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ORIGINAL REPORT

Effects of Occupational Violence and Aggression on Teacher Wellbeing in Australian Schools: A Meta-Analysis

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ABSTRACT

Occupational violence and aggression (OVA) is an extremely prevalent and concerning issue in all school contexts around the world. International research highlights high prevalence rates of OVA against teachers and identifies a wide range of alarming impacts of OVA on teacher wellbeing. These impacts include risk of anxiety, depression, PTSD, poor sleep, stress, burnout, poor job performance and leaving the profession. The topic of OVA in Australia has been increasing in the media over recent years, as well as the introduction of new OVA prevention strategies. A systematic literature review was conducted to critically analyse and synthesise all of the current available Australian research on the impacts of OVA on teacher wellbeing. The main findings identified that there is a major lack in Australian research and that there are physical and psychological impacts to the many teachers who experience OVA in Australia. This study highlights the gap in Australian research about the effects of occupational violence and aggression on teacher wellbeing, and highlights the need for further in-depth research in Australia.

Keywords

Violence, Teacher, Wellbeing

INTRODUCTION

RATIONALE AND SCOPE

Occupational violence and aggression (OVA) against teachers has increased globally in recent years and is causing negative impacts on the physical and mental wellbeing of teachers (Espelage et al., 2013; Longobardi et al., 2018; Reddy et al., 2018). Impacts of long-term exposure to OVA include decreased motivation and job satisfaction (Kapa & Gimbert, 2018), detrimental effects to mental and physical health (Moon et al., 2019), increased burnout (Wei et al., 2013) and in some cases, symptoms of anxiety, depression and PTSD (Billet et al., 2019).

The Department of Education Australia (2021b, p.1) defines OVA as "any action, incident or behaviour that departs from reasonable conduct in which a person is, threatened, harmed, injured by another person in the course of, or as the direct result of his or her work". Examples of OVA provided in the Department of Education Occupational Violence Prevention Procedure (Department of Education, 2021b, p.6) include: spitting, biting, hitting, kicking, punching, physical or verbal intimidation and threatening behaviour, malicious damage to an individual's property, gendered violence, and online/virtual harassment.

In December 2021, The Department of Education published their Occupational Violence and Aggression Prevention Strategy 2021-2023. The purpose is to outline "the minimum standard for the prevention and management of occupational violence risks" with the goal of protecting the health, safety and wellbeing of department workers who may experience OVA (Department of Education, 2021a, p.6).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of this research was to collect, analyze data and summarize how the effects of occupational violence and aggression on teachers, effect their wellbeing. The following research question and three guiding sub-research questions were used to guide the research:

1. What are the effects of occupational violence and aggression on teacher wellbeing in Australia?

Guiding sub questions

- 2. What is occupational violence and aggression?
- 3. How does occupational violence and aggression affect professional performance?
- 4. How does occupational violence and aggression affect the mental and physical health?

OUTCOMES

A meta-analysis was chosen for this research project. This enabled a thorough analysis of the current Australian literature on the effects of OVA on teacher wellbeing. Analysis of international research was also included in the literature review to provide further context for the research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Within the education sector, there are increasing concerns surrounding OVA against teachers. OVA against teachers has been referred to in other studies as 'teacher-directed violence' (Lowe et al., 2020), 'educator-targeted bullying' (De Wet, 2010) and 'teacher-targeted bullying and harassment' (TTBH) (Fogelgarn et al., 2019). The rise of acts of violence occurring in schools in recent times, has led to increased attention within the media and community (Anderman et al., 2018).

For this reason, OVA and wellbeing have both been prominent topics within The Department of Education Queensland in recent years. In September 2021, the Queensland Government launched a new Safe and Respectful School Communities Campaign aiming to prevent OVA in schools by raising awareness that OVA is not acceptable. This campaign was to further the Occupational Violence and Aggression Prevention Strategy 2021-2023 (Department of Education, 2021a). The strategy details initiatives to guarantee schools and workplaces overseen by the Department of Education, are safe for staff, students and community members.

In addition to this strategy, The Department of Education Queensland (2017), created a Staff Wellbeing Framework, outlining a model for wellbeing, which includes five interdependent dimensions: physical, financial, occupational, psychological and social and community engagement. The framework was designed to support and improve staffs' health and wellbeing, as well as embed wellbeing into the workplace through raising awareness and providing online resources (Department of Education, 2017). The Department of Education also implemented a Principal Health and Wellbeing Strategy 2020-2022 (Department of Education, 2020). In 2019, it was reported that more than 84% of school leaders experienced offensive behavior, 51% received threats of violence, and 42% were subjected to physical violence (Riley et al., 2020).

OVA against school staff is a growing world-wide issue, negatively affecting wellbeing (Espelage et al., 2013; Longobardi et al., 2018). The majority of the limited studies researching OVA against teachers and its effects, have emerged from the United States of America (Longobardi et al., 2018; Reddy et al., 2018).

A United States national survey of K-12 teachers from 48 states found that 80% of teachers reported suffering from OVA at least once in the past year (McMahon et al., 2014). Large scale studies conducted in Canada (Wilson et al., 2011), Slovlakia (Dzuka & Dalbert, 2007), South Korea (Moon et al., 2015) and Israel (Khoury-kassabri et al., 2009) highlight the negative effects of violence on teachers' emotional and physical wellbeing, life satisfaction and career satisfaction. Chappell and Di Martino's (2006) findings support this and also note that additional longer-term effects on the victims can include difficulties continuing to work and enjoy social and family interactions. A study by Ceballos & Carvalho (2020) found that teachers who had experienced verbal aggression in the past six months were more likely to suffer from upper extremity (neck, shoulder, upper back) musculoskeletal pain than those who did not. OVA can also cause impaired personal relationships (Moon, McCluskey 2014).

Teachers who experience OVA also have an increased risk of teacher burnout and are more likely to leave the profession (Barr et al., 2022). In a recent study, Burns et al. (2020) stated that teachers experienced varied substantial effects from OVA, regardless of their gender, experience and age. Previous research shows that the risk of OVA and its effects are not largely affected by socio-demographic characteristics, instead are affected by perceived school context (Galand et al., 2007). Reports from Wei et al. (2013) and Martinez et al. (2015) concluded that more years of teaching experience were associated with less reports of OVA.

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING IMPACTS

Teachers who are exposed to OVA have poorer mental health than those who are not (Konda et al., 2020). The range of effects

are severe (Adewusi, 2021) and can last months after the OVA has occurred (Santor et al., 2021). Teachers who have experienced OVA may suffer from impaired sleep quality (Chu et al., 2021) and increased sleep disturbances (Gluschkoff et al., 2017). Other effects can include chronic exhaustion (Smetackova et al., 2019) and risk of depression (Andersen et al., 2021 Merida-Lopez et al., 2021). The most common finding experienced by victims of OVA was emotional distress (Moon et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2015; Adewusi, 2021; Moon & McCluskey, 2014). Emotional exhaustion (Oliver et al., 2021; Melanda et al., 2021), emotional withdrawal (Maring & Koblinsky, 2013; Adewusi, 2021), disempowerment (Woudstra et al., 2018), negative perceptions of self (Skaland, 2016), and avoiding difficult students (Maring & Koblinsky, 2013) were other psychological impact findings. A finding to note is that of Wei et al. (2013) who found the effects of non-physical violence compared to physical violence, was perceived as more severe.

OCCUPATIONAL WELLBEING IMPACTS

Global research has found that the effects of OVA reduces the occupational wellbeing of teachers in varied ways (De Cordova et al., 2019; Merida-Lopez et al., 2021). OVA on teachers can cause stress (Konda et al., 2020; Tiesman et al., 2014), feelings of unsafeness (Moon et al., 2019), effect autonomy and decision making (Peist et al., 2020), fewer problem-solving strategies (Wink et al., 2021) and effect job performance (Smetackova et al., 2019; Moon et al., 2019; Santor et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2015).

Negative impacts on teachers' job satisfaction (Won & Chang, 2019; Kapa & Gimbert, 2018; Konda et al., 2020; Smetackova et al., 2019; Moon et al., 2019; Maran & Begotti, 2022; Moon et al., 2021; Tiesman et al., 2014) and feelings of connectedness to their school (Moon et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2019; Maran & Begotti, 2022) are also prevalent. OVA was found to effect relationships with students (De Cordova et al., 2019; Smetackova et al., 2019; Wink et al., 2021) as well as the wellbeing of students (Rivers et al., 2009).

A number of recent studies found that OVA was a predictor for teacher burnout (Winding et al., 2022; Barr et al., 2022; Maran & Begotti, 2022; Wink et al., 2021; Chirico et al., 2021; Smetackova et al., 2019; Bass et al., 2016). Teacher burnout is "a state of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion that results from long-term involvement in work situations that are emotionally demanding" (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001, p.501). One recent study also found statistically significant links between OVA and teacher burnout one year later (Winding et al., 2022). There was a strong link between teacher burnout and intent to leave the career (Goddard & Goddard, 2006). After experiencing OVA many teachers reported thoughts about leaving their school (Curran et al., 2017), thoughts about leaving their career (Moon et al., 2019; Moon & McCluskey, 2018), and many teachers who did leave their

career (Adewusi, 2021; Barr et al., 2022; Tiesman et al., 2014; Curran et al., 2017; Moon et al., 2020).

AUSTRALIAN RESEARCH

There are limited studies to date reporting on the prevalence and effects of OVA on Australian teachers (Lowe et al., 2020). However, one study found that 85.2% of teacher participants believed that OVA is an issue in Australian schools (Fogelgarn et al., 2019). The same study also found that 55.6% of teachers experienced OVA from both students and parents (Fogelgarn et al., 2019). Further Australian research found that 42.7% of educators who experienced OVA, had at least moderate effects (i.e. needing first aid and/or including distress lasting more than 24 hours), and for 15.5% the effects were categorized as major (i.e. injury requiring medical aid and/or emotional distress lasting longer than 7 days) or worse (Stevenson et al., 2022).

In another recent study, Burns et al. (2020) stated that teachers experienced varied substantial effects from OVA, regardless of their gender, experience and age. A notable finding from Fogelgarn et al. (2019) found that the repeated exposure to 'harmless' events, eventually depleted the self-confidence, self-efficacy and job satisfaction of the teachers. Other detrimental effects of OVA suffered by Australian teachers include symptoms of anxiety, depression, PTSD, panic attacks, uncontrollable shaking and nausea (Billett et al., 2019). Some teachers reported taking stress leave, sick leave or unpaid leave to avoid OVA (Billet et al., 2019).

Recent research in Australia found that teachers and teacher aides had lower rates of injury claims in comparison to other professions, however had a higher rate of claims for mental health conditions and assault (Al Alfreed et al., 2022). Special education teachers and teacher aides have the highest risk of all educators in Australia (Fatimah et al., 2022).

Teachers are not the only ones impacted by OVA. A recent study by Arnold et al. (2021) revealed that reported OVA towards school leaders is also a concern. Arnold et al. (2021) found that 36.2% of school leaders at Australian government schools experienced bullying in the previous 12 months. 48.2% of school leaders received threats of violence and 28.7% experienced physical violence in the previous 12 months (Arnold et al., 2021). The study also found that female school leaders had a greater risk of suffering physical violence than males and those in regional areas are more likely to experience threats of violence.

METHODOLOGY

A systematic literature review was chosen to investigate the research question 'what are the effects of occupational violence and aggression on teacher wellbeing in Australia?'. By conducting a systematic literature review, data was collected, critically analysed and synthesized to highlight all available evidence on the effects of OVA on teachers' wellbeing in

Australia. The methodology was chosen to develop the existing evidence-based literature on OVA experienced by teachers in Australia to and provide suggestions for future research on the impacts of OVA on the wellbeing of Australian teachers.

SEARCH STRATEGY

The research question was devised using the 'PICO protocol' for qualitative research (Schardt et al., 2007). This outlines the Population (Australian teachers), Intervention/Exposure (occupational violence and aggression), and Outcome/Context (effect on wellbeing). The additional inclusion criteria used to search for articles included peer reviewed, academic journal, published between 12/12/2002 to 12/12/20222 and English only. A preliminary database search was done in four databases: Scopus, EBSCOhost, PubMed and ProQuest. This search returned a limited number of Australian articles, and limited articles focusing on the teachers as the victims. The search was then altered to include international research and the search terms were revised. ProQuest was removed from the list of databases being searched, as it returned an excessive number of

articles, majority of which were completely unrelated to the search terms. After these modifications, 65 hits from the three remaining databases were returned. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) protocol as detailed by Moher et al. (2009) was utilized to identify relevant articles due to its empirical support base and accessible methods for implementation (Moher et al., 2009). The full list of search terms and total article hits is provided in Table 1.

Grey literature searching, reference list checking and citation searching were also used to find articles and added to the PRISMA protocol. The duplicate articles were removed and then remaining articles were screened for relevance. The references of the relevant articles then checked for further hits. The duplicates of citations identified in the manual search were removed and the remaining citations were searched and screened for relevance. This process identified a further four articles.

Table 1Total Number of Hits and Relevant Hits from Database and Reference List Searches

	Literature Search								
Date	Database	Search Terms	Limits	No. Articles Hits	No. Articles Relevant	Notes			
10/01/2023	PubMed	(Student AND violence AND directed AND against AND teachers)	12/12/2002-11/12/2022 (20 years) peer reviewed; full text, English	26	0	Reviewed abstracts and removed articles irrelevant to the review, included only empirical studies			
10/01/2023	Scopus	(Student AND violence AND directed AND against AND teachers)	12/12/2002-11/12/2022 (20 years) peer reviewed; full text, English	18	1	Reviewed abstracts and removed articles irrelevant to the review, included only empirical studies			
10/01/2023	EBSCOhost Megafile Ultimate	(Student AND violence AND directed AND against AND teachers)	12/12/2002-11/12/2022 (20 years) peer reviewed; full text, English	21	0	Reviewed abstracts and removed articles irrelevant to the review, included only empirical studies			
10/01/2023	Citation Searching – Database hits	(Student AND violence AND directed AND against AND teachers)	12/12/2002-11/12/2022 (20 years) peer reviewed; full text, English	1	1	Reviewed abstracts and removed articles irrelevant to the review, included only empirical studies			
10/01/2023	Citation searching – reference list hits	(Student AND violence AND directed AND against AND teachers)	12/12/2002-11/12/2022 (20 years) peer reviewed; full text, English	1	1	Reviewed abstracts and removed articles irrelevant to the review, included only empirical studies			

ARTICLE SELECTION AND QUALITY ASSESSMENT

The combined three database searches identified 65 records. An additional four records identified through other sources were included. After duplicates were removed, there were 43 articles remaining. The articles were selected using Cohen's (1990) method of Preview, Question, Read, and Summarise (PQRS; as cited in Cronin et al., 2008). The initial stage of screening involved previewing the title and abstract of the 43 articles. This stage of screening eliminated 38 articles that were not relevant to the context of the meta-analysis due to location of the studies and the participants not being teachers. The second stage of PORS included questioning and reading the full text of the remaining five articles, and assessing them against the criteria for inclusion/exclusion. The inclusion criteria used for this systematic literature review, included articles published within the last 20 years, written in English, peer reviewed, and the participants were Australian teachers. Three articles were excluded, leaving two articles remaining to be included in the qualitative synthesis. The process of article selection can be viewed in the PRISMA diagram in Figure 1 (Moher et al., 2009). The two articles which met all of the inclusion criteria are both qualitative articles, and thus were assessed and ranked using the Critical Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP; Majid & Vanstone, 2018) criteria, documented in Table 2.

Figure 1

PRISMA Flow Diagram Demonstrating The Search Process, Inclusion Of Relevant Empirical Research (N=2), And The Exclusion Of Irrelevant Articles (N=67). Adapted From Moher Et Al. (2009)

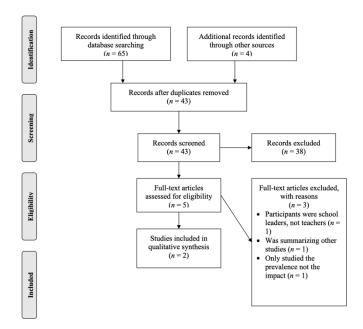


Table 2

Quality Assessment of Qualitative Articles: Aims Methodologies Design Data Ethics and Value to the Review. Adapted from (Majid & Vanstone, 2018)

CASP Qualitative Studies Assessment									
Study	Clear statement of the aims of the research	Appropriate use of qualitative methodologies	Appropriate research design to address the aims of the research	Recruitment strategy appropriate for the aims of the research	Data collected in a way that addresses the research question	Relationship between researcher and [participant adequately/ explicitly considered	Ethical issues explicitly taken into consideration	Sufficiently rigorous data analysis	Research is of value
Steve-nson et al. (2022)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Billett et al. (2020)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

DATA SYNTHESIS: EMERGING THEMES

Ensuing the quality assessment, the remaining two articles were entered into a synthesis matrix tool as detailed in Table 3 (Wright et al., 2007). The synthesis matrix tool was used to organize, analyze and synthesize the sections of each article and identify emerging themes and interactions across the data (Wright et al., 2007).

A multiphase top-down thematic analysis was used to discover the themes of the two articles, in response to the research question. Table 3 formed the total data sample for this systematic literature review. The entire data set was re-read (Phase 1), interesting and key features coded (Phase 2) and data collated relevant to each code to develop broad first order themes (Phase 3) (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The first order descriptive themes were presented and synthesized below the results (themes) heading of Table 3 (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Wright et al., 2007). The themes were refined again and a thematic "map" of themes and supporting codes were generated (Phase 4). The themes were consolidated (Phase 5) an integrated into the report and drawn together for analysis (Phase 6).

Table 3Synthesis Matrix Tool used for the Analysis and Synthesis of Prior Occupational Violence and Aggression Impacts on Teachers Research

	Synthesis Matrix Tool								
Reference	Quality of resource (peer reviewed)	Participants	Aims of study (underlying arguments)	Methodology (research design)	Limitations	Results (themes)	Conclusions of paper		
Stevenson et al. (2022)	Peer reviewed	369 ACT government primary school staff	The study aimed to identify: -What is the frequency of OV from students? -What is the impact on educators of OV from students? -How do educators prevent OV from students? -What strategies do educators use to cope with OV? -What sources of support do educators use and perceive as the most helpful?	Mixed methods research design with resource sampling self-reported questionnaire which included questions with scales & 4 open-ended questions	-All ACT government primary school principals were invited to share the survey with their staff, however there was no way of knowing how many did so. -The use of convenience sampling may have led to a self-selection bias by staff who have experienced more OV or are interested in the topicThere was an attrition rate of 1 in 8 who did not complete the surveyDue to COVID-19, the survey questions referred to experiences prior to 2020 which may have made the participants' recollections/ responses less accurate.	-Majority of staff reported frequent (daily or weekly) experiences of OV from students with notable negative impacts -Abusive Language (n=334): Insignificant=25.7%, Minor=48.5% Moderate=17.4%, Major=6%, Severe=1.5% -Physical Aggression (n=320): Insignificant=10.9%, Minor=42.2%, Moderate=26.6%, Major=14.4%, Severe=5.9% -Other threatening behavior(n=302): Insignificant=15.9%, Minor=45.4%, Moderate=24.5%, Major=9.9%, Severe=3.0% -Bullying/harassment (n=192): Insignificant=24.5%, Minor=39.1%, Moderate=22.9%, Major=8.9%, Severe=3.1% -Overall (n=323): Insignificant=15.2%, Minor=40.2%, Moderate=27.2%, Major=12.1%, Severe=3.4% -Key prevention strategies: focusing on staff response to individual students, collaborating with colleagues, seeking to understand and address individual student needs, developing and maintaining positive relationships with students, implementing aggression-reducing programs, having clear plans and structured responses to OV incidentsCoping strategies: support from colleagues through debriefing, positive, self-care mindset, support from partner.	Most staff surveyed experienced frequent (daily or weekly) OV from students with negative impacts ranging from insignificant to severe.		
Billet et al. (2020)	Peer reviewed	1213 educators (82.9% teachers) across primary and secondary schools in the Government, Catholic and Independent Sector.	The study aimed to identify: -what levels and types of TTBH by students and parents are encountered by teachers -if there is a correlation between types of TTBH and a school's relative social-education advantage -the role a school's geographical location plays in the prevalence and impact of TTBHwhat ways management's handling of reports of TTBH affect teacher's sense of wellbeing and self-efficacy.	Mixed methods research design -online survey followed by semi-structured interviews	None listed	-84.5% experienced some form of student/parent enacted teacher targeted bullying and harassment over the last 9-12 month period -50.6% felt that TTBH by students/parents was an issue in Australian schools -secondary and primary were just as likely to experience TTBH -54.4% considered leaving the profession due to TTBH -65.2% considered leaving the profession due to bullying	Forms of verbal aggression may have more of an impact on teachers leaving the profession than physical aggression		

RESULTS

The thematic analysis of the two articles found four third order themes: the lack of research on OVA, what is OVA in Australian education, prevalence of OVA in Australian education, and effects of OVA on Australian teachers. These third order themes are labelled below with Level 2 headings. The related subthemes that contribute to the third order themes are: categories of OVA, perpetrators of OVA, frequency of OVA, risk factors for OVA, and mental and physical impacts. These subthemes are presented as Level 3 headings, and outlined below.

LACK OF RESEARCH ON OVA

The most significant finding of this meta-analysis is the lack of research available about OVA in Australia. The data search conducted for the purpose of this meta-analysis found eight studies relating to the occurrence of OVA in Australian schools. Of these, only two articles, those used in the data set, identified some effects of OVA on the wellbeing of teachers. The effects that were identified were general and merely identify that OVA is a prevalent issue in Australia, that has the potential to cause negative effects. The current Australian research does not allow for an in-depth understanding of the short- or long-term impacts

of OVA against teachers in Australia, in comparison to recent international research, which has uncovered specific effects on teacher wellbeing.

WHAT IS OVA IN AUSTRALIAN EDUCATION

Categories of OVA

Categories of OVA was a third order theme in both articles used in this review. Stevenson et al. (2022) adapted and used the five types of OV from the ACT Education Directorate reporting system, when gathering and reporting the data. These categories included: abusive language, physical aggression, other threatening behavior, bullying/harassment, and overall (Stevenson et al., 2022). Billett et al. (2020) conducted their study using 12 different types of teacher targeted bullying and harassment. These types included: yelling, swearing, hitting or punching, damaging personal property, disparaging remarks (verbal), disparaging remarks (social media), standing over/invading personal space, organizing others against a teacher, lying to get a teacher into trouble, harassing through text and phone calls, discriminatory behavior, and students engaging parents to argue on their behalf (Billett et al., 2020). Billett et al. (2020) found the most prevalent form of student enacted OVA was different in each education sector. Hitting or punching (89.4%) was the most common in the Catholic sector, disparaging remarks (49.5%) in the Independent sector, and swearing (64.0%) in the Government sector. In all three sectors the most prevalent type of OVA enacted by parents was disparaging remarks (Catholic sector 41.9%, Independent sector 46.6%, Government sector 41.9%).

Perpetrators of OVA

Both articles highlight which perpetrators in the school setting are being reported on in their study. Perpetrators of OVA can be students, parents and also colleagues. The study by Stevenson et al. (2022) only looks at students from prep to year six as perpetrators. However, the study by Billett et al. (2020) reports on students across both primary and high school, and their parents, as perpetrators. Billett et al. (2020) reported that in the previous nine to twelve months, 44.6% of teachers stated they had experienced OVA from both students and parents. A further 25.3% of teachers had suffered from exclusively student enacted OVA and 13.4% from exclusively parent enacted OVA. Billett et al. (2020) also reported that student enacted OVA was more prevalent than parental bullying of teachers working in all sectors (Catholic 59.0%, Independent 57.3%, Government 60.7%).

PREVALENCE OF OVA IN AUSTRALIAN EDUCATION

Frequency of OVA

The frequency of OVA was a third order theme in both Billet et al.'s (2020) and Stevenson et al.'s (2022) study. In 2019, 84.5% of participants in Billett et al.'s (2020) study reported having

experienced some type of student or parent enacted OVA over the last nine to twelve-month period. This was a similar finding to their 2018 data, where 80% of participants reported having experienced some type of student or parent enacted OVA over a nine to twelve-month period. In Stevenson et al.'s (2022) study, 49.4% of participants reported experiencing at least one type of OVA from students on at least a weekly basis. On a at least once every 6-month basis, participants experienced: abusive language (91%), physical aggression (87%), other threatening behavior (82.2%), bullying/harassment (52.3%), and overall (88.9%) (Stevenson et al. 2022). The study by Billett et al. (2020) also found that in the previous 12 months, verbal aggression was the most common reported type of OVA from students (swearing 56%, yelling 53.8%, disparaging verbal comments 56.6%) and parents (disparaging verbal comments 42.1%, yelling 26.4%).

Risk factors for OVA

There are certain risk factors that coincide with OVA. Stevenson et al. (2022) did not look at possible factors affecting the prevalence of OVA. However, Billett et al. (2020) studied the effects of geographical location, socio-economic backgrounds, teacher gender, teacher age and teacher experience.

There was an equal probability of teachers facing OVA by students and parents across all geographic areas (Billett et al., 2020). The study found that teachers reported comparable levels of OVA in split metro/rural areas (90.7%), metropolitan areas (84.5%), and rural areas (84.3%). High school teachers were just as probable to experience OVA (85.8%) as primary school teachers (83.2%) (Billett et al., 2020). Billett et al. (2020) observed the effects of school's Index of Community Socio-Educational Advantage (ICSEA) on rates of OVA. Significant differences in rates of types of OVA included: swearing (low ICSEA schools 73.8%, high ICSEA schools 45.7%), hitting and punching (low ICSEA schools 24.6%, high ICSEA schools 10.3%), and damaging personal property (low ICSEA schools 28.6%, high ICSEA schools 15.1%) (Billett et al., 2020).

Billett et al. (2020) reported that male (74.3%) and female (70.5%) teachers were equally likely to report student OVA. The only statistically different types of OVA reported by gender were students engaging a parent to argue on their behalf (males 47.2%, females 38.5%), and lie about teacher/principal to get them into trouble (males 36.8%, females 28.1%).

EFFECTS OF OVA ON TEACHERS IN AUSTRALIA

Mental and physical impacts

The effects of OVA towards teachers extends beyond immediate incidents, resulting in consequences for the mental and physical wellbeing of teachers. Stevenson et al. (2022) asked participants to rate the impacts of the different types of

OVA on a severity scale: "insignificant – no perceived impact on psychological of physical wellbeing, minor - pain inflicted at site, but not first aid required and/or some initial psychological distress that decreased over the day, moderate – injury requiring first aid and/or psychological distress that persisted past 24 hours, major - injury requiring medical assistance and/or psychological distress that persisted more than one week, severe – injury requiring hospital admission psychological distress resulting in ongoing psychological condition such as anxiety/depression/PTSD". The results found that physical aggression had the most significant effect (46.9% reported at least moderate impact, 89.1% reported at least minor impact). Next was other threatening behaviors (37.4% reported at least moderate impact, 82.8% reported at least minor impact). Followed by bullying/harassment (34.9% reported at least moderate impact, 74% reported at least minor impact), and abusive language (24.9% reported at least moderate impact, 73.4% reported at least minor impact) (Stevenson et al. 2022). The survey by Billett et al. (2020) revealed that 54.4% of teachers who experienced OVA had considered leaving the teaching profession.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this meta-analysis appear to indicate that OVA against Australian teachers may be a prevalent issue, causing negative physical and psychological impacts that range from insignificant to severe, as well as highlighting a significant lack in Australian research. The data set used for this meta-analysis, was composed of only two journal articles. This was due to only two articles meeting the eligibility criteria, the participants being Australian teachers, and reporting on the impacts of OVA on teachers. A study by Lowe et al. (2020) also found that there are limited Australian studies to date reporting on the prevalence and effects of OVA on Australian teachers. A strength of the two articles used in this review, is the findings support those of recent international research. However, the weakness of these studies is the lack of detail of the effects of OVA on teachers.

An Australian study by Fogelgarn et al. (2019) found that 85.2% of teachers believed that OVA is an issue in Australian schools. This review does not study the perspectives of Australian teachers, however the incident rates clearly indicate that OVA is a problem experienced by many Australian teachers. The results from Stevenson et al. (2022) and Billett (2020) in this review, are supported by large scale international research conducted in Canada (Wilson et al., 2011), Slovlakia (Dzuka & Dalbert, 2007), South Korea (Moon et al., 2015) and Israel (Khoury-kassabri et al., 2009) which highlight the negative effects of OVA on teachers' emotional and physical wellbeing, life satisfaction and career satisfaction. The recent international research is in-depth and provides a deeper understanding of the types of psychological wellbeing impacts experienced by teachers exposed to OVA. The most common finding was emotional distress (Moon et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2015; Adewusi, 2021; Moon & McCluskey, 2014), as well as emotional exhaustion (Oliver et al., 2021; Melanda et al., 2021), emotional withdrawal (Maring & Koblinsky, 2013; Adewusi, 2021), disempowerment (Woudstra et al., 2018), negative perceptions of self (Skaland, 2016), and avoiding difficult students (Maring & Koblinsky, 2013). Additional effects identified in international research are impaired sleep quality (Chu et al., 2021), increased sleep disturbances (Gluschkoff et al., 2017), chronic exhaustion (Smetackova et al., 2019), and risk of depression (Andersen et al., 2021 Merida-Lopez et al., 2021).

This review identified that there was a high rate of teachers who considered leaving the profession due to OVA, which is also supported by international research (Moon et al., 2019; Moon & McCluskey, 2018). Some international studies also revealed that many teachers did leave their career (Adewusi, 2021; Barr et al., 2022; Tiesman et al., 2014; Curran et al., 2017; Moon et al., 2020). It is believed that OVA effects teacher recruitment and retention rates (Newman et al., 2004). This statement highlights the importance for the continuation and development of strategies to prevent OVA in education. Teacher attrition also effects student's engagement and achievement (National Center for the Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research, 2009; Rockoff, 2004).

There are an abundance of occupational wellbeing impacts which were not identified in this review, however are identified in international research. These include stress (Konda et al., 2020: Tiesman et al., 2014), feelings of unsafeness (Moon et al., 2019), effects on autonomy and decision making (Peist et al., 2020), fewer problem-solving strategies (Wink et al., 2021), job performance (Smetackova et al., 2019; Moon et al., 2019; Santor et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2015), job satisfaction (Won & Chang, 2019; Kapa & Gimbert, 2018; Konda et al., 2020; Smetackova et al., 2019; Moon et al., 2019; Maran & Begotti, 2022; Moon et al., 2021; Tiesman et al., 2014), feelings of connectedness to their school (Moon et al., 2021; Moon et al., 2019; Maran & Begotti, 2022), and teacher burnout (Winding et al., 2022; Barr et al., 2022; Maran & Begotti, 2022; Wink et al., 2021; Chirico et al., 2021; Smetackova et al., 2019; Bass et al., 2016). These findings demonstrate the significant requirement for further in-depth research in Australia on the effects of OVA on teacher wellbeing, and the implementation of strategies to reduce OVA and support teachers' wellbeing.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the study's findings, it is important to note the researcher's identified limitations. Stevenson et al. (2022) reported that the use of convenience sampling may have led to a self-selection bias by staff who have experienced more OVA or have an interest in the topic. Stevenson et al. (2022) also reported that the survey questions referred to OVA experiences prior to 2020, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which may have led to the participant's

recollections and responses being less accurate. Billett et al. (2020) reported no limitations or bias in their article, and none were identified when writing this review.

Based on the synthesis of the current research of the effects of OVA on teacher wellbeing in Australia, it is recommended that future research explores the specific effects of different types of OVA on teacher wellbeing, using a mixed methods approach. This research would benefit from the collection of retrospective narrative accounts through the use of interviews, of those who have experienced different types of OVA and the implications this has had in relation to their wellbeing. Another recommendation for future research would be to compare the effects of OVA experienced by teachers in different Australian school sectors including public, private, catholic, primary school, high school and special education schools.

CONCLUSION

The systematic literature review identified several dominant themes from the data on the effects of OVA on teacher wellbeing in Australia. The themes highlighted were: categories of OVA, perpetrators of OVA, frequency of OVA, risk factors for OVA, and mental and physical impacts. The results from the current study indicate that OVA is prevalent in Australian schools, researchers categorize OVA differently, there are risk factors for OVA and that there can be physical and psychological impacts from OVA against teachers. Furthermore, the results of the current study signify that teachers' wellbeing is at risk when exposed to OVA from students and parents. The systematic literature review could not examine the specific physical and psychological impacts of OVA against Australian teachers. Through evidence collected from this review, it is recommended that further in-depth research must be conducted in Australia about the impacts of OVA on the wellbeing of teachers.

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