Teachers’ Workplace Aggression Behaviors and Their Relationship with Organizational Justice

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Abstract
In this study, it was aimed to examine teachers’ workplace aggression behaviors and organizational justice perceptions and test the predictive effect of organizational justice on workplace aggression. Designed with causal comparative and correlational methods, the study had a sampling of 408 teachers, working in Kayseri and selected according to proportional stratified random sampling technique. Teachers’ Workplace Aggression Scale developed by the researchers and Organizational Justice Types Scale by Kuru-Çetin (2013) were used as data collection tools. Mann-Whitney U, Kruskal Wallis, t-test, one way ANOVA, simple and multiple linear regression analyses were used in data analyses. The results showed that teachers rarely observe aggressive behaviors at school, with a higher mean of covert workplace aggression score than that of overt workplace aggression. Organizational justice perceptions were at medium level, with a higher mean of procedural justice score than that of distributive justice. The simple linear regression analysis showed that organizational justice, explaining 10% of the variance, was a significant predictor of teachers’ workplace aggression behaviors. However, in the multiple linear regression it was observed that procedural justice, explaining 10% of the variance, was the only significant predictor of workplace aggression and distributive justice wasn’t a significant predictor of teachers’ workplace aggression.

Key Words: School, Workplace Aggression, Organizational Justice, Teachers, Regression Analysis.

Öğretmenlerin İşyeri Saldırganlığı Davranışları ve Örgütsel Adaletle İlişkisi

Öz
Bu çalışmanın amacı öğretmenlerin işyeri saldırganlığı davranışları ve örgütsel adalet algısı ile的关系セを検討し、組織の公平性が職場の攻撃性を説明する程度をテストすることである。計画的比較的比較的関係的の手法を用いて、研究者らによって作成された“教師の職場の攻撃的行動尺度”とKuru-Çetin (2013)によって作成された“組織の公平性の種類尺度”をデータ収集のツールとして使用しました。Mann-Whitney U, Kruskal Wallis, t-test, one way ANOVA, 簡単な線形回帰と多重線形回帰分析がデータ解析に使用されました。結果、教師は学校で攻撃的行動はほとんど見られていないが、カバーされた職場の攻撃性の平均点が明らかに高いです。組織の公平性の平均点は、手順的公平性の平均点が分配的公平性の平均点より高いです。単純な線形回帰分析では、組織の公平性が、説明力10%を説明し、教師の職場の攻撃的行動を有意な予測因子であることを示しました。しかし、多重の線形回帰では、手順的公平性が、説明力10%を説明し、職場の攻撃性と分配的公平性で有意な予測因子であるかった、分配的公平性は職場の攻撃性を説明する変数ではなかった。

Anahtar Kelimeler: Okul, İşyeri Saldırganlığı, Örgütsel Adalet, Öğretmenler, Regresyon Analizi.
Introduction

Aggression and violence has always been a part of the daily life and it seems that it will stay in every walk of life, one of which is workplace, for long. Burton, Mitchell and Lee (2005) argue that almost everyone has a memory of someone who murdered their present or former colleagues. Although murder is the most sensational version, workplace aggression isn’t comprised of just the unexpected shootings of the angry employees. Violence at work is a serious problem, yet it is a small part of a greater problem, which is workplace aggression. It is difficult to report definitely the prevalence of workplace aggression, as the definition of it and the data collection methods vary broadly (Barling, 1996). However, researchers in Europe (Einarsen, & Skogstad, 1996; Hoel, Cooper, & Faragher, 2001; Matthiesen, & Einarsen, 2001, Salin, 2003) monitored that 8-24% of the participants had been the target of different forms of workplace aggression (Cited in: Fredericksen, & McCorkle, 2013).

Researchers in different fields and eras defined aggression in different ways (Anderson & Huesmann, 2003). In general, aggression is defined as “efforts by individuals to harm others who are motivated to avoid the harm” (Baron, 1997; cited in: Anderson, & Bushman, 2002). In another definition aggression is explained as “any behavior aiming to cause a rapid harm or discomfort to the target”. The “rapidness” remarks the unplanned nature of aggression and intention erases the possibility of accidental results of random acts (Anderson, & Huesmann, 2003). Loeb and Hay (1997) define aggression as a class of behavior which causes physical harm or creates a threat for it. The reason why they choose to define aggression on the basis of physical harm is that harm can be observed objectively. As a counterproductive work behavior, workplace aggression is defined in different ways, as well. Baron and Neuman (1996) define it as “individuals’ attempts to harm people or the organization, they work or worked”. According to Rai (2002) “every aggressive act, physical assault, threat or compulsive behavior which may cause physical or emotional harm is workplace aggression”. Whether it reaches its aims or not, intent to harm is enough to label a series of acts as aggressive (Beugré, 2005b). In accordance with the literature, in this study aggression covers violence, conceptualized as a physical form of aggression.

Aggression is classified in different ways such as active and passive; reactive and proactive; verbal, psychological and physical or overt and covert aggression. The classification of overt and covert aggression is based on the perpetrators’ intention. While it is easy to recognize some acts like murdering, insulting or throwing an object as aggression, the others such as depriving someone off the sources, damning with faint praise are difficult to put a label on. The ones that are easily spotted as aggressive are categorized as overt aggression, and the ones that are difficult to spot are categorized as covert aggression (Neuman, & Baron, 2005). In Björkqvist’s (1994) terms when the perpetrators don’t try to disguise his/her identity or the intention from the target, overt aggression occurs. But in covert aggression, perpetrator try to disguise his/her identity and/or intention from the target. The fact that aggressive behaviors at the workplace show up in covert forms might have various reasons, one of which is the status of the target. Besides, people working at the same workplace generally know each other very well, so the anonymity advantage of the perpetrator at the general human aggression isn’t possible at the workplace (Prentice-Dunn, & Rogers, 1989; cited in: Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999). Therefore, covert aggression may be more prevalent than overt aggression (Baron et al., 1999). Burton et al. (2005) argue that another reason for the prevalence of covert aggression at the workplace is that perpetrators face the targets almost every day, and this gives the targets the opportunity of retaliation. And moreover, at workplace there is a built-in audience, the other workers who observe every act, including the aggressive behaviors of others.

Many theories have been developed to explain the sources of general human aggression and workplace aggression. While it is widely accepted that aggression is a result of many different factors operating together, it isn’t revealed which factor is more influential, yet. Organizational culture and norms (Neuman, & Baron, 1998), organizational changes, (Neuman, & Baron, 1998), workplace bullying (Burton, 2015), work stress (Glomb, 2010), status and power relations (Arnold, Dupré, & Hershcovis, 2011) and organizational injustice (Jawahar, 2002; Beugré, 2005a; Beugré, 2005b) are pointed out as some of the organizational factors leading to workplace aggression.

Organizational justice has attracted special attention in explaining workplace aggression. In literature while there are different views on the dimensions of organizational justice, distributive, procedural, interactional, informational and rectificatory justice are the most commonly applied dimensions. Distributive justice can be explained as the fairness in decision outcomes and distribution of resources,
both of which can be tangible or intangible. The perception of distributive justice can be built when members of an organization can perceive that the outcomes are equally applied and resources are fairly distributed (Adams, 1965; cited in: Burton et al., 2005). Procedural justice is conceptualized as the fairness of the processes leading to outcomes. In order to be perceived as fair, procedures should be consistent, accurate, ethical and unbiased (Leventhal, 1980). The treatment, a member receives, during the decision making processes refers to interactional justice. Interactional justice can be fostered by giving explanations for decisions made and by being sensible and respectful while delivering news (Bies, & Moag, 1986). In his study Colquitt (2001) conceptualizes informational justice in interpersonal justice that is he argues that interactional justice has two sub-dimensions as interactional and informational justice, the latter of which refers to the adequacy of the explanations given in terms of their timeliness, specificity, and truthfulness. Rectificatory justice refers to eliminating the unfairness or inequality resulting from others’ actions or procedures (Cottingham, 1992; cited in: Aydin, 1992; Kuru-Çetin, 2013). Roberts (2011) argues that rectificatory justice is justice type that deals with correcting injustice. It aims to turn unjust situations into just. According to Jawahar (2002) organizational justice is the most promising approach to workplace aggression researches. Because, individuals are quite sensitive to any deviation from what they perceive as “fair treatment” (Greenberg, & Alge, 1998). Whey individuals face unfairness, they try to settle it and build the fair situation again (Adams, 1965; cited in Burton et al., 2005). Therefore, perceptions of injustice is regarded as one of the best predictors of workplace aggression (Baron et al., 1999). In various models of injustice related aggression organizational justice encompasses three dimensions- distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Beugré, 2005b).

The latest theories about the organizational justice and workplace aggression remark that distributive injustice, on its own, is not enough to trigger an aggressive reaction. Beugré (2005b) argues that people may not be happy with the outcomes, however if the procedures behind the distribution of goods, it eases injustice perceptions. When unfavorable outcomes combine with the knowledge about unfair procedures, aggressive reactions develop. So, aggressive reactions need a stronger motivation than gaining less that one deserve. Bies et al., (1997) propose that abusive treatments like being fired in a humiliating way or exposed to harsh discipline are triggers of retaliations.

Beugré (2005a) explains aggression as a result of injustice in his cognitive stage model. As presented in Figure 1, the model assumes that aggression following an unfairness isn’t an immediate reaction, it rather follows a series of cognitive stages as assessment, attributing the responsibility and reaction. That is, perpetrators go through at least three basic cognitive stages.

![Figure 1. The Cognitive Stage Model of Injustice Related Aggression (Beugré, 2005a)](image-url)
Another model about injustice triggered aggression was developed by Jawahar (2002). In this model the focus is on the relationship between specific types of organizational injustice and workplace aggression. Besides, the type of injustice is influential on choosing a particular target for aggression. Jawahar (2002) proposes that the way to aggressive behavior starts with a triggering event which doesn’t echoes same for everyone, because individual differences play a role on assessing the events as just or unjust. Individual differences play a mediator role in relationship between triggering events and justice perceptions. These triggering events, which have direct impacts on people’s thoughts, feelings and psychological responses, expand in a wide array, like financial and social pressures, adverse work conditions, verbal threats, violation of rules, social norms and words, inequalities, lack of job security, changes at work place, work stress, treason, loss of status and power, destructive criticism, public ridicule, lack of job control. In general Jawahar (2002) matches different types of injustice perceptions and workplace aggression, adding the mediator roles of perpetuators, targets and conditional variables, and proposes more than 20 cause-effect links, each of which needs empirical findings to be confirmed.

Besides theoretical and empirical research on the causes of workplace aggression, there are various research on the effects of it on individual, work group and organizational levels. Research literature shows that workplace aggression has destructive effects on employees’ health and wellbeing (Björkqvist, Osterman, & Hjelt-Back; 1994), and it influences organizational efficiency in a negative way (Aubé, & Rousseau; 2011; Dietz, Robinson, Folger, Baron, & Schulz, 2003). While there is a substantial literature on workplace aggression, researches focusing on educational organizations are just a few. Students’ peer violence (Finkelhor, Vanderminden, Turner, Shattuck, & Hamby, 2016); efficiency of violence prevention programs at school (Thompkins, Chauveron, Harel, & Perkins, 2013); gun violence at school (Warnick, Kim, & Robinson, 2016); the relationship between students’ socio metric status and aggression (Kärmen, & Ştefan, 2013); the relationship between environmental factors and student aggression (Yıldız, & Sümre, 2010); students’ gender and aggression (Harachi et al., 2006) are some of the topics when aggression at school is a matter of research. When it comes to teacher dimension of school aggression, there are studies on teacher reactions against student aggression (Johnson, 2009; Nesdale, & Pickering, 2006); adverse effects of student aggression on teacher (Johnson, & Barton-Balessa, 2014). In other words, studies on aggression at educational institutions mostly focus on students.

It is incorrectly supposed that educators cannot exhibit deviant behaviors such as aggression and since they perform a “divine” work they cannot be the target of it. That is why, aggression from parents to teachers or between the teachers has been neglected in researches. In foreign literature workplace aggression has been studied in various organization, but apart from a couple of researches (Blasé, & Blasé, 2003; Childress, 2014), aggression at educational institutions are student focused. However, striking instances such as Osmangazi University shooting, in which a faculty member shot four colleagues to death (www.aa.com.tr) shows that educated people and even educators themselves can engage in the most violent forms of aggression. Aggression at educational institutions should be a matter of great concern because these institutions are expected to provide solutions to deviant behaviors at society and teachers are expected to be a good example for students. Despite not focusing on teachers’ workplace aggression, theoretical literature and (e.g. Jawahar, 2002) empirical researches conducted in different sectors (e.g. Özdevecioğlu, 2003) remark that one of the elements that explains workplace aggression is organizational injustice. Both in foreign (e.g. Andela, & Truchot, 2017; Firooz, Kazemi, & Sayadi, 2016; Hakim, Mukhtar, & Abdullah, 2017) and Turkish literature (e. g. Ay, & Koç, 20014; Bal, 2014) it is widely confirmed that organizational injustice has meaningful relations with many counterproductive work behaviors. In this vein, the main aim of this research was to determine the level of teachers’ workplace aggression behaviors and their organizational justice perceptions and at which level organizational justice perceptions predict workplace aggression. Within this main aim, the research questions below were answered:

1. What are teachers’ opinions about workplace aggression at school? Do the perceptions change according to some individual – teachers’ gender, age, work experience- and situational variables-place of school, type of school and number of teachers at school?
2. What are teachers’ perceptions about organizational justice at school? Do the perceptions change according to some individual – teachers’ gender, age, work experience- and situational variables-place of school, type of school and number of teachers at school?
3. What is the relationship between teachers’ organizational justice perceptions and workplace aggression? At which level does organizational justice perceptions predict workplace aggression?
Method

Conducted with a quantitative approach, the research questions were answered by correlational survey (Karasar, 2015) and causal comparative (Balcı, 2015) designs. In this research teachers’ perceptions about workplace aggression and organizational justice were portrayed and then the level at which organizational justice perceptions predicts teachers’ aggression behaviors was tested.

Sample of the Study

The universe of the study was all the public school teachers in Turkey, and accessible universe was all the public school teachers working in Kayseri province. Proportional stratified random sampling technique was used to determine 408 teachers to represent 15,668 teachers working in Kayseri according to 2017 statistical data (kayseri.meb.gov.tr). The number of teachers, capable of representing this universe with a significance level of 0.5 is supposed to be at least 377 (Çıngı, 1994). The criteria for the proportions were determined according to the extant literature. That is, in organizational behavior literature, social environment have always been regarded as an important variable, which can be influential on members’ attitudes and behaviors (Turnipseed, 1994). The criterion for urban or rural districts was based on this argument. In addition to this criterion, it was believed that the ages of the pupils and the school types could be important variables, as previous researches about student aggression show that the level of aggressive behaviours change according to pupils’ age (Salimi et.al., 2019) and school types (Ünlü, Evcin, Burakgazi-Yilmaz and Dalkılıç, 2013), and aggressive behaviors of students might be reflected in teachers’ behaviors. After some calculations, correct number of teachers for each strata were included in the study, for example, primary school teachers were 32% of all the teachers in Kayseri, but 25% of them were working in the central districts and 7% of them were working in the rural districts, so while 114 primary school teachers from the central were included in the sample, only 14 primary school from the rural were enough to represent their strata. The calculations according to the combination of three criteria resulted in having a sample as in Table 1.

Table 1. The Sample of the Study

| Variable          | Level | Elementary | Middle | Secondary | Total |
|-------------------|-------|------------|--------|-----------|-------|
|                   |       | N  | N  | N  | N  | %   |
| Urban Districts   |       |    |    |    |    |     |
| Melikgazi         |       | 27 | 45 | 52 | 124 | 30.4|
| Kocasinan         |       | 70 | 58 | 37 | 165 | 40.4|
| Talas             |       | 13 | 8  | 19 | 40  | 9.8 |
| İncesu            |       | 4  | 4  |    | 8   | 2.0 |
| Haçlar            |       | 4  | 10 |    | 10  | 2.5 |
| Rural Districts   |       |    |    |    |    |     |
| Develi            |       | 2  | 5  |   | 7   | 1.7 |
| Yahyali           |       | 1  | 4  |   | 5   | 1.2 |
| Bünayan           |       | 5  | 3  |   | 8   | 2.0 |
| Yeşilhisar        |       |   |   | 4  | 4   | 1.0 |
| Sarıoğlan         |       |   |   | 4  | 4   | 1.0 |
| Felahiye          |       |   |   | 8  | 8   | 2.0 |
| Ozvatan           |       | 6  | 6  | 13 | 25  | 6.1 |
| Gender            |       |    |    |    |    |     |
| Female            |       | 54 | 85 | 63 | 202 | 49.5|
| Male              |       | 72 | 62 | 69 | 203 | 49.8|
| Age               |       |    |    |    |    |     |
| 20-32             |       | 18 | 69 | 37 | 124 | 30.4|
| 33-42             |       | 44 | 67 | 56 | 167 | 40.9|
| 43-52             |       | 43 | 10 | 28 | 81  | 19.9|
| 53+               |       | 19 | 1  | 7  | 27  | 6.6 |
| Total Number of   |       |    |    |    |    |     |
| Teachers at School| 3-20  | 18 | 31 | 11 | 60  | 14.7|
| 21-40             |       | 100| 89 | 49 | 238 | 58.3|
| 41-60             |       | 10 | 27 | 22 | 50  | 14.5|
| 100+              |       |    |   |   |     |     |
| Teachers’ Work    | 1-5 years | 65 | 115| 78 | 261 | 64.0|
| Experience at School| 5-10 years | 36 | 27 | 21 | 84  | 20.6|
| 11+ years         |       | 22 | 5  | 30 | 57  | 14.0|
| Total             |       | 128| 147| 133| 408 | 100 |

As it can be seen in Table 1, the teachers were working in 12 different districts of Kayseri. The number of male and female teachers were almost equal (Female 49.5%, Male 49.8%). The teachers’ average age was 38 and the average number of teachers at school was 46. The least experienced teacher – at the same school- had 1 year of experience, while the most experienced one had 30 years of experience.
Elementary school teachers had the highest ratio (29.4%, N: 120), child development and education teachers and biomedical device technology teachers had the lowest ratio (0.2%, N: 1).

Data Collection Tools

“Teachers’ Workplace Aggression (WPA) Scale” developed by the researcher (Coşkun, 2019) and “Organizational Justice (OJ) Types Scale” developed by Kuru-Çetin (2013) were used as data collection tools.

Teachers’ WPA Scale, which is a five point Likert scale, has 53 items and covert and overt workplace aggression dimensions. Covert workplace aggression (CWPA) has 36 items such as “belittling another teacher” (Item 53), “gossiping about another teacher” (Item 43). Overt workplace aggression (OWPA) has 16 items such as “insulting, swearing or cursing another teacher” (Item 31), “throwing an object to another teacher” (Item 24). Teachers’ WPA Scale has a high value of Cronbach’s alpha (α ≥ .90), and for both dimensions the alphas are high (CWPA α = .970; OWPA α = 971).

OJ Types Scale (Kuru-Çetin, 2013) is composed of four sub-scales, as distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and rectificatory justice scales, in its original version. However for theoretical concerns, it was decided to run factor analysis of OJ as one scale and to test if sub-scales could function as separate factors. After exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, it was found that the scale had a two-factor structure, labeled as distributive and procedural justice. Distributive justice (DJ) dimension has six items as “The work outcomes, I get, as promotion, certificate of achievement, extra payment are fair in general” (Item 12), “The rewards, I get, are fair in general” (Item, 32). Procedural justice (PJ) dimension has 29 items as “School management explains the decisions and gives extra information when requested” (Item 14) and “When the school management makes a mistake, it tries to do its best to correct it” (Item 28). OJ Types Scale has a high Cronbach’s alpha value (α ≥ 0.90), both dimensions have reliable alpha values (PJ α= 0.979; DJ α= 0.888).

Data Analysis

In data analysis, for the nonparametric data collected by Teachers WPA Scale, Mann Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis tests, for the parametric data collected by OJ Scale, t-test and one way ANOVA were applied. Simple and multiple linear regression analyses were used to identify at which level OJ, DJ and PJ predicted WPA.

Findings

Teachers’ Workplace Aggression Behaviors

Findings about teachers’ WPA, CWPA and OWPA scores are seen in Table 2.

| Scale            | X    | Sd  |
|------------------|------|-----|
| Teachers’ WPA    | 1.69 | .49 |
| Teachers’ CWPA   | 1.86 | .60 |
| Teachers’ OWPA   | 1.18 | .35 |

As it is shown in the Table 2, teachers observed WPA (X= 1.69) and CWPA (X= 1.86) at a “rarely” level, they observed OWPA (X= 1.18) AT “never” level.

Analyses of teachers’ workplace aggression according to variables. Before the comparison analyses, normality tests were run for teachers’ WPA, CWPA and OWPA scores. After a series of examinations (e.g. skewness [1.5] and kurtosis [4.5] values, Q-Q plots, stem-leaf diagrams, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality [p<0.05]), it was decided that data didn’t display standard normal distribution. Accordingly, non-parametric tests were employed in evaluating the differences between the groups. Independent samples Mann-Whitney U test results about whether workplace aggression, overt and covert workplace aggression scores differ according to teachers’ gender, location and type of the school, are presented in Table 3.
In middle schools, WPA scores were significantly lower than both elementary and high schools (U=19659, p<0.05). Significant differences were also observed among the groups (χ²=3.010, df=3, p>0.05). However, in OWPA scores there was a significant difference among the groups (χ²=9.318, df=3, p<0.05). Mann-Whitney U test with a Bonferroni correction showed that the difference was between 20-32 age group (U=181.22) and 43-52 age group (U=223.83).

As it can be seen in Table 3, no significant differences between female and male teachers were found in WPA (U= 19659, p>0.05) or CWPA scores (U=19870, p>0.05). Yet, male teachers had significantly higher scores in OWPA (U=18258, p<0.05). Regarding the location of the schools, no significant differences between urban and rural schools were found either in WPA (U= 9378, p>0.05), CWPA (U= 9120, p>0.05) or OWPA (U= 10406, p>0.05) scores. Whether the teachers were working at a vocational or academic school caused a significant difference between the groups (U= 7716, p<0.05). Teachers working at vocational schools had significantly higher scores than the ones working at academic schools.

In terms of CWPA (U= 7763, p>0.05) and OWPA (U= 7943, p>0.05) no significant difference was observed.

Kruskal-Wallis test results about whether workplace aggression, overt and covert workplace aggression scores differed among the groups of teachers’ age, work experience, the number of the teachers at school and school level variables are presented in Table 4.

It is shown in Table 4 that no significant difference was observed among age groups in teachers’ WPA (χ²=3.739, df=3, p>0.05) and CWPA scores (χ²=3.010, df=3, p>0.05). However, in OWPA scores there was a significant difference among the groups (χ²=9.318, df=3, p<0.05). Mann-Whitney U test with a Bonferroni correction showed that the difference was between 20-32 age group (U=181.22) and 43-52 age group (U=223.83).

As for the work experience at the same school, there was no significant differences among the groups in either types of scores (WPA: χ²=4.076, df=2, p>0.05), (CWPA: χ²=3.657, df=2, p>0.05) (OWPA: χ²=5.700, df=2, p>0.05).

In terms of the number of teachers at school, in WPA (χ²=3.739, df=3, p<0.05) and CWPA scores (χ²=3.010, df=3, p<0.05), significant differences were observed among the groups, while they didn’t differ significantly in OWPA scores (χ²=6.594, df=3, p>0.05). Mann-Whitney U test with a Bonferroni correction showed that the differences both for WPA and CWPA scores were between the schools at which 21-40 teachers (U Werner=193.84, U CWPA=193.02) and more than 100 teachers (U Werner=250.92, U OWPA=204.87) worked, with higher scores at the schools employing more than 100 teachers.

Regarding the school levels, the analyses showed that in three types of scores there were significant differences among the three groups (WPA: χ²= 11.553, df=2, p<0.05), (CWPA: χ²= 12.294, df=2, p<0.05), (OWPA: χ²= 7.482, df=2, p<0.05). It was seen that for WPA the difference was between elementary (U=216.86) and middle schools (SO=178.19), besides, middle and high schools (U= 221.69). It was concluded that in middle schools, WPA scores were significantly lower than both elementary and high schools. And in CWPA scores, as well, the differences were between elementary (U=215.59) and middle (U=117.56), and middle and high schools (U=223.60). CWPA scores were significantly lower in middle schools, too. When it comes to OWPA, the difference was between elementary (U=224.70) and middle schools, which had significantly lower mean ranks again (U=186.66).
Table 4. Teachers’ WPA, CWPA and OWPA Kruskal Wallis Results According to the Teachers’ Age, Work Experience, the Number of the Teachers and School Level Variables

| Scale       | Group          | N   | Mean  | df | \(s^2\) | p   | Difference |
|-------------|----------------|-----|-------|----|---------|-----|------------|
| Teachers’ WPA | Age            |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 20-32          | 124 | 187.33| 3  | 3.739   | .291| -          |
|             | 33-42          | 167 | 199.14|    |         |     |            |
|             | 43-52          | 81  | 218.65|    |         |     |            |
|             | 53+            | 27  | 207.50|    |         |     |            |
|             | Experience     |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-5            | 261 | 196.04| 2  | 4.076   | .130| -          |
|             | 5-10           | 84  | 199.05|    |         |     |            |
|             | 11+            | 57  | 230.13|    |         |     |            |
|             | The Number of Teachers |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-20           | 60  | 207.72| 3  | 9.895   | .019| 2-4        |
|             | 21-40          | 238 | 193.84|    |         |     |            |
|             | 41-100         | 59  | 204.09|    |         |     |            |
|             | 100+           | 51  | 250.92|    |         |     |            |
|             | School Level   |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | Elementary     | 128 | 216.86| 2  | 11.553  | .003| 1-2        |
|             | Middle         | 147 | 178.19|    |         |     | 2-3        |
|             | High           | 133 | 221.69|    |         |     |            |
| Teachers’ CWPA | Age            |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 20-32          | 124 | 188.76| 3  | 3.010   | .390| -          |
|             | 33-42          | 167 | 199.27|    |         |     |            |
|             | 43-52          | 81  | 217.08|    |         |     |            |
|             | 53+            | 27  | 204.87|    |         |     |            |
|             | Experience     |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-5            | 261 | 195.71| 2  | 3.657   | .161| -          |
|             | 5-10           | 84  | 201.38|    |         |     |            |
|             | 11+            | 57  | 228.19|    |         |     |            |
|             | The Number of Teachers |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-20           | 60  | 210.71| 3  | 10.275  | .016| 2-4        |
|             | 21-40          | 238 | 193.02|    |         |     |            |
|             | 41-100         | 59  | 250.76|    |         |     |            |
|             | 100+           | 51  | 204.87|    |         |     |            |
|             | School Level   |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | Elementary     | 128 | 215.59| 2  | 12.294  | .002| 1-2        |
|             | Middle         | 147 | 177.56|    |         |     | 2-3        |
|             | High           | 133 | 223.60|    |         |     |            |
| Teachers’ OWPA | Age            |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 20-32          | 124 | 181.22| 3  | 9.318   | .025| 1-3        |
|             | 33-42          | 167 | 197.84|    |         |     |            |
|             | 43-52          | 81  | 223.83|    |         |     |            |
|             | 53+            | 27  | 228.07|    |         |     |            |
|             | Experience     |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-5            | 261 | 198.18| 2  | 5.700   | .058| -          |
|             | 5-10           | 84  | 190.45|    |         |     |            |
|             | 11+            | 57  | 233.00|    |         |     |            |
|             | The Number of Teachers |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | 1-20           | 60  | 194.28| 3  | 6.594   | .086| -          |
|             | 21-40          | 238 | 202.67|    |         |     |            |
|             | 41-100         | 59  | 191.23|    |         |     |            |
|             | 100+           | 51  | 240.42|    |         |     |            |
|             | School Level   |     |       |    |         |     |            |
|             | Elementary     | 128 | 224.70| 2  | 7.482   | .020| 1-2        |
|             | Middle         | 147 | 186.66|    |         |     |            |
|             | High           | 133 | 204.78|    |         |     |            |

Teachers’ Organizational Justice Perceptions

Findings about teachers’ organizational justice perception, distributive and procedural justice perception scores are seen in Table 5.

Table 5. Teachers’ OJ, DJ and PJ Perceptions Mean Scores and Standard Deviation Values

| Scale       | Mean | Sd   |
|-------------|------|------|
| Teachers’ OJ Perceptions     | 3.39 | .98  |
| Teachers’ DJ Perceptions     | 3.13 | 1.05 |
| Teachers’ PJ Perceptions     | 3.44 | 1.00 |

As it can be seen in Table 5, teachers’ perceptions of OJ was at “medium” (\(X=3.39\)). In DJ dimension, the mean score was at “medium” level, too (\(X= 3.13\)). In PJ dimension the mean score was at “high” level (\(X= 3.44\)).

Analyses of teachers’ organizational justice perceptions according to variables. Before the comparative analyses for teachers’ organizational justice, distributive and procedural justice perceptions normality tests were conducted. After a series of examinations (e.g. skewness [-.37] and kurtosis [-.60])
values, Q-Q plots, stem-leaf diagrams, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality \( [p<0.05] \), it was decided that the data had standard normal distribution. So, parametric tests were employed in evaluating the differences between the groups. Independent samples t-test results about whether OJ, DJ and PJ perceptions differed according to teachers’ gender, location and type of the school variables are presented in Table 6.

### Table 6. Teachers’ OJ, DJ and PJ Perceptions T-Test Results According to the Teachers’ Gender, Location and Type of the School Variables

| Scale                  | Level            | Groups         | N   | X    | Sd  | t    | p    |
|------------------------|------------------|----------------|-----|------|-----|------|------|
| Teachers’ OJ Perceptions | Gender           | Female         | 202 | 3.39 | .990| -.025| .980 |
|                        |                  | Male           | 203 | 3.39 | .985| -.025| .980 |
|                        | Location         | Urban          | 347 | 3.35 | .964| -1.919| .056 |
|                        |                  | Rural          | 61  | 3.61 | 1.087|      |      |
|                        | Type             | Academic       | 180 | 3.46 | .973| .502 | .616 |
|                        |                  | Vocational     | 100 | 3.40 | .954|      |      |
| Teachers’ DJ Perceptions | Gender           | Female         | 202 | 3.12 | 1.049| -1.605| .109 |
|                        |                  | Male           | 203 | 3.14 | 1.063|      |      |
|                        | Location         | Urban          | 347 | 3.09 | 1.034| .354 | .723 |
|                        |                  | Rural          | 61  | 3.33 | 1.147|      |      |
|                        | Type             | Academic       | 180 | 3.19 | 1.039| .024 | .980 |
|                        |                  | Vocational     | 100 | 3.14 | 1.060|      |      |
| Teachers’ PJ Perceptions | Gender           | Female         | 202 | 3.44 | 1.015| .024 | .980 |
|                        |                  | Male           | 203 | 3.44 | 1.000|      |      |
|                        | Location         | Urban          | 347 | 3.40 | .987 | -1.942| .053 |
|                        |                  | Rural          | 61  | 3.67 | 1.098|      |      |
|                        | Type             | Academic       | 180 | 3.52 | .994 | .540 | .590 |
|                        |                  | Vocational     | 100 | 3.45 | .975 |      |      |

As it can be seen in Table 6, no significant differences between female and male teachers were found in OJ \( t=-.025, p>0.05 \), DJ \( t=-.229, p>0.05 \) or PJ \( t=.024, p>0.05 \) scores. Regarding the location of the schools, no significant differences between urban and rural schools were found in OJ \( t=-1.919, p>0.05 \), DJ \( t=-1.605, p>0.05 \) or PJ \( t=-1.942, p>0.05 \) scores. Working at a vocational or academic school didn’t cause teachers perceive OJ \( t=.502, p>0.05 \), DJ \( t=.354, p>0.05 \) or PJ \( t=.540, p>0.05 \) significantly different.

One Way ANOVA results about whether teachers’ OJ, DJ and PJ scores differed among the groups of teachers’ age, work experience, the number of the teachers and school level variables are presented in Table 7.

As it can be seen in Table 7 no significant difference was observed among different age groups in teachers’ OJ \( F(3,395)=.674, p>0.05 \), DJ \( F(3,396)=.180, p>0.05 \) and PJ \( F(3,395)=.841, p>0.05 \) scores. Likely, no significant difference was observed among the groups according to teachers’ work experience, in teachers’ OJ \( F(2,399)=.064, p>0.05 \), DJ \( F(2,398)=.175, p>0.05 \) and PJ \( F(2,399)=.093, p>0.05 \) scores. According to the number of teachers at the school there was a significant difference among the groups in OJ \( F(3,405)=3.852, p<0.05 \), and PJ scores \( F(3,406)=4.335, p<0.05 \). In DJ scores \( F(3,405)=1.935, p>0.05 \) no difference was observed, though. In post-hoc analysis, LSD results showed that the difference was between the schools at which 1-20 teachers and more than 100 teachers were working. The former had significantly higher organizational justice perception than the latter. Similarly, procedural justice post-hoc analysis showed that the difference was between the same groups, and teachers working at a school where more than 100 teachers were working had significantly lower perceptions of procedural justice.

In terms of the school level, no significant difference was observed among elementary, middle or high school teachers’ scores in OJ \( F(2,406)=1.840, p>0.05 \) or PJ \( F(2,406)=3.537, p>0.05 \). In DJ scores, significant differences between primary and middle schools, and between middle school and high school teachers were observed \( F(2,406)=3.537, p<0.05 \). Middle school teachers had significantly higher scores than both primary and high school teachers.
The Relationship between Organizational Justice and Teachers’ Workplace Aggression Behaviors

Before simple linear regression analysis, to examine at which level organizational justice predicted teachers’ workplace aggression behaviors, statistical assumptions were checked. One of the assumptions is that both variables have standard normal distributions. As noticed earlier workplace aggression scores didn’t have a normal distribution, that’s why logarithmic transformation (Keskin, 2018) was employed on the data. After the transformation, a more normal distribution was observed. The assumption of collinearity between two variables was examined on the scatter diagram (Can, 2014), it was observed that the variables had a linear correlation.

Before proceeding to the multiple regression, to identify at which level distributive and procedural justice dimensions predicted workplace aggression, statistical assumptions for the analysis were checked. Linearity between the predictor variables and the predicted were verified, and it was observed that there was not a multicollinearity problem between the predictor variables (VIF: 2.77, Tolerance: 0.36). In order to ensure that the difference between the observed values and predicted values had a normal distribution,
A scatter diagram of Z-Predicted and Z-Residuals was examined. The random pattern of spots showed that errors had a normal distribution (Field, 2005). The results of linear regression analysis conducted after meeting these assumptions are presented in Table 8.

### Table 8. Simple Linear and Multiple Linear Regression Analyses Results of Teachers’ OJ Perceptions and WPA

| Variable | B   | Standard Error | B(eta) | T     | P     |
|----------|-----|----------------|--------|-------|-------|
| **Simple Linear Regression** |     |                |        |       |       |
| Constant | .332| .020           | 16.713 | .000  |       |
| OJ       | -.039| .006           | -.323  | -6.869| .000  |
| R = .323 | F\(_{1,406}\) = 47.181 | p = .000 |
| **Multiple Linear Regression** |     |                |        |       |       |
| Constant | .332| .332           | 16.643 | .000  |       |
| DJ       | -.010| .009           | -.088  | -1.115| .265  |
| PI       | -.029| .009           | -.248  | -3.161| .002  |
| R = .322 | F\(_{3,404}\) = 47.181 | p = .000 |

As seen in Table 8, there was a positive correlation between teachers OJ perceptions and WPA (R = 0.323, R\(^2\) = 0.104), moreover, OJ was a significant predictor of WPA (F\(_{1,406}\) = 47.181, p<0.05). OJ explained 10% variance of WPA. Regression coefficient of the predictor variable (B = -.039) also showed that OJ was a significant predictor of WPA (p<0.01). So, the regression equation of teachers’ workplace aggression was:

\[
\text{Teachers' WPA} = (-.039 \times \text{Teachers' OJ Perceptions}) + .332
\]

According to the standardized regression coefficients, the significance of predictor variables’ were PI (B = -.248) and DJ (B = -.088), respectively. The significance tests showed that while procedural justice predicted workplace aggression significantly (p<.05), distributive justice didn’t. Regression equation of teachers’ WPA was:

\[
\text{Teachers' WPA} = (-.029 \times \text{Teachers' PI Perceptions}) + (-.010 \times \text{Teachers' DJ Perceptions}) + (.332).
\]

### Discussion, Conclusion and Implications

The results of this study should be read with care; that workplace aggression and covert workplace aggression was “rarely” observed and overt workplace aggression was “never” observed ought not to be interpreted as these behaviors are exhibited too rarely to have serious consequences. As Behar and Springfield (1974) noted, scales with subjective frequency items may not show the real frequency and effect of antisocial behavior (Cited in Willoughby, Kupersmidt & Bryant, 2000). There are some specific acts that happen once in a long time, yet have the effects lasting for years. To sum, low levels of aggression scores shouldn’t lead to underestimation of its effect and gravity.

That covert workplace aggression was observed more than overt workplace aggression is consistent with the extant aggression literature. Kaukainen et al. (2001) showed that covert aggression had significantly higher scores both in observed and experienced aggression. Similarly, Baron and Neuman (1996) found that verbal and passive workplace aggression- which was included in covert type in the present study- had higher levels both in observed and experienced workplace aggression than physical and active forms. Moreover, some researchers, like Baron et al (1999) had quite similar results with the present study both in covert (X\(^2\)=1.81) and overt workplace aggression (X\(^2\)=1.65). However, in contrast with the findings of these studies, Baron and Neuman (1996) observed that direct aggression had significantly higher scores than indirect aggression. In short, despite violating studies, aggression literature has a wide consensus that covert workplace aggression is observed more than overt aggression.

There are some theories which explain the reason why covert aggression is more common than overt aggression in workplace; one of them is danger/ratio theory (Björkqvist et al., 1994). This theory argues that while people try to harm their target at maximum level, they try to minimize the harm directed to them. Yet, it is very difficult to minimize the harm at workplace, as people working together have to contact each other again and again on a regular basis, which increases the risk of retaliation. Additionally, as Baron and Neuman (1996) notes, different from general human aggression, there is no chance of anonymity at the workplace, because everyone knows each other well. Besides, potential witnesses can be influential on choosing the aggression style: the other workers can take the target’s side or condemn the aggressive act and this prevents the open exhibition of aggressive behaviors (Kaukainen et al., 2001). Baron and Neuman (1996) argues that covert aggression can be as destructive as overt one.
covert aggression might harm the targets in various ways by endangering their career and respectability and it can be a primary step to the “upward spiral of aggression”: covert aggression behaviors might be easily followed by more active and more physical aggression styles.

For a long time, women had not been the subjects of aggression researches, as these behaviors were thought to be uniquely male. However, as more researches have been done and various kinds of aggression have been classified, it is empirically confirmed that women can be as aggressive as men. In this study, teachers’ aggression from a third point of view – that is, observed aggression- was employed and only in overt aggression the scores between women and men differed significantly. Similarly, Verona, Reed, Curtin and Pole (2007) found out that men had significantly higher scores than women in aggression and overt aggression while the groups didn’t differ in covert aggression. Moreover in stress induced situations women’s overt aggression levels decreased compared to unstressful situations. According to theories, both biological and socialization processes regulated by gender roles have been influential on the fact that men are more aggressive than women or they tend to choose overt forms more (Maccoby, & Jacklin, 1974; cited in Verona et al., 2007).

In the present study, location of the schools didn’t create significant differences in any aggression types. However, Dietz et al. (2003) modelled that 19% of workplace aggression could be explained with the crimes committed in the organizations’ environment and there was a significant positive correlation with unemployment rates. Although there aren’t adequate researches about the relationship between the environmental factors and workplace aggression and it is not possible to make a comparison with the previous researches, instead of classifying schools according to the districts but the socio-economical structures surrounding them would be a more useful approach to understand the connection between the environmental factors and workplace aggression.

Not conducted on teachers’ workplace aggression but students’ violent behaviors in different high school types, Ünlü et.al.’s, (2013) and Efilti’s (2006) studies showed that students at vocational high schools were both targets and perpetrators of violent acts more than general academic high schools students. The importance of these studies is that with a spillover effect, students’ aggressive acts can influence teacher behaviors which eventually make vocational school teachers more aggressive than the teachers working at other school types. The fact that in the present study vocational school teachers’ aggression scores were higher might be a result of spill-over effect of aggression.

In contrast with the previous crime researches, this study showed that the younger group observed overt aggression less. Crime researches showed that murder rates were highest in the 18-24 year-old group (USA, Ministry of Justice; cited in Lui, Lewis, & Evans, 2013). Moreover, it was discovered that traffic accidents as a result of aggressive driving were caused by 18-26 year-olds group most (Dukes, Clayton, Jenkins, Miller, & Rodgers, 2001; cited in Lui, Lewis, & Evans, 2013). At this point, it can be said that teachers’ workplace aggression has different dynamics than general human aggression. The variable of teachers’ work experience at school was examined to see if the length of work experience at the same organization matters in workplace aggression, yet it was seen that it didn’t lead to significant differences among the groups.

That workplace aggression and covert workplace aggression were significantly higher at schools with more than 100 teachers can be interpreted in two ways. Firstly, when there are more people the necessity of communication between people from different ethnic and religious backgrounds rises. According to Neuman and Baron (2005) environmental determinants of aggression are heat, crowd and noise. Dietz et al. (2003) figured out that there was a positive relation between the size of a factory and workplace aggression rates. Baron and Neuman (1996) demonstrated that there was a significant relation between the rise in diversity in worker profile and observed and experienced workplace aggression and in regression analysis diversity predicted workplace aggression at a significant level. That primary and high school teachers’ scores in workplace aggression and overt workplace aggression were significantly higher than middle school teachers resembles Nayır’s (2016) findings on retaliation behaviors of teachers. Nayır (2016) found out that primary school teachers’ retaliation scores were significantly higher than middle school teachers.

Including educational sciences, organizational justice researches has a remarkably long history. In education organizations, there are a number of researches conducted on teachers (e.g. Polat, & Çelep, 2008; Uğurlu, 2009; Alminkurt, & Yılmaz, 2010; Baş, & Şentürk, 2011; Güneş, & Buluç, 2012; Bölükbaşoğlu, 2013; Buluç, & Güneş, 2014; Ünlü, Hamedoğlu, & Yaman, 2015; Güngör, & Potuk, 2017;
In the present study, students’ organizational justice perceptions were mostly high in Turkey. Similarly, in Alabama, USA, Turner (2018) found that primary and high school teachers’ organizational justice perceptions were high. In the present study, teachers’ organizational justice perceptions were at medium levels, which is parallel with Ünlü et al. (2015) and Akman’s (2018) findings.

In distributive justice dimension, in this study, teachers had a medium level score. Çelik (2011), Şahin (2011) and Polat (2007) discovered that teachers’ perceptions were mostly high at “agree to a large extent” level; Uğurlu (2009) observed much higher distributive justice scores at “completely agree” level. Compared to these studies, distributive justice level was lower in the present study. In terms of procedural justice, teachers’ perceptions were “agree to a large extent” level. Çelik (2011), Polat (2007) and Ünlü et al. (2015), also, observed that teachers’ procedural justice were high at “agree to a large extent” level.

In this study, no significant differences were observed between the groups according to teachers’ gender. There are some parallel, as in Altunkurt and Yılmaz (2010), and contrasting, as in Polat (2007), research findings in the literature. So, no consensus could have been reached about the effect of gender on organizational justice perceptions. Similar to workplace aggression findings, whether the school was in the urban or rural districts wasn’t a significant determinant on organizational justice perceptions. In terms of school type variable, in the present study there wasn’t any significant difference between the groups. There are some contrasting findings, for example Altunkurt and Yılmaz (2010) and Titrek (2009) revealed that teachers’ organizational justice perceptions differ significantly, weighing against vocational schools.

Regarding work experience variable, Uğurlu’s (2009) study in Hatay (Turkey), Ay and Koç’s (2014) study across Turkey, Baş and Şentürk’s (2011) study in Niğde (Turkey) showed similar results with the present study, that neither in organizational justice or in its dimensions, did teachers scores differ significantly. However, when work experience at the same school was taken into account, Polat (2007) revealed that work experience at the same school caused a difference among the groups: Teachers with less experience had significantly higher organizational justice scores.

The number of teachers at school and school level were the two variables with significant differences among the groups. Organizational justice and procedural justice scores were significantly lower in the schools with more crowded teaching staff. Likewise, Polat (2007) and Uğurlu (2009) found out that at schools with less crowded teaching staff, organizational justice perceptions were significantly higher. In contrast, Yılmaz (2010) didn’t observe any significant difference in organizational justice levels according to the number of the teachers. Thus, it can be said that there have not been consistent findings so far. Regarding the school level variable, in the present study a significant difference in distributive justice was observed among the groups: middle school teachers had a significantly higher score. In a study in Bingöl (Turkey), middle school teachers’ had a significantly higher organizational justice score (Demirtaş, & Demirbilek, 2019).

Simple linear regression analysis, in accordance with the extant literature, showed that organizational justice predicted workplace aggression. In their studies across the USA, Baron et al., (1999) found that there were positive correlation between injustice perceptions and aggressive acts towards supervisors ($r = .31$). Weide and Abbott (1999) revealed that 80% of the workplace murder criminals believed that “they got even for the wrong does against them”. In one of the rare studies on workplace aggression in Turkey, Özdevescoğlu (2003) observed that organizational justice was predictor of all three workplace aggression types, explaining 43% of expression of hostility, 21% of overt aggression and 2% of obstructionism.

Since there wasn’t any available studies on the relation between teachers’ workplace aggression and organizational justice perceptions, relationships between other deviant behaviors and organizational justice should be evaluated. Andela and Truchot (2017) revealed that French and German teachers’ organizational injustice perceptions predicted their occupational burnout at a significant level. Prediction level was 11% for the French and 25% for the German. In another study, in Ghana, teachers’ intent to leave their occupation was predicted by organizational justice perceptions at a significant level of 24% (Addal, Abdul, Kyeremeh, & Sarfo, 2018). Besides counterproductive behaviors, significant relationships between positive work attitudes and organizational justice were discovered. For example, Buluç and Günsel (2014) showed that teachers’ organizational commitment was predicted by their organizational justice perceptions at a significant level of 41%. In Iran, Firoozi, Kazemi and Sayadi (2016) found that physical education teachers’ job satisfaction was predicted by organizational justice at a significant level of
Contrary to these findings, Turner (2018) observed no significant relationship between teachers' organizational justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behaviors. To conclude, despite the exceptional findings, organizational justice literature shows a positive relationship between organizational injustice and counterproductive work behaviors or attitudes.

In the multiple regression analysis, it was revealed that procedural justice significantly predicted workplace aggression while distributive justice didn't. Burton et al., (2005) observed a significant relationship between interactive justifes and all the three types of workplace aggression-obstructionism, expressions of hostility, overt aggression. Similarly, Glomb (2010) discovered a significant relationship between distributive, procedural and interactive justice and workplace aggression. Yet, in regression analysis it was revealed that only procedural justice could significantly predict workplace aggression at 18% level. Özdevecioğlu (2003) found that workplace aggression was predicted by procedural justice (40%) and interactive justice (8%), respectively. Contrary to these finding, Dietz et al. (2003), Greenberg and Barling (1999), Kennedy, Homant and Homant (2004) revealed that although there was significant relationship between procedural or interactive justice and workplace aggression, they didn't have a predictive effect on it. Moreover, they pointed out that individual differences like alcohol consumption, history of violence or general aggressive attitudes were more predictive.

As a first study on teachers’ workplace aggression, this study shows that teachers, even if rarely, observe aggression and there is often a fair climate at their schools. Organizational justice, specifically procedural justice, is a significant determinant of aggressive behaviors at work. These findings have practical and theoretical implications about workplace aggression and organizational justice. First of all in order to eliminate all forms of aggressive behaviors, teachers’ pre-service and in-service trainings should be revised and subjects about human psychology and communication skills should be covered in teacher training curriculum. Besides, teacher selection and supervision processes must be structured carefully, that is teacher candidates should be expected to meet some psychological standards in order to be appointed as teachers. As organizational justice is an important determinant of aggression at school, unfair practices should be avoided in principal appointments and inequalities between the schools, especially between the vocational and general academic schools, should be minimized. This study has some limits waiting to be overcome by other researchers. First of all, the sample is only teachers in Kayseri province, different samples are needed to examine workplace aggression in Turkey. Moreover, this study delves into organizational justice, ignoring other organizational and individual variables, so other statistical techniques with a wide range of variables or qualitative approaches can be helpful in understanding the nature of workplace aggression in Turkish culture.

Ethical Declaration

This research was carried out with the ethical permission of Ankara University Social Sciences Ethics Subcommitte, dated 04.02.2019 and numbered 54. The data of the research were collected in Kayseri. Research permission of Kayseri Provincial Directorate of National Education, dated 02.05.2018 and numbered 8682104, was taken to collect research data.

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Saldirganlık insan hayatı, işyeri dahi, hemen her alanında gözlenen bir davranış biçimidir. Burton, Mitchell ve Lee’ye (2005) göre hemen herkesin işverindeki arkadaşlarıyla olduğu mevcut ya da eski çalışanlarla ilgili bir haber duyurmuştur. Patronunu olduğu ofisli çalışan herbei olduğu popüler olsa da, işyeri şiddetininvarsayısı yere ayrılabilir, sadece sınırlı çalışanların beklenmedik biçimde ateş açarak çalışma arkadaşlarının üzerinde yıkılmaktadır. İşyeri şiddeti büyük oranda suç işlemek amacıyla işyerinde dershârından gelen insanların eylemlerindenOLSUR. Dolayısıyla işyeri şiddeti çok önemli bir konu olmadığı için beşte bir problem olma sebebi de bu konuda birlikte daha büyük bir problemin sadece bir ksmink; bu büyük problem işyeri saldırganlığıdır. Baron (1997) saldırganlığı “başka bir kisije zarar verme amacıyla yönetilmesi, hedef kişinin maruz kalmaktan kaçınılgı davranış” olarak tanımlamıştır (Akt. Neuman ve Baron, 2005). Saldirganlık çeşitli şekillerde sınıflandırılmaktadır. Niyet olgusuya yakındaki ilişkili olan sınıflandırma açık (covert) ve gizli (covered) saldırganlıklar. Cinayet işlemek, hakaret etmek veya bir cinsim fiyatmak gibi bazı davranışların saldırganlık olduğu kolayca farklı işlemektedir; ihtiyaç duyulan kaynaklardan yorkun bırakmak, öser gibi yapış eleştirme (damning with faint praise) gibi davranışlar saldırganlık olarak tanımlanması daha zordur. Björkqvist’e (1994) göre açık saldırganlık, saldırganın kimliğini ve niyetini hedeflenenin hak ettiği durumdadaki sergilediği saldırgan davranışlar olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Ancak gizli saldırganlıkta, saldırgan kimliğini ve niyetini hedef kişinin saldırganlığına dair. Kazanların da etkisi, etkisi kararlarının alınmasında kullanılan işlemler ve kişiler arasına uygulamaları ilişkisini geliştirilen kurallar ve sosyal normlar (Folger ve Cropanzano, 1997) olarak tanımlanan özellikle saldırgan davranışa yönelik önlemler de bunlar arasında gösterilemektedir. Bunun sebebi, bireylerin “adil muamele” olarak oldukları standartdan çok az bir sapmaya karşı bile oldukça duyarlı olmalıdır (Greenberg ve Alge, 1998). Bireyler adaletsizlikle
karşılaştıklarında, bu durumu çözmeye çalışır ve yeniden adil durumu oluşturmayı isterler (Adams, 1965; Akt. Burton ve diğ., 2005).

Eğitmcilerin saldırgan davranışlar sergilemeyeceğini veya “kutsal” bir meslek içe ettiği düşünülen öğretmenlerde karşı saldırganlık sergilemeyeceğini düşüncelerinin yaygın olduğu için velilerden öğretmenlere yönelik olabilen veya öğretmenler arasındaki saldırganlığın araştırmalarında ihmal edildiği söylenebilir. Oysa eğitim örgütlerinin saldırganlığı da da şiddetde karşı başlık olduğunu günümüz hiçbir şekilde değildir. Nitekim öğretmenlerden yöneticilek ya da diğer öğretmenlere yönelik saldırganlık ve şiddetin dair medyaya yansıyan haberlerle dahi bu durumun sadece öğrencilerle has olmadığını göstermektedir. Bu çerçevede öğretmenin genel amaç öğretmenlerin işyeri saldırganlığı davranışları ve örgütsel adeta algısı incelmek, örgütü adeta işyeri saldırganlığını açıklama düzeyini test etmek.

Nicel yaklaşımına yürüten bu araştırma hizisel tarama ve nadirenزهر الحرمة deseni şekillendirmiştir. Araştırmaın örneklemini orlanı tabakalı örnekleme yöntemiyle belirlenen 408 öğretmen oluşturmuştur. Coşkun (2019) tarafından geliştirilen “Öğretmenlerin İşyeri Saldırganlığı Davranışları”，“Örgütsel Adalet Türleri Ölçüğü” ile toplanan verilerin analizinde Mann Whitney U ve Kruskall Wallis, t-testi ve tek yönlü ANOVA, basit doğrusal regresyon ve çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizleri kullanılmıştır.

Çalışmaya katılan öğretmenlerin işyerlerinde saldırganlığı (X=1,69) ve gizli saldırganlığı (X=1,86) nadiren ve açık saldırganlığı “hiçbir zaman” aralığında çözümlenmiştir (X=1,18). Saldırganlık algısı sadece okul kurum, meslek liseleri aleyhine farklılaşmaktadır. Gizli saldırganlık puanlarında gruplararasında farklılık gözlenmemiştir, ancak açık saldırganlıkta erkek öğretmenlerin açık saldırganlığı kadınların göre daha yüksek düzeyde gözlenmektedir. Okulda croped öğretmenin sayısı 100’den fazla olmaya saldırganın çeşitli okullarda ve ortaokullarda saldırganlık ve gizli saldırganlık daha çok gözlenmektedir. Açık saldırganlık puanlarında ise yaş değişikliği ve okul düzeyi anlamlı farklılık kaynağı olmuştur. Öğretmenlerin örgütü adeta (X=3,39) ve dağıtım adeta algısının (X=3,44) orta düzeyde, süreç adeta algısının ise (X=3,44) yüksek düzeyde olduğu gözlenmiştir. Örgütsel adeta ve süreç adeta algısının 100’den fazla sınıf saldırganunun çeşitli okullarda anlamlı düzeyde daha düşük olduğu; dağıtım adeta algısının ortaokul düzeyinde anlamlı şekilde daha düşük olduğu bulgusuna ulaşmıştır. Basit doğrusal regresyon analisi örgütsel algı adeta algısının öğretmenlerin işyeri saldırganlığı davranışlarının %10 düzeyinde yordadığı; çoklu doğrusal regresyon analizi ise dağıtım adeta adeta öğretmenlerin işyeri saldırganlığı davranışlarının anlamlı düzeyde yordadığı; süreç adeta algısının anlamlı bir yordayıcı olup olmadığı göstermektedir.

Gizli saldırganlığın açık saldırganlıkta daha fazla gözlenmesi mevcut alanyazınla paralel bir bulgudur. Kaukainen ve diğerleri (2001) işyerinde gizli saldırganlığı hem kendi définiylemlen hem de gözlenen saldırganlık boylum theaterda düşken olduğu ortaya koymuştur. Kadın ve erkek öğretmenler arasında sadece açık saldırganlık boylum theaterda anlamlı farklı olması kadınların da erkekler kadar saldırgan olabiliceği ancak saldırganlık türünün değişkenlik gösterdiği dine kuramları destekler niteliktidir. Meslek lisesinde işyeri saldırganlıkının daha fazla algılansması daha önce gençleri etkide konusunda yapılan çalışmalarla (Ünlü, Evcin, Burakgazi- Yılmaz ve Dalkılıç, 2013; Efılı, 2006) benzer bir bulgudur. Bu durum öğretmenin işyeri saldırganlığı davranışlarına yuvarlayıcı bir çalışmalarla dahi kalabalık öğretmen kadrosunun okullarda saldırgan davranışlarının daha fazla gözlenmesinin sebebi farklı etnik ve kültürel geçmişe sahip olan insanların birarada bulunmasının nispeten daha zor olmasından kaynaklanabilir (Baron ve Neuman, 1996).

Öğretmenlerin örgütü adeta algısının orta düzeyde olması bazı araştırmaların bulgularıyla (örneğin Ünlü vd., 2015) tutarı olmakla birlikte, ortalamanın yüksek olduğu bazı araştırmalar da (örneğin Altunkurt ve Yılmaz, 2010) bulunmaktadır. Girişiyet, kidem, okul türü, okul düzeyi, okulun bulunduğun yer değişiklikleri ile ilgili olarak alanyazın da tutarlı bulguların gözlenmemesi bu unsurların adeta algısı üzerinde etkili olmalıdırı işaret edebilir. Saldırganlık puanlarında benzer şekilde kalabalık okullarda ve ilkokul ve lise düzeyinde örgütü algısı puanlarında daha düşük olması özellikle dikkat çekicidir.

Basit regresyon analizi mevcut alanyazınla aynı doğrultuda (Baron vd., 1999; Weide ve Abbott, 1999; Özdevrecküoğlu, 2003) örgütü adeta adeta saldırganlığı anlamlı düzeyde yordadığı göstermektedir. Çoklu regresyon analizinde dağıtım adeta deneysel saldırganlığı anlamlı düzeyde yordamazken, süreç adeta deneysel yordamaları Andela ve Truchot (2017), Adbel, Abdulal, Kyeremeh ve Safroz’un (2018) çalışmalarında da gözlenmiştir. Alanyazın dağıtıklikli olarak dağıtım adeta adeta olumlu ya da olumusuz davranışı kendi başına açıklayamadığı, bu davranışların üzerinde süreç ve etkileşim adeta gibi daha soyut kazanımları etkili olduğu işaret edilektedir.

Araştırmının saldırganlıklıkla ilgili bulgularını dikkatle okumak gereklidir. Saldırganlığın nadiren gözlenen olmasının, doğracağı sonuçların ciddiyyetini skalamaaya sebep olmamalıdır. Uyguşayıcıların bu bulgularдан çıkaracağı sonuçlar arasında öğretmenlerin hizmet öncesi ve hizmeti eğitiminde saldırganlıklı
mücadele veya etkili iletişim becerilerini geliştirecek eğitimlerin arttırılması olabilir. Bunun yanında öğretmen seçim ve atama süreciyle ilgili düzenlemeler gereklidir. Örgütsel adalet konusunda ise politika yapıcıların adalet algısını bozabilecek uygulamaları engellemeleri tavsiye edilebilir. Mevcut araştırma nicel araştırmaının ve kullanılan analiz tekniklerinin doğasından kaynaklanan çeşitli sınırlılıklara sahiptir. Araştırmacılarla saldırganlıkla ilgili gözlem gibi tekniklerle yürütülecek nitel araştırmalara başvurmaları tavsiye edilebilir.