staff reported being bullied by parents (Rile et al., 2012). The sample consisted of teachers, principals, executives, and support staff. More recently, in April 2014, the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers, a British

teachers' union, found that 27% of teachers reported being cyberbullied by parents. Maglio (2014) stated that often this type of behavior stems from perfectionist parents who would like to create an image of a superior child and a superior parent.

In fact, in Howard County (Baltimore, MD), the school administration implemented a policy to prevent parents from daily sending e-mails to teachers (Williams IV, 2008). The school administration believes that this problem has increased due to "helicopter parents", who employ a style of parenting that is over-focused on the child and his/her wants and needs, rather than on the child's behavior and responsibility (i.e., hover over them as helicopter) (Ginott, 1969). Helicopter parents often call teachers and even university presidents to request special treatment for their children (Joyce, 2014).

Consequences of Workplace Bullying

As stated above, there is not much research on academic bullying (students, supervisor, and parents). As such, the literature on workplace bullying can help elucidate the possible consequences of this type of behavior. This dissertation is going to focus on health outcomes and job satisfaction.

Health

Research has linked bullying with numerous health problems. Victims' health has been shown to be four times worse that their non-victimized counterparts (Kshirsagar, Agarwal, & Bavdekar, 2007). For instance, victims often show health problems such as headaches and stomachaches (Krugman & Krugman, 1984), as well as colds and sore throats (Rigby, 1998). The literature suggests that the health of victimized individuals is compromised due to stress exposure, which activates the hypothalamic-pituitary adrenal (HPA) axis (Jackson, Knight, & Rafferty, 2010). Chronic stress has been linked to pervasive effects on health such as cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes, and rheumatoid arthritis (Dougall & Baum, 2001). As bullying is considered a chronic stressor,

victims of workplace bullying reported higher incidence of chronic disease and were 1.5 more likely to miss work due to sickness (Kivimaki, Elovainio, & Vahtera, 2000). Furthermore, victims often take sick days or leave their jobs to get away from the bullies (MacIntosh, 2012).

Victims not only experience physical health problems but also psychological ones; indeed, bullying behavior in the workplace has been positively associated with depressive symptoms (Kivimäki et al., 2000; Kivimäkiet et al., 2003; Niedhammer, David, & Degioanni, 2006). These results continue to be significant after controlling for age, sex, social economic status (Kivimäki et al., 2000; Kivimäki et al., 2003), education level, marital status, and job occupation (Niedhammer et al., 2006). Furthermore, past experience with bullying behavior increases the risk of presenting depressive symptoms (Niedhammer et al., 2006). Because of depression, many individuals take time away from work for their well-being (Quine, 1999). As such, it is expected that teachers who are bullied by other teachers, students, and supervisors will report higher depressive symptoms when compared to their non-bullied counterparts.

Job Satisfaction

In addition to experiencing higher rates of both psychological and physical health problems, victims of bullying also experience more job dissatisfaction (Jiang, Dong, & Wang, 2012; Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Quine, 1999), as do employees who merely witness the bullying behavior (Fisher-Blando, 2008). Interestingly, those employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs tend to show problems at work like absenteeism (Namie & Namie, 2003), poorer work relationships (Yildrim, 2009) and lower productivity (Fisher-Blando, 2008). Thus, bullying ends up affecting both the victim and the organization. For example, the stress employees experience from bullying leads them to experience burnout and job dissatisfaction, which in turn leads to poor performance in the workplace

(Yildrim, 2009). As such, it is expected that teachers who are victimized will be dissatisfied at work and be more likely to bully students.

Work Locus of Control

In addition to experiencing job dissatisfaction, bullies often experience low locus of control. For instance, in a study done by Andeous (2000), results revealed that bullies often exhibit low internal locus of control. In other words, bullies often believe that their behavior is out of their control. Similarly, Atik (2006) found that bullies often display external locus of control. External locus of control has also been associated with different types of aggression such as physical, verbal, and indirect among boys and girls (Osterman et al., 1999). As such, it is expected that those teachers who bully students or who are victimized in the workplace will exhibit lower locus of control.

This dissertation is novel in that only a handful of researcher has examined the effects of bullying behavior on teachers by other teachers, principals and parents. Additionally, only a few studies have looked at student and teacher bullying behavior and its consequences (see in Figure 2).

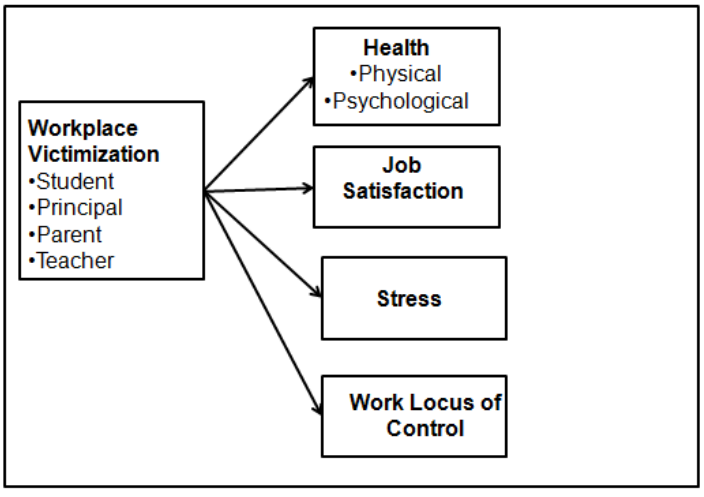

Figure 2. Model for Hypothesis Two: Consequences of Workplace Bullying

Chapter 3

Current Study

The current study examined two focal aims. First, I examine if personal and situational factors uniquely predict teacher-bullying behaviors. In addition, this dissertation will move past simple main effects models and examine whether these factors interact to influence teacher-bullying behaviors toward students. For example, teachers who are less conscientious (and more impulsive) may be more likely to bully students when they are experiencing high levels of workplace stress. Personal factors include the Big Five personality traits and the gender of the teacher. Situational factors will include stress levels, work locus of control, and job satisfaction. Aim 1a: Teachers who are higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness will be less likely to bully students than teachers who possess lower levels of these traits, even after controlling for situational factors. Aim 1b: Teachers who bully students will have higher rates of stress and job dissatisfaction than teachers who do not engage in these behaviors, even after controlling for important personality traits. Aim 1c: Male teachers will be more likely to bully students using physical and overt forms of bullying, while female teachers will be more likely to use more relational and covert forms of bullying. Aim 1d: The possible interactions between personal and situational factors will be examined; for example, teachers who are less agreeable and conscientious may only resort to bullying behavior when they also report higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction.

For my second hypothesis, I examine the rates of student-to-teacher bullying and principal-to-teacher bullying in the workplace. More importantly, this dissertation will examine how workplace bullying--particularly from students--influences physical and psychological health as well as job satisfaction. Aim 2a: Teachers who are bullied by students, colleagues, and/or principals will report more psychological and physical health

problems than non-victimized teachers. Aim 2b: Teachers who are bullied will report higher levels of job dissatisfaction than non-victimized teachers.

It should be noted that it is possible there is a feedback loop, such that teachers who are bullied by students may in turn have higher levels of stress and job dissatisfaction than their non-bullied peers, which in turn leads them to bully weaker students in their class (thus making them what is called bully-victims, individuals who both bully and are bullied by others). For this dissertation, I have separated the two aims given the correlational nature of the data. That is, it is difficult to determine which processes are antecedent to others given my contemporaneous design. However, an overall conceptual model of this dissertation can be seen in Figure 3.

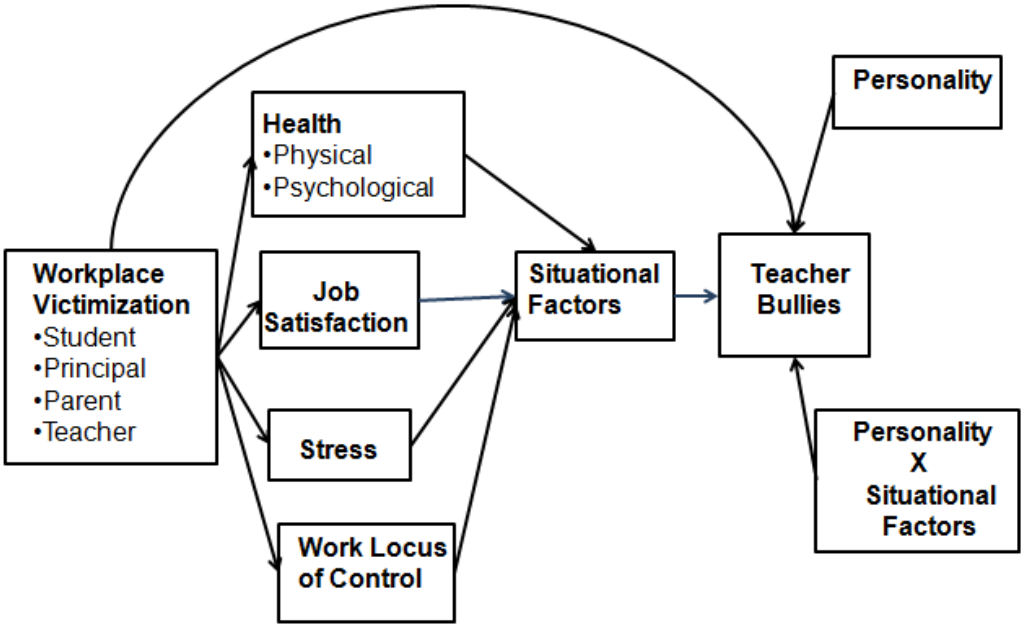

Figure 3. Conceptual Overall Model

Methods

Participants

Participants were teachers (N = 451)[1] from the Dallas/Fort Worth area who ranged in age from 21 years to 69 years (M = 39.21, SD = 10.59). Both males (17.2%) and females (82.8%) participated in this study. The racial composition included 81.1% Whites, 12.8 Hispanics, 3.45% Black/African Americans, and 2.7% Asians. The education of the sample included 62.7% with a bachelor's degree, 36.2% with a Master's degree, and 1.1% with a doctoral degree. Teaching experience ranged from one to more than 15 years (M = 3.72; approximation of years is between 7-9 years, SD = 1.83). Additionally, 98.9% of the teachers reported having a permanent position. It should be noted that participants were from 48 different districts around the United States. I needed a sample of about 166 participants for a predicted effect size of r = .25, α = .05, two-tailed, and a power of .80 (Cohen, 1988). However, as I wanted to assess interactions, I obtained a larger sample size. That is, 187 participants for a predicted effect size of r = 15, α = .05, two tailed and a power of .95.

In order to contact teachers, e-mails from school districts websites were obtained. Most of the e-mails were from districts in Texas. An invitation to participate in this study was e-mailed to teachers with a link to the survey. Finally, teachers were invited to participate in a raffle to receive a $50 gift card if they completed the survey.

[1] A total of 531 surveys were collected. However, 80 of them were dropped due to the fact that they only completed 37% of the survey.

Materials[2]

Demographic Questions

Questions about teacher's ethnicity, age, teaching experience, grade taught, and education level were asked as part of the demographic information survey (See Table 1 for descriptive statistics).

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Variables

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range
Age	39.21	10.59	-0.49	0.55	18-100	21-69
Teaching Experience	3.72	1.83	-1.37	-0.13	1-6	1-6
Grade Taught	8.72	4.11	-1.32	-0.08	1-14	1-14

Bullying

Negative Acts Questionnaire (NAQ)

A widely used survey that contained 22 Likert-type questions assessed the frequency with which individuals experience workplace bullying (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009). The NAQ was modified to measure how frequent teachers, students, supervisors, and parents victimized teachers. The scale ranged from 1 (Never) to 4 (Weekly). It should be noted that for this sample, an item analysis revealed that there was only one factor, instead of three factors (Charilaos et al., 2015). The present scale was used as one factor in this study given the results of my item analysis (See Table 2 for details).

[2] See Appendix A for all scales used in this study.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics for NAQ Scale

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Teacher Victimization							
Principals	1.23	0.42	3.43	1.71	1-4	1-3.32	0.91
Teachers	1.18	0.36	3.54	1.79	1-4	1-2.88	0.90
Parent	1.15	0.31	4.92	1.76	1-4	1-2.81	0.87
Student	1.36	0.49	2.77	1.29	1-4	1-3.38	0.87

Classroom Management Scale (CMS).

The CMS was used to measure teacher-to-student bullying. It consisted of 15 questions that ranged from 1 (Never) to 5 (All the time). This scale has two factors: teacher-to-student bullying (e.g., Ignore students who are annoying you in the classroom (e.g. not answering questions) and positive teacher discipline (e.g., privately talk to students about their bad behavior; see Table 3 for details).

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for the Classroom Management Scale

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Teacher Student Bullying	1.74	0.56	1.41	0.28	1-5	1-3.86	0.73
Teacher Discipline	4.09	0.68	3.30	-0.02	1-5	1.71-5.0	0.77

Personality

Mini-IPIP

This scale assessed the Big Five personality traits using 20 Likert-type questions ranging from 1 (Very inaccurate) to 5 (Very accurate) and has been consistently found to be reliable. This survey measured the Big Five traits of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Openness to Experience*(*Donnellan, Oswald, Baird, & Lucas, 2006; See Table 4 for descriptive details).

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics for the MINI-IPP

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Personality							
Agreeableness	4.07	0.66	0.81	-0.61	1-5	1-4.0	0.69
Conscientiousness	3.79	0.80	0.24	-0.75	1-5	1-5.0	0.72
Neuroticism	2.60	0.76	-0.52	0.01	1-5	1-4.5	0.63
Extraversion	3.02	0.94	-0.80	-0.11	1-5	1-5.0	0.80
Openness to Experience	3.81	0.74	-0.55	-0.26	1-5	1.75-5.0	0.68

Work Attitude Surveys

Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS)

This scale consisted of 10 Likert-type questions ranging from 1(Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree), and assessed how satisfied individuals are with their job (Macdonald & MacIntyre, 1997; See Table 5 for descriptive details).

Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS)

The WLCS consisted of 16 items ranging from 1 (Disagree very much) to 6 (Agree very much), which assessed work locus of control in teachers (Spector, 1988; See Table 5).

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics for the Jobs Satisfaction

and Work Locus of Control Scale

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Job Satisfaction	4.05	0.81	0.48	-0.77	1-5	1-5	0.82
Work Locus of Control	3.59	0.55	2.04	0.53	1-6	1.64-6.0	0.84

Stress

Job Stress Questionnaire (JSQ)

The JSQ is a widely used-scale consisting of 14 Likert-type questions ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree) that measures job-related stress (Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975). It consists of four subscales that measure work load (e.g., How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?), role ambiguity (e.g., How often are you unclear on what your responsibilities are?), performance pressure (e.g., How often does your job let you use the skills and knowledge you have learned in school or during training?), role conflict (e.g., How often do persons equal in rank and authority over you ask you to do things which conflict?)) (see Table 6 for descriptive statistics).

Table 6 Descriptive Statistics for the Stress Scale

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Stress							
Work Load	4.00	0.80	0.57	-0.82	1-6	1-6	0.85
Role Conflict	2.47	1.08	-0.03	0.38	1-6	1.74-6	0.82
Role Ambiguity	3.64	0.90	1.05	-0.62	1-6	1-5.50	0.61
Utilization of Skills	3.77	0.99	0.11	-0.70	1-6	1-6	0.88

Health

Physical: Assessing Health Outcomes Survey (HOS)

The HOS assessed how frequently individuals experience stress-related health problems-such as stomachaches and sore throat (Knack et al., 2011). The questionnaire consisted of 29 Likert- type questions ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 4 (All the time) and

has been found to be both a reliable and valid measure of physical health outcomes (See Table 7 for descriptive details). An additional seven questions were added, asking if individuals had chronic illnesses such as diabetes and heart disease (i.e., Do you have the following conditions? If yes, check all that apply).

Psychological: Major Depression Inventory (MDI)

The MDI has been widely used and assessed depression utilizing 10 Likert-type questions ranging from 0 (At no time) to 5 (All the time) (Olsen, Jensen, Noerholm, Martiny, & Bech, 2003). See Table 7 for descriptive details.

Table 7 Descriptive Statistics for the Assessing Health Outcome Survey

	M	SD	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Health							
Physical Health Problems	1.65	0.33	-0.04	0.43	1-4	1-2.78	0.90
Depression	2.24	0.99	0.43	0.89	1-6	1-5.65	0.91

Procedures

To recruit participants, research assistants collected teachers' e-mail addresses from school district websites in Texas. Once the dissertation proposal was approved and the appropriate Institutional Review Board (IRB) modifications were made, an e-mail with a cover letter stating the purpose of the study was sent to teachers along with a link to the questionnaire on Survey Monkey. Participants were also recruited via Facebook and word of. After teachers consented to voluntarily participate, they were given access to the questionnaires. There were 155 questions, which took about 25 minutes to complete[3]. After participants completed the survey, they were given the option to participate in a $50

[3] Survey Monkey provided the length time that it took participants to complete the survey; the average of this time was computed. The length to time it took to complete the survey ranged from 14 to 65 minutes.

gift card raffle. If participants accepted, they were directed to a second website where they provided their personal information to enter the raffle, while still maintaining anonymity in the survey.

The surveys were arranged in a specific order: demographic questions, job satisfaction, physical health, stress, psychological health, teacher-to-student bullying, personality, work locus of control, and work place bullying. The reason for such an arrangement was that answering questions about negative behaviors such as bullying can influence the way participants answer questions about their stress and health.

Chapter 4

Results

Handling of Missing Data

The data contained some missing values; there were a few instances where participants failed to complete the entire survey or missed answering a question. 80 participants were excluded due to incomplete surveys (i.e., they only completed 43 of the 155 questions, or, 27%). Analyses were performed to see whether those teachers who did not finish the survey were different from the rest of the participants in terms of teaching experience and education. These 43 items consisted of demographic questions (age, gender, teaching experience, and education), job satisfaction, frequency of health, and serious health problems. No significant differences between the two groups were found (*t*s = t(504)= 1.22,*p* = *0.23; t* (522)= 0.31,*p* = 0.76; *t* (526)= 1.44, *p* =0.15; *t* (520) = 1.24, *p* = *0.22;* t(517) =0.34, *p* = 0.74; *t*(522) = -0.92, *p* = 0.36; *t*(182) = -1.65, *p* = 0.11, respectively). By the end of data collection, approximately 19,000 e-mails had been sent out. However, it is difficult to know the actual response rate because many e-mail addresses were inaccurate or school districts blocked incoming e-mails. In addition, people were also invited through Facebook. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES; https://nces.ed.gov), which is the primary federal entity for collecting and analyzing data related to education, the current sample demographics (i.e., age, ethnicity, gender, education and years of experience) are representative of the teachers' population in the United States (See Table 8 for more details).

To analyze more closely the patterns of missing data for the 451 participants who completed the entire survey, a missing value analysis (MVA) in SPSS was used[4]. The Little Missing Completely at Random (MCAR) tests were not significant, (χ^2s = 25.34, 1.62, 2.21, 11.73, 3.78, 3.79, 8.50, dfs = 23, 1, 2, 8, 6, 8, 8, *p*s = .33, .20, .33, .16, .71,

[4] About 8% of data points were missing for each scale.

.88, .39, for personality, health, job satisfaction, principal-to-teacher bullying, parent-to-teacher bullying, student-to-teacher bullying, and teacher-to-teacher bullying respectively). That is, the missing data points were missing completely at random Little, 1988). Since missing data were present, the expectation maximization (EM) method was used. This method imputed the estimated expectations of missing data to maximum likelihood estimation. Once convergence was attained, the finalized data set (with the imputed values) was saved and used for analyses for the present study.

Table 8 Teacher Demographics of the United States versus The Current Sample

	NCES	Current Dissertation
Ethnicity		
White	83.50%	81.10%
Black/African America	6.70%	3.45%
Hispanic	6.90%	12.80%
Asian	1.30%	2.70%
Gender		
Male	23.70%	17.20%
Female	76.30%	82.80%
Age		
under 30	15.90%	19.20%
30-39	19.30%	38.60%
40-49	19.20%	21.10%
50 -59	20.50%	16.20%
60 >	13.20%	4.80%
Teaching Experience		
less than 3	9%	17.30%
3-9	33.90%	29.20%
10 >	57.70%	53.50%
Education		
Bachelors	39.90%	62.70%
Masters	47.70%	36.20%
Doctoral	1.10%	1.10%

Reliability and Validity of Measures

Since there is not a standard scale that measures teacher-to-student bullying behavior, I created the Classroom Management Scale. A group of 13 undergraduate students were asked to come up with possible behaviors that teachers could use to bully students based on their own experiences/observations. Three graduate students were then asked to add more possible behaviors to the list, for a final measure of 31 items.

Before testing my focal analyses, an item analysis was conducted for the 31 CMS items to determine which ones to retain. Item means and corrected-item total correlations were computed for each item and are reported in Table 9 (See Appendix C for the final scale).

Table 9 Item Analysis for the Classroom Management Scale

Item-Number	Mean	Item-total Correlation
1	1.25	0.255
2*	2.13	0.375
3	3.91	0.106
4	1.00	0.014
5	1.23	0.254
6	1.15	0.204
7*	2.15	0.365
8*	3.73	0.335
9	1.66	0.298
10*	1.46	0.389
11	1.08	0.23
12	1.03	0.042
13	1.35	0.276
14*	4.01	0.391
15	2.16	0.269
16*	2.02	0.475
17*	1.3	0.427
18*	1.17	0.317
19	1.01	-0.042

Table 9 – *Continued*

20	1.49	0.228
21	4.24	0.281
22*	1.99	0.32
23	1.03	0.158
24*	4.16	0.33
25*	4.47	0.377
26	3.93	0.206
27	4.37	0.155
28	1.03	-0.002
29	3.32	0.199
30	1.13	0.155
31	1.11	0.005

Note: * Indicates item was retained.

Items were selected based on several criteria. First, the discrimination index was examined and items with maximum corrected-total correlation were selected. Item means were then considered. To be consistent with the middle value of the scale, items that had means close to 1.5 were selected. After eliminating items based on the corrected item-total correlations and means, the remaining list was examined again to ensure it was reliable. The final scale contained 11 items, with two subscales: teacher bullying (7 items) and teacher discipline (four items; See Appendix C for the final scale).

A confirmatory factor analysis was then run to examine if the teacher-bullying component indeed loaded on one factor. The fit of the final model (See Figure 4) was acceptable, $\chi^2 = 14.66$, $df = 17$, $p = 0.62$, GFI = 0.99, AGFI = 0.98, NFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.01 (CIs = 0.00, 0.04).

Next, internal consistency was examined for both of the subscales of the CMS. Specifically, alpha coefficients demonstrated adequate reliability for each of the subscales: teacher bullying ($\alpha = .73$) and teacher discipline ($\alpha = .76$). Finally, a correlation

analysis was performed to examine criterion-related validity. In order to establish this type of validity, it is vital to demonstrate that variables are related to one another in a predictable manner (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For instance, the constructs of Classroom Management Scales should be related to certain behaviors associated with work-related stress (Knack et al., 2011). The correlation matrix revealed that workload and role conflict map onto teacher discipline and bullying (See Table 10 for bivariate correlations). These results suggest that the CMS is useful in applied settings, as it demonstrated that teacher behaviors (i.e., discipline and bullying) were related to respective behaviors associated with work-related stress.

Table 10 Validity of the Classroom Management Scale

	Stress			
	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Work Load	Utilization of Skills
Teacher to Student Bullying	0.16**	-0.06	0.15**	-0.08
Teacher Discipline	0.10**	0.04	0.29**	0.04

As stated previously, research has established the relationship of personality and environment influencing individual's behavior (Lewin, 1935; Lewin et al., 1936). The current dissertation examined whether the Big Five personality traits along with certain situational factors such as work stress, job satisfaction, and work locus of control influenced teacher-bullying behavior.

Are Some Teachers Really Bullies? Cluster Analysis on Classroom Management Scale

I next examined whether there were distinct bully groups among my teacher participants. I used a two-step classification process that is thought to lead to a more valid and robust pattern (Steele & Aylward, 2007).

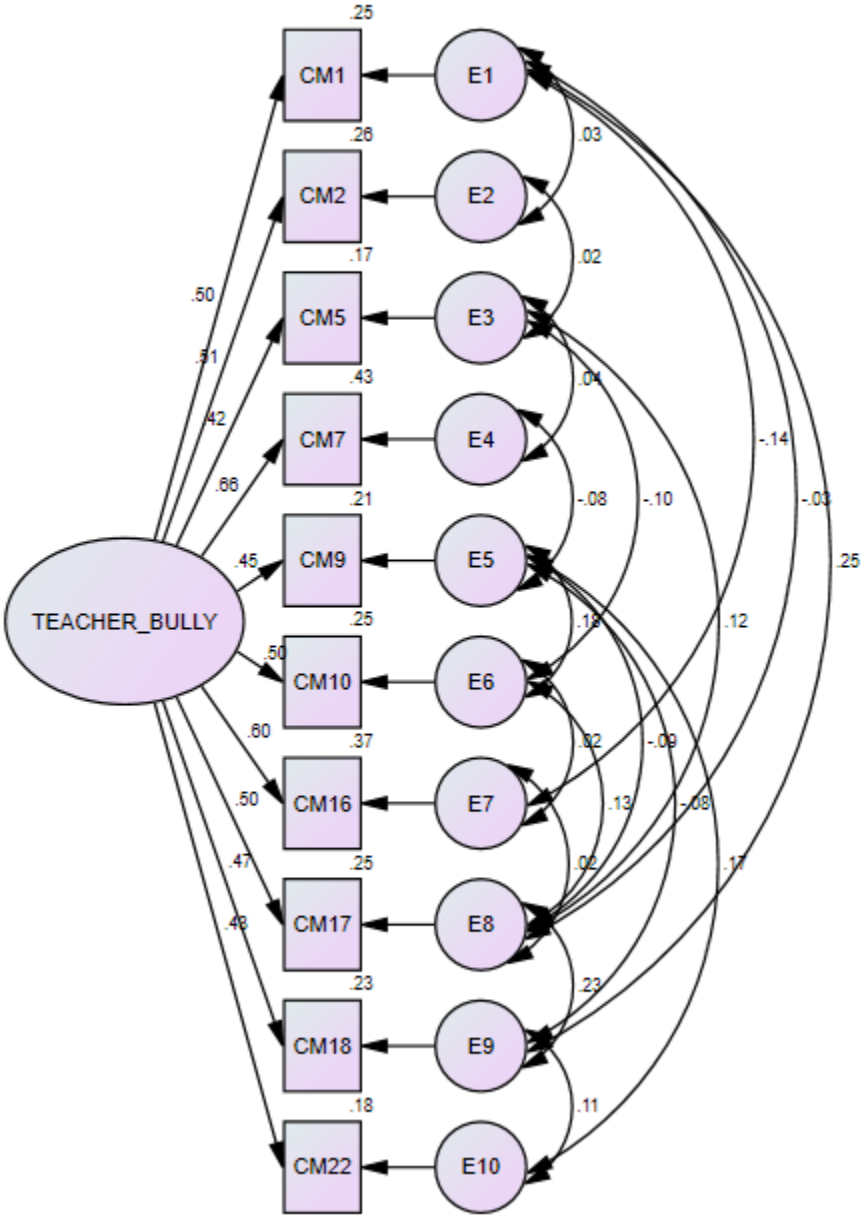

Figure 4. Confirmatory Analysis for the Classroom Management Scale

I began by conducting agglomerative hierarchical cluster analyses, which begins by treating each person as a cluster and then combining individuals into clusters (based on proximity to one another) until all persons are in one large cluster. Ward's method was chosen because it is most recommended (Steele & Aylward, 2007). My goal was to determine the appropriate number of clusters by examining the dendogram and agglomeration coefficients. More specifically, I wanted to examine whether there was indeed a teacher bully group and if so, what percent of my teachers would be considered relational bullies. The 11 items of the Classroom Management Scale derived from the item analysis were used for this analysis. Based on the agglomeration coefficient changes and the dendogram, I choose a two-cluster solution. Then a k-cluster was analyzed to verify the dendogram results. In addition, 90% of the participants were classified in the same group for both methods. That is, only 45 participants were classified differently using the two methods. Out of the 45 participants, 37 were classified as non-bullies and eight as bullies. My first group represented teachers who are bullies (*n* = 165) and the second group represented teachers who are non-bullies (*n* = 286).In other words, 37% of the sample admitted to relationally bullying students, while 63% reported not being involved in bullying students.

Hypothesis 1A Teachers who are higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness will be less likely to bully students than teachers who possess lower levels of these traits, even after controlling for situational factors

To test this focal hypothesis, I ran hierarchical regression analyses with teacher-to-student bullying as the dependent variable (See Table 11 for the bivariate correlations). That is, the 11-item CMS scale was used to assess relational teacher-to-student bullying and was kept as a continuum for these analyses. To control for the effects of the other three personality traits in the Big Five (extraversion, neuroticism, and

openness to experience), they were entered in the first block of the regression model, with agreeableness and conscientiousness in the second block. Results revealed that agreeableness and conscientiousness predicted teacher-to-student bullying after controlling for neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience (ΔF (2, 445) = 3.50, p = .03, ΔR^2 = 1.4%). When all five traits were in the model, conscientiousness, (β = -0.12, SE = 0.14,t (445) = -2.60, p = .01, sr^2 = 0.01), neuroticism, (β = 0.23, SE = 0.09, t (445) = 4.97, p < .001, sr^2 = 0.05) and openness to experience, (β = 0.11, SE = 0.15, t (445) = 2.34, p = .02, sr^2 = 0.01) uniquely predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. In other words, teachers who were less conscientious but highly neurotic and open to experience were more likely to bully students. Contrary to my predictions, agreeableness was not related to teacher-to-student bullying, as seen by both the bivariate correlation and regression models.

Table 11 Bivariate Correlations of Personality Traits and Situational Factors with Teacher-to-Student Bullying

	Teacher-to-Student Bullying
Personality Traits	
Extraversion	-0.07
Agreeableness	-0.06
Conscientiousness	-0.15**
Neuroticism	0.25**
Openness to Experience	0.11*
Stress	
Work Load	0.15**
Role Ambiguity	-0.06
Role Conflict	0.16**
Utilization of Skills	-0.08
Work Locus of Control	0.01
Job Satisfaction	-0.19**

Table 11 – *Continued*

Demographics	
Age	-0.14**
Gender	-^0.14**
Teaching Experience	-0.13**
Education	0.01
Grade Taught	0.08
Teacher Discipline	0.16**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed; ^ means that males were more likely to endorse those behaviors.

I next examined whether conscientiousness would continue to predict teacher-to-student bullying after controlling for situational factors that have been associated with more negative work-related behaviors (i.e., job satisfaction, stress, and work locus of control). For the analysis, demographic variables (i.e., age, years of teaching experience, gender, education, and teacher discipline) were entered in the first block. Situational factors, which included stress, job satisfaction and work locus of control were then entered in the second block. Extraversion, openness to experience, and neuroticism were entered in the third block. Finally, agreeableness and conscientiousness were entered in the fourth block.

Similar results were found even after controlling for situational factors; agreeableness and conscientiousness predicted teacher-to-student bullying after controlling for demographic variables, situational factors, and teacher discipline (ΔF (2, 408) = 2.93, p = .05, ΔR^2 = 1%). Again, neuroticism (β = 0.21, SE = 0.09, t (408) = 4.25, p < .001, sr^2 = 0.04), and conscientiousness (β = -0.10, SE = 0.14, t (408) = -2.22, p = .03, sr^2 = 0.01) uniquely predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. Interestingly, openness to experience no longer predicted teaching-to-student bullying, suggesting that it might not be a stable predictor of this behavior. That is, teachers who are less

conscientious and more neurotic were more likely to bully students even when controlling for demographic variables and situational factors. Furthermore, those teachers who endorse discipline were more likely to report bullying their students in the classrooms. Interestingly, male teachers were more likely to bully students than were female teachers (See Table 12 for regression coefficients).

Table 12 Personality Traits Predicting Teacher-to-Student Bullying Behavior

	Teacher Bullying Behavior	
Predicting Variable	*b*-weights	sr^2
Step 1		
Age	-0.01	0.002
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.003
Gender	-0.20^*	0.017
Grade Taught	0.01	0.005
Teacher Discipline	0.15**	0.032
Education	0.01	0.000
R^2	0.07	
F Model	4.96**	
Step 2		
Age	-0.01	0.000
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.003
Gender	-0.22^*	0.017
Grade Taught	0.01	0.005
Teacher Discipline	0.13*	0.023
Education	0.01	0.001
Stress	0.11*	0.008
Work Locus of Control	0.01	0.001
Job Satisfaction	-0.11**	0.023
R^2	0.10	
ΔR^2	0.04	
F Model	5.75**	
Step 3		
Age	-0.01	0.001
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.001

Table 12— *Continued*

Gender	-0.23^*	0.020
Grade Taught	0.01	0.005
Teacher Discipline	0.16**	0.032
Education	0.01	0.001
Stress	-0.06	0.003
Work Locus of Control	-0.01	0.001
Job Satisfaction	-0.06	0.001
Extraversion	-0.07	0.000
Openness to Experience	0.30+	0.008
Neuroticism	0.41**	0.040
R^2	0.16	
ΔR^2	0.05	
F Model	8.24**	
Step 4		
Age	-0.01	0.000
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.001
Gender	-0.22^*	0.020
Grade Taught	0.01	0.006
Teacher Discipline	0.15**	0.029
Education	0.01	0.000
Stress	-0.07	0.004
Work Locus of Control	0.01	0.001
Job Satisfaction	-0.05	0.004
Extraversion	-0.07	0.002
Openness to Experience	0.27+	0.006
Neuroticism	0.40**	0.036
Agreeableness	-0.06	0.001
Conscientiousness	-0.31*	0.010
R^2	0.17	
ΔR^2	0.01	
F Model	2.47+	

Note: ^positive *b*s indicate being a female; ** p <.001; * p <.05, + p < .08.

Next, I took a person-centered approach and examined whether low conscientiousness and high neuroticism increased the likelihood of being classified as a teacher bully. Using logistic regression, the results again revealed that bully status was

predicted by conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Wald's = 6.42, 12.03, 4.45; *OR* = 0.81, 1.59, 1.37, *p* = 0.01, 0.001, 0.04, respectively). Furthermore, extraversion and agreeableness did not predict bully status (Wald's = 0.14, 1.79; OR = 1.07, 0.87*p* = 0.71, 0.18, respectively). In summary, both the variable-centered and person-centered approaches produced virtually identical results. That is, teachers who were high on neuroticism and low on conscientiousness were more likely to be teacher bullies.

Finally, since the final version of the Classroom Management Scale assessed only relational bullying, I wanted to explore the possibility that personality was related the physical bullying items. As such, the original CMS scale was used to examine the association of each item with the Big Five personality traits. A bivariate correlation analysis was performed, revealing no consistent pattern for personality predicting physical forms of bullying. More specifically, neuroticism was positively related to hitting students, but not related to grabbing/shoving students or throwing things. Conscientiousness was negatively related to throwing things, but was not related to hitting students or grabbing/shoving them. Interestingly, openness was not related to physical bullying such as hitting or throwing things, but was related to grabbing/shoving students (See Table 13 for bivariate correlations). Again, these results should be taken with caution because the physical bullying items were skewed and they might not be predicting accurately.

Table 13 Bivariate Correlations between Personality Traits and the Classroom Management Scale

	E	A	C	N	O
1. Humiliate students or call them names to stop classroom disruption	-0.01	-0.01	-0.07	0.21**	-0.02

Table 13— *Continued*

2. Ignore student(s) who are annoying you in the classroom (e.g. not answering questions)	-0.01	-0.04	-0.11*	0.14**	0.04
3. Acknowledge good behavior (e.g., give a reward for not talking, respecting others, etc.)	0.11*	-0.04	-0.03	-0.04	0.04
4. Hit students or pinch/pull their ears when they misbehave	0.01	0.03	-0.05	0.10*	-0.06
5. Use rejection to discipline students	-0.03	-0.10*	-0.05	0.18**	0.05
6. Give extra class work or homework to problem students	0.01	0.02	-0.04	0.15**	0.08
7. Make a student feel guilty about their behavior	-0.02	-0.04	-0.15**	0.14**	0.06
8. Change seating arrangements to proactively reduce problems in the classroom	0.04	-0.02	-0.10*	-0.03	0.10*
9. Yell at problem student(s) during class time	-0.03	-0.05	-0.14**	0.28**	-0.03
10. Punish the whole class for the behavior of one student	-0.04	-0.02	-0.17**	0.18**	0.10*
11. Set up a student to be picked on by other students because of their behavior	0.05	0.01	-0.11*	0.10*	0.08
12. Watch one student bully another student without intervening	-0.04	-0.06	-0.02	0.05	-0.04
13. Point out shortcoming of the student's performance/behavior in front of the class	-0.09	-0.04	-0.04	0.17**	0.02
14. Privately talk to students about their bad behavior	0.12**	-0.02	-0.05	-0.12*	0.02
15. Give detention for bad behavior	0.12*	0.06	0.04	0.00	-0.01
16. Threaten a student because of something they did (e.g., if you don't do this, I will send you to the principal's office)	-0.03	0.01	-0.12**	0.20**	0.05
17. Don't allow a student access to their locker or restrooms when they are annoying you.	-0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.09	0.09
18. "Nitpick" student's performance when the student is annoying you	-0.03	-0.03	-0.07	0.16**	0.05
19. Make fun of students who are different (e.g., special education students, minorities)	-0.09*	-0.09	-0.07	0.13**	-0.07
20. Ask student(s) to apologize in front of class	0.01	0.02	-0.05	0.13**	-0.07

Table 13— *Continued*

21. Give constructive feedback to students	0.12*	0.12*	-0.06	-0.17**	0.13**
22. Give non-verbal gestures (e.g. rolling eyes, etc.) to students who are annoying you	-0.14**	-0.12*	-0.02	.017**	0.09
23. Grab or shove a student(s) when they are misbehaving	-0.08	-0.01	-0.08	0.02	0.11*
24. Praise the student in front of the class	0.11*	0.06	0.02	-0.10*	0.04
25. Encourage student (s) to do better	0.12*	0.10*	-0.02	-0.07	0.09
26. Allow the students to do corrections on assignments to improve their grade	0.12*	0.02	-0.08	-0.03	0.08
27. Offer tutoring to students who are struggling	0.15**	0.06	-0.02	-0.10*	0.05
28. Throw things when students are misbehaving	0.01	-0.05	-0.10*	0.09	0.08
29. Call a student's parents when the child is misbehaving	0.01	-0.03	0.07	-0.01	-0.12*
30. Make fun of the student(s) in front of the class	0.02	-0.03	-0.01	0.14**	0.11*
31. Take away personal belongings and keep them for personal use	0.01	-0.10	0.07	0.01	-0.07

Hypothesis 1B Teachers who bully students will have higher rates of stress and job dissatisfaction than teachers who do not engage in these behaviors, even after controlling for important personality traits

Hypothesis 1B examined whether teachers who bully students would have high rates of stress and job dissatisfaction than teachers who do not engage in these behaviors, even after controlling for important personality traits and demographic information.

To test this hypothesis, I again ran hierarchical regressions analyses with teacher-to-student bullying as the dependent variable. Demographic variables (i.e., age, years of experience, gender, etc.) were entered in the first block, and situational factors (stress, job satisfaction, and work locus of control) were entered in the second block.

Results showed that situational factors significantly predicted teacher to student bullying behavior, (ΔF (6, 410) = 2.82, p = .01, ΔR^2 = 1.4%). Interestingly, job satisfaction uniquely predicted teacher to student bullying behavior, (β = -0.14, SE = 0.09, t (445) = 4.97, p < .01, sr^2 = 0.05).

In order to test whether situational factors predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior even after controlling for personality traits, another regression analysis was conducted. Demographic variables (i.e., age, years of experience, gender, etc.) were entered in the first block , with, personality traits (extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness) entered in the second block. Finally, situational factors like stress, job satisfaction, and work locus of control were entered in the third block. Results showed that situational factors did not significantly predict teacher-to-student bullying after controlling for demographics and personality traits (See Table 14 for coefficient scores). Specifically, there was no evidence that job satisfaction, work locus of control, and/or perceived work stress were uniquely associated with the endorsement of bullying behaviors over and above personality

Table 14 Situational Factors Predicting Teacher-to-Student Bullying Behavior

Teacher Bullying Behavior		
Predicting Variable	*b*-weights	sr^2
Step 1		
Age	-0.01	0.002
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.003
Gender	-0.20^*	0.017
Grade Taught	0.01	0.005
Teacher Discipline	0.15**	0.032
Education	0.01	0.000
R^2	0.07	
F Model	4.96**	
Step 2		

Table 14 – *Continued*

Age	-0.01	0.002
Years of Experience	-0.01	0.001
Gender	-0.22^*	0.017
Grade Taught	0.01	0.006
Teacher Discipline	0.17**	0.040
Education	0.01	0.000
Agreeableness	-0.03	0.000
Conscientiousness	-0.33*	0.012
Extraversion	-0.09	0.003
Neuroticism	0.45**	0.058
Openness to Experience	0.29+	0.006
R^2	0.16	
ΔR^2	0.09	
F Model	8.80**	
Step 3		
Age	-0.01	0.001
Years of Experience	-0.02	0.001
Gender	-0.23^*	0.020
Grade Taught	0.01	0.005
Teacher Discipline	0.15**	0.029
Education	0.01	0.000
Agreeableness	-0.07	0.000
Conscientiousness	0.32*	0.010
Neuroticism	0.403*	0.040
Openness to Experience	0.260	0.005
Work Locus of Control	0.004	0.000
Job Satisfaction	-0.057	0.004
Stress		
Work Load	-0.034	0.002
Role Conflict	-0.004	0.000
Role Ambiguity	0.004	0.000
Utilization of Skills	-0.022	0.001
R^2	0.17	
ΔR^2	0.01	
F Model	0.66	

*Note: ^positive bs are indicate being a female; ** p <.001, *p <.05.*

Hypothesis 1C

Male teachers will be more likely to bully students using physical and overt forms of bullying, while female teachers will be more likely to use more relational and covert forms of bullying.

As stated previously, the eleven items retained from the CMS to measure teacher-to-student bullying behavior measured only relational bullying because teachers rarely endorsed physical bullying items. Thus, a construct for physical bullying was created, which asked about how often teachers engaged in hitting students, shoving/grabbing students, and throwing things at students (see Table 15 for descriptive statistics and Table 15 to see how the CMS items are related to personality traits). Since only 4% of men and 3.5% of females used physical bullying (see Table 16), I couldn't use the physical bullying variable. Thus, I'm only providing results for relational bullying.

In order to test gender differences on relational bullying behavior, independent t-tests were performed. Results showed that there was a significant gender difference for relational bullying, $t(446) = 2.98$, $p = .004$, CI [0.07, 0.34]. Contrary to my predictions, male teachers (M =1.91, SD = 0.55) tended to engage in more relational bullying than female teachers (M =1.71, SD = 0.56).

Table 15 Descriptive Statistics for Physical Bullying Behavior

	M	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness	Possible Range	Actual Range	Alpha
Physical Teacher Bullying	1.02	0.15	18.91	3.01	1-5	1-2	0.43

Table 16 Gender Differences on Physical Bullying Behavior

		Gender		Total
Physical Bullying		Males	Females	
Non-Bullies	Count	74	358	432
	Expected	74.3	357.8	432
Bullies	Count	3	13	16
	Expected	2.8	13.3	16
Total	Count	77	371	448
	Expected	77	371	448

These results should be interpreted with caution. As can be seen in Table 15, the physical teacher bullying variable was highly positively skewed (skewness = 3.01 *SE* = 0.12) and had a large kurtosis of 18.91 (*SE* = 0.23). Even when attempting to transform the data to deal with this non-normality using either the square root (S = 1.54, K = 16.25) or log transformation (S = -0.45, K = 19.74)[5] transformation method, this variable still had kurtosis problems. By looking at the frequency of the responses provided by participants, it was observed that participants mainly reported having never engaged in such behavior. As such, relational bullying may not be completely comparable with physical bullying because there are very few instances of the latter in this sample. Moreover, the physical bullying scale also had a low alpha level, which can result in the attenuation of the results.

Hypothesis 1D

There are possible interactions between personal and situational factors. For example, teachers who are less agreeable and conscientious may only resort to bullying behavior when they also report higher levels of stress and lower levels of job satisfaction.

[5] Even when the log transformation variable was used, the interaction was still significant (F (1, 446) = 8.51, p = .004).

To examine this focal hypothesis, I ran a series of moderated multiple regression (MMR) analyses. For each MMR model, I standardized my continuous predictors. Demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, etc.) were entered in the first block. The Big Five traits were entered in the second block along with stress and job satisfaction. Finally, interaction terms were created for each situational factor with each personality trait (i.e., Stress[6] X Agreeableness, Stress X Conscientiousness, Job satisfaction X Agreeableness, Job satisfaction X Conscientiousness, etc.) and were entered in the third block one at a time. In other words, ten different regression analysis were run: each of the Big Five personality traits interacting with stress and then job satisfaction.

Results showed a marginally significant interaction between stress and neuroticism, $\Delta F(3, 408) = 3.95$, $p = .08$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.6\%$). The other personality traits did not interact with stress to predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior (See Table 17 for more details). In order to probe the interaction, low and high levels of stress were assessed at 1 standard deviation (SD) above and below the mean (Aiken & West, 1991). Results showed that at high, $b = 0.28$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(408) = 3.97$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = 0.03$, and medium levels of stress, $b = 0.19$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(408) = 3.91$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = 0.03$), neurotic teachers were more likely to bully students compared to their non-neurotic counterparts. At low levels of stress, neuroticism did not predict teacher bullying behavior, $b = 0.11$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(408) = 1.64$, $p = 0.11$, $sr^2 = 0.005$) (see Figure 5). In other words, neurotic teachers who are also experiencing stress are more likely to bully students (See Figure 5).

[6] A composite score was made with the four subscales: Role Conflict, Role Ambiguity, Utilization of Skills, and Workload.

Table 17 Interaction of Personality Traits and Stress

	Levels of Stress			
Predicting Variable	-1 *SD*	0 *SD*	+1 *SD*	*F*∞
Stress X				
Agreeableness	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.04
Extraversion	-0.05	-0.09	-0.13	0.67
Conscientiousness	-0.20*	-0.20*	-0.20*	0.00
Neuroticism	0.28**	0.19**	0.11	3.05+
Openness to Experience	0.05	0.08	0.11	0.41

Note: Asterisks accompanying entries in the first three columns denote significance of the βs given (by t test). ∞ This column gives the value and significance of the product term *F*s. A significant *F* indicates significant variability among the *b*s in that row. + $p < .08$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, •••$p < .001$.

These results did not support my hypothesis that different stress levels would influence how conscientious and agreeable teachers engage in bullying behavior. In this case, neither agreeableness nor conscientiousness interacting with stress predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. However, conscientious teachers were consistently lower on teacher-to-student bullying regardless of their stress levels (*r*s = -0.20).

Additionally, a significant interaction of job satisfaction with neuroticism ($\Delta F(1,408) = 6.72$, $p < .01$, $\Delta R^2 = 1.3\%$) was found. Yet, the interaction between job satisfaction and agreeableness ($\Delta F(1,408) = 2.69$, $p = .10$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.5\%$), conscientiousness ($\Delta F(1,408) = 0.01$, $p = .91$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.0\%$), openness to experience ($\Delta F(1,408) = 0.12$ $p = .73$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.0\%$) and extraversion ($\Delta F(1,408) = 0.15$, $p = .70$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.0\%$) were not significant. Of great interest, however, is the finding that conscientious teachers were less likely to bully their students regardless of their level of job satisfaction (or stress levels).

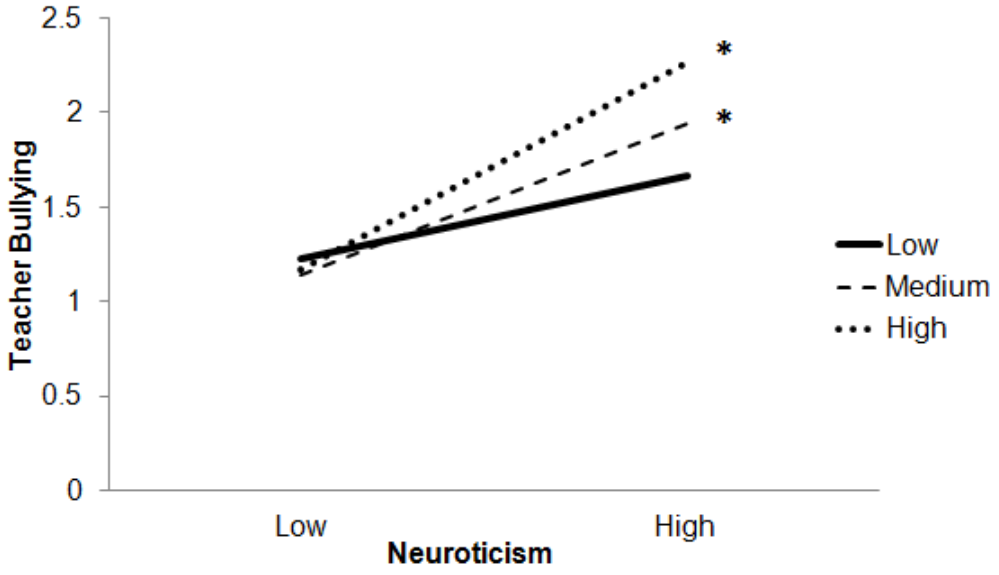

Figure 5. Interaction between Stress and Personality Traits Predicting Teacher Bullying Behavior

All the interactions were probed at 1 *SD* above and below the mean (see Table 18 for details). For example, neurotic teachers who experience low (b = 0.30, SE = 0.04, $t(408) = 4.38$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = 0.04$) and medium ($b = 0.18$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(408) = 3.59$, $p < .001$, $sr^2 = 0.03$) levels of job satisfaction reported greater levels of bullying behaviors toward their students (See Figure 6 for more details). That is, neuroticism has a strong relation to teacher bullying when teachers were not satisfied with their job.

Table 18 Interaction of Personality Traits and Job Satisfaction

	Levels of Job Satisfaction			
Predicting Variable	-1*SD*	0 *SD*	+1 *SD*	*F*∞
Job Satisfaction X				
Agreeableness	-0.07	-0.01	-0.09	2.47
Extraversion	-.007	-0.08	-0.10	0.15
Conscientiousness	-0.19	-0.19	-0.20	0.01
Neuroticism	0.30**	0.18**	0.07	6.72**
Openness to Experience	0.08	0.09	0.08	0.12

Note: Asterisks accompanying entries in the first three columns denote significance of the *β*s given (by t test). ∞ This column gives the value and significance of the product term *F*s. A significant F indicates significant variability among the βs in that row. + *p* < .08. **p* < .OS. ***p* < .01. •••*p* < .001.

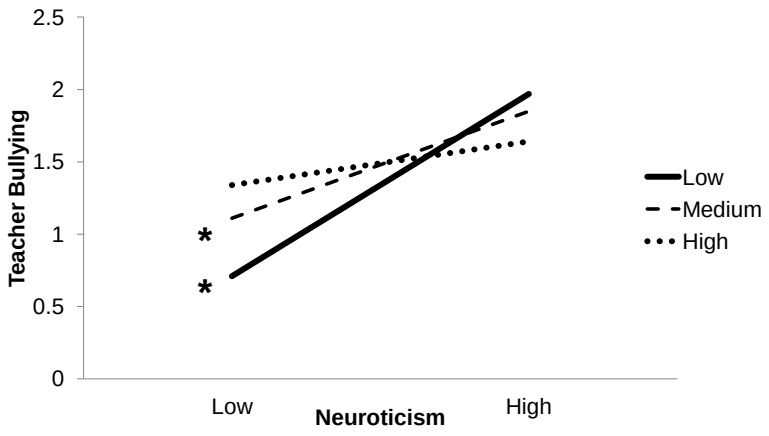

Figure 6. Interaction between Job Dissatisfaction and Neuroticism

Hypothesis 2A

Teachers who are bullied by students, colleagues, and/or principals will report more psychological and physical health problems than non-victimized teachers.

As can be seen by the correlations in Table 19, reported bullying by principals, teachers, parents and teachers was positively associated with the frequency of health problems and depression. Personal and situational factors were also related to health problems. To further test this hypothesis, I ran two separate hierarchical regression

analyses with health (physical and psychological) as the dependent variables. The situational factors, personality traits, and demographic variables were entered in the first block of the regression model. The student, parent, colleagues, and principal bullying variables were then entered in the second block.

Table 19 Bivariate Correlations of Teacher Victimization, Personality, Health, and Situational Factors

	Principal Bullying	Teacher Bullying	Student Bullying	Parent Bullying
Personality				
Extraversion	-0.05	-0.05	-0.05	-0.07
Agreeableness	0.01	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04
Conscientiousness	-0.13**	-0.14**	-0.25**	-0.04
Neuroticism	0.26**	0.22**	0.20**	0.12**
Openness to Experience	0.09	0.09	0.10*	0.01
Health				
Physical	0.28**	0.23**	0.20**	0.15**
Depression	0.47**	0.37**	0.25**	0.28**
Stress				
Work Load	0.28**	0.12**	0.02	0.12**
Role Conflict	0.51**	0.41**	0.18**	0.32**
Role Ambiguity	-0.36**	-0.19**	-0.18**	-0.20**
Utilization of Skills	-0.43**	-0.27**	-0.27**	-0.31**
Work Locus of Control	0.02	0.05	-0.02	0.06
Job Satisfaction	-0.49**	-0.30**	-0.29**	-0.24**

Note: ** p <.001; * p = .05

Results revealed that workplace bullying (by students, colleagues, parents, and principals)[7] significantly predicted depression in teachers and accounted for 5% of the variance in self-reported depression, $\Delta F(4, 404) = 9.57$, p <.001, ΔR^2 = 5%). Interestingly, both principal (β = 0.16, SE = 0.11, $t(404) = 3.32$, p = .001, sr^2 = 0.01), and teacher bullying (β = 0.09, SE = 0.12, $t(404) = 1.99$, p = .05, sr^2 = 0.005) uniquely predicted

[7] Even if the four workplace bullying variables were highly related, there were no multicollinearity problems for principal bullying, teacher bullying, student bullying, and parent bullying; VIFs were lower than 2.5; tolerance was greater than 0.04, and condition indices were lower than 30, as suggested by Kenny (2014).

depression symptoms in victimized teachers, even though their effect sizes were quite small. Student and parent bullying were not uniquely related to reported depression.

Workplace bullying marginally predicted physical health in victimized teachers and accounted for 2% of the variance, $\Delta F(4, 404) = 2.27$, $p = .06$. Interestingly, only student-to-teacher bullying) uniquely predicted physical health symptoms in victimized teachers, $\beta = 0.09$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(404) = 1.83$, $p = .07$, $sr^2 = 0.01$ (see Table 20 for beta-weight scores). In other words, when students victimized teachers, the latter were more likely to report physical health problems than when they were victimized by other teachers, parents, or principals at school.

Table 20 Work-Related Bullying Behavior Predicting Depression and Physical Health Problems

	Depression		Physical Health	
Predicting Variable	*b*-weights	sr^2	*b*-weights	sr^2
Step 1				
Job Satisfaction	-0.29**	0.070	-0.06*	0.017
Stress	0.44**	0.040	0.10*	0.020

Table 19 – *Continued*

Work Locus of Control	0.13+	0.010	-0.07*	0.012
Agreeableness	-0.23	0.001	-0.10	0.001
Conscientiousness	-0.47*	0.008	-0.28**	0.023
Extraversion	-0.30*	0.006	-0.01	0.000
Neuroticism	1.11**	0.10	0.31**	0.068
Openness to Experience	0.32	0.003	-0.01	0.000
Gender	-0.06	0.000	0.05	0.004
Age	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Grade Taught	0-.01*	0.003	-0.01	0.004
Teacher Discipline	0.07	0.002	.05*	0.008
Education	-0.02	0.000	0.01	0.000
R^2	0.44		0.27	

Table 20 – continued

F Model	22.60**		10.93**	
Step 2				
Job Satisfaction	-0.18**	0.023	0.04	0.005
Stress	0.39**	0.032	0.10*	0.020
Work Locus of Control	0.10	0.003	-0.08*	0.014
Agreeableness	-0.22	0.000	-0.10	0.001
Conscientiousness	-0.33	0.004	-0.23*	0.014
Extraversion	-0.32*	0.008	-0.01	0.000
Neuroticism	1.00**	0.073	0.29**	0.053
Openness to Experience	0.23	0.002	-0.02	0.000
Gender	0.03	0.000	0.07	0.005
Age	0.01	0.000	0.00	0.000
Grade Taught	-0.01	0.002	-0.01	0.006
Teacher Discipline	0.03	0.000	0.05*	0.008
Education	-0.05	0.001	0.01	0.000
Principal Bullying	0.38*	0.014	0.03	0.001
Teacher Bullying	0.25*	0.005	0.05	0.002
Student Bullying	0.02	0.000	0.07+	0.006
Parent Bullying	0.19	0.003	0.01	0.000
R^2	0.49		0.29	
ΔR^2	0.05		0.02	
F Model	9.57**		2.27+	

Note: **p <.001, *p <.05, + p <.08.

Finally, in order to examine whether teachers who were bullied by students, parents, colleagues and/or principals reported more serious illness, a logistic regression was performed, as the dependent variable in this analysis was a categorical variable. All the variables were standardized in order to have them in the same metric scale. Serious illness was entered as the dependent variable, while personal traits, situational factors, and demographic variables were entered in the first block of the logistic regression model. Finally, student, parent, colleagues, and principal bullying variables were entered in the second block. According to the Hosmer & Lemeshow test, this model has a good

fit. Furthermore, the Cox and Snell R^2 and the Nagelkerke R^2 suggest that workplace bullying behavior account for 17% of the variance.

The results revealed that principal, colleague, and parent bullying did not predict serious illness (Ward's = 0.01, 0.00, 0.20; p = 0.94, 0.99, 0.66, respectively) There was a marginal significant effect of student-to-teacher bullying behavior on serious illness (Wald's = 3.54, p = .07). These results suggest that when students bully teachers, teachers were 1.28 times more likely to report more serious illness (See Table 21 for more details). However, when teachers were victimized in their workplace by principals, colleagues, and/or parents, they were not likely to report a greater likelihood of serious problems due to that victimization. These results remain the same even the covariates of situational and personality factors were removed from the model. That is, principal, teachers/colleague, and parent did not predict serious illness. Interestingly, now student victimization (Wald's= 1.38, 0.07, 0.28; 2.35, p = 0.24, 0.80, 0.60, 0.13, respectively) did not predict serious illness. Overall, the results supported the hypothesis that workplace bullying predicted depressive symptoms and physical health problems in victimized teachers.

Table 21 Work Related Bullying Behavior Predicting Serious Illness

Predictors	Wald's	Exp (B)	*p- value*
Agreeableness	0.19	0.96	0.72
Extraversion	1.61	1.17	0.20
Conscientiousness	0.01	1.01	0.95
Neuroticism	7.55	1.43	0.006
Openness to Experience	0.01	1.00	0.98
Teacher Discipline	0.20	0.95	0.66
Work Locus of Control	1.00	0.89	0.32
Job Satisfaction	0.01	0.99	0.93

Table 21 – continued

Stress	3.03	1.24	0.08
Teaching Experience	0.53	1.07	0.46
Education	1.37	1.31	0.24
Grade Taught	4.12	0.94	0.04
Age	10.11	1.05	0.001
Gender	0.57	0.78	0.45
Principal Bullying	0.01	1.01	0.94
Teacher Bullying	0.00	1.00	0.99
Parent Bullying	0.20	1.06	0.66
Student Bullying	3.05	1.28	0.07
Hosmer & Lemeshow	$\chi^2 = 7.94/df = 18/p = 0.79$		
Cox & Snell R^2	0.12		
Nagelkerke R^2	0.17		

Hypothesis 2A.1

Does Gender Moderate Victimization-Outcome Associations?

Since a vast literature suggests that there are gender differences in depressive symptoms (Roberts et al., 2013), I examined if teacher gender influenced the victimization-outcome findings. I ran a hierarchical regression analyses with depression as the dependent variable, with stress, job satisfaction, and workplace bullying entered in the first block as control variables. In the second block, the types of bullying toward teachers were entered along with gender. Since gender is a categorical variable, unweighted codes were used. The interaction terms were then created (i.e., student bullying X gender, parent bullying X gender, etc.) and entered in the third block. A total of four regression analyses were run, with one for each possible interaction between gender and type of victimization.

Results revealed there was a significant interaction of gender and parent bullying behavior, $\Delta F(3, 439) = 3.59$, $p = .01$, $\Delta R^2 = 1.5\%$). When probing the interaction for parent bullying, results showed that male teachers) who experienced higher levels of

victimization by parents reported lower depression, β = -0.17, *SE* = 0.09, *t*(439) = -1.78, *p* = .08, sr^2 = 0.01. Conversely, female teachers who reported higher levels of victimization by parents were more likely to report depression, β = 0.11, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(439) = 2.48, p = .01, sr^2 = 0.01) (see Figure 9). There were no significant interactions for teacher bullying, $\Delta F(3, 439) = 1.67$, $p = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.7\%$, principal bullying, $\Delta F(3, 439) = 0.32$, $p = .75$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.2\%$), and student bullying, $\Delta F(3, 439) = 0.71$, $p = .55$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.3\%$. That is, both male and female teachers responded similarly to being bullied by these sources.

Hypothesis 2A.2

Supplementary analyses: Are there distinct types of victimized teachers?

I wanted to further examine whether there were distinct victim groups among my teacher participants and if these distinct types of victims had different health outcomes. I again used a two-step classification process (Steele & Aylward, 2007). First, I conducted agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis, using Ward's method. The dendogram and agglomeration coefficients were examined to determine the number of clusters. Five dimensions of victimization were used to establish the initial cluster solution, namely non-victims, teacher-bullied victims, student-bullied victims, principal-bullied victims, and parent-bullied victims. Based on the agglomeration coefficient changes and the dendogram, I choose a five-cluster solution.

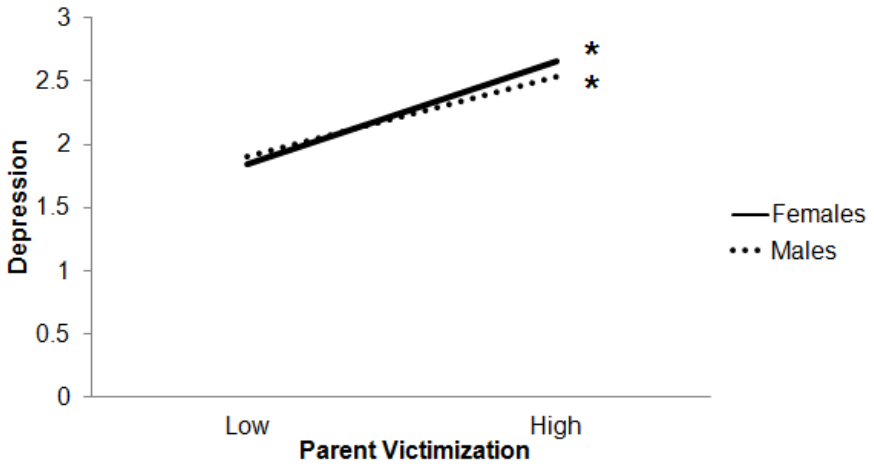

Figure 7 Gender Differences in Depression of Victimized Teachers

Second, I used k-cluster means analysis (with normalized Euclidean distance as the distance metric) to confirm the five-cluster solution. K-mean clustering partitions the participants into clusters by minimizing the SS_{within} within each cluster (or their distance to the cluster center). The specific cluster centers for the five victimization dimensions from the hierarchical cluster analysis were used as the initial cluster centers for the k-means clustering. In addition, 88% of the participants were classified in the same victim group for both methods. That is, only 53 participants were classified differently using the two methods. My first group represented teachers that were primarily victimized by students (n = 76). The second group represented teachers who were primarily victimized by other teachers (n = 68); the third group represented teachers who were primarily victimized by principals (n = 29); the fourth group represented teachers who were non- victimized (n = 259); and the final group represented teachers who were primarily victimized by parents (n = 9). Several noteworthy findings were gleaned from these analyses (see Table 22). First, teachers who were victimized by parents reported more stress, (F(4, 451) = 3.88, p

<.05, than those that were bullied by principals, students, and colleagues, as well as those who were not bullied. Furthermore, teachers who were bullied by parents, students, or other teachers reported more physical health problems, $F(4, 451) = 11.66$, $p < .001$, than those teachers who were bullied by principals or not bullied at all. Teachers who were bullied by students reported more depression than teachers who were bullied by other teachers, principals, or parents. In addition, those bullied groups reported more depression than the non-bullied teachers. Finally, those victimized by other teachers were more likely to report higher levels of job dissatisfaction and neuroticism, and were more likely to bully students than those who were bullied by principals, students, and parents (see Table 22 for more details).

Table 22 Cluster Analysis and Adjustment Outcomes

		Students			Teachers			Principals			Parents			Non- Victimized		F-value	Partial η2
	n	*M*	*SE*	*n*	*M*	*SE*	*n*	*M*	*SE*	*n*	*M*	*SE*	*n*	*M*	*SE*		
Health																	
Physical Problems	76	1.73a	0.04	68	1.84a	0.06	29	1.48b	0.10	9	1.81c	0.04	269	1.58b	0.02	11.66**	0.10
Depression		2.42a	0.10		3.40b	0.17		2.34b	0.30		2.79b	0.10		1.92c	0.05	28.66**	0.21
Job Satisfaction		3.91a	0.08		3.08b	0.14		4.38c	0.24		3.62d	0.09		4.29e	0.04	27.42**	0.20
Work Locus of Control		3.61a	0.06		3.63a	0.10		3.85a	0.18		3.63a	0.07		3.56a	0.03	0.87	0.01
Stress		3.50a	0.06		3.65a	0.09		3.34a	0.16		3.71b	0.06		3.48a	0.03	3.88*	0.03
Personality																	
Conscientiousness		4.67a	0.21		4.70a	0.03		4.91b	0.06		4.71a	0.02		4.78a	0.01	6.21**	0.05
Neuroticism		3.72a	0.03		3.91b	0.06		3.64a	0.10		3.78a	0.04		3.62a	0.02	9.12**	0.08
Openness		4.82a	0.02		4.91a	0.03		4.78	0.06		4.82	0.02		4.83a	0.01	2.27	0.02
Agreeableness		4.91a	0.01		4.91a	0.02		4.83a	0.04		4.92a	0.01		4.93a	0.01	1.53	0.01
Extraversion		4.34a	0.03		4.28a	0.06		4.24	0.10		4.34a	0.04		4.35a	0.02	0.62	0.01
Teacher Bullying Behavior		2.01a	0.06		2.17b	0.10		1.30c	0.03		1.76d	0.06		1.63d	0.03	14.14**	0.11
Teacher Discipline		4.03a	0.08		4.14b	0.13		4.14b	0.23		4.20c	0.08		4.07a	0.04	0.69	0.01

Revisiting the Overall Conceptual Model (Figure 3)

Figure 3 represented my overall theoretical model related to Hypothesis 1;namely, what factors influence the likelihood that teachers would bully their students. This model suggested that workplace stress and job satisfaction would be influenced by whether the teacher is experiencing workplace bullying. This stress/satisfaction should then be related to teacher to student bullying behavior. Additionally, it was expected that personality would influence teacher-to-student bullying (interactions between personality and situational factors were dropped due to my previous limited findings). Finally, I theorized that being bullied at work might be directly related to teacher to student bullying behavior. Previous analyses reported in this dissertation examined different portions of this model separately. However, structural equation modeling can be used to test these pathways simultaneously.

To do so, I employed AMOS. The initial model had a poor fit, χ^2 = 242.38/*df* = 25/*p*= <.001; GFI = 0.88; TLI= 0.35; RMSEA = 0.14 [90% CI 0.12, 0.16, $p < .001$]. By looking at the modification indices, it was indicated that the error terms for my measures should be correlated to one another; indeed, it made theoretical sense to do so, as all of the measures in the model came from the same source (i.e., a self-report survey). After correlating the error terms, the model had an acceptable fit: χ^2 = 54.58/*df* = 36/*p* = 0.02; GFI = 0.98; TLI = 0.96; RMSEA = 0.03 [90% CI 0.01, 0.05, $p = .94$] (See Figure 8).

The bootstrapping method was then used to test the indirect effect of work place bullying on teacher bullying behavior with 1,000 bootstrapping samples run with 95% confidence intervals. The results indicate that there were a significant indirect effects of being bullied in the workplace to teacher-to-student bullying through health, $b = 1.33$, $p = 0.002$, 95%CI [-2.04, -0.52]. Furthermore, there was not a significant indirect effect through stress, job satisfaction, and/or work locus of control. However, there was a direct

relationship between being bullied in the workplace and teachers bullying their students. These findings suggest that the environment to which teachers are exposed encourage bullying behavior.

The structural equation model demonstrated that workplace bullying was related to teacher-to-student bullying. Furthermore, workplace bullying predicted poor health outcomes, job dissatisfaction, and stress among teachers. However, health, job satisfaction, and/or stress did not significantly predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior. Finally, teacher-to-student bullying behavior was predicted by conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (See Figure 8 for model estimates). In other words, teachers who are bullied in their workplace tend to report more health complaints, job dissatisfaction, and higher stress levels. Unsurprisingly, those teachers who experienced workplace bullying were more likely to bully their students in the classrooms. Those teachers who were the bullies tended to be less conscientious but more neurotic, as well as showing a greater opennes to experience.

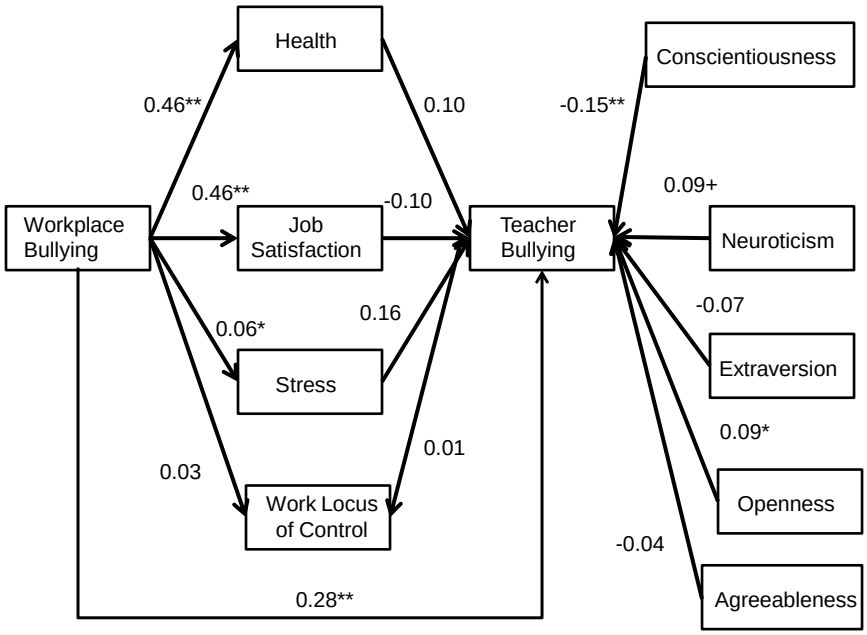

Figure 8 Estimates for the Conceptual Model Presented in Figure 3

Chapter 5

Discussion

The current dissertation was an initial step in unfolding and understanding the consequences of workplace bullying behavior. First, I examined if personality traits such as conscientiousness and agreeableness would predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior. Then, I considered whether environmental factors predicted teacher-bullying behavior. Third, I examined whether personality (i.e., the Big Five) interacted with situational factors (i.e., stress, job satisfaction, and work locus of control) to predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior. Fourth, I examined workplace bullying and its consequences on the teacher victims. Finally, I examined the overall theoretical model presented in Figure 3, in which I predicted that workplace bullying would be associated with teacher-to-student bullying via situational factors.

Previous research has estimated that rates of teacher-to-student bullying behavior vary from 2% to 40% (Delfabbro et al., 2006; Olweus, 1996; Twemlown et al., 2006). In my sample, 39% of teachers (n = 177) were classified as being relational bullies. These findings are shocking when one considers the negative consequences associated with experiencing bullying. An extensive line of research has examined how victimization is negatively associated with physical health outcomes (Knack et al., 2011), and depression (Iyer et al., 2013). This dissertation attempted to extend these findings between being victimized and health outcomes.

Given that approximately one out of every three teachers are bullies, it is important to understand why teachers engage in such behavior. Research has examined the rates of teacher-to-student bullying behavior (Terry, 1998); however, no research has been devoted to understand *why* teachers might bully their students. Research by Lewin

(1935) suggests that personality and environmental factors influence the way an individual behaves. Thus, the proposed work attempted to extend the understanding of teacher-to-student bullying as well as replicate the current findings on the consequences experienced by victims of bullying.

As expected, conscientiousness predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior (Bolle & Tackett, 2013; Fossati et al., 2012; Book et al, 2012; Kodzopeljic et al., 2013). That is, teachers who were less conscientiousness reported higher rates of bullying their students. Prior research has found that less-conscientious people tend to have poor self-control (Sijtsema, Veenstra, Lindenberg, & Salmivalli, 2009). This suggests that people who are less conscientious might bully others because they cannot control their aggressive impulses.

Contrary to my predictions, agreeableness was not related to teacher-to-student bullying behavior. These findings are different from past literature that suggests a negative relationship between agreeableness and bullying behavior (Bolle & Tackett, 2013; Fossati et al., 2012; Book et al, 2012; Kodzopeljic et al., 2013). That is, those individuals who bully others are more likely to be less agreeable (Turner & Ireland, 2010). However, the findings from the current dissertation found no relationship between agreeableness and bullying behavior. One of the possible reasons agreeable not to be associated with bullying is that there are individuals who do not like to engage in conflicts with others, regardless of their level of agreeableness (Wayne et al., 2004). As such, teachers might decide to not bully the students simply to avoid getting involved in conflicts with students, parents, and the school administration. Interestingly, conscientiousness still predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior but not agreeableness, even when controlling for situational factors,

Of great interest were the findings that neuroticism and openness to experience uniquely predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. The former results are consistent with past research (Menessinin et al., 2010). Bullies often report high levels of neuroticism when compared to victims of bullying behavior (Fossati et al., 2012). It is possible that neurotic individuals bully others because often show higher levels of irritation and annoyance (Watson, 2000). As such, teachers might have a low threshold for experiencing negative effect, and are thus more likely to cross that threshold during day-to-day annoyance and engage in bullying behaviors. Moreover, these findings follow the notion that neurotic individuals are more likely to be hostile (Carlo, Mester, McGinley, Samper, Tur, & Sandman, 2012) and get angrier (Bollmer et al., 2006). In other words, neuroticism activates the feelings of being impulsive, angry, and aggressive (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999).

Furthermore, results showed that openness to experience accounted for 1.2% of the variance teacher-to-student bullying behavior and was positively related to teacher bullying behavior. These results differ from past literature in which openness to experience was negatively (Bolle & Tackett, 2013), or not at all, related to bullying behaviors (Bollmer et al., 2006). Currently, there is research suggesting that individuals higher on openness to experience are more likely to report conflicts. However, the same individuals reported that the conflict they experienced was due to their relationships with others (Bono, Boles, Judge, & Lauver, 2002). One possibility for these findings is that individuals who are high on openness to experience are argumentative (Blickle, 1995) and as a result, are more likely to engage in conflict (Park & Antonioni, 2007). As such, it is possible that when teachers encounter a difficult student in the classroom, it is more likely the teacher will bully the student instead of using more constructive strategies deal with conflict. More research needs to further examine this possibility.

In addition, situational factors were examined as antecedent for bullying behavior (Lewin, 1934). I examined if these situational factors predicted teacher bullying behavior when controlling for demographic and personality traits. Bandura (1973) suggests that environmental factors contribute to the acquisition and maintenance of aggressive behavior, and the work-environment hypothesis argued that states such as stress and poorly organized work environments are positively related to bullying behavior in the workplace (Agervold & Mikkelsen, 2004). Not only does stress predict bullying behavior, but it also has been found that job dissatisfaction (Marcus & Schuler, 2004; Moretti, 1986; Pseekos, Bullock-Yowell, & Dahlen, 2011) and locus of control (Andreous, 2000) do as well. As such, this dissertation examined whether stress, job satisfaction, and work locus of control predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. The bivariate correlations revealed that teacher-to-student bullying was related to stress and job dissatisfaction. However, work locus of control was not associated with bullying behavior.

Interestingly, situational factors did not predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior after controlling for personality factors and demographics. As Lewin (1935) suggested, the interaction of both the environment and personality predicts behavior; in this case then, personality and situational factors might have competed for variance to predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior. In other words, personality and situational factors' variance overlap and they do not explain something new or unique about teacher bullying.

Additionally, research suggests that bullying results from an interaction between individual and situational factors (Aquino et al., 1999; Zapf, 1999). Thus, I examined if the interaction of situational factor and personality traits predicted teacher-to-student bullying behavior. It was found that those teachers who were neurotic and experienced stress tended to bully their students. These results are consistent with the Stressor-Emotion

Model of Counterproductive Working Behavior Model, which suggests that depending on personality, when certain individuals are exposed to stressors they are more likely to aggress toward others (CWB; Spector & Fox, 2005). Other studies have found empirical evidence in support of this model (Estévez, Murgui, & Musitu, 2009; Mathisen & Einarsen, 2007);for instance, employees reported that stress was the number one reason as to why they engaged in bullying behavior (Mathisen & Einarsen, 2007). Individuals have been found to often engage in aggressive behaviors because they have lost control within a stressful environment (Jenkins et al., 2012), or as a result of burnout (Twemolw et al., 2006). Findings for the current dissertation suggest that teachers who bully students may be doing so not simply because they want to aggress toward their students, but rather because they encounter highly stressful working environments. Indeed, Matheisen, Einarsen and Mykletun (2010) found that supervisors who were highly neurotic and report experiencing high levels of stress were more likely to bully others in the workplace.

Contrary to my predictions, the other four personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness and extraversion) did not interact with stress to predict teacher-to-bullying behavior. These results differ from those found by Matheisen and colleagues, where low conscientiousness and high agreeableness paired with high stress predicted engagement in bullying behaviors (2010). Caution should be taken when interpreting the results from the current dissertation, as the data are cross-sectional and we cannot draw conclusions about causal relationships. Even if this study has shown that there is a relationship between teachers' personality, stress, and bullying behavior, one could also argue that schools will have more negative behavior among their employees and employ teachers that are more inefficient.

Furthermore, teachers who reported being neurotic and less satisfied with their jobs were more likely to bully their students. Research has suggested that dissatisfied individuals tend to engage in bullying behavior (Glasso et al., 2011) as a way to gain control. As such, it is not surprising that if a neurotic teacher is not satisfied with their job, there is a greater likelihood of bullying their students.

Analyses were also conducted to evaluate gender differences and subtypes of bullying behavior. Male teachers were also more likely to endorse relational bullying than females were. These results contradict prominent beliefs that females use more relational aggression (Crick et al., 1995). Nevertheless, research suggests that as people get older, they implement relational bullying. Craig (1998) found that boys who were in older grades reported using more relational aggression when compared to younger grades. In fact, adults are more likely to display relational aggression because it requires sophisticated social skills to manipulate relationships which younger individuals may not possess (Archer & Coyne, 2005). The fact that adults display relational bullying instead of physical bullying may be a result of its benefits. Relational bullying can damage reputations with the advantage of hiding the perpetrator's identity, which in turns decrease the likelihood of retaliation (Archer & Coyne, 2005). Further research should still examine gender differences in teacher-to-student bullying behavior to see if the results are stable over time.

The second half of my dissertation examined workplace bullying behavior and its consequences. Although workplace bullying has been extensively researched, there is a lack of research on teacher victimization by their colleagues, students, parents and principals. The rates of teacher victimization were astounding. For instance, 18% of teachers reported being victimized by students, 14% by colleagues, 6% by principals, and 5% by parents. Aside from the high rates of victimization, literature has also

suggested that workplace bullying leads to adverse outcomes (Jenkins, Zapf, Winefield, & Sarris, 2012; Hauge, Skogstad, &Einarsen, 2009). This dissertation found that teachers who reported being victimized also reported more depressive symptoms and a greater number of physical health problems. All the four sources of workplace bullying (teacher, colleague, principal and parent) accounted for 5% of the variance in depressive symptoms. The relationship between bullying behavior and depression has been well documented (Hawker & Boulton, 2000; Iyer, Dougall, & Jensen-Campbell, 2013). As such, it was no surprise that teachers who were victimized by principals and teachers reported higher rates of depressive symptoms. It is interesting that principal bullying accounted for 1.4% of the variance in depressive symptoms, while teacher bullying only accounted for 0.05%. These results suggest that principal bullying is more detrimental than teacher bullying; the greater imbalance of power between a teacher and a principal (Blasé et al., 2008), and the ineffective monitoring of principal's behavior (DeWet, 2010), could be driving such results. Gender differences in the experience of depressive symptoms associated with being bullied by principals and parents were also found. When parents victimized teachers, females reported more depressive symptoms when compared to males.

Surprisingly, when students bullied teachers, the latter reported physical health problems. In other words, teacher victimization by colleagues and principals were associated with symptoms of depression, while victimization by students was related to physical health problems. These differences could be due to the recurrence and the intensity of the harmful behavior that results in differences in psychological and physical damage (Blasé et al., 2008). As a matter of fact, depression is an early symptom of physical health problems (Hemingsen, Zimmermann, & Sattel, 2003; Penninx, Levelle, Ferrucci, van Eljk, & Gurainlk, 1999). Moreover, teachers who were victimized did not

differ in serious health problems. Taken together, these results suggest that being victimized leads to health problems such as depression, colds, headaches, etc.

Finally, I examined if workplace bullying predicted-teacher-to student bullying behavior via situational factors and if in turn, teacher-to-student bullying predicted personality traits. The results revealed that workplace bullying did indeed significantly predict teacher-to-student bullying behavior. That is, those teachers who were victimized by others at school were more likely to bully the students in their classrooms. These results are consistent with past research that indicates victimized individuals are more likely to bully others (Curtner-Smith, 2000; Lee, 2010; Smokowski & Kopasz, 2005; Yang et al., 2012). As a result, a cycle of violence is created (Wisdom, 1992). Consistent with other literature, the present dissertation suggests that bullying is not confined to dyadic relationships, but is more of a group process. That is, psychosocial work environment and individual traits might be important in explaining bullying behavior (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Zapft & Einarsen, 2010). In fact, research suggests that bullying behavior is a result of group and organizational factors (Samnani & Singh, 2012), as well as personality and situational factors (Hauge et al., 2009). All of those factors interact together to predict bullying behavior in the workplace.

Limitations

Like any research, this study is not without limitations. Although the sample was large, diverse, all the data come mainly from schools in Texas. Thus, the generalizability of the findings is unknown. Second, due to a large sample size, several of my interesting trends may be due to chance and should thus be replicated with a less robust sample. While it is possible that the findings are due to the large sample size, the current trends are in the predicted direction. This study was correlational in nature which means that it does not inferred that one variable causes the other. For instance, workplace bullying

does not cause teacher-to-student bullying behavior. The data were self-reported, and, social desirability may have influenced the way teachers respond to the questions. For instance, even if teachers engaged in physical bullying behavior, they might not admit it due to the apprehension of being reported. However, studies showed that individuals tend to give more honest answers when responding to surveys via the internet, as opposed to those written and completed in person (Wang, Lee, Lew-Ting, et al., 2005).

Implications

Despite the limitations, findings from the current dissertation provide new and important information regarding the problem of bullying in the classrooms. First, the present dissertation provided evidence of teacher-to-student bullying behavior. This study also fills the gaps in past research by testing why some teachers might engage in bullying behavior. There has been increasing interest in anti-bullying programs in schools recently, but they have met with little success (Merrell, Gueldner, Ross, & Isava, 2008); this study provides insight into what those programs might be missing. Most of the bullying interventions give emphasis to acts such as helping the victims report the incident, having teachers identify the bullies and try to stop the behavior, meeting with parents, implementing more strict disciplinary actions, etc. (Ttofi & Farrington, 2011). However, anti-bullying programs do not address the issue that teachers themselves might be involved in the bullying behavior.

Second, the present findings match the literature on peer-to-peer bullying. For instance, victims of bullying behavior showed worse psychological and physical health. It is important to note that teachers were affected depending on who their perpetrator was. In fact, when teachers were victimized by other teachers and/or principals, they reported higher rates of depressive symptoms. However, when students victimized teachers, their

physical health was compromised. Future research should examine and determine how to intervene to support teachers in their workplace.

Concluding Remarks

This dissertation was an initial step in trying to understand why teachers might engage in bullying behavior toward students. It was the first to include measures of teacher-to-student bullying behavior, teacher victimization (by colleagues, principals, parents and students), health, depression, and situational and personality factors. Indeed, the major contribution of this dissertation was the ability to examine personality and situational factors, and the interaction of both in predicting teacher-to-student bullying behavior. I began by demonstrating a relationship between bully status and personality traits such as conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. I then examined if situational factors predicted bullying behavior. A relationship between stress, job satisfaction, and teacher-to-student bullying behavior was found. However, this relationship no longer existed when the model controlled for personality traits and demographics. I then examined if the interaction of situational factors and personality predicted teacher bullying behavior. Results revealed that medium and high levels of neuroticism, along with with high levels of stress and job dissatisfaction, predicted teacher to bullying behavior.

Furthermore, I examined if workplace bullying was associated with poor health outcomes and found evidence that victimized teachers often report higher physical complaints and depressive symptoms. I then examined the conceptual model of this dissertation and found evidence that workplace bullying behavior directly predicts teacher-to-student bullying behavior. The current dissertation contributes to the field of bullying behavior by demonstrating that there are antecedents that lead teachers to engage in bullying behavior in the classrooms. Contrary to popular belief that bullying

behavior is only seen in children and is something people grow out of, current findings provide evidence that a large portion of teachers (i.e., 39%) engage in bullying behavior themselves. Moreover, an equally amount of teachers were victims of bullying behavior (40.4%). In fact, those who are victims of workplace bullying are more likely to display bullying behaviors toward their students. In conclusion, this dissertation not only found that teachers might be the bullies, but that they also tend to be the victims of bullying behavior from their colleagues, students, principals at school, and parents. Both being the bullies and/or the victims, leads to differences in stress levels, job satisfaction, and health issues.

Appendix A

Scales

Surveys

Demographics

1. **Age: _____**

2. **What is your gender?**
    a. Male
    b. Female

3. Ethnicity
a) White
b) Black/African American
c) Asian
d) Hispanic
e) Other: _____

4. For how many years have your been teaching?

1-3
4-6
7-9
10-12
13-15
More than 15 yrs

5. What is your education level?
1) Bachelor's degree
2) Master's degree
3) Doctoral degree

6. What grade do you teach?
Pre-K
Kindergarten
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12

7. My class consists of:
    a. 13-20 students
    b. 21-30 students
    c. 31-40 students

d. 41-50 students

8. **Are you in a permanent position or you are a substitute teacher?**

1) Permanent
2) Substitute

9. What school district are you currently working for?

Job Satisfaction

10. In general, I don't like my job.
    a. Strongly disagree
    b. Disagree
    c. Slightly agree
    d. Agree
    e. Strongly agree
11. All in all, I'm satisfied with my job
    a. Strongly disagree
    b. Disagree
    c. Slightly agree
    d. Agree
    e. Strongly agree
12. In general, I like working here.
    a. Strongly disagree
    b. Disagree
    c. Slightly agree
    d. Agree
    e. Strongly agree

Assessing Health Outcomes - SR

Directions: Rate the frequency of the following health symptoms.

Scale:
Frequency: not at all sometimes often all the time

1. Extreme fatigue (feeling extremely tired)
2. Allergic reaction
3. Sleep problems
4. Stomachache
5. Nausea/vomiting (sick to your stomach/throwing up)
6. Diarrhea
7. Muscle aches and pains
8. Headaches or migraine
9. Weight gain of 5 or more pounds
10. Weight loss of 5 or more pounds
11. Respiratory congestion (cold in your chest)
12. Runny nose
13. Coughing
14. Sore throat
15. Sneezing
16. Blocked nose
17. Fever or chills
18. Dizziness
19. Double or blurred vision
20. Trouble catching breath
21. Having a cold
22. Chest pains
23. Numbness or tingling
24. Low energy
25. Ear infections
26. Getting sick
27. Heart beating too fast
28. Visits to the doctor due to sickness.
29. Visits to the school nurse due to sickness.

Do you have the following conditions?

1) Hypertension
2) Diabetes
3) High cholesterol
4) Heart disease
5) Asthma
6) Psychiatric disorder (if yes, describe)
7) Cancer

Job Stress Questionnaire (JSQ)

(Caplan, R., Cobb, S., French, J., Van Harrison, R., & Pinneau, S. (1975). Demands and worker health: Main effects and organizational differences. Washington, D.C. U.S. Government Printing Office.

1) Strongly disagree 2) disagree 3) somewhat disagree 4) somewhat agree 5) agree 6) strongly agree

1. How often does your job require you to work very fast?
2. How often does your job require you to work very hard?
3. How often does your job leave you with little time to get things done?
4. How often is there a great deal to be done?
5. How often do you experience a large increase in work load?
6. How often do persons equal in rank and authority over you ask you to do things which conflict?
7. How often do people whose requests should be met give you things to do which conflict with other work you have to do?
8. How often are you unclear on what your responsibilities are?
9. How often can you predict what others will expect of you on the job?
10. How much of the time are your performance standards well defined?
11. How often does your job let you use the skills and knowledge you have learned in school or during training?
12. How often you given a chance to do the things you do best?
13. How often can you use the skills from your previous experience and training?
14. How stressed out or upset your work makes you feel?

MDI

The following questions ask about how you have been feeling over the last two weeks. Please check the box which is closest to how you have been feeling.

All of the time	Most of the time	Slightly more than half of the time	Slightly less than half of the time	Some of the time	At no time
5	**4**	**3**	**2**	**1**	**0**

1 Have you felt low in spirits or sad?
2 Have you lost interest in your daily activities?
3 Have you felt lacking in energy and strength?
4 Have you felt less self-confident?
5 Have you had a bad conscience or feelings of guilt?
6 Have you felt that life wasn't worth living?
7 Have you had difficulty in concentrating, e.g., when reading the newspaper or watching television?
8a Have you felt very restless?
8b Have you felt subdued?
9 Have you had trouble sleeping at night?
10a Have you suffered from reduced appetite?
10 b Have you suffered from increased appetite?

Teacher Bullying (Classroom Management Scale)

Instructions: How often you have you performed the following actions to maintain order in your classroom when students are misbehaving?
Scale: 1 never 2 almost never 3 sometimes 4 almost all the time 5 all the time

1. Humiliate students or call them names to stop classroom disruption
2. → Ignore student(s) who are annoying you in the classroom (e.g. not answering questions)
3. Acknowledge good behavior (e.g., give a reward for not talking, respecting others, etc.)
4. Hit students or pinch/pull their ears when they misbehave
5. Use rejection to discipline students
6. Give extra class work or homework to problem students
7. →Make a student feel guilty about their behavior
8. →Change seating arrangements to proactively reduce problems in the classroom
9. Yell at problem student(s) during class time
10. →Punish the whole class for the behavior of one student
11. Set up a student to be picked on by other students because of their behavior
12. Watch one student bully another student without intervening
13. Point out shortcoming of the students' performance/behavior in front of the class
14. →Privately talk to students about their bad behavior
15. Give detention for bad behavior
16. →Threaten a student because of something they did (e.g., if you don't do this, I will send you to the principal's office)
17. →Don't allow a student access to their locker or restrooms when they are annoying you.
18. → "Nit pick" on students' performance when the student is annoying you
19. Made fun of students who are different (e.g., special education students, minorities)
20. Ask student(s) to apologize in front of class
21. Give constructive feedback to students
22. →Give non-verbal gestures (e.g. rolling eyes, etc.) to students who are annoying you
23. Grab or shove a student(s) when they are misbehaving
24. →Praise the student in front of the class
25. →Encourage student(s) to do better
26. Allow the students to do corrections on assignment to improve their grade
27. Offer tutoring to students who are struggling
28. Throw things when students are misbehaving
29. Call a student's parents when the child is misbehaving
30. Make fun of the student(s) in front of the class
31. Taking away personal belongings and keep them for personal use

→ **means the items that were retained after the item analysis.**

Mini-IPIP

Instructions: On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviors. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you generally are now, not as you wish to be in the future

1=Very Inaccurate
2=Moderately Inaccurate
3=Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate
4=Moderately Accurate
5=Very Accurate

1. Am the life of the party (E)
2. Sympathize with others' feelings (A)
3. Get chores done right away (C)
4. Have frequent mood swings (N)
5. Have a vivid imagination (I)
6. Don't talk a lot (E)
7. Am not interested in other people's problems (A)
8. Often forget to put things back in their proper place (C)
9. Am relaxed most of the time (N)
10. Am not interested in abstract ideas (I)
11. Talk to a lot of different people at parties (E)
12. Feel others' emotions (A)
13. Like order (C)
14. Get upset easily (N)
15. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas (I)
16. Keep in the background (E)
17. Am not really interested in others (A)
18. Make a mess of things (C)
19. Seldom feel blue (N)
20. Do not have a good imagination (I)

Items from the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLOC)

1. A job is what you make of it.
2. On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish.
3. If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you.
4. If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it.
5. Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck.
6. Making money is primarily a matter of good fortune.
7. Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort.
8. In order to get a really good job you need to have family members or friends in high places.
9. Promotions are usually a matter of good fortune.
10. When it comes to landing a really good job, who you know is more important than what you know.
11. Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job
12. To make a lot of money you have to know the right people.
13. It takes a lot of luck to be an outstanding employee on most jobs.
14. People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded for it.
15. Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do.
16. The main difference between people who make a lot of money and people who make a little money is luck.

"These items should be reverse scored: 1, 2, 3, 4, 11, 14, 15

Note. Response choices are: I disagree very much, 2 —disagree moderately, 3 — disagree slightly, 42 agree slightly, 5 agree moderately, 6 —agree very much.

NAQ_R

The questions below ask about your relationship with several types of people, in the past 6 months. For each question, choose the answer that fits you best.

Never Now and then Monthly Weekly/daily

1. Someone withholds information which affects your performance
   Principal
   Teacher
   Parent
   Student

2. Being humiliated or ridiculed in connection with your work
3. Spreading of gossip and rumors about you
4. Being ignored, excluded or being “sent to Coventry”
5. Having insulting or offensive remarks made about your person (i.e. habits and background), your attitudes or your private life
6. Being shouted at or being the target of spontaneous anger (or rage)
7. Intimidating behavior such as finger-pointing, invasion of personal space, shoving, blocking/barring the way
8. Hints or signals from others that you should quit your job
9. Repeated reminders of your errors or mistakes
10. Being ignored or facing a hostile reaction when you approach
11. Persistent criticism of your work and effort
12. Having your opinions and views ignored
13. Practical jokes carried out by people you don’t get on with
14. Having allegations made against you
15. Being the subject of excessive teasing and sarcasm
16. Threats of violence or physical abuse or actual abuse

** for this, do not include student on the options ***

17. Being ordered to do work below your level of competence
18. Having key areas of responsibility removed or replaced with more trivial or unpleasant tasks
19. Being given tasks with unreasonable or impossible targets or deadlines
20. Excessive monitoring of your work
21. Pressure not to claim something which by right you are entitled to (e.g. sick leave, holiday entitlement, travel expenses)
22. Being exposed to an unmanageable workload

Discipline

Teacher often use different ways to discipline students. What are the ways you would discipline a student? Please provide a list of ways you think of disciplining students. Write as many as you like.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____

Appendix B

Invitation Letter

Dear Teacher.

I am a doctoral candidate in the department of Psychology at The University of Texas at Arlington. My dissertation is examining the experiences that teachers face in their careers. More specifically, I am examining the relationships teachers have with students, other teachers, and supervisors/principals.I will also ask you about your attitudes toward discipline, your satisfaction at work, and any health related issues that you may have.

Your participation in this survey could help us learn more about teachers' challenges. Survey findings could also help universities provide better career education services to students while preparing for a teaching career. Finally, by participating in this survey, you will help me complete my dissertation.

Completing this survey will take about 15-20 minutes. An online survey to my research can be found at: https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/NCBDBLS .

As a special thank you for participating in the study, **all participants** who complete the online survey will have the opportunity to enter a grand prize drawing for a Starbucks, Amazon, or iTunes certificate in the amount of $50.00. Three winners will be chosen at random. Participants that would like to be included in a drawing for an incentive will be asked to complete a separate form to provide their e-mail address and telephone number. By completing the separate form, your name would not be linked to any information that you have provided in the survey and you are consenting to participate in the drawing.

Your answers will be completely anonymous. In other words, your answers **will not be linked to your name or any other identifiable item**. I invite you to participate in this study. I appreciate in advance your time and cooperation in being part of my research study.

Thanking you in advance,

Erika Venzor, M. S.
Doctoral Candidate
The University of Texas at Arlington
Department of Psychology

Appendix C

Final Classroom Management Scale

Classroom Management Scale

Instructions: How often you performed the following actions to maintain order in your classroom when students are misbehaving.

Scale: 1 never 2 almost never 3 sometimes 4 almost all the time 5 all the time

1. Ignore student(s) who are annoying you in the classroom (e.g. not answering questions)
2. Make a student feel guilty about their behavior
3. Change seating arrangements to proactively reduce problems in the classroom
4. Punish the whole class for the behavior of one student
5. Privately talk to students about their bad behavior
6. Threaten a student because of something they did (e.g., if you don't do this, I will send you to the principal's office)
7. Don't allow a student access to their locker or restrooms when they are annoying you.
8. "Nit pick" on students' performance when the student is annoying you
9. Give non-verbal gestures (e.g. rolling eyes, etc.) to students who are annoying you
10. Praise the student in front of the class
11. Encourage student (s) to do better

References

Araiza, V. (2014). Bessemer superintendent to address teacher concerns. *Fox 6.* Retrieved from: http://www.myfoxal.com/story/26551227/bessemer-superintendent-to-address-teacher-concerns

Archer, J. (2004). Sex differences in aggression in real-world settings: A meta-analytic review. *Review of General Psychology*, *8*(4), 291.

Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Hjelt-Bäck, M. (1994). Aggression among university employees. *Aggressive Behavior, 20*(3), 173-184. doi: 10.1002/1098-2337(1994)20:3<173::aid-ab2480200304>3.0.co;2-d

Blase, J., & Blase, J. (2002). The dark side of leadership: Teacher perspectives of principal mistreatment. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *38*(5), 671-727.

Blase, J., Blase, J., & Du, F. (2008). The mistreated teacher: A national study. *Journal of Educational Administration*, *46*(3), 263-301.

Bollmer, J. M., Harris, M. J., & Milich, R. (2006). Reactions to bullying and peer victimization: Narratives, physiological arousal, and personality. *Journal of Research in Personality, 40*(5), 803-828. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2005.09.003

Book, A. S., Volk, A. A., & Hosker, A. (2012). Adolescent bullying and personality: An adaptive approach. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*(2), 218-223.

Borg, M. G., Riding, R. J., & Falzon, J. M. (1991). Stress in teaching: A study of occupational stress and its determinants, job satisfaction and career commitment among primary schoolteachers. *Educational Psychology, 11*(1), 59-75.

Caplan, R. D., Cobb, S., French Jr, J. R., Harrison, R. V., & Pinneau Jr., S. R. (1975). Job demands and worker health: Main effects and occupational differences.

CBS News (2014). Online bullying by students a growing problem for teachers. Retrieved from: http://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/edmonton/online-bullying-by-students-a-growing-problem-for-teachers-1.2606144

Cemaloglu, N. (2007). The exposure of primary school teachers to bullying: An analysis of various variables. *Social Behavior and Personality: An international journal*, *35*(6), 789-802.

Cemaloglu, N. (2007). The relationship between organizational health and bullying that teachers experience in primary schools in turkey. *Educational Research Quarterly*, *31*(2), 3-28.

Chaplain, R. P. (2008). Stress and psychological distress among trainee secondary teachers in England. *Educational Psychology, 28*(2), 195-209.

Charilaos, K., Michael, G., Chryssa, B.-T., Panagiota, D., George, C. P., & Christina, D. (2015). Validation of the negative acts questionnaire (NAQ) in a sample of Greek teachers. *Psychology, 6*(01), 63.

Clark, R., & Antonelli, F. (2009). *Why teachers leave: Results of an Ontario survey 2006-08*: Ontario Teachers' Federation.

Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development*, *66*(3), 710-722.

Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(6), 1241.

De Bolle, M., & Tackett, J. L. (2013). Anchoring bullying and victimization in children within a five-factor model-based person-centered framework. *European Journal of Personality*, *27*(3), 280-289.

De Wet, C. (2010). The reasons for and the impact of principal-on-teacher bullying on the victims' private and professional lives. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(7), 1450-1459.

De Wet, N. C., & Jacobs, L. (2006). Educator-targeted bullying: Fact or fallacy? *Acta Criminologica*, *19*(2), p.53.

Delfabbro, P., Winefield, T., Trainor, S., Dollard, M., Anderson, S., Metzer, J., & Hammarstrom, A. (2006). Peer and teacher bullying/victimization of South Australian secondary school students: Prevalence and psychosocial profiles. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*(1), 71-90. doi: 10.1348/000709904x24645

Devenport, F. (2014). Bessemer superintendent to meet with teachers over concerns of hostile work environment at city's high school. *Alabama 13.* Retrieved from: http://www.alabamas13.com/story/26632851/bessemer-superintendent-to-meet-with-teachers-over-concerns-of-hostile-work-environment-at-citys-high-school

Donnellan, M. B., Oswald, F. L., Baird, B. M., & Lucas, R. E. (2006). The mini-IPIP scales: Tiny-yet-effective measures of the Big Five factors of personality. *Psychological Assessment*, *18*(2), 192.

Dougall, A. L., & Baum, A. (2001). Stress, health, and illness. *Handbook of health psychology*, 321-337.

Einarsen, S. (1999). The nature and causes of bullying at work. *International Journal of Manpower, 20*(1/2), 16-27.

Einarsen, S. (2005). The nature, causes and consequences of bullying at work: The Norwegian experience. *Pistes: Perspectives Interdisciplinaires sur le Travail et la Santé, 7*(3).

Einarsen, S., Aasland, M. S., & Skogstad, A. (2007). Destructive leadership behaviour: A definition and conceptual model. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*(3), 207-216.

Einarsen, S., Hoel, H., & Notelaers, G. (2009). Measuring exposure to bullying and harassment at work: Validity, factor structure and psychometric properties of the Negative Acts Questionnaire-Revised. *Work & Stress*, *23*(1), 24-44.

Estévez, E., Musitu, G., & Herrero, J. (2005). The influence of violent behavior and victimization at school on psychological distress: The role of parents and teachers. *Adolescence, 40*(157), 183-196.

Fahie, D., & Devine, D. (2014). The impact of workplace bullying on primary school teachers and principals. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, *58*(2), 235-252.

Fisher-Blando, J. L. (2008). *Workplace bullying: Aggressive behavior and its effect on job satisfaction and productivity* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Phoenix).

Forrest, S., Eatough, V., & Shevlin, M. (2005). Measuring adult indirect aggression: The development and psychometric assessment of the indirect aggression scales. *Aggressive Behavior*, *31*(1), 84-97. doi:10.1002/ab.2007

Fossati, A., Borroni, S., & Maffei, C. (2012). Bullying as a style of personal relating: Personality characteristics and interpersonal aspects of self-reports of bullying behaviours among Italian adolescent high school students. *Personality and Mental Health, 6*(4), 325-339. doi: 10.1002/pmh.1201

Fox, S., & Stallworth, L. E. (2010). The battered apple: An application of stressor-emotion-control/support theory to teachers' experience of violence and bullying. *Human Relations*, *63*(7), 927-954.

Gleason, K. A., Jensen-Campbell, L. A., & South Richardson, D. (2004). Agreeableness as a predictor of aggression in adolescence. *Aggressive Behavior*, *30*(1), 43-61.

Gottfredson, G. D., & Holland, J. L. (1990). A longitudinal test of the influence of congruence: Job satisfaction, competency utilization, and counterproductive behavior. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 37*(4), 389.

Graziano, W. G., Jensen-Campbell, L. A., & Finch, J. F. (1997). The self as a mediator between personality and adjustment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*(2), 392.

Hauge, L. J., Skogstad, A., & Einarsen, S. (2009). Individual and situational predictors of workplace bullying: Why do perpetrators engage in the bullying of others? *Work & Stress, 23*(4), 349-358.

Hess, N. H., & Hagen, E. H. (2006). Sex differences in indirect aggression: Psychological evidence from young adults. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *27*(3), 231-245.

Hershcovis, S. M., & Barling, J. (2010). Towards a multi-foci approach to workplace aggression: A meta-analytic review of outcomes from different perpetrators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*(1), 24-44. doi: 10.1002/job.621

Higgins, E. T., & Parsons, J. E. (1983). Social cognition and the social life of the child: Stages as subcultures. *Social Cognition and Social Development*, 15-62.

Ingersoll, R. M. (2003). Why schools have difficulty staffing their classrooms with qualified teachers? *Educational Leadership*, *60*(8), 30-33.

Jackson, J. S., Knight, K. M., & Rafferty, J. A. (2010). Race and unhealthy behaviors: Chronic stress, the HPA axis, and physical and mental health disparities over the life course. *American Journal of Public Health*, *100*(5), 933.

James, D. J., Lawlor, M., Courtney, P., Flynn, A., Henry, B., & Murphy, N. (2008). Bullying behaviour in secondary schools: What roles do teachers play? *Child Abuse Review, 17*(3), 160-173. doi: 10.1002/car.1025

Jenkins, M. F., Zapf, D., Winefield, H., & Sarris, A. (2012). Bullying allegations from the accused bully's perspective. *British Journal of Management, 23*(4), 489-501.

Jensen-Campbell, L. A., Knack, J. M., Waldrip, A. M., & Campbell, S. D. (2007). Do Big Five personality traits associated with self-control influence the regulation of anger and aggression? *Journal of Research in Personality*, *41*(2), 403-424.

Judge, T. A., Scott, B. A., & Ilies, R. (2006). Hostility, job attitudes, and workplace deviance: Test of a multilevel model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 126.

Kauppi, T., & Pörhölä, M. (2012). Teachers bullied by students: Forms of bullying and perpetrator characteristics. *Violence and Victims*, *27*(3), 396-413.

Khoury-Kassabri, M., Astor, R. A., & Benbenishty, R. (2009). Middle Eastern adolescents' perpetration of school violence against peers and teachers: A cross-cultural and ecological analysis. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, *24*(1), 159-182.

Kivimäki, M., Elovainio, M., & Vahtera, J. (2000). Workplace bullying and sickness absence in hospital staff. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, *57*(10), 656-660.

Kodžopeljić, J., Smederevac, S., Mitrović, D., Dinić, B., & Čolović, P. (2014). School bullying in adolescence and personality traits: A person-centered approach. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 29*(4), 736-757.

Krugman, P. (1984). Import protection as export promotion: International competition in the presence of oligopoly and economies of scale. *Monopolistic Competition and International Trade*, 180-93.

Kshirsagar, V. Y., Agarwal, R., & Bavdekar, S. B. (2007). Bullying in schools: Prevalence and short-term impact. *Indian Pediatrics*, *44*(1), 25.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress. *Appraisal and Coping.* New York, New York: Publisher.

Lewin, K. (1935). *A dynamic theory of personality: Selected papers by Kurt Lewin.* New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.

Lewin, K., Heider, F. T., & Heider, G. M. (1936). Principles of topological psychology. New York, NY, US: McGraw-Hill.

Leymann, H. (1996). The content and development of mobbing at work. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 5*(2), 165-184.

Long, C. (2012). Bullying of teachers pervasive in many schools. *Neatoday.* Retrieved from: *http://neatoday.org/2012/05/16/*bullying-*of-teachers-pervasive-in-many-schools/*

Macdonald, S., & Maclntyre, P. (1997). The generic job satisfaction scale: Scale development and its correlates. *Employee Assistance Quarterly*, *13*(2), 1-16.

MacIntosh, J. (2012). Workplace bullying influences women's engagement in the workforce. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, *33*(11), 762-768.

Maglio, D. (2014). Sweet but overbearing mothers bully teachers. Retrieved from: http://www.drmaglio.com/articles/education/overbearing_mothers.php

Marcus, B., & Schuler, H. (2004). Antecedents of counterproductive behavior at work: A general perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 647.

Mathisen, S. B., & Einarsen, S. (2007). Perpetrators and targets of bullying at work: Role stress and individual differences. *Violence and Victims, 22*(6), 735-753.

McAdams, D. P. (1992). The five-factor model in personality: A critical appraisal. *Journal of Personality*, *60*(2), 329-361.

McAdams, D. P. (1995). What do we know when we know a person? *Journal of Personality*, *63*(3), 365-396.

McAdams, D. P., & Olson, B. D. (2010). Personality development: Continuity and change over the life course. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *61*, 517-542.

McAdams, D. P., & Pals, J. L. (2006). A new Big Five: Fundamental principles for an integrative science of personality. *American Psychologist*, *61*(3), 204.

McAdams, D. P., Anyidoho, N. A., Brown, C., Huang, Y. T., Kaplan, B., & Machado, M. A. (2004). Traits and stories: Links between dispositional and narrative features of personality. *Journal of Personality*, *72*(4), 761-784.

McCormack, D., Casimir, G., Djurkovic, N., & Yang, L. (2006). The concurrent effects of workplace bullying, satisfaction with supervisor, and satisfaction with co-workers on affective commitment among schoolteachers in China. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *17*(4), 316-331.

McEachern, A. G., Aluede, O., & Kenny, M. C. (2008). Emotional abuse in the classroom: Implications and interventions for counselors. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 86*(1), 3-10.

McEvoy, A. (2005). *Teachers who bully students: Patterns and policy implications.* Paper presented at the Teachers who bully students. Presentation at? the Conference on Persistently Safe Schools–Philadelphia (September 11–14. 2005).

McEwen, B. S. (2000). The neurobiology of stress: From serendipity to clinical relevance. *Brain Research, 886*(1), 172-189.

McVicar, A. (2003). Workplace stress in nursing: A literature review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 44*(6), 633-642.

Menesini, E., Camodeca, M., & Nocentini, A. (2010). Bullying among siblings: The role of personality and relational variables. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 28*(4), 921-939.

Moretti, D. M. (1986). The prediction of employee counterproductivity through attitude assessment. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 1*(2), 134-147.

Mount, M., Ilies, R., & Johnson, E. (2006). Relationship of personality traits and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating effects of job satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology, 59*(3), 591-622.

Mynard, H., & Joseph, S. (1997). Bully/victim problems and their association with Eysenck's personality dimensions in 8 to 13-year olds. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 67*(1), 51-54. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8279.1997.tb01226.x

Namie, G. (2003). Workplace bullying: Escalated incivility. *Ivey Business Journal*, *68*(2), 1-6.

Olsen, L. R., Jensen, D. V., Noerholm, V., Martiny, K., & Bech, P. (2003). The internal and external validity of the Major Depression Inventory in measuring severity of depressive states. *Psychological Medicine*, *33*(02), 351-356.

Olweus, D. (1991). Bully/victim problems among schoolchildren: Basic facts and effects of a school-based intervention program. *The Development and Treatment of Childhood Aggression*, *17*, 411-448.

Olweus, D. (1996). Bullying at school: Knowledge base and an effective intervention programs. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *794*(1), 265-276.

Pervin, K., & Turner, A. (1998). A study of bullying of teachers by pupils in an inner London school. *Pastoral Care in Education*, *16*(4), 4-10.

Peters, C. D., Storch, E. A., Geffken, G. R., Heidgerken, A. D., & Silverstein, J. H. (2008). Victimization of youth with type-1 diabetes by teachers: Relations with adherence and metabolic control. *Journal of Child Health Care, 12*(3), 209-220.

Pseekos, A. C., Bullock-Yowell, E., & Dahlen, E. R. (2011). Examining Holland's person-environment fit, workplace aggression, interpersonal conflict, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 48*(2), 63-71.

Quine, L. (2001). Workplace bullying in nurses. *Journal of Health Psychology, 6*(1), 73-84. doi: 10.1177/135910530100600106

Riley, D., Duncan, D., & Edwards, J. (2012). Bullying of staff in schools. Camberwell, Australia: ACER Press.

Rosenkrans, N. (2014). Viral video has teacher charged with misdemeanor. Family of victim feels that prosecutor was too lenient. Retrieved from: http://www.toledoblade.com/Education/2014/06/03/Viral-video-has-teacher-charged-with-misdemeanor.html

Schmitt, D. P., Allik, J., McCrae, R. R., & Benet-Martínez, V. (2007). The geographic distribution of Big Five personality traits patterns and profiles of human self-description across 56 nations. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *38*(2), 173-212.

Selye, H. (1973). The Evolution of the Stress Concept: The originator of the concept traces its development from the discovery in 1936 of the alarm reaction to modern therapeutic applications of syntoxic and catatoxic hormones. *American Scientist, 61*(6), 692-699.

Sharpe, G. W. (2011). *Behind the closed door: Exploring teacher bullying and abuse of students,characteristics of the teacher, and impact.* Toronto, Canada: University of Toronto.

Shumba, A. (2001). Who guards the guards in schools? A study of reported cases of child abuse by teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools. *Sex Education: Sexuality, Society and Learning, 1*(1), 77-86.

Shumba, A. (2002). The nature, extent and effects of emotional abuse on primary school pupils by teachers in Zimbabwe. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 26*(8), 783-791.

Smith, M. L. (1991). Put to the test: The effects of external testing on teachers. *Educational Researcher*, *20*(5), 8-11.

Smollin (2014). Cyberbaiting: A new teen trend that humiliates teachers. Take Part. Retrieved from: http://www.takepart.com/article/2011/12/07/cyberbaiting-teens-find-high-tech-ways-humiliate-teachers

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences* (Vol. 3): Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage.

Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behavior. In S. Fox, P. E. Spector, S. Fox, P. E. Spector (Eds.) *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 151-174). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association. doi:10.1037/10893-007

Subrayado (2014). Maestra agredida por una madre con patadas en la boca [Teacher attack by a mother with kicks in the mouth]. Retrieved from: http://www.subrayado.com.uy/Site/noticia/33081/

Terry, A.A. (1998). Teachers as targets of bullying by their pupils: A study to investigate incidents. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 68, 255-268.

Theoklitou, D., Kabitsis, N., & Kabitsi, A. (2012). Physical and emotional abuse of primary school children by teachers. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 36*(1), 64-70.

Turner, P., & Ireland, J. L. (2010). Do personality characteristics and beliefs predict intra-group bullying between prisoners? *Aggressive Behavior, 36*(4), 261-270. doi: 10.1002/ab.20346

Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P., Sacco, F. C., & Brethour, J. R. (2006). Teachers who bully students: A hidden trauma. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 52*(3), 187-198.

Venzor, E. (2012). *Does teacher bullying predict poorer adjustment outcomes in students?*(Unpublished master's thesis). The University of Texas at Arlington, Arlington, Texas. Retrieved from: https://uta-ir.tdl.org/uta-ir/handle/10106/9550

Walker, S., & Richardson, D. R. (1998). Aggression strategies among older adults: Delivered but not seen. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 3*, 287–294.

Walsh, M. (2014). See it: Kindergarten teacher caught on camera grabbing 6-year-old's face. *New York Daily News.* Retrieved from: http://www.nydailynews.com/news/national/kindergarten-teacher-caught-camera-grabbing-6-year-old-face-article-1.1792044

Whitted, K. S., & Dupper, D. R. (2007). Do teachers bully students? Findings from a survey of students in an alternative education setting. *Education and Urban Society*.

Yıldırım, D. (2009). Bullying among nurses and its effects. *International Nursing Review*, *56*(4), 504-511.

Biographical Information

Erika Venzor earned her Bachelor of Arts from The University of Texas at Arlington in 2009 where she majored in Psychology and minored in Spanish. She then continued at UT Arlington to earn her Master of Science in Experimental Psychology in 2011. In 2012, she joined the doctoral program in Experimental Psychology at UT Arlington. Her primary research interest center on understanding peer victimization and teacher bullying and how that influence others' health, academic performance and motivation. Furthermore, she is interested in understanding why teacher might engage in bullying behavior. That is, why some teachers bully students while others do not. She hopes to help others be aware of the serious problems that bullying is and help to prevent the incidences of bullying behavior at schools.