

Teachers' Perspectives on Bullying in Schools:
A Comparative Mixed Methods Study
in England and the United States

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Abstract

Teachers play a critical role in responding to, reporting, and preventing bullying. This study focuses on teachers' perceptions of various types of bullying: physical, verbal, relational, and especially the more recent phenomenon of cyberbullying. It compares English and US teachers' perspectives of the seriousness of these different types of bullying, thereby investigating how and why teachers have different views of how to address bullying and the different reasons they give as to why they would or would not respond to different bullying scenarios. This can possibly contribute to potential strategies to combat bullying.

The research is based on a sequential explanatory mixed methods design. In the first quantitative phase, the researcher developed two questionnaires, asking teachers for their perceptions of different hypothetical bullying scenarios, drawing on Expectancy Theory and Social Cognitive Theory. Questionnaires were adapted from those previously developed in a series of American studies (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Yoon and Kerber 2003; Stauffer et al. 2012). They were administered to a purposive sample of teachers in both England and the US in order to provide a comparative element in two English-speaking country contexts. The questionnaires were analysed to establish whether there are differences between the perceptions and the reasons for responses for new and experienced teachers across the two different country contexts. The analyses also explored teacher perceptions of more long-term strategies to deal with cyberbullying. In the second qualitative phase, a series of semi-structured interviews were conducted with small sub samples of teachers in both England and the US to provide additional qualitative evidence about teachers' understandings and experiences of bullying. The interviews explored a number of topics emerging from the quantitative findings pertaining to bullying and cyberbullying, allowing teachers to comment on the survey findings and share their experiences. In addition, the analysis of the qualitative interviews offered the opportunity to provide richer descriptions and insights, building explanations and enhancing understandings. This process enables the research to investigate the degree of similarity between the quantitative and qualitative findings. The combination and integration of findings from both phases of the mixed methods study adds to the ability to triangulate findings and to explore and clarify the reasons for differences in perspectives between English and US teachers.

In the mixed sequential explanatory strategy, quantitative findings reveal general trends from the data that are later expanded and investigated further within the qualitative phase. The discussion then explores the nature of the similarities and differences between these findings. The quantitative findings suggest that three main variables predicted both US and English teachers' responses to cyberbullying scenarios: the perceived seriousness of the situation, the confidence in one's ability, and the location (home having less of a response than school scenarios). The qualitative findings suggest that teachers' perceptions of severity could be shaped by current policies and the relationships teachers developed with their students; the perceived confidence in one's self could be mediated by one's interpretation of the school culture and the trust established with others on staff; responding to a home cyberbullying situation could depend on one's understanding of pastoral responsibilities and the current parental involvement.

This research provides new findings that can inform policy makers and practitioners in designing and implementing anti-bullying programs that are relevant to different contexts. Knowledge of teacher perceptions could prove useful as a starting point for developing a teacher education program. An understanding of the different types of bullying and cyberbullying that need attention could enable anti-bullying programs to present new and relevant material.

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Glossary of Terms

Anger: A term used within this particular study to reflect the construct of the level of overall teacher emotional arousal within a bullying scenario.

Bullying: A negative, sustained, and unwanted action targeted at one individual.

Bully-Victim: A bully who has also been victimized in the past or currently.

Bystander: An individual who observes a bullying situation.

Cyberbullying: Any bullying action committed within the cyberspace (including computers and cell phones).

Expectancy: The perception of how skilled one is in performing a task. Within this study, teachers judged this in terms of their own perceived effectiveness of carrying out a chosen response with the victim and the perpetrator.

Instrumentality: The perception of how effective the action is at carrying out a task. This study explored this in terms of the perceived effectiveness of the response one selects to deal with the victim and the bully.

MLT: The part-time Master's at Oxford focusing on Learning and Teaching, tailored to experienced teachers.

PGCE: A one-year Post Graduate Certificate in Education tailored for new educators in England.

Reporting: Responding to a bullying by conveying information to a member of staff (usually responsible for administering the school).

Resources: Materials available to staff that would assist in educating or familiarizing staff with how to handle bullying.

Scenario: A short vignette describing a hypothetical situation within the survey that describes a particular type of bullying and asks for the teacher's comments.

Severity: Often used interchangeably with the term Valence within this study (conveying the perceived seriousness of a scenario).

Valence: The perception of the overall seriousness of a scenario presented within this study.

Victim: The knowing or unknowing target of any bullying activity.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of Research Project

Teachers have a unique responsibility to protect children from bullying in schools. Building on over two decades of research into the nature and incidence of bullying (e.g. Olweus 1993; Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006) and prior Master's work (Hurtubise 2013), this project seeks to extend the field to explore and understand teachers' perspectives of appropriate ways of responding to and dealing with bullying among students in and out of school, with a particular focus on cyberbullying. Apart from its contribution to research on the topic, the study aims to provide policy makers, teachers, and educational researchers with new evidence and insights to increase the understanding of how teachers may interpret bullying differently and how these differences could provide evidence to inform the development of future teacher education programmes and possible new interventions. The research explores whether teacher perceptions of different bullying scenarios differ between school contexts in England and the US. The study seeks to investigate whether or not there are differences in responses to different hypothetical bullying scenarios between teachers from the US and England. The study also explores the possible reasons for such discrepancies. The study adapted a survey design based on previous literature, whilst adding additional scenarios (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Stauffer et al. 2012; Boulton et al. 2014). These were presented to a purposive sample of new and experienced teachers in the US and England in order to explore, to describe, and to understand how individual teachers perceive those problems and how this shapes their responses. Hence, the research seeks to investigate how a teacher's understanding of a posed challenge may shape their actions and interpretations of different bullying scenarios. The research also explores teachers' experiences and understandings of student bullying. The research focuses on identifying and understanding which perceptions do teachers have before addressing a bullying situation? Which perceptions correspond most strongly with the likelihood of an action in response to a bullying incident? How do different background variables such as the country or the scenario correspond with a response?

1.2 Rationale for the Study and Contribution

As student bullying adapts in changing circumstances, international research has sought to understand these alterations (Smith, Kwak, and Toda 2016; Smith 1999). For instance, bullying experts such as Dan Olweus and Susan Limber (2010: 132) claim that “knowledge”, “resources”, and “motivation” will become critical for the reduction of school bullying across differing contexts. This research project particularly focuses on teacher motivation by exploring teacher perceptions of bullying in samples from the US and England. The methodology provides a unique and innovative mixed methods design. This incorporates ideas from Expectancy Theory (Vroom 1964, 2007) and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura 1986, 1989, 2001, 2018) for the quantitative methods, and this then underpins the wider qualitative questions. The research particularly contributes an added level of focus on teachers’ perceptions of student cyberbullying, by presenting scenarios involving school cyberbullying, home cyberbullying, and cyberbullying via cell phones. The focus on teacher perspectives utilizes Confirmatory Factor Analysis to explore teacher perceptions and multilevel modeling. The second phase of the research used qualitative methods to better understand trends from the questionnaire quantitative dataset with an added level of depth framed by the contextualized experiences of educators via follow up interviews. To summarize, this research project provides a unique sequential mixed methods design for investigating teacher perceptions of bullying and cyberbullying in US and English samples.

1.3 The Theoretical Frame

This project draws on motivational models based on Vroom (1964, 2007) and Bandura (1986, 1989, 2001, 2018). More analysis of different motivational models can be found in Appendix 16. It is proposed that the close interrelationship between Vroom’s Expectancy Theory and Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory can create an in depth investigation of teachers’ perceptions. While Vroom’s Expectancy Theory deals much more with response-based perspectives, Bandura’s Social Cognitive Theory explores the interrelation between these perspectives, the environmental factors, personal factors, and eventual behavior. The quantitative methods focus on understanding the connection

between expectancy factors (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) and a likelihood of teacher response to different bullying scenarios. However, the qualitative methods interpret the environmental factors situated within different settings that could influence teachers' perceptions and responses. The use of multilevel modeling enables the research to test the predictive power of various personal factors in relation to the likelihood of teacher response to bullying scenarios. The inclusion of Expectancy Factors (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) as predictors within different types of multilevel models can compare how the variance of teacher responses can be partitioned within different models. The semi-structured interviews of the qualitative methods enable the research to explore themes, such as teacher trust in parental involvement and the reasons for higher associations between expectancy and valence measurements with a willingness to respond.

1.4 The Structure of the Thesis

This introduction provides a brief summary of the different sections of the Thesis:

1. ***Introduction (Chapter 1)***: Covers the background of the research project. The chapter provides the rationale of the study and a brief introduction of the theoretical frame. Additionally, the introduction includes a brief historical context in order to situate the research project within a larger background. The section also provides a summary of each chapter within the overall document.
2. ***The Literature Review (Chapter 2)***: The Literature Review provides a discussion of relevant research regarding teacher perceptions of bullying in schools. Here, I provide a brief discussion of how my research study draws on and is informed by relevant previous work covered in the longer review. The first part of the literature review attempts to unpack the term bullying, allowing the research to explore different conceptions of the phenomenon. Next, I provide a synopsis of some of the past research pertaining to teacher perceptions of appropriate ways of dealing with bullying in schools. This research builds on the work of Yoon and Kerber (2003) and Bauman and Del Rio (2006). They developed methodologies testing the use of scenarios to elicit teacher perceptions of bullying in the US. My study uses a similar approach (based on a questionnaire survey) to measure

different aspects of teachers' responses to plausible bullying scenarios in schools. Next, more recent developments are introduced particularly connected with cyberbullying. The project explores additional scenario based research, attempting to understand teacher perspectives of cyberbullying drawing on earlier works by Stauffer et al. (2012) and my own earlier MSc dissertation (Hurtubise 2013). In developing this new DPhil study, I sought to reflect on how to apply one overarching framework. The different situations can be compared across countries in order to enhance an understanding about how teachers perceive appropriate ways of dealing within these different bullying scenarios. Additionally, my study also explores the current literature regarding perspectives of long-term versus short-term strategies for dealing with bullying within schools. A motivational model is presented based upon Expectancy Theory (Vroom 1964, 2007) and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura 1986, 1989, 2001, 2018). Further discussion can be found within section 3.7 of the methodology chapter.

3. ***Research Design and Methodology (Chapter 3):*** The methodology chapter directly follows the Literature Review. This outlines the philosophical underpinnings of the study that draws on pragmatism (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2012) and provides a rationale for adopting a mixed methods approach to the design of the study and the various approaches for data collection and analysis. It is argued that a mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy can explore different dimensions of the research questions by implementing a quantitative phase involving a questionnaire survey followed by a second phase that explores teachers' perspectives in more depth using interviews. The general findings from the analyses of teachers' responses to the surveys conducted across the different countries were used to inform the development of interview questions. This chapter provides a reflection on the nature of *pragmatism* as a philosophical tradition when applied via a mixed methods design using a sequential explanatory strategy. The introduction of the research study's main aim and research questions leads to a further discussion of the development of the surveys. Drawing on previous research findings from my earlier master's study (Hurtubise 2013), I discussed how the use of additional bullying scenarios could provide a

more nuanced understanding of how cyberbullying situations may potentially differ from teachers' perspectives of other forms of bullying. Additionally, the use of semi-structured interviews is included to allow the study to explore topics arising from the initial analyses of the surveys and enable teachers the opportunity develop their own ideas. The chapter then covers the statistical methods and potential tests to be applied. Afterwards, the research design chapter highlights how connections are made between the quantitative survey findings and the development of the qualitative interview questions. A discussion of the different ethical considerations is also provided.

4. ***Quantitative Findings (Chapter 4):*** This chapter identifies constructs from the motivational model and investigates their applicability. It focuses on presenting various descriptive and exploratory statistical analyses of the questionnaire survey data. In particular, it uses data reduction techniques such as exploratory factor analysis to identify underlying factors of interest to the research, pertaining to core themes such expectancy, valence, instrumentality. For strategies, key constructs included themes pertaining to consequence strategies, bystander strategies, and school culture strategies. Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis are used to examine construct validity across cultures (based on the English and US comparison samples). This chapter first summarizes the statistical methods implemented to explore the first quantitative research question (*RQ1: How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies for cyberbullying responses?*). In particular, the Exploratory Factor Analysis reveals that the different strategies for addressing bullying scenarios can be classed into three groups (bystander, school culture, and consequence strategies). Correlations further revealed that there were statistically significant associations between different types of strategies for addressing cyberbullying. The chapter then focuses on the next three research questions (*RQ2: How do background factors [such as gender and country] and Expectancy Theory relate to teacher perceptions and responses? RQ3: What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying? RQ4: What is the likelihood of teacher intervention for different scenarios of bullying?*) The chapter researches

- Expectancy Theory, exploring whether measures of valence, expectancy, and instrumentality serve as statistically significant predictors of the dependent variable teachers' self-reported willingness to respond using a series of multilevel regression models. Additionally, the analysis also explores the possible effects of different background characteristics of the teachers within the regression models to investigate whether they predict a greater likelihood of teacher response in different bullying scenarios. Repeated measure ANOVAs were also used to investigate whether likelihood of response and seriousness differed by situation.
5. ***Qualitative Findings (Chapter 5)***: This chapter discusses the key findings from the analyses of follow up semi-structured interviews conducted with a small number of teachers who completed the survey. The interview questions follow up on the key findings that emerged from the analysis of the quantitative questionnaire data but were also used to explore teachers' perspectives in a broader way. In particular, the interviews explored the reasons why teachers potentially considered certain scenarios as more or less serious. The interviews explored teachers' views of the findings discovered from the first phase of the research (the quantitative analyses of questionnaires pertaining to cyberbullying) within the DPhil and also explored teachers' views in relation to other forms of bullying previously investigated via an earlier smaller scale study conducted for an MSc dissertation as a prelude to the larger DPhil investigation (Hurtubise 2013). Hence, the qualitative interviews provided a space to discover the deeper meaning behind some of the key themes emerging from the quantitative findings (such as the reasons for high ranking of parental involvement and increasing consequences, low ranking of monitoring and taskforces, as well as the importance of expectancy factors, with an emphasis on expectancy and valence). Key themes also emerged from the data, and teachers consistently spoke about relationships with students, school culture, resource availability, mentor support, and staff training as key for understanding teaching perceptions. Additionally, I sought to explore teachers' views on ways in which their confidence in addressing bullying incidents could be fostered. In the survey findings, perceptions of one's ability to handle a situation corresponded highly with the teacher's reported

willingness to respond. The interview respondents were also given a greater opportunity to explain their choices for long-term strategies, and this suggested that more evidence could emerge from the study regarding *why* teachers would select particular strategies within the samples in England and the United States. More generally, the qualitative interviews also asked individual teachers to define the term bullying for themselves, in order to explore in more depth teachers' understandings of the topic.

6. ***Discussion (Chapter 6):*** The Discussion chapter compares, integrates, and seeks to synthesize the results across the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research. This chapter offers an opportunity to explore how far the findings remain consistent whilst comparing the quantitative and qualitative methodologies. Additionally, it explores the nature of these consistencies and any aspects of divergence between the quantitative and qualitative findings, seeking to synthesize the results and draw overarching conclusions. The Discussion also provides a space to examine how the findings relate to previous research in the field of bullying studies. This chapter seeks to clarify and to explore potential reasons for the differences and similarities in teachers' perspectives between the US and English samples.
7. ***Conclusion (Chapter 7):*** The Conclusion provides a summary of the main findings of the study in relation to the research aims and questions. The chapter also offers an opportunity to explore the study's limitations as well the unique contributions to the field of bullying research. The Conclusion outlines how the research addresses a current gap in the research literature with a novel mixed methods design. The implications of the study's overall findings are further elucidated, and the further contributions to the field are clarified. The study's chapter also provides an opportunity to outline potential future directions for research in the field and possible implications for policy and practice.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Whenever individuals use the term bullying, there is a common assumption that all discussants mean the same thing. Dan Olweus, one of the pioneers of bullying research, explored the term and the appropriate responses to address bullying within the 1970's. Over time, Olweus was able to develop practical strategies for Norwegian schools. For the purposes of this DPhil research, Olweus's definition of bullying is used: "A student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students" (Olweus 1993: 9). As a result, bullying must be *negative* and *repeated* from either one or multiple students. This definition does not include bullying by adults. In line with the writing of Orpinas and Horne (2003:14), bullying is 'a subset of aggression'; however, bullying tends to focus on the aggression of a 'powerful' perpetrator, directed at a specific victim. To conduct this Literature Review, search engines from a collection of online databases (including SOLO, Google Scholar, and Web of Science) were used, focusing on key word searches pertaining to bullying, cyberbullying, teachers' perceptions, and preventative strategies. The Literature Review will reveal the complexities of defining bullying fully and its changing nature with the inclusion of cyberbullying.

2.1.1 Complexities of Defining Bullying: Bullying as a Narrative of Power

In order to reduce bullying, one must acquire an adequate understanding of what it entails. At its simplest form, *bullying can be viewed as a narrative of power*. Like all other narratives, it can be read, learned, and possibly rewritten. Yet, what distinguishes this narrative of power from all others? A negative "*will to power*" suggests that bullying occurs when *power* becomes the end in and of itself, justifying any means to attain authority. Nietzsche (1967: 636) once wrote, "... every specific body strives to become master over all space and to extend its force (its will to power) and to thrust back all that resists its extension. But it continually encounters similar efforts on the part of other bodies and ends by coming to an arrangement ("union") with those of them that are

sufficiently related to it...”. As children acquire an ability to control their surroundings (whether within the physical or cyber space), the question comes of what checks or balances exist to monitor and to guide such newly experienced agency? What power systems already established assume the responsibility to understand and to respond to those dangerously asserting their authority? Here comes an important distinction between *positive power* (exercised by the school) and *negative power* (wielded by the bully). Power assumes the role of social currency, which bullies and administrations assert in order to gain *legitimacy*. By punishing what they deem deviant, bullies and administrators acquire physical manifestations of power, reasserting positionality within a social hierarchy. However, there are questions as to how the administration’s role and response to bullying differs from that of teachers themselves (Kennedy, Russom, and Kevorkian 2012). The bully must establish a balance of visibility: the bully must display visible forms of punishment among peers to gain power, while also remaining invisible to administrators and teachers in order to remain a sustainable presence.

Among peers, children will be the first to know of the reality of bullying. Such information proves vital for survival. Public knowledge emerges from the reality of the bystander effect. In their description of the bystander effect, Hawley and Williford write (2015: 7), “The more people who witness an event, the less likely that any one of them will interpret the event as a problem warranting intervention.” Other students, instead of interfering, become mesmerized; an act of bullying becomes a grand spectacle. Like a crowd of moviegoers, other students may not seek to alter the balance of power, but rather to learn from it (for such information may prove vital for their security). Unlike modern punishment systems, the bully arises as a force from civil society, wielding self-generated rules he or she feels the need to enforce in order to gain satisfaction or authority among peers. Echoing Foucault’s (1979: 5) views on punishment in western society, bullies can attain a certain “authority” that emerges tenuously (not fostering respect but rather fear). Manifestations of power seek to define what is right by highlighting and punishing what is wrong in public view. Such scapegoating seeks to legitimize the authority of the powerful with expressions of agency (such as punishment) while sacrificing those forces he or she deems deviant. The bystander effect among peers represents an inherent fascination with these displays of power. The victimizer utilizes

verbal, relational, cyber and physical means to ensure that the victim experiences estrangement and pain while the bystander vicariously experiences the challenge of resisting the bully's authority. After victimization, the victim may seek to transfer his or her sense of inferiority onto others through bullying, thereby becoming the same force he or she fears.

The ultimate paradox in the world of bullying is that although the bully remains known to peers, their actions are incredibly hard to identify for administrators and teachers. Marshall reflects on Foucault's notion of modern discipline by reflecting, "punishment is instead to be private, secluded behind walls, and behind legal and human science knowledge" (Marshall 2007: 86). The bully may operate under the same framework. In order to survive within the greater context of the school, the individual must both publicize actions to peers, while simultaneously becoming invisible to teachers and administrators. Newer platforms such as cyberbullying emerge (which publish posts to peer groups, while evading teacher attention). Research has shown that it is very hard for teachers to monitor online platforms (Rosenberg and Asterhan 2018; Cassidy et al. 2012). The bully adopts a very real interest to remain invisible within the power structure, the same way that peers strive to remain invisible to the bully. If the bully displays deviant behavior before a teacher, they too will be punished, much the same way that their victims would be punished for displaying "difference." Hence, the bully, in an attempt to avoid being socialized by the school administration, may operate under a "shroud of secrecy." The exception to this rule is the bully victim, who responds without full consideration for how to remain secret.

However, bullying as a concept does not remain immutable, yet constantly shifts over time. Research has suggested that schools with high peer victimization can predict higher bullying (Yang et al. 2018). There is already research that the manifestation of bullying and the response often depends on the context (Smith et al. 2016; Musheno 2011). Bullying can build upon itself within a school culture, forming a complex structured network that reinforces its presence. Teachers reported in interviews that although the reasons for bullying may be similar, the expression changes. An understanding of intergroup processes could elucidate the nature of its existence (Palmer and Abbott 2018). While younger students are recorded to have more physical cases of

victimization, some surveys of adolescents have found a 28% rate of bullying which is often very complex (Rose et al. 2011: 114-119). What this suggests is that bullies may *learn* from punishment systems the most *efficient* mechanism for gaining status without being punished as time progresses. Specifically, one school in Boston was found to have had a bullying rate of 49% while teachers at that same school predicted that only 15% of the students were being bullied (Rose et al. 2011: 123). With new forms of social media, cyberbullying is also on the rise. The past ten years have traced the rapid increase in cyberbullying, leading to administrations with markedly less evidence to trace these negative actions. This is especially problematic when students suggest that they do not trust that their teachers are able to deal with cyberbullying (Mark and Ratliffe 2011). More strategies adopted from DASI (Dynamic Approaches to School Improvement) might be a helpful framework for interpreting responses in light of the different types of bullying faced and the strengths/abilities within each school (Kyriakides et al. 2014).

Bullying by its very nature is a *social act*. A bully cannot exist on an island, because there is no person to victimize, no bystander to intimidate or impress. If one were to imagine a play about a bully, there would be a whole cast: the teachers, the administrators, the other students, the parents, the victim, the school counselors, the bully, and the educational researcher. So, the question becomes, what role does each of these individuals play in either contributing or limiting bullying as a phenomenon? What are the perceptions of how their actions will affect the overall plot? Unfortunately, some of these characters feel that they cannot change the story, and they reproduce the scripts that have been handed to them instead of improvising a solution. Each character has a different excuse for the phenomena. The children will claim that bullies are more powerful, and they acquiesce for fear of retribution (while the administrator may claim that they did not see anything resembling bullying in their schools, so the phenomenon must not exist).

Table 2.1: Different Roles in Bullying Scenarios

	Victim	Not Victim
Bully	Bully-Victim	Bully
Not Bully	Victim	Bystander

Bully-victims are victims that become bullies (Farmer et al. 2010; Holt and Espelage 2006). They often share very common characteristics, enforcing a sense of *isolation*. According to longitudinal studies, bully-victims are “lonely” and “less able to form friendships” (Lereya et al. 2015: 1462). The fact that such students may find it difficult to form relationships with peers further precludes bully-victims from “developing social skills” or “receiving support”, which limits their ability to change (Lereya et al. 2015: 1468). In this situation, the victims learn from the bully, because social isolation forces them to define interaction with peers in terms of their relationship with the bully. As the only form of social interaction, the bully-victim receives a very limited notion of appropriate human behavior among peers. Hence, the actions of the bully-victim often revolve around a sense of isolation, further limiting the capacity of the individual to relate and to form meaningful relationships that can foster empathy and understanding.

Bullying occurs within a social realm, and those roles can shift over time. It is imperative for researchers to recognize that each of these terms assumes a certain *flexibility*, as the very term victim-bully suggests that the victims of today could be the bullies of tomorrow. In an interesting research project conducted in America, Farmer et al. (2010: 365) pointed out there were three main groups connected to bullying: a bully, a victim, and a bully-victim. Research suggests that victims often do not feel that the school is acting appropriately to better their situation, perhaps leading to an increased sense of isolation (Rigby 2017). The term bully-victim suggests that the victim may have learned the tactics from a bully and transferred those same tactics against a new generation of victims. The roles of victim and bully are therefore fluid notions, and can change rapidly depending on the situation. The challenge for defining bullying becomes the challenge of defining the *intent*. While a bully-victim may victimize their bully as a form of retribution, the bully may intend to acquire additional social standing among peers and may use this violence as a way to preserve authority. Such a distinction suggests that there should be alternative mechanisms for dealing with different students, because the reason for bullying differs.

Indeed, a successful response must provide relevant messaging for bullies *and* bully-victims. For example, a bully from a fairly respected background in the school community may act in “focused efforts to solidify one’s position in the classroom social structure and to establish social dominance” (Farmer et al. 2010: 386). While the popular bully is using violence to maintain order in a “social world” the bully-victim will be using bullying to “fight against a social system that keeps them on the periphery” (Ibid). In particular these bully-victims may require training in social skills in order to ensure that they can fit in within the social context without resorting to alternative forms of violence. No matter the type of the situation, this complexity highlights how the teachers potentially need greater training in order to understand the specific causes of bullying.

This nuanced response to bully-victims suggests that the reason for why it emerges depends on the situation. As mentioned earlier, victimization leads to many psychological effects, such as “a heightened expectation of threat and danger” (Lereya et al. 2015: 1468). Some psychologists claim that this increased sensitivity to threats leads to other negative side effects such as “impulsivity”, “aggression”, and “depression” (Ibid). With this concoction of heightened emotions, an individual is much more likely to resist the aggressor violently or to channel aggression on to another individual.

2.2 Seriousness of Bullying

While causal influence is difficult to prove, it becomes readily apparent from research in the field that there is a high correspondence with the level of bullying an individual has experienced and socio-emotional difficulties. While some consider bullying a very natural part of “growing up”, it becomes much less easy to justify the phenomenon as a whole when one considers the long-term deleterious effects that this phenomena has on an individual’s ability to live and to cope in the future. Copeland, Wolke, Angold, and Costello (2013: 419) wrote, “Victims and bullies/victims had elevated rates of young adult psychiatric disorders, but also elevated rates of childhood psychiatric disorders and family hardships.” This comes at a very great price when one considers how psychiatric disorders could potentially have lasting impacts on future relationships within peer groups and families, thereby serving as a catalytic effect to the

multiple individuals affected by the issue. Using categorical dependent variables, victims were three times as likely to experience panic attacks or depression when compared to non-victims and about five times as likely to experience agoraphobia or anxiety disorders (Copeland, Wolke, Angold, and Costello 2013: 421). Research is also trying to explore how the nature of cybervictims might differ from more traditional forms of bullying, thereby having different needs to heal (Brandau and Evanson 2018). This suggests that victims could potentially experience higher levels of stress and sadness in future events (unrelated to the original incident) just because they were victimized at a younger age.

Victims have also been known to internalize a sense of “learned” inferiority and use this to harm themselves. Instead of the typical situation of a bully being the obvious source of a bloody nose or black eye, bullies now furtively make fun of others, leading to an *internalized* sense of worthlessness within the victim. Specifically in the US, suicide ranked as one of the top three reasons for death among young people (Quinland-Davidson 2014:262). The suicide rate has tripled among young individuals from ages 15-24 over the last 25 years (“Explaining the Rise” Online). The rate of student suicides has drastically increased by 56% within the US between 2007 and 2016 (Curtin, Heron, Miniño 2018). The UK also experienced over a 50% increase in the number of student suicides over the same time period (Coughlan 2018). At the same time, teachers often feel unprepared to deal with these issues, only creating a catalytic effect in which students are unable to receive the support that they need. This is particularly problematic when research suggests that victims may be targeted because of ethnicity, language, appearance, sexual preference or disability, aspects closely linked to identity (Berry 2018; Chemaly 2019; Ashburner et al. 2019). As a result, further training is needed in order to ensure that teachers can be prepared to identify and to deal with these situations in diverse classrooms. These policies may have differing effects based on the types of bullying and the specific difficulty experienced by the victim (Seelman and Walker 2018).

In addition to the very serious social and emotional effects of bullying, it also has many logistical effects for the educational system. Many individuals miss school, wasting millions of dollars of educational spending. For example, DeLara quotes the Center for Disease Control, highlighting that 1 out of 20 high school students in America

skip school out of “safety concerns” (DeLara 2008: 73). When looking further into the issue, DeLara (2008: 74) uncovered striking information in the United States as to the nature of this bullying (83% of girls and 73% of boys reported being sexually harassed at schools). The pervasive nature of this type of bullying highlights how action needs to be taken soon in order to help protect and to promote a community that is respectful of all individuals.

Indeed, the inability to respond to bullying has very real security implications for the future. In particular, Rose, Monda-Amaya and Espelage (2011: 114) quoted a study by Vossekuil that highlighted how the Department of Education and The Secret Service in the US concluded that 71% of the active shooters on campuses had been bullied before the event. Hence, bullying poses a security threat for the greater society for the short and long-term.

Up to this point, the review has covered the harms for victims. However, letting bullying continue also has significant impacts for others in the school community. Schoolwide bullying could potentially reduce the level of student engagement, thereby affecting school culture and academic performance (Lacey, Cornell, Konold 2017). Research suggests bullies feel they have less support from teachers (Ertesvåg 2016). This suggests that teacher engagement with students can influence multiple features of student life. Additionally, permitting bullying directly affects the socio-emotional development of the bully. In the US, studies have shown that “60% of boys who bullied in middle school and high school were later convicted of one or more crimes before they reached the age of 25, and 40% of those had three or more convictions” (Department of Education 2011: 3). Hence, dealing with bullying at an early age is in the long-term interest of society. If bullies get away with their actions, it is easier for them to internalize a set of norms that enable them to create more violence in the future.

Socioeconomic status (SES) is an interesting perspective for analyzing the concept of *bullying*. It provides an important lens through which an individual can understand the greater implications for the inequality present within a society, and how these implications manifest themselves within the interactions of peers. However, when analyzing the impacts of socioeconomic status on bullying, Wolke and Tippett (2014: 48) write, “SES provides little guidance for targeted intervention, and all schools and

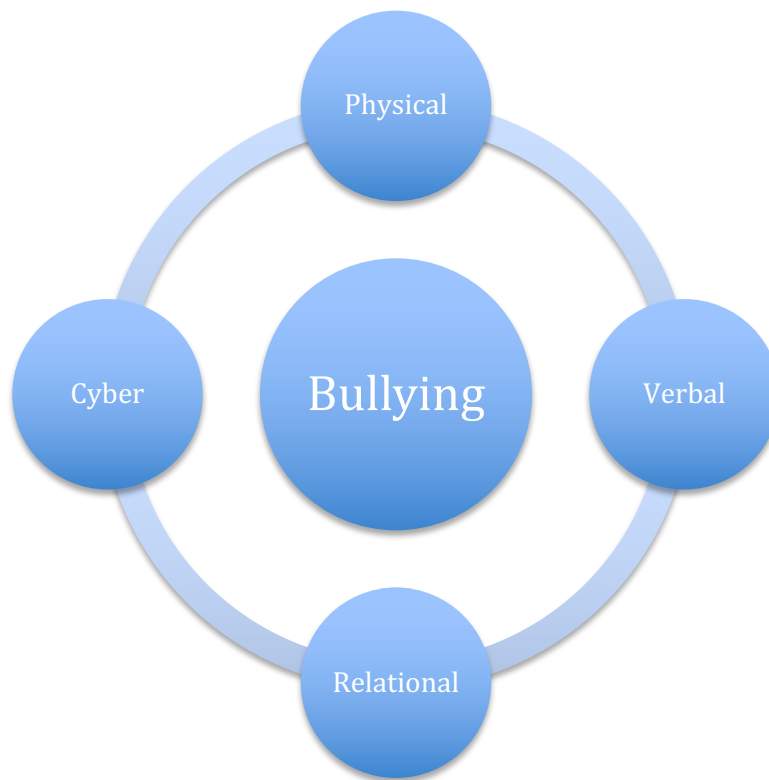
children, not just those with more socioeconomic deprivation, should be targeted to reduce the adverse effects of bullying.” Hence, bullying, as a social phenomenon presents itself across all different socioeconomic levels, suggesting that bullies need to be addressed at all levels of our society. However, when exploring “whom” were the targets of this victimization, Wolke and Tippett (2014: 50) discovered that victims were typically 52% more likely to be from low socioeconomic backgrounds. So, although the bullies might be from all different socioeconomic levels, they often chose poorer children to target. Additionally, Wolke and Tippet (2014: 53) found that victim-bullies were 71% more likely to come from low socioeconomic backgrounds. When analyzing the reasons for why the targets of bullying were often from lower socioeconomic backgrounds Wolke and Tippett provided multiple reasons. Firstly, consistent with other research mentioned in this report, the researchers claimed that those that were *different* often became the targets of attack. Wolke and Tippet (2014: 55) write that the inability “... to afford lifestyle goods or resources available to the rest of the peer group might have singled out children for victimization by their peers.” Hence, symbols of power often associated with nicer clothes with established brands could potentially afford a certain *protection* to the wearers, while used clothes appearing different could be the focus of the next possible victimization (Williams and Littlefield 2018). Wolke and Tippett (2014) point out that other factors associated with being from a family in a low socioeconomic status such as violence and abuse in the household can make it harder for these children to form lasting relationships with their peers. Additionally, children that did have trouble interacting with peers from a higher socioeconomic level were more likely to receive psychological counseling or other additional social support based on the ability of the parents of the school system to afford better options (Ibid). What this suggests is that individuals from different socioeconomic backgrounds, although they may sometimes face the same issues, have a different set of support systems created to help them navigate their emotional worlds.

Although socioeconomic status did not necessarily correspond with a higher percentage of bullying, the research does suggest that greater inequality within the overall society does correspond with a higher level of bullying within the school. Wolke and Tippett (2014: 57) write, “Higher rates of bullying were found in countries where social

inequality is greatest. This was interpreted that in highly unequal societies in terms of resources, there was greater acceptance of getting ahead by any means ...”. Violence and bullying in schools may also be a reflection of more societal elements framing the structure of its existence (Cremin and Guilherme 2016). What this suggests is that bullies that live in a society that supports values of independence and success by any means as opposed to cooperation and communication tend to “internalize” those values and act on them since there are not as many systems developed to prevent the bully from exerting his or her influence in this way. From this perspective, Wolke and Tippett (Ibid) recommend that researchers look at this problem from a “societal level” in order to understand the potential threats within a school community of a particular region displaying inequality.

2.3 Different Types of Bullying Explained

Figure 2.1: Different Types of Bullying



As seen from Figure 2.1, there are four main forms of bullying: physical, relational, verbal, and the newer phenomenon of cyber-bullying. An understanding of the differences between these types of bullying will be important for interpreting the type of response (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Wachs et al. 2018). Physical bullying involves the use of physical force to inflict pain upon another. Verbal bullying is bullying that includes words making fun or threatening another individual, and the literature suggests that it is the most apparent form (Gumuseli, Hacifazlioglu, and Cakmak 2014). However, relational bullying is the most complex form of bullying, often occurring more covertly and damaging relationships. “Discriminating” and “taking advantage” of another student are good examples of this type of bullying. Cyberbullying includes those “negative actions” that happen via electronic messaging (including computers and cell phones), causing individuals to feel victimized. However, it is important to note, the cyber victimization could be a combination of relational and verbal abuse from peers, taking place in a virtual realm and/or include threats of future physical violence. These different types of bullying can interact and overlap, forming a very complex network of victimization.

Typically, physical bullying is the most “well known” form of bullying. Yet, as time continues, individuals are becoming more aware of the insidious nature of the less popular forms of bullying such as cyber and relational bullying. The Master’s Dissertation I conducted prior to the DPhil revealed that (between physical, verbal, and relational bullying) teachers across the US *and* England considered physical bullying to be most serious (Hurtubise 2013). However, relational bullying was not considered as serious. This comes at a very high price, as relational bullying often allows an aggressor to assert superiority over victims covertly. Without leaving physical scars, the bully can find a way to act unnoticed and therefore unpunished. Instead of a physical threat, psychological bullying can be seen as a threat of ideas, a threat of personhood, thereby threatening the identity of the victim.

2.3.1 Indirect and Direct forms of Bullying

Up to this point in the literature review, the framework has categorized bullying as either physical, verbal, relational, or cyber. However, there is another dimension: the

direct and the indirect forms of bullying. Baldry (2004: 343) writes, “Bullying others directly by hitting, threatening, or calling names is not a significant predictor of the poor mental and somatic health of youngsters, whereas indirect bullying (spreading rumors or not talking to someone on purpose) does significantly predict anxiety and depression, as well as withdrawn behaviors.” What is important about this analysis is that it suggests that bullying differs in terms of its expression and its effects. Direct bullying usually manifests itself within physical or verbal forms, whereas indirect forms are more relational and social in nature.

2.3.2 Cyberbullying: Secret Spectacle and Public Platform

The information age is upon us. The power of technology yields countless blessings in the form of drastic improvements in communication and productive capacity. More particularly, the sociologist Manuel Castells reflects on the social dimension of such a change: “We are just entering a new stage in which culture refers to culture, having superseded nature to the point that nature is artificially revived (‘preserved’) as a cultural form ... ” (Castells 2000: 508). Hence, reality is not only communicated via the information age, but also “reconstructed” through the information shared within this new emerging social reality (ibid). This so called “mirror” does not only reflect the physical reality, but also creates a new social realm in which bullying can take place on an even grander scale. Castells’s argument suggests that we are approaching the birth of a *new* social reality based upon information and our understandings of that information within a social context.

Cyberbullying research is starting to address and recognize the importance of understanding its difference across cultures (Shapka, Onditi, Collie, and Lapid-Lefler 2018; Baek and Bullock 2014; Barlett, Gentile Anderson, Suzuki, Sakamoto, Yamaoka, and Katsura 2014). There are many factors mediated by culture increasing the likelihood of cyberbullying, making it much more challenging to monitor the actions of the students. Although there are community standards elucidated on social media platforms, there are questions of how well these values are internalized within the users (Bhugawat 2019: 92). There are also question of whether social media sites have the responsibility to detect

automatically these cases of cyberbullying (Van Royen et al. 2015). In a way, cyberbullying represents the “democratization” of bullying, because physically strong students are no longer the only ones with the ability to victimize others, meaning that more people with differing intents could get involved. Indeed, anyone with an internet connection can participate anonymously. Even the nature of participation seems blurred, when bystanders can become hostile merely by sharing information (Kyriacou and Zuin 2018). The tech savvy nature of the students along with the unrestricted accessibility of the internet increases the likelihood of cyberbullying (Agaston et al. 2007: 59). Even when there is protocol to protect students in the school, individuals have learned additional ways to avoid the systems set up to block individuals from accessing social network sites (60). At the same time, there are ethical issues in terms of whether monitoring is permissible within a school context (Perry-Hazan and Birnhack 2018; Hope 2015).

Without the ability to monitor these virtual communities, teachers need training and support. One of the challenges according to recent literature is that the child’s ability to cause harm to another is rising at a faster rate than the ability for teachers to realize the lasting harm. Although a vast majority of teachers realize that cyberbullying is harmful, some studies have shown that 25% of teachers claim that cyberbullying does not have long lasting effects *and* “prepares students for life” (Stauffer et al. 2012: 353). At the same time, research suggests that the current trainings to counter cyberbullying are not enough (Paulon et al. 2012). As a result, if teachers do not recognize the importance of the issue and the training seems ineffective, it will be challenging to implement any lasting change.

In addition to the problem that not all teachers seem to realize the dangers of cyberbullying, even when cyberbullying is considered a problem, the bullies often victimize anonymously. For example, Stauffer et al. (2012) cites multiple studies that have shown that up to 50% of victims do not know the identities of their cyberbullies. Traditionally, bullying occurred in a very easy to understand context, where a bully would pick on a victim in the center of the schoolyard or on the way to or from school. However, at this moment in history, bullies can potentially enjoy a certain “amnesty” because it can be difficult to trace them. Even the policies around freedom of speech

may seem to shift on digital platforms, potentially making it harder to identify what constitutes cyberbullying or harassment and how one should respond (Brison and Gelber 2019; Citron 2019). In such a circumstance, it seems that the interventions would need to focus on preventative trainings for all students and counseling for victims with a clear elucidation of what cyberbullying entails.

An intervention against cyberbullying depends on a teacher's confidence in the program. Admittedly, bullying is a complicated topic, with many overlapping interests and motivations. However, the expectation of a failing intervention may serve as a self-fulfilling prophecy. Some studies have shown that up to 60% of teachers claim that they are uncertain whether implementing an anti-cyberbullying program would actually work in schools (Stauffer et al. 2012: 364). Such a situation is quite dangerous, because even if there was funding, the mere expectation that the program would not succeed could reduce the ability of teachers to respond or to participate in the strategies designed by the program.

2.3.3 Cyberbullying with Phones

As access to technology increases, the means of victimizing others continues to increase via cyberbullying. One of the changes associated with cell phones is now individuals can adopt a social media network at *all times*. However, the messages conveyed on a phone have long-lasting impacts. Studies have shown that the more an individual spends on social media platforms supported by a computer or a phone, the more likely that individual is to cyberbully another individual (Holt et al. 2014: 601).

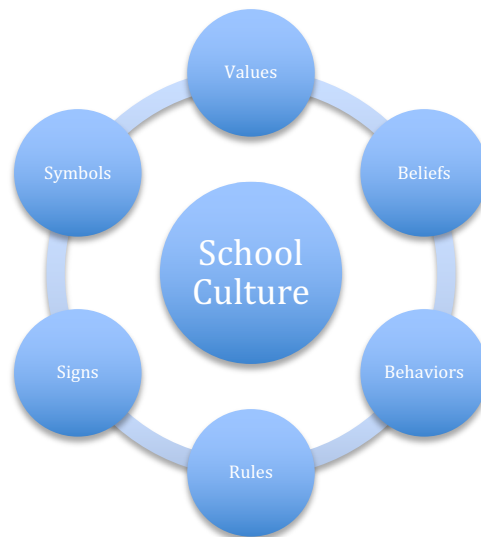
This does not necessarily mean cell phones *cause* cyberbullying, rather it suggests that an individual has a greater chance of saying something offensive, the longer they share information on a social media network. However, the impact is much greater than a statement said to another individual, because often times the statement cannot be reversed, causing a snowball effect whereby others can also see the statement. Since young adults may not have the same level of maturity to consider the effect of their statements, some researchers have gone so far as suggesting that limiting the use of cellular phones in schools could potentially serve as a way to deter the perpetuation of this type of bullying (Holt et al. 2014: 602). However, this cannot eliminate the problem,

because students still have access to cell phones after school, leading to a situation whereby other preventative measures need to be taken. However, as a new field of study, it would be interesting to still see what the differences are in terms of interactions between cell phone cyberbullying and typical cyberbullying on computers (Holt et al. 2014: 610). In order to explore this more fully, the situations provide multiple scenarios including cell phone usage as well as computers to compare the differences.

2.4 Bullying and Organizational Culture

Before an analysis of how school culture could potentially affect bullying rates, it becomes important to define what is meant by *school culture*. Coyle (2008:109 cited Donahoe 1997: 245) defines school culture as “values, beliefs, behaviors, rules, signs, and symbols” within an educational community. What is fascinating about this understanding is how these components overlap with one another. For example, a sign in a school can contain a symbol, reflecting beliefs and values, thereby engendering certain behaviors. As a result, it is important to perceive these concepts as a network of identities, overlapping and acting together in order to steer a particular perception and ethos of the school ecosystem.

Figure 2.2: School Culture (Coyle 2008: 109 cited Donahoe 1997: 245)



Research suggests that school culture can be instrumental in determining the level of bullying in schools. Context is the hidden reality that shifts individual perspectives regarding the level of bullying and the appropriateness of responses. Studies have shown that positive school culture was associated with less overall bullying (Mucherah et al. 2018; Guerra 2011). Guerra (2011: 307) specifically measured school culture in terms of perceptions that “school was a good place to be”, “students/teachers could be trusted”, and “rules were fair”. Other studies have also emphasized the important notion of student/teacher trust as a predictor for less bullying (Veenstra et al. 2014). Some research is also exploring whether and to what extent students and teachers actually have similar perceptions as to the nature of bullying within schools (Bradshaw, Sawyer, and O’Brennan 2007). Many of these ideas within the school community connect back to this key concept of *trust* and *understanding*. Collaboration is another way of framing the responses between teachers in a school culture (Ertesvåg 2014). There are larger questions in terms of how teachers themselves work with one another within a school culture. With the increased challenges teachers face, some research has suggested that there might be ways of changing the traditional mentorship relationship into a ‘co-learner’ paradigm (Jaipal 2009). Such a connection makes sense, when one considers how teachers may need to learn collectively of the nature of bullying within their schools with a more collaborative approach. Trust as a construct is not only the idea that people *believe* that everyone will tell the truth, but trust also suggests that a teacher or administrator would *respond* if there was sufficient evidence that harm would continue if no action occurred. This framework supports the idea that rules do not only exist but are *enforceable* if action needs to be taken.

This discussion of school culture suggests that there are certain characteristics more conducive to creating a culture that would be more *inclusive*. According to Coyle (2008: 105), in her qualitative study, “School culture characteristics that supported implementation included a sense of family, warmth, collaboration, and connections among staff and students, combined with a central focus on learning as the primary mission of the school.” Some research has suggested that trust with teachers could lead to greater chances of bystanders reporting (Jungert, Piroddi, and Thornberg 2016; O’Brien et al. 2018). This framework suggests that a collective understanding of the

importance of *collaboration* fosters a greater sense of collective willpower to address issues as a community and to foster a shared role of what it means to be a teacher. Students not feeling supported by the school could be a reason for why they feel that they are bullied at schools (Lund, Ertesvåg, and Roland 2010). At the same time, some studies suggest that teachers already doubt their school's ability to support students (Rosario Di Stasio, Savage, and Burgos 2016). All of these criteria imply that all individuals need to form *relationships* with others in order to understand and communicate needed information. More than anything, it proposes that there is a "collective responsibility" to ensure individuals feel welcome and trusted in the new situations.

Although creating a more positive school community is a worthwhile focus for school improvement efforts, one important goal might be an overall reduction of bullying. Many teachers reported that a positive school culture could reduce bullying because it specifically emphasized, "program fidelity; use of shared language about bullying; established norms that did not tolerate bullying; realistic expectations for implementation and success; a culture that permeated genuine warmth, caring, connections, and collaboration ... " (Coyle 2008: 115). These results place an emphasis on *shared communication*. The ability to speak and to agree on norms served as a solid foundation for acting and shaping "educational practices." When individuals could build positive relationships among individuals that understood common terminology, norms, and rules, feedback became an essential aspect to protecting the anti-bullying policies. This corresponds with research suggesting that clear elucidation of laws and policies are important for the reduction of bullying (Terry 2018; Lewis and Kern 2018; Sabia and Bass 2017). However, research in the US suggests that that these laws do not necessarily clearly elucidate the strategies needed to implement the policies, perhaps focusing on first amendment rights as opposed to a clear strategic focus for ending bullying in schools (Cascardi et al. 2018; Cornell and Limber 2015). There is also research that suggests that unjust laws could actually foster greater forms of bullying by strengthening norms such as homophobia within society (Rosky 2017). Other researchers also suggest that England needs clearer laws, especially in regards to cyberbullying (El Asam and Samara 2016). Under these contexts, students could feel less comfortable reporting bullying because they might not have clear messaging about community standards. Additionally, the

students also felt as if the issues were handled in a better way because the teachers took the process seriously when they agreed upon the common rules and ideas around the bullying prevention. Hence, common communication and standards may improve the process on multiple levels: from the setting of the policy all the way to the mediation.

In addition to the elements creating implementation of anti-bullying strategies, there were also many obstacles within certain communities. For example, Coyle (2008: 113) reports that, “local community’s lack of openness to change”, “lack of diversity”, and “school’s size” were three main obstacles standing in the way of positive school cultures. All three of these aspects infringe upon the teacher’s ability to form meaningful relationships with students, when in fact students forming positive relationships with teachers is so fundamentally important for student motivation and well being (Ruzek et al. 2016; Wentzel, Muenks, and McNeish 2017; Hendrickx et al. 2017). Large classes ensured that teachers could not meet many of their students on a personal level. The lack of diversity may make it harder for teachers to instill a respect for difference, because it was more challenging for children to conceptualize what diversity meant. When the community becomes entrenched in a particular way of settling issues, it becomes even more difficult for the teachers to achieve a sense of agency because the culture of the status quo dominates the discourse and systems of communication, making it harder for teachers and students to participate democratically on an institutional level.

A major feature of organizational culture is the *perception* of how the administration *would* respond to the given bullying situation. Those expectations shape the accepted practices of others within the school community. In order to prevent organizational bullying, expectations regarding the preventative actions of peers as well as student would be necessary in order to promote a secure community. For example, the entire assumption behind one intervention known as the “Whole-School Violence Prevention Program” is that changing the understanding and the relationships at the school level would ultimately transform the level of safety of students (Unnever and Cornell 2003: 6). Some research programs have focused particularly on administrative perspectives to assess the implementation of anti-bullying policies (Bruening 2018). Hence, the ability to watch and report bullying is crucial in order to ensure that all members of the community understand the nature of the social relations.

Unfortunately, many of those bullied are not able to report their situation due to many peer influences and expectations. For example, Unnever and Cornell (2003: 8) report, "... the majority of students who were bullied failed to report to either teachers or anyone at home." There is a discussion as to the potential reasons for this (individuals did not expect anything to change and victims did not want retributive violence). As a result, peer reporting becomes the main mechanism by which teachers can learn about bullying.

As peers are more often likely to report bullying than the victims, the organizational culture can influence how bystanders respond. One study found that 68% of students reported that their peers would not "frequently try to stop bullying" (Unnever and Cornell 2003: 8). At the same time, 48% reported that they would not be sure if they would *join the bullying* if the victim was someone they did not like (Unnever and Cornell 2003: 14). This complexity threatens the administration's ability to act in bullying situations because administrators may not be aware of unreported incidents.

In addition to the finding that most students usually do not respond, a perception that teachers do not interfere with bullying would also lead to an organizational culture that could *reinforce* violence. For instance, when asked to rate, "*Overall, how much do you think your teachers have done to counteract bullying since school started ... (?)*" 25% of students reported "somewhat", 16% said "fairly little", and 26% claimed "little or nothing" (Unnever and Cornell 2003: 14). What this suggests is that in this particular sample, there is a belief among students that teachers do little about bullying on a large scale, although this may not be the case. This impression can lead to bullies believing that their actions will go unreported and unpunished, thereby increasing the likelihood of their bullying. Hence, any intervention must measure the level of victimization in the school as well as the *expectation* of what individuals would do if they saw bullying. Perspectives about teacher role may differ also within teachers over the course of their careers (Van Der Want et al. 2018; Thomas and Beauchamp 2011).

2.5 Conflict Resolution and Teacher Training

Dan Olweus was a pioneering psychologist in the field of bullying research. He created studies in Norway during the 1980s, evaluating large-scale interventions.

Although the Olweus program was found to be effective (eventually reducing bullying by around 50%) when applied in Norway, there is still debate over the claims and whether it works as well when applied to different contexts. One of the major criticisms stems from the fact that different communities experience different types of bullying. Despite the disparate contexts, the Olweus program was tested in the US multiple times. One study by Bowllan (2011) did not provide any definitive results regarding the effectiveness of the Olweus program. For example, there were overall significant changes for 7th grade girls, yet it was hard to find any statistically significant difference for the other populations within the schools (Bowllan 2011: 167). According to the study, one of the major reasons for the Olweus program is to overcome the bystander effect (situations in which students do not aid victims when they need help). This study highlights a very interesting dichotomy. When the bullying intervention happens, females report 27% less physical bullying cases, yet males have a 21.8% increase in reports of taking part in bullying after the intervention (Bowllan 2011: 171). Yet, it is hard to make any conclusive deductions off the increase in cases of bullying, because the school may have had an inadequate reporting policy, where bullying *was happening* but not addressed because the community did not have a reporting system. New advancements in technology are in the process of being piloted, so the training process may continue to develop into the future (Stahl et al. 2016). At the same time, trainings continue to increase in importance because teachers might have different interpretations on how to respond (Kesner et al. 2016). If the administration does not confirm a description of bullying before the intervention, it is hard to assess how well the construct was addressed as a result of the program, because the interpretation of bullying may have shifted over time, due to the lack of a complete definition.

Although the student data for the effectiveness is inconclusive, the data regarding teacher perception of effectiveness of the antibullying programme is more encouraging. For instance, teachers claimed that there was a 23% increase in willingness to counteract bullying, and the rate of speaking about bullying within the class rose approximately 33% (Bowllan 2011: 172). This finding is helpful because it shows that teachers are engaged more with the issue, yet this engagement does not necessarily lead to an increase or decrease in the level of experienced bullying. Increased awareness can lead to a higher

reporting rate for bullying. In this regard, the Olweus model needs to be further developed to adapt to different contexts in order to ensure that teachers can steer their motivation in a credible and effective intervention with lasting impact on the relevant community. However, research suggests that many teachers lack the confidence for helping victims of bullying, and often feel as if they cannot deal with bullying more generally (Sokol et al. 2016; Shamsi et al. 2019). For more recent forms of cyberbullying, the research suggests that teachers do not feel well prepared to counter it at this time (Yot-Dominguez et al. 2019).

2.6 Theory of Bullying: Secrecy

Moral education is an inevitable occurrence, whether or not it becomes a formalized aspect of the school curriculum. When asking children about the causes of bullying, Thornberg argued that bullying is a form of “social learning” (2010: 316). Whether or not teachers create a curriculum of empathy and understanding, bullies set a lesson plan by showing to their peers how they can get away with the suffering of others with unpunished actions. Individuals can be so inundated with this *makeshift recess curriculum*, that the constructs become accepted due to a “familiarization process” (Thornberg 2010: 319).

When teachers report that they do not see bullying, it is not necessarily the fault of the teacher. What it means is that there are two forms of bullying: the public and the private. Instead of attacking another student in the center of the schoolyard, a bully may create a *secret* system of punishment, where chiding remarks and deriding comments place another student in a perpetual state of fear. Comments may threaten future physical punishments, suggesting that the individual can be harmed at any time for being different. As a result, a victim learns a sense of *perennial caution*. The exponential rise in cyberbullying parallels this very real process of internalized insufficiency. When someone logs onto a computer and views threatening images and words, school administrators may not see the victimization, and therefore the bully enjoys anonymity. Foucault (1977: 202-203) writes, “He who is subjected to a field of visibility, and who knows it, assumes responsibility for the constraints of power; he makes them play

spontaneously upon himself; he inscribes in himself the power relation in which he simultaneously plays both roles; he becomes the principle of his own subjection.” Bullying may not subject their victims to *public* harm in the eyes of the administration, because that would curtail its continuation. Instead, bullies may instill a sense of fear within their victims, allowing bullies to control the actions and mindsets of others *secretly*.

Bullying may thrive on a *colluding silence*, practiced by members of a community including bullies, victims, and bystanders. To resist and to report has implications of being “crazy”, while to accept and to remain silent could entail normalcy. As DeLara (2008: 91) reports in the large scale interviews, “As long as those who act out against being bullied can be viewed as unstable or mentally ill, even by their own peers, the school as a system does not have to make any significant corrections to system-wide patterns.” Hence, victims conforming and accepting a culture of violence can be interpreted as a culture of peace from the perspective of administrators. Also, those with mental health issues may be bullied because they have social and emotional challenges that make them a target that only exacerbates their future treatment.

This review of the literature suggests that bullies may target that which they deem different or *deviant*. By punishing what they consider to be different from themselves, bullies could form a mini “social hierarchy” within the already present organizational structure of the school. However, in order survive as a social system within the larger “school framework,” bullies might exercise their superiority confidentially. This could potentially be an explanation for the lowering rates of physical bullying, yet the increased rates of anonymous cyberbullying and relational bullying. Since these types of aggression may take place secretly within or outside of the school context, these actions could go unpunished. As a result, many students might internalize a sense of inferiority, since to report the abuse would admit that they are victims. Not reporting would enable additional harms. This would remain consistent with the information from the US Department of Education, claiming only 33% of students actually report to an adult when they are being bullied (Department of Education 2011: 37).

In response, the way to change this paradigm of secrecy could be to form a public discussion, so that victims, bullies, and teachers recognize that relational, verbal, and

cyberbullying are all social realities. The consequences of such actions need to be decided as a community. Research already suggests that teachers desire clear consequences for bullying in order to have a more organized and consistent strategy (Burger, Dagmer, Sprober, Bauman, and Rigby 2015). School administration must detail the ramifications for bullying behavior as well as establish a process by which individuals can feel comfortable to report bullying.

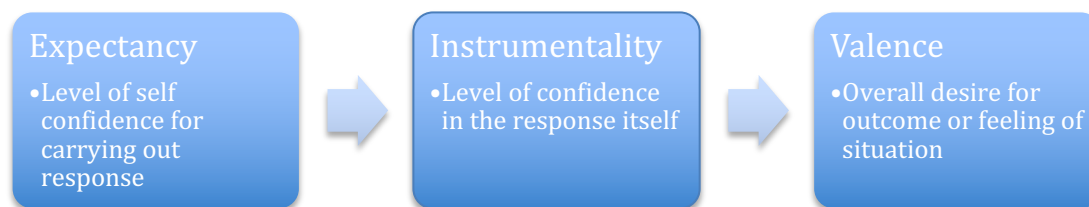
2.7 Theory of Responses

In order to understand the theory behind the implementation of an anti-bullying program, it is important to uncover the basic motivations for responding. Fundamentally, it is critical to identify how teachers interpret different types of bullying and their attributes to address or resolve them.

2.7.1 Expectancy Theory

Within expectancy theory, motivation pertains to three factors: expectancy, instrumentality, and valence (Vroom 1964, 2007). Expectancy consists of the perception that an individual is skilled at performing a task. Instrumentality is the perception that a good performance with the selected task will lead to a fundamental and important change. Valence reflects the importance the individual places on the end result. The greater these three factors, the greater the likelihood that an individual gets involved and responds in the situation.

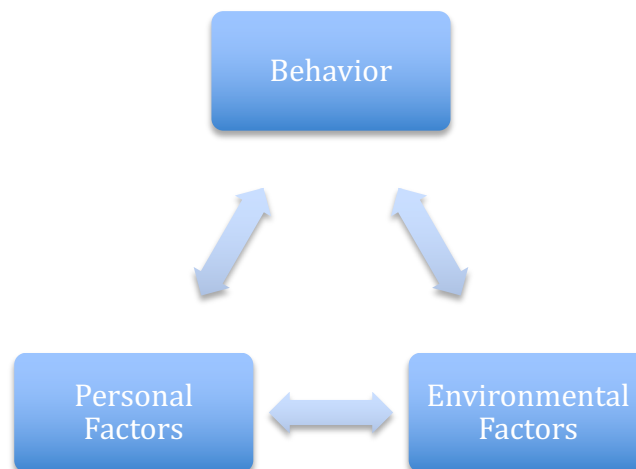
Figure 2.3: Outline of Expectancy Theory



2.7.2 Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) highlights the interrelation between personal factors, environmental factors, and eventual behaviors (Bandura 1986, 1989, 2001, 2018). In particular, SCT emphasizes the interrelation within something called reciprocal determinism (first named “reciprocal causation”) (Bandura 1989). Under this logic, personal factors, and environmental factors, and behaviors mutually influence one another. Bandura also describes self-efficacy as a part of his theory, equating it with “ ... people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives” (Bandura 1989: 1175). His environmental factors pertain more to the surrounding culture and setting that would facilitate the completion of a task. Bandura (2001: 4) emphasizes the importance of the environment by stating, “The nature of these experiences is, of course, heavily dependent on the types of social and physical environments people select and construct.” This cultural and environmental perspective could be important for interpreting teacher perceptions across countries (as seen in the work of Aun et al. 2006). Even within countries, it is important to understand how different stakeholders interact between environments due to the dynamic nature of cyberbullying (Cohen-Almogor 2018). Bandura suggests that the interrelation between personal and environmental factors would in turn affect the behaviors selected by an individual.

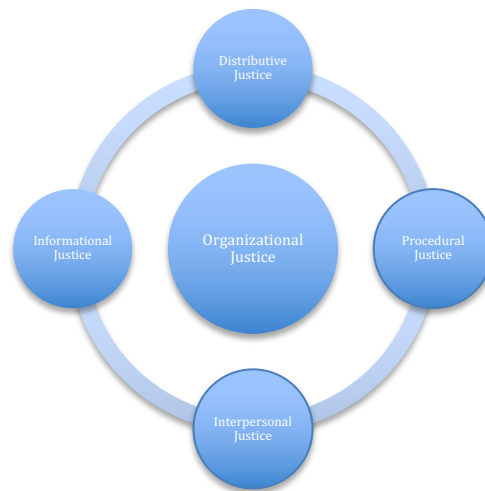
Figure 2.4: Social Cognitive Theory



2.7.3 Organizational Justice Theory

The research emphasizes the importance of positive school culture. In order to actualize such a space, a theory is needed to identify the aspects of a just institution promoting positive values. The individuals must perceive that the organization is moral in order to ensure that their actions preserve and conform to that framework. According to organizational justice theory, an institution can be assessed according to distributive, procedural, informational, and interpersonal justice (Harris et al. 2004; Greenberg 1987). Distributive justice represents the perceived fairness in outcomes; procedural justice pertains to the fairness of the processes used by the institution to reach formal decisions; interpersonal justice relates to how well members of the organization are being treated by the institution; informational justice explores how well information is provided for individuals within the organization (Ibid). All of this is important in light of the research that suggests that conceptions of justice more generally within the schools could shape responses to bullying (Jiang et al. 2018).

Figure 2.5: Organizational Justice Theory (Harris et al. 2004; Greenberg 1987)



2.8 The Role of the School Community

Up to this point, the assumption has been that if policies can promote *morality* instead of punishment, bullying will decrease. In the words of Pring, analyzing the work of John Dewey (2007: 123), “The school community ... is essentially a moral community

in which, through participation, the younger person grows as a moral person ...". Hence, democratic participation within a moral context may remain integral for enhancing the individual's growth. The question then becomes, how do we use motivational frameworks (such as Expectancy Theory or Social Cognitive Theory) to promote a culture espousing the principles of organizational justice. Communication is the key ingredient for creating the participation and engagement, necessary to *develop* morality. Pring (2007:17) writes, "Genuine communication requires reciprocity and mutual respect. Each person, in one sense is of equal value in the communicative process, since each has an opinion or viewpoint that is worthy of serious treatment." He looks at the connections between education and democracy as two interlocking concepts, requiring one another in order to function and operate. Pring (ibid) even says that the very foundation of democracy is "mutual respect and shared purposes – and the 'freedom of action', backed by the freed capacity of thought." This would suggest that an educator might need to adopt a more complex role, aware of the multiple aspects and needs of the child (Migliaccio 2015). Bullying limits free action by punishing difference and silencing voices, unable to convey their distress and indignation. Unfortunately, violence in schools serves as the major force denying respect and mutual agreement, causing rifts and divisions, with serious psychological and social ramifications.

2.8.1 The Complexity of a Community Response to Bullying

Finding ways to address bullying requires a multifaceted response due to the fact that it is a multifaceted problem. As Galitz and Robert (2014: 182) point out, "At least as important as an actual social problem is the way we react to it. This reaction both sustains and frames the existence of a problem." Without a proper understanding of the root causes, the response will make no sense, and could possibly create unexpected repercussions, thereby complicating the original situation. Unfortunately, the limited consideration of bullying often leads to "paradoxical understandings" according to Galitz and Robert (Ibid). One of the reasons for why they claim this is because bullying is perceived as a form of "dangerization" (meaning the "border between deviant and normal behavior is blurred"), resulting in a sense of "omnipresence" of the phenomenon (Galitz

and Robert 2014: 183). Instead of looking at this issue as a challenge to be targeted, it is more like a gravitational field with constant “potential energy.” As a result, all members within a school community are *potential* victims from an “epidemic” of bullying. Such characterizations could lead to more draconian punitive policies such as zero tolerance, that could engender a negative school climate (APA Zero Tolerance Task force 2008).

One of the major reasons for why bullying exists is because of a lack of communication. Some research suggests that the silence of victims is often quite complex, and barriers such as a lack of confidence or deleterious self-perceptions could reduce reporting rates (Boulton, Boulton, Down, and Sanders 2016). Teachers may not act, because they do not know what is happening. In order to address bullying, teachers must be trained to deal with the increasing complexity of *covert* bullying. Rose et al. (2011:126) have ideas of more “courses in classroom management, social competency, and diversity awareness.” All of these would be important for shaping the idea of the teacher’s role, and the idea of teacher role corresponds with other element of teacher identity such as well being (Sammons, Day, Kington, Gu, Stobart, Smees 2007). This may be altered when teachers define their role differently over the course of their careers (Kington, Reed, and Sammons 2014). Despite all these differences, teachers could have more constituency whilst making decisions about anti-bullying policy at the school level, so that they feel a greater sense of responsibility for the norms adopted across the school (Rose et al. 2011). A specific course outlining the types of perpetration and victimization, with a series of intervention strategies would lead to a greater awareness and resourcefulness for new teachers (Ibid). However, if the policies are not well clarified (as in the case of cyberbullying or online speech), this could lead to potential challenges in terms of the interpretation of said policies within countries (King 2010; Franks 2019).

2.8.2 Bullying Prevention Strategies

According to Sherer and Nickerson (2010: 218), there are two main ways that individuals can influence the bullying process. This includes increasing the level of supervision in traditionally unmonitored areas as well as providing staff training on how

to handle bullying when it does happen. Training teachers without seeing the bullying leads to inaction, whereas intervening without the proper training may be ineffective. Hence, awareness of the problem and the skill to react appropriately mark the critical twin targets of an effective strategy. Olweus's strategic model is regarded as democratic, because his approach involves all levels of constituents, including faculty, administrators, counselors, students, *and* parents (Sherer and Nickerson 2010: 219). Parents are viewed as key for unlocking the most significant social environment for bullying prevention: the home itself. Longitudinal studies have shown consistently how significant the culture of the home is for determining whether an individual becomes a bully, and these studies have recommended "strengthening supportive involvement and open communication between children and parents" (Lereya et al. 2015: 1469). Reaching this space requires an added sense of responsibility within the school, because parents of bullies may not be actively involved within their children's education. However, research suggests that parents are not as involved as they could be, despite the importance of proactive parental involvement for dealing with bullying and cyberbullying (Baldry et al. 2019; Meter and Bauman 2018; Elsaesser et al. 2017; Patchin and Hinduja 2018; Doty et al. 2018; Snell 2018; Ostrander et al. 2018). Proper training to address this specific issue could yield many important results, including greater emotional development as well as shared awareness of the level of bullying.

2.9 Additional Motivational Frameworks for Response

When considering the reasons for why and how teachers respond in bullying, it is important to understand and to interpret the connections between different motivational frameworks. One example lies in "Theory of Reasoned Action." Richardson et al. (2012: 174) used this framework for analyzing why individuals would get involved in situations of whistle blowing within organizational frameworks, writing, "TRA (Theory of Reasoned Action) proposes that behavioral intent is the most significant predictor ... (measured) as the function of two factors: (a) one's personal attitude toward the behavior and (b) subjective norms." From this perspective, personal attitudes and subjective norms drive human behaviour. Such a framework provides an interesting perspective, especially

considering when this research project explores subjective norms established within different countries. Upon further clarification, the researchers suggest that personal attitudes are driven by “behavioral beliefs”, connecting well with expectancy theory, especially when considering the beliefs of the effectiveness of the response when compared to a set of alternatives (Ibid). Such norms point to previous concepts of instrumentality and expectancy discussed previously in expectancy theory. One of the important distinctions from Expectancy Theory is how there is a *conscious* deliberation between a set of options (175). Often times, in situations of bullying, the teacher must respond instantaneously, and teachers do not have the time to deliberate *between* responses. This is readily apparent in issues of physical or verbal bullying, where the offense requires *instantaneous* action in order to ensure that the victims feel supported. Since the analysis includes situations requiring quick responses without conscious deliberations within many of the vignettes, this theory becomes interesting for exploring long-term strategies to bullying situations. Yet, it is much harder to conceptualize within instantaneous responses.

As time progressed, Ajzen added to the Theory of Reasoned Action. In addition to the personal attitudes towards the behavior and subjective norms, Ajzen (2012) also added the idea of “perceived behavioral context” (meaning outside factors that could influence the outcome and the perceived challenge of the task). He named his theory the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), because he posited that all three of these factors would affect the intention to act, which then shaped the behavior. Ajzen is quick to emphasize, “... there is no assumption in the TPB that behavioral, normative and control beliefs are formed in a rational, unbiased fashion or that they accurately represent reality.” The level of subjectivity therefore enables flexibility according to different social environments. In terms of the previous critique that there is quite a lot of deliberation according to the Theory of Planned Behavior, Ajzen would respond that his theory does not display such complexity (1121). However, the theory builds on the same variables as Theory of Reasoned Action, and many researchers claim that this theory requires “conscious deliberation” (Richardson et al. 2012: 175), it is challenging to write off the level of conscious decision-making that needs to be made. This criticism becomes more important when one considers TRA and TPB must assess the consequences

between *different* options. Such a system requires a greater degree of deliberation than usual forms of *habitual action*.

2.10 Results from Master's Dissertation

In the process of designing the methodology for this DPhil study, I built on my earlier MSc research (Hurtubise 2013). The Master's dissertation afforded the opportunity to assess the feasibility of a previous methodology applied in the US (Bauman and Del Rio 2006) within a different context (England). The MSc research generated key findings, revealing motivational frameworks and the discrepancies in terms of reporting bullying across the sample of teachers with the United States and England. Yet, more importantly, the results revealed similar trends *across* countries, further highlighting the importance of the original findings. For example, relational bullying was consistently seen as *less serious* than physical bullying by teachers, which suggested that a future anti-bullying curriculum across different contexts should take this finding into consideration when designing a response.

An advantage of mixed methods research designs connects to *adaptability*. Other studies have shown how mixed methods can be quite useful for understanding the complexity of teacher research (Day, Sammons, and Gu 2008). In this particular research, the sequential explanatory strategy conducted within my earlier Master's dissertation provides a foundation for further mixed methods investigation (Hurtubise 2013). Hurtubise (2013) focused on teacher perspectives of verbal, physical, and relational bullying within England, using a similar theoretical structure and methodology of "vignettes" termed scenarios (Bauman and Del Rio 2006).

Major Findings from the Master's Dissertation:

- ***Relational Bullying not Considered as Serious:*** When faced with different bullying scenarios, teachers across the US and England both found *relational* bullying (such as exclusion) not as serious as physical and verbal bullying. Although it may seem obvious that physical bullying intensely impacts students, relational bullying can produce *long-term* ramifications for victims. Semi-

structured interviews follow up with teachers, asking them about their perspectives of relational bullying and in which situations they become more aware of its reality. Different levels of perceived seriousness remains consistent within the research literature of the US (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006). This study suggests that teacher perceptions of different forms of bullying remains consistent across the US and England.

- ***Willingness to Report:*** According to the findings, teachers in England were generally more likely to report cases of bullying to others within the school community. Follow up interview questions regarding the structure of schools and the reporting processes across countries create a greater understanding for *why* this finding occurred.
- ***Reasons for a response:*** A series of different factors correlated highly with responses for the English teachers. Firstly, the *perceived seriousness* and *empathy felt for the victim* were all highly correlated with the willingness to respond (which remains consistent with the findings from the American sample of teachers). Therefore, asking questions about “what determines the seriousness of a bullying situation” could potentially create a more complete understanding across different cultures for *why* teachers would respond or consider a situation as *serious*. Additionally, the findings suggested (that particularly for the English teachers) fostering a *greater sense of confidence in one’s ability* (also known as expectancy) correlated with a *higher* level of response. However, perceived effectiveness of the selected course of action did not necessarily correlate with the willingness to respond, suggesting that only part of “expectancy theory” applies. Therefore, interview questions about how to maintain confidence in different responses are important for understanding how individuals understand and react to the different bullying scenarios.

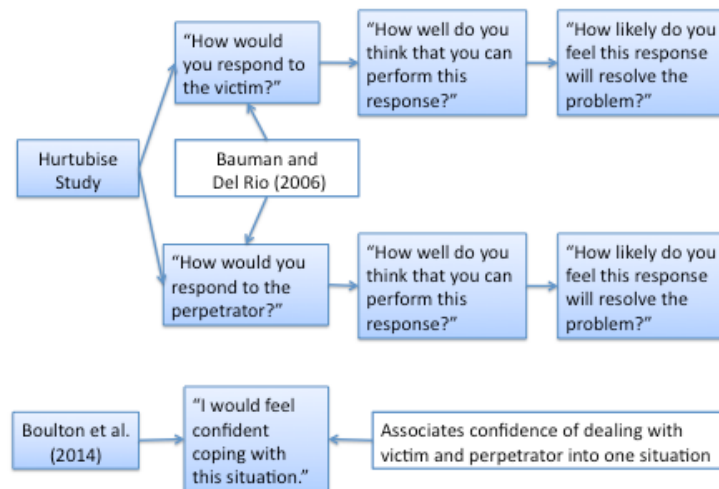
2.11 Reflections on Teachers’ Perceptions Research

A year after the completion of my Master’s Dissertation, Boulton et al. (2014) published an article which replicated the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) study with English teachers. The study, however, maintained many key distinctions from my prior study

(taking place from 2012-2013), in that it only focused on pre-service teachers instead of experienced and new teacher teachers in England and it only focused on English teachers instead of comparing the teachers from the US with England. Additionally, the theoretical rationale for the study differed, shaping the methodological questions that could be explored within the surveys. This study focused on self-efficacy theory and the theory of planned behavior to justify the additional survey questions regarding teachers' perceptions of their abilities (Boulton et al. 2014). However, my prior study focused on expectancy theory and social cognitive theory (thereby requiring mixed methods to understand environmental factors as well).

As a result of the different theoretical frameworks, the surveys looked quite different from the ones used within the Boulton et al. (2014) study. Although Boulton et al. (2014) used similar questions (as both studies adapted the methodology from Bauman and Del Rio (2006)), the Boulton et al. (2014) study differed. In particular, the surveys asked to which extent the teachers agreed with the following statement across different scenarios: "I would feel confident coping with this situation." However, bullying itself poses a complex social phenomenon. The pilot interviews emphasized that it would be very important to respect the *multifaceted* nature of a bullying scenario, as a teacher needs to deal with the victim *and* the perpetrator. Often times, these two sets of responses deal with a completely different set of skills. Instead of asking directly the level of confidence, I prompted the teacher first to ask what they would do with the victim first and then what they would do with the perpetrator, similar to the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) study. However, instead of stopping there, I then asked each of the teachers "How well do you think that you can perform this response?" (Expectancy) and "How likely do you feel this response will resolve the problem?" (Instrumentality).

Figure 2.6: Comparison of Hurtubise (2013) Study with Boulton et al. (2014)

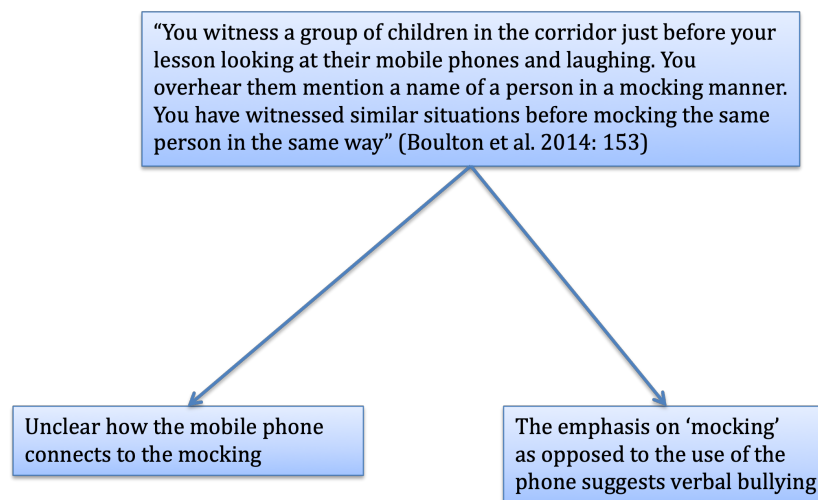


One of the additional key differences was that Boulton et al. (2014) added additional scenarios pertaining to cyberbullying. My MSc dissertation focused on physical, relational, and verbal forms of bullying (similar to the US study conducted by Bauman and Del Rio (2006)) and suggested that replicating the study in a DPhil with a cyber component would be important for future research, writing “... alternative forms of bullying such as cyberbullying are gaining a great deal of attention. Using additional vignettes with these types of scenarios would help researchers to understand possible reactions for these more complex social phenomena” (Hurtubise 2013: 74). Boulton et al. (2014) added two additional cyberbullying scenarios.

Within one cyberbullying vignette, there is a story of a group of children with a cell phone mocking a single child (as shown in Figure 2.6). This scenario seems important within the research framework, as cyberbullying on a cell phone is becoming more common. For example, the scenario shares, “You witness a group of children in the corridor just before your lesson looking at their mobile phones and laughing. You overhear them mention a name of a person in a mocking manner. You have witnessed similar situations before mocking the same person in the same way” (Boulton et al. 2014: 153). However, when piloting this as a potential scenario, some of the teachers were

unclear if the cell phone was actually connected with the bullying scenario. Its mere presence did not necessarily make it a critical factor within the bullying itself, as the students could just as easily be making fun of a student while checking email on a cell phone. As a result, the additional scenario was slightly changed so that the teachers had clear individuals who were “mocking and laughing at an unflattering image of another student” on the cell phone as opposed to mentioning the name of a person while looking at a device. This way the bullying seemed more connected with the actual cell phone as opposed to the cell phone becoming a mere afterthought within the scenario.

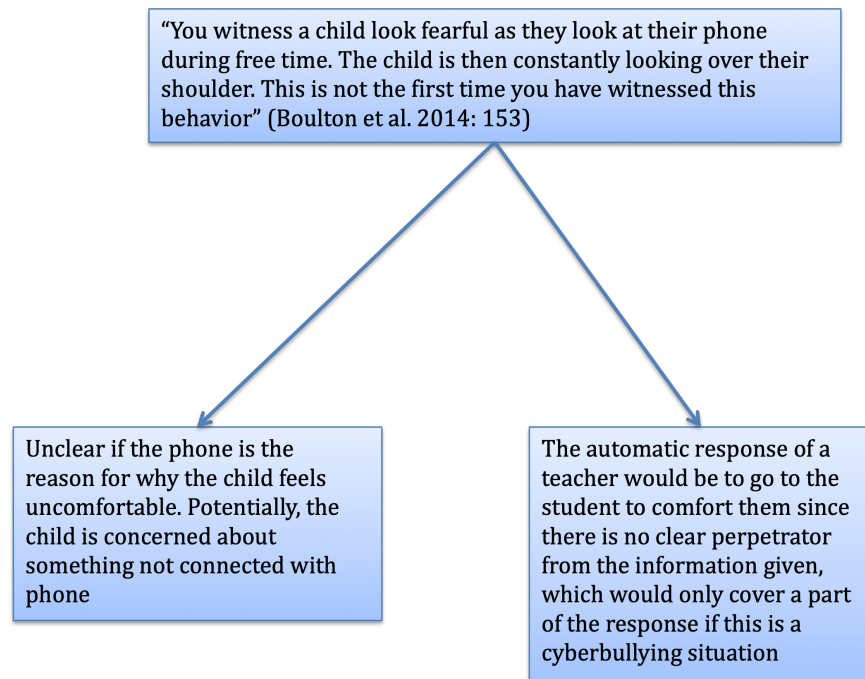
Figure 2.7: Analysis of Boulton et al. (2014:153) First Cyberbullying Scenario



As shown in Figure 2.7, the second scenario that Boulton et al. (2014) presents is a cyberbullying scenario with a child looking at a cell phone. Boulton et al. (2014: 153) write, “You witness a child look fearful as they look at their phone during free time. The child is then constantly looking over their shoulder. This is not the first time you have witnessed this behavior.” However, it becomes unclear why the child is ‘fearful.’ The child can be fearful for a whole host of reasons (whether an upcoming exam or verbal bullying in the hallway), and just because the cell phone is there does not necessarily mean that the child is fearful *because of* the contents on the cell phone. Additionally, it is a little unclear what a fearful child would look like. After pilot interviews with educators,

it became apparent that teachers often do not become aware of such situations by looking at a victim, but by hearing of a cyber situation being reported to them. If they did see a fearful child, the automatic response would be to comfort the child, which is not necessarily the complete response of a known cyberbullying scenario, often dealing with a victim and a perpetrator.

Figure 2.8: Analysis of Boulton et al. (2014:153) Second Cyberbullying Scenario



Following this logic, the study by Stauffer et al. (2012) provides a very relevant research framework. For example, the cyberbullying scenarios seem much more relevant, considering that a majority of the time, teachers shared that students or victims themselves often reported the situation to them directly. This seems much more relevant, because teachers did not participate within the social media network of the students. A number of teachers reported that when they did hear about cyberbullying, it was because either the victim or bystander shared information that was posted within that network. In this framework, the scenarios seem much more realistic in terms of a teacher *being told* about a cyberbullying situation. From this perspective, the Stauffer et al. (2012) study

provides two additional situations adapted to this particular research: a situation in which a student hears of a home cyberbullying scenario and a school cyberbullying scenario. The direct and clear idea of *hearing* about a cyberbullying scenario at home or at school presented a much more common scenario, and the teachers within the pre-pilot thought that this might be likely from their experiences. Also, the generic nature of the framing ensured that the scenarios could be adopted with as little adaptations across different context. As learned from the Master's Degree, some of the verbal threats did not necessarily make sense within different countries, therefore lessening their relevance to different contexts. The generic nature of these scenarios presents a very relevant framework.

Although the scenarios within the Stauffer et al. (2012) research study provide relevant scenarios of cyberbullying *being* reported, I do not completely agree with the ways in which information is gathered regarding the responses. For example, the survey presents the scenarios and then asks, "How likely are you to take the following actions?" After the posed question, the survey then presents eight different strategies. Methodologically, the presence of suggested alternatives may *influence* the ideas of the survey respondents. For example, if a survey respondent has a particular idea of the right way of dealing with a situation and then hears eight different alternatives, one of those alternatives might present a new idea, which they might not have thought about previously, thereby altering the response. As a result, similar to the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) research, this project simply asks the survey respondents to write what they would do, while presenting space for them to respond. This in turn, provides an opportunity for the survey respondents to share their perspectives without having their ideas altered by the methodology.

However, this framework of presenting for ways of dealing with long-term cyberbullying situations seems quite effective. In another part of the survey, Stauffer et al. (2012) poses the question, "How helpful would these bully prevention strategies be in reducing cyberbullying in your school?" After the question Stauffer et al. (2012: 358) provide a list of eleven alternatives. Unlike the first situation, which asks the likelihood of the action, this survey section asked for the perceived effectiveness of the listed strategies without presenting a scenario. From this perspective, the framing does not

influence the decisions of the teachers, because the question does not ask the ‘likelihood of action’ but rather a perception of the action itself. As a result, the framing of the question would not influence the response, since it purely seeks to assess the effectiveness of the given strategy.

Additionally, Boulton et al. (2014) creates a purely quantitative study. As the study focuses primarily on England, as opposed to comparing across different cultures this may make sense, as unpacking the general trends may not be as important as generating statistical findings for a particular environment. However, I have specifically chosen to do a sequential explanatory strategy across different countries, because the statistical findings provide general trends that need to be unpacked with more interviews (as shown within Chapter 3, which discusses the Methodology).

2.12 Questions of Ethics, Questions of Morality

One may ask, who has the right to say that any of these bullying actions are right or wrong? Many may question what one means by “ethics” and “rational decision-making”, especially when analyzing bullying across different world cultures. As Colin Gordon (1995: 427) quotes Foucault: “I don’t believe one can talk in this way of ‘rationalization’ as something given.” Foucault would highlight the absolute nature of one’s dedication to rationality while also emphasizing the “arbitrariness” of its application. Although the rationality as a whole cannot be debated as an objective truth within this thesis, what can be argued is that there are certain beliefs and values that could potentially lead to a more empathetic and caring community. For example, a school espousing values of non-communication would not be willing or able to respond to most bullying situations since those experiencing bullying would be hesitant to report such acts. However, a community espousing open communication would support reporting observed and experienced bullying, leading to an even greater deal of awareness and ability to respond. From a strictly evolutionary perspective, one community could thrive while the other could develop a negative culture. The methods section explores the ethical dimensions of not only defining bullying, but the situations afforded through the *process* of discussing such topics. Ideas such as confidentiality and

responsibility of the researcher remain inherent in the process of exploring the meaning of such term as bullying.

2.13 Concluding Remarks

This Literature Review provides a background for the DPhil research, clarifying a definition of bullying, providing relevant motivational models, and exploring previous research pertaining to teachers' perceptions of bullying in schools (Yoon and Kerber 2003, Bauman and Del Rio 2006, Stauffer et al. 2012; Boulton et al. 2014). The chapter also highlights the complexity of collaborative responses for addressing bullying in schools and provides a justification for a specific focus on teacher perceptions and cyberbullying research. Motivational models such as Expectancy Theory (Vroom 1964; 2007), Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura 1986, 1989, 2001, 2018), and Organizational Justice Theory (Greenberg 1987) are utilized to understand teachers' perceptions of bullying in schools. The next Methodology chapter presents the research questions and the mixed sequential explanatory strategy implemented to address a number of linked research questions.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

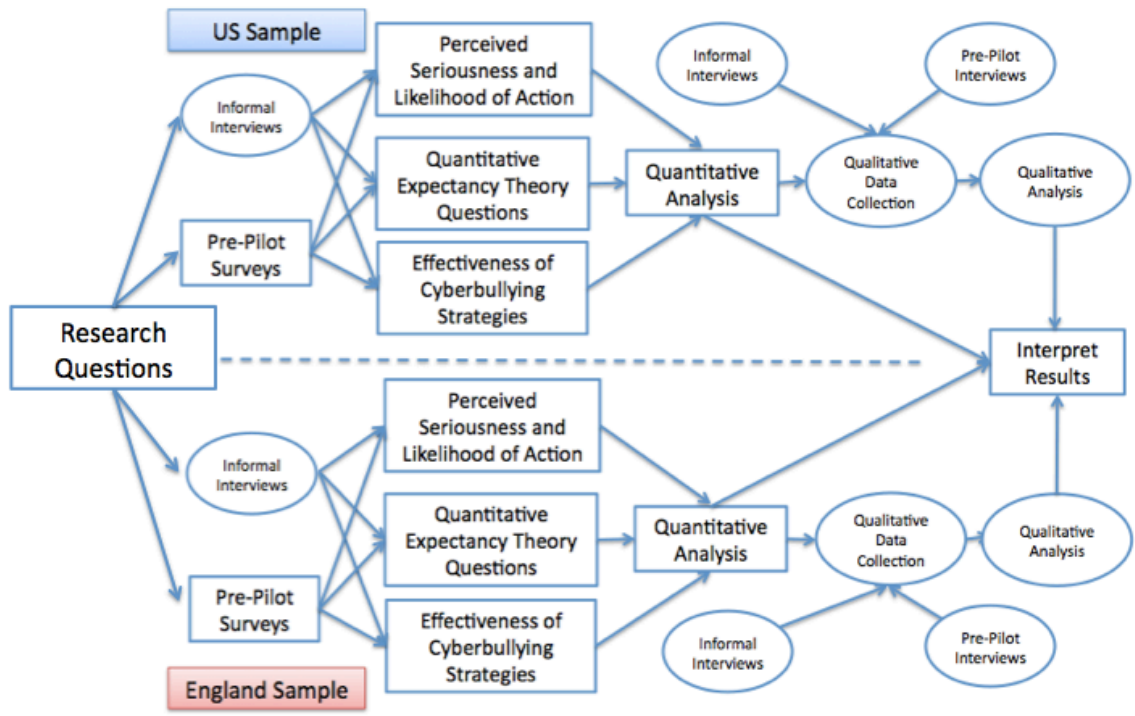
In my research, I adopt a mixed methods design to investigate teacher perceptions of cyberbullying. This methodology section is therefore divided into five main parts. The first section presents a sequential explanatory strategy adopted within the research to answer the research questions. The second section highlights the nature of the pragmatist philosophical stance, highlighting the disadvantages and advantages for applying it within this project. The third section covers the piloting of the different surveys and interviews. The fourth section discusses the research instruments themselves, whilst the fifth section reflects upon the ethical dimensions of researching student bullying.

3.2 Research Aims, Research Questions, and Overview of Project

The overarching aim of this study is to explore and understand teachers' perceptions and responses to different types of bullying (physical, verbal, relational, and cyberbullying) in different country contexts (England and the US). The research seeks to explore both similarities and possible differences between the US and English social contexts -- focusing on teacher perceptions of alternative strategies for dealing with cyberbullying in school. Drawing on Vroom's (1964, 2007) Expectancy Theory and Bandura's (1986, 2018) Social Cognitive Theory, the research explores whether these factors correspond with a higher willingness to respond within differing possible cyberbullying situations (scenarios). Four research questions are addressed:

1. How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies for cyberbullying interventions?
2. How do background factors (such as teacher gender and country) and Expectancy Factors (instrumentality, expectancy, and valence) relate to teacher perceptions and responses?
3. What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying?
4. What is the likelihood of intervention for different scenarios of bullying?

Figure 3.1: Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Strategy



The research questions were addressed with a mixed methods sequential explanatory design, as outlined in Figure 3.1. In this figure, the rectangles indicate quantitative methods and the ovals indicate qualitative methods. The dotted line indicates that the same quantitative and qualitative steps were repeated across samples of teachers from both the United States and England. The study builds on previous survey findings completed prior to the beginning of the research project. The DPhil study was informed by and built on an earlier MSc study that acted as a pilot for the main DPhil. The MSc only studied a sample of teachers in England and did not address the topic of cyberbullying.

The research project first utilizes a series of quantitative surveys in order to address the four research questions (assessing the level of seriousness of each type of bullying scenarios, the likelihood of response based upon different scenarios, the applicability of Expectancy Theory factors, and the perceived effectiveness of long-term strategies to address cyberbullying). Certain aspects from Stauffer et al.'s (2012) study

are drawn on and adapted across England and the United States, especially when exploring teacher perceptions of the effectiveness of strategies for dealing with cyberbullying. The MSc focused on relational, verbal, and physical bullying, whereas the DPhil also explores and gives prime focus to cyberbullying. Based upon the overall quantitative findings, the DPhil research then adds qualitative interviews in order to investigate further and understand the quantitative findings from the survey phase. The qualitative interviews collect more in depth data on teachers' perspectives. The findings from teacher samples in both countries are then compared and combined at the end, to explore similarities and differences in answers to the research questions for England and the United States. The next section provides greater background as to the methodological choices and methods used. Shrauf (2017: 3) writes of mixed methods and sequential explanatory strategies for cross cultural research as an established practice, highlighting the researcher's capacity to understand dynamics across samples of societies at the "microlevel of quotidian situations", "mesolevel of the group", to the "macrolevel of society." As highlighted by Shrauf (2017: 8), it is important to be aware of how different methods interact, "... as results from the first (quantitative) strand shape data collection in the second (qualitative) strand." Hence, the interconnected nature of the methods provides greater opportunities to provide a holistic understanding of teacher perceptions from the samples in England and the US.

3.3 Pragmatist Philosophy and Mixed Methods

A philosophical tradition is frequently associated with the use of a particular methodology. Yet, this study invites the combination of different research methods from quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative methods study patterns and associations and also test the validity of certain constructs. They also see how far different measures drawn from Expectancy Theory predict the likelihood of teacher response in different bullying situations (scenarios) presented in the survey. The qualitative methods further investigate teachers' views on the meanings of the statistical trends identified from the surveys using interviews. As Greene (2012: 758) posits, "The majority of social inquirers today recognize the intrinsic complexity of human phenomena, a complexity arising from vast variation in human demography, culture,

politics, values, spirituality, as well as the material conditions of human existence.” This complexity suggests that methodologies themselves utilized to understand such realities must also assume a certain level of intricacy. For the purposes of this project, *pragmatism* is the theoretical framework adopted. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2012: 774), two leading experts in the field of mixed methods, emphasized the importance of “ ... paradigm pluralism ... (rejecting) the ‘incompatibility thesis’ that had linked theoretical with methodological traditions.” Keeping a research question as the main focus (instead of their epistemological and ontological assumptions associated with different Quantitative or Qualitative traditions) affords the researcher a greater power to “ ... select and creatively integrate the most appropriate techniques from a wide variety of QUAL, QUAN, and mixed strategies in order to thoroughly investigate the phenomena of interest” (776). This emphasis on the primacy of the research question grants the researcher a greater degree of flexibility. In his analysis of John Dewey (one of the leaders in the philosophical tradition of Pragmatism), Morgan (2014: 1047) emphasizes that research “... is a specific kind of experience. What distinguished (research) inquiry is that it is a process by which beliefs that have become problematic are examined and resolved through action.” Hence, for Dewey, research consisted in recognizing a problem, defining this challenge, developing alternative ways to answer the question, evaluating these alternatives, and acting based upon the given information/analysis (Ibid). This suggests that the *process* by which one comes to a conclusion seems just as relevant as the strategy itself. In this sense, the methods implemented to *interpret* and to *engage* a research question ultimately *shape its solution*.

The quantitative and qualitative methods have been selected because of the potential to reveal relevant information, able to address the main aims and research questions of my research on teachers’ perspectives on bullying. Kroos (2012) relates the relevance of metatheorizing by emphasizing the appropriateness of the results engendered by such a thought process. For example, Kroos references the ‘paradigm shifts’ (fundamental changes within a field of study) further clarified by Kuhn (1970) in his writing, “ ... scholarly contributions are not purely classifiable to one paradigm but reflect the diversity of their education, socialization and institutionalization” (Kroos 2012: 26). Hence, relevant findings often spring from individuals mastering *different*

research traditions. A keen *understanding* and *acceptance* of the core theoretical principles from different frameworks potentially enhance one's ability to recognize and to form multifaceted statements about the social reality.

Research, by its very nature, revolves around a central question. However, mixed methods present a whole set of understandings and processes by which information attempting to address this central question can become *interpretable*. As Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 15) state, "Regardless of paradigmatic orientation, all research in the social sciences represents an attempt to provide warranted assertions about human beings (or specific groups of human beings) and the environments in which they live and evolve." Hence, the researcher maintains a balance between the *individuals researched* as well as the *communities they come from*.

One way of exploring this nuance between questions and their framing connects back to the definitions of central words within the research question. For example, when defining the term bullying, the researcher must honestly explore *what are the ramifications of such a framing?* Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) argue that, "In short, when judging ideas we should consider their empirical and practical consequences. Peirce, James, and Dewey were all interested in examining practical consequences ... to better understand real-world phenomena." The analysis emphasizes the importance of past pragmatist thinkers in order to emphasize the ramifications of framing a topic. This orientation towards the *real-world* and *practical consequences* inherently implies that the methods need to revolve around pragmatic considerations of not only how a researcher can discover more about that social reality, but also how that reality can *become more interpretable* as a result of that exploration. Hence, the researcher's understanding of a social realm should seek to be readily *interpretable* to others attempting to navigate that question, since practicality depends on usefulness, relevance, and accessibility.

In order to overcome the supposed differences between the assumptions of qualitative and quantitative methods, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 18) do not unduly reject mixed methods, but rather suggest that, "Knowledge is viewed as being both constructed and based on the reality of the world we experience and live in." These researchers also use words such as "tentative" and "changing over time" to describe the nature of knowledge, making a clear distinction between truth and "Truth" (with a capital

“T”), as absolute truths cannot be determined as a result of “experience” and “experimenting” (Ibid). This analysis emphasizes the *ever-changing* nature of the real world, focusing on the limited capacity to take in all information to make universal statements. It is clear that from the research questions and objectives of this study on teachers’ perceptions of and responses to bullying that there is the potential for an underlying *transformative* element. This occurs through providing new findings that may help to support teachers in addressing bullying. A more detailed discussion of how Pragmatism can apply within the auspices of ‘transformative research’ is shown in Appendix 17, entitled “Pragmatism and Transformative Research.”

3.3.1 Criticisms of Mixed Methods

The above framework suggests that practicality proves to be a main motivation for the use of pragmatism. However, the analysis must explain why such methods would prove relevant and meaningful with this research project. For example, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 19) point out, “What is meant by usefulness or workability can be vague unless explicitly addressed by a researcher.” In other words, to say that practicality is the end result does not answer the question of what is meant by practicality. To say that a method is useful does not rest in the hands of the researchers so much as the *interpretability* of the information from the reader’s perspective. However, in the case of this research project, it is argued that the results will become more usable and practical if they are able to explore the perceptions of teachers across different country contexts. This information could potentially inform policy makers and educators about teachers’ perceptions of bullying and the appropriate ways of dealing with it. When making such statements, I am aware that my research study does not seek to *structure* universal statements about the nature of bullying or the human responses used to combat it. Rather, the adaptability and replicability of the methods in different contexts within England and the US will affect the findings. Such a framework suggests that although the discoveries may be relevant at one moment in history, ten years later, findings about teachers’ perspectives on the nature of bullying and responses to it may change. This is especially relevant to the topic of cyberbullying, as it is a recent phenomenon that was not

recognized until the advent of the mass use of digital technologies. Thereby, each period may require an additional critical lens focusing on its social phenomena (as seen by recent developments such as cyberbullying).

This inability to make universal statements could undermine policy implementation, thereby undermining the supposed “practicality” and “usability” stated previously. It is recognized that findings may change depending on context. A panacea may not exist because bullying could be contextually dependent. For example, bullying research has led to many different results in different countries reflecting changes in different countries over time (Merrell, Gueldner, Ross and Isava 2008; Evans, Fraser, and Cotter 2014), while other studies track the specific effects of interventions on different types of bullies (Garandean, Lee, and Salmivalli 2014). This suggests that any policy attempting to address bullying should focus on trying to find ways to contextualize the approach to a particular setting as opposed to automatically scaling an interpretation. My research study recognizes the importance of context by exploring teachers’ perceptions and motivations to address bullying within two different country contexts, the US and England.

3.3.2 Advantages of Mixed Methods

Mixed methods present an opportunity to explore the subjectivity of human experience with core *objective* principles. Hesse-Biber (2010: 3-5) cites and organizes some of the key concepts from Greene, Caracello and Graham (1989), outlining five different reasons for why mixed methods are such effective mechanisms for understanding reality: triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion.

Triangulation stands as the most foundational reason for mixed methods research (Hesse-Biber 2010: 3). Researchers can compare the results from various methods to see if they remain consistent. They may also compare the findings to explore the extent to which results support, extend or challenge each other. During the quantitative phase of the research, patterns and associations as to the motivations for teachers responding in different bullying scenarios were explored (while using Expectancy Factors as a

theoretical model to investigate the role of motivation as described in the Literature Review). During the qualitative phase, the researcher designed interview questions to illuminate and investigate teachers' perspectives in more depth. To facilitate comparisons of quantitative and qualitative evidence, the interviews referenced findings that emerged from the questionnaire, reflecting the sequential mixed methods design.

“Complementarity” is also important for this research design because multiple methods can enhance the findings compared with using only one method (Hesse-Biber 2010: 4). Qualitative and quantitative methods adopt a different set of objectives. The questionnaire surveys by themselves simply cannot “determine the meaning” of the general findings, because very often teachers need to share experiences in the form of a story or situation to explain the reasons for their responses. This biographical *interpretation* informs and inspires actions within the realities that they perceive and seek to change. Surveys on the other hand can explore patterns and associations with a larger sample. Follow up interviews with a sub sample present the opportunity to generate thick descriptions and understand meanings behind the patterns and associations identified by the surveys.

In addition to complementarity, there is the idea of *development* (Hesse-Biber 2010: 5). Like a chemical reaction, a certain *catalytic response* could emerge as a result of the combination of separate constituent elements. For instance, in the research project, the general trends identified from the quantitative methods help to shape the interview questions, because the findings and patterns need further explanation. Some may claim that such methods would reduce the effectiveness of triangulation, because shaping the questions based on quantitative data would skew the qualitative results. However, the interviews provided additional opportunities for teachers to discuss their views and experiences of bullying. The interviews also allowed teachers to comment on overall findings from the surveys. Also, the interviewee still has the power in the semi-structured interview to name an experience, regardless of what the general quantitative findings reveal. Indeed, many of the interviewees clarified how their ability to respond to a bullying situation often depended on other contextual factors, which would be impossible to elucidate only using surveys.

Beyond development, “*initiation*” presents a common justification for mixed methods. This methodology starts a new conversation by exposing potential inconsistencies between findings from different methods (Hesse-Biber 2010: 5). Researchers can understand a more complete landscape by looking at a topic from different perspectives. Such a strategy ensures that mixed methodologies can be gathered and assessed collectively since the different projects do not need to conform to strictly constructivist or neo-positivist theoretical frameworks if they attempt to answer similar research questions. The final reason for mixed methods is *expansion* (Hesse-Biber 2010: 5). By providing more methods and aims, the researcher can incorporate and illuminate more perspectives and ask more complicated questions, thereby continuously encouraging researchers to “employ different and mixed methods” (Ibid). Mixed Methods present many advantages for bullying research. In particular, Hong (2012) reflects on the nature of mixed methods whilst analyzing bullying. In particular, Hong argues that there should be greater exploration as to the connections between regular bullying (such as relational and physical) and cyberbullying. Hong (2012: 122) writes, “Mixed methods should be employed to examine the extent to which face-to-face bullying dynamics either converge or diverge with bullying through technology.” As a rising phenomenon across multiple platforms, it becomes critical to understand bullying’s *differences* between the physical and cyber realms. Mixed methods are common in the field for exploring cyberbullying, due to the inherent complexity of the phenomenon (Young, Suramian, Miles, Hinnant, Andsager 2017; McInroy and Mishna 2017; Cross, Lester, Barnes, Cardoso, Hadwen 2015). This research seeks to fill a potential gap in the literature, by creating a dynamic mixed methods study that focuses particularly on teacher perceptions of bullying within physical, relational, verbal, and cyber scenarios.

In addition to understanding the nuances of different types of bullying, the research focuses on comparative international research between samples in the US and England. This leads to more complex designs that require mixed methods to ensure that there is greater attention to the trends that could confirm the validity across different cultures. There are many similarities between the US and England including the following factors: a similar level of inequality between both countries (Cable 2017); a similar Human Development Index Score between both countries (Human Development

Report, UNDP 2016); a new wave of populism affecting politics; and rising trends of ‘charter schools’ as well as ‘standardized testing’ affecting school systems within both countries (Turner 2011). Despite these similarities, there are also some differences between the ways in which schools deal with bullying. For a more in depth discussion of the similarities and differences between England and the United States, please reference Appendix 10. Appendix 10 reveals many deeply entrenched historical differences between the two countries, which could frame the organizational responses to bullying.

The ability to begin with survey trends from the sample and follow up with interviews that build off of these trends leads the researcher to a more nuanced understanding of the nature of the similarities and differences across samples. Schrauf (2017: 2) highlights the growing needs for mixed methods designs for cross-cultural comparisons in particular, “Not surprisingly, people differ in the extent to which they subscribe to and enact the beliefs, values, and practices of their constitutive groups.” He thereby suggests that comparing the results with mixed methods across countries allows researchers to understand whether the variations between samples are consistent and relevant across the data sets, as opposed to mere variation within a single sample. Teacher perceptions are also emphasized within this project. The literature in the field already highlights the importance of understanding teacher perceptions for the implementation of anti-bullying policies (Olweus and Limber 2010). For a more in depth understanding of the importance of teacher perceptions, please reference Appendix 7. Teacher perceptions are quite complex, and the complementarity of different methodologies can enable the researcher to understand the nuanced nature of the perspective of an educator. For instance, teachers may give the same response to a survey item, yet the reasons for their beliefs may differ across cultural contexts, thereby highlighting the importance of utilizing different methods that complement one another to highlight the contextual nuances of a teacher’s perception of a particular bullying scenario. Olweus and Limber (2010) highlight teacher motivations as key ingredients to understanding the responses to bullying within a single space, thereby suggesting that an understanding of the contextual influences affecting a teacher’s perception could prove important. Researchers are calling for much more broad research topics in relation to cyberbullying focusing on motivational models dealing with “underlying behaviours” due

to the fact that cyberbullying platforms are changing day by day (Cassidy, Faucher, and Jackson 2013: 599-600). Mixed methods approaches are a highly appropriate methodology for exploring the assumptions and limitations of teacher perceptions and motivations. Hong (2012:119) references Weber in her commentary on mixed methods, highlighting the importance of “rational” and “objective” quantitative methods as well as “empathetic” and “subjective” qualitative methods.

3.4 Quantitative Methods

In an attempt to understand and to answer the main questions, it becomes important to outline the different variables within the framing of the questions. The first research question (How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies for cyberbullying interventions?) specifically focuses on teachers’ perceptions of different strategies. The second question is how do background factors and ‘Expectancy Factors’ relate to teacher responses? This allows an exploration of the concepts of instrumentality, expectancy, and valence with a willingness to respond in different bullying scenarios. The second question also involves gathering additional background variables in order to understand the contextual differences between individuals (e.g. country and gender). The third and fourth questions (What is the perceived level of seriousness and likelihood of teacher intervention associated with different types of cyberbullying?) highlights the situational based nature of the scenarios, respecting the various forms in which cyberbullying may take place. The research project differs from many others because it combines these methods into a *comparative framework* with a novel mixed methodology, allowing the researcher to gather a more complex set of findings, encapsulating a different set of teacher perceptions in one unique study. Punch (2005: 87) sets out to define quantitative measurement in general, as the “process of measurement”, which depends on “defining constructs,” “selecting measures,” “obtaining empirical information about those measures,” and “evaluating the validity of the indicators.” In this study, the motivational framework of Expectancy Theory is being utilized to establish whether there is a high correspondence (association) between the level of instrumentality, expectancy, and valence with an overall intent to respond. An Exploratory Factor Analysis and a Confirmatory Factor Analysis explores this further. Measures are selected based on

scenarios previously used in other studies (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Yoon and Kerber 2003), as well as new scenarios (such as cyberbullying) in order to remain relevant to the literature in the field (Stauffer et al. 2012). In order to verify the validity of the constructs, it remains important to use a series of statistical tests and qualitative interviews. Comparing the results obtained between the different research frameworks can highlight how a construct can converge or diverge across contexts. Examining findings with alignment, complementarity, extension, and challenge could present the project an opportunity to understand the constructs more deeply. Therefore, the interviews can triangulate the data. It is hoped that the findings were robust and relevant to the *lived experience* of the individuals involved in the study.

It is also necessary to consider whether or not the questionnaire surveys can provide meaningful information if the interviews contradict the survey findings. For example, if there is a discrepancy between the findings of the interviews and the surveys, what does this mean and how trustworthy are the different findings? Punch (2005: 89) states, “... seeing social reality as in a constant state of becoming (and never of ‘being’) is exactly the view that is central to some qualitative perspectives. These perspectives stress the social construction of reality and its constantly negotiated and renegotiated meanings ...”. As a result, it is important to consider whether the quantitative and qualitative findings enable the researcher to answer different types of questions. It is also helpful to understand whether these questions enable the researcher to verify further claims through deliberate integration and synthesis. For instance, many of the research questions were first explored using the surveys, and subsequently a series of interviews explored teachers’ responses to the key findings in terms of the general trends, and also sought to elicit additional perspectives, insights, and understandings to enrich and extend the qualitative findings.

Many of the individual questionnaire survey items posed within this study have been selected from previous research projects conducted within the US to see whether or not the results remain consistent or vary between countries and at different time points. For example, the scenarios and questions for verbal, relational, and physical forms of bullying were chosen from the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) and Yoon and Kerber (2003) studies. However, the survey questions developed for this research relate to cyberbullying

and long-term bullying strategies drew on the Stauffer et al. (2012) research, who adapted many of these strategies from the original Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP). These long-term approaches specifically addressed the issues faced by teachers dealing with cyber-bullying scenarios because the phenomenon as a whole must be addressed in a preventative fashion since the harm rapidly disseminates its message and ramifications. Nonetheless, the presentation and use of survey items from previous studies also presents many advantages: “... the more an instrument is used in research, the more we learn about its properties...” and “... research results from different studies are more easily compared, and integrated and synthesized ...” (Punch 2005: 93).

3.4.1 Content of Questionnaire Surveys

In order to understand the motivations and reactions of teachers to different bullying scenarios, the quantitative survey included a series of scenarios adapted from the Bauman and Del Rio (2006), Stauffer et al. (2012), Boulton et al. (2014) studies. These different scenarios provided short vignettes of hypothetical bullying scenarios. Hence, there are two different scenarios presented as examples of victimization for the verbal, physical, and relational bullying categories. However, due to its new form and presentation, cyberbullying has three different scenarios. A series of respected studies of bullying (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Yoon and Kerber 2003) have used a similar design though they did not cover cyberbullying scenarios, indicating that the methodology has been applied successfully in practice. There are three different cyberbullying scenarios: the first scenario is a cyberbullying incident in a computer lab at a school; the second cyberbullying scenario is cyberbullying at home; the third scenario highlights a group cyberbullying incident using a mobile phone. In order for the study to address its aims, the survey must utilize relevant scenarios. Other educational researchers such as Poulou (2001: 50) state, the “... presentation to teachers of brief hypothetical scenarios, indicating that the methodology has been applied successfully in practice which constitute unobtrusive approximations of realistic scenarios, could elicit useful information about their thought processes, relevant to aspects of educating children with emotional and behavioral difficulties ...”. The hypothetical scenarios represent non-intrusive methods of gathering information of how teachers perceive they would react

and respond to problematic behavior. The process also respects the anonymity of the teacher to ensure that individuals feel welcome to give their honest opinions and reactions to the given scenarios. It is possible that teachers may be inclined to give socially desirable responses. However, the assurances of anonymity (in the survey) and low stakes nature of the study may reduce the likelihood of such bias as they have little to lose when reporting on how they think they would respond.

The scenarios also present a standardized set of circumstances that the researcher can compare across different contexts. Given the comparative design, it is important not only to ensure that the methodology remains consistent between teachers taking the survey between schools, but also between the two different country contexts. As Poulou (2001: 56) states, “By setting the limits of reference, vignettes provide the same contextual framework to all people participating in the study, and therefore can claim the comparability of their responses.” The use of hypothetical scenarios affords the same opportunity for teachers to express responses to particular forms of bullying they might encounter in the two country samples, thereby providing information about the motivations behind intervening.

One of the major facets of a successful scenario in social research connects back to believability. The researcher develops *relevant* data by encouraging research participants to share actions that would occur within “real world” environments. In order to ensure that this exists, the vignette constructed by the researcher needs to seem as real as possible. Finch (1987: 111) writes of “... the need to construct a vignette in which the characters and the story line are believable.” For Finch, believability is very important because the actions taking place represent a much larger social reality. Emphasizing this point, Finch (105) writes, “These problems are not merely technical, but reach to the heart of theoretical and philosophical questions about the relationship of individuals to social structures, the extent to which human action can reflect a world view ...”. Hence, the responses to an effective vignette can reveal the relationship between an individual, a social structure, and the perceived agency of an individual within that context.

Additionally, Poulou (2001:50) points out, “These cognitive schemata represent teachers’ rich store of knowledge, function as helping devices in complex classroom situations and guide their planning and ultimate choices.” A teacher already has had a set

of experiences within the classroom, which would be likely to influence their reaction to a bullying situation. Making the vignette as real as possible may help prompt the teacher to draw upon relevant past experiences when determining the likelihood of response.

These surveys were distributed across the PGCE and MLT programs at Oxford University and six schools across the USA (Section 3.5 below provides more information on sampling). The content of the surveys themselves can assist the reader in a deeper understanding of the different literature. There are two separate surveys: one focuses on cases of verbal, relational, and physical bullying (drawn from and piloted in the earlier MSc Dissertation), while the other strictly pertains to cyberbullying (covered in the DPhil). Dividing the methods into two distinct parts was important, because creating one questionnaire would have taken too long for completion by the research participants in the time available and would probably have reduced the response rate. Altogether, the two surveys cover nine different scenarios and one section listing eleven alternatives for dealing with cyberbullying (adapted from the Stauffer et al. (2012) study).

The first surveys consist of six different scenarios adapted from the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) study. Two of the scenarios represent relational bullying (such as exclusion), two of the scenarios depict verbal bullying, and two of the scenarios reveal physical bullying. After each of the scenarios, there are a series of questions adapted from the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) study pertaining to perceived seriousness, anger, likelihood of response, and course of action (all with five equal scale steps). In order to connect the ideas of Expectancy Theory within the survey, I added a series of questions pertaining to instrumentality (perceived effectiveness of the chosen course of action) and expectancy (perceived effectiveness of one's skill level in performing the given task). In addition to the added questions, the survey was piloted across the United States and England to see if there are any specific differences in terms of teachers' perceptions and reports of likely actions. Unfortunately it was not possible to access a new teacher group in the US to compare with the PGCE group in England. The second survey focuses on cyberbullying, implementing the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) questions as well as the additional Expectancy Theory questions from the Hurtubise (2013) study, but it applies these same concepts to cyberbullying. Boulton et al. (2014) conducted a similar study particularly tailored to pre-service teachers (applied to cyberbullying as well), and the

survey adopts one of the scenarios pertaining to a group mocking an individual with a cellular phone for the second survey. After piloting, the scenario was slightly changed from the original scenario in order to ensure that the survey respondents could more easily tell that the cell phone was being used to cyberbully another student. However, similar to the first survey, there are additional questions pertaining to perceptions of the actions taken in order to reveal whether Expectancy Theory is an appropriate motivational framework. The other two scenarios used within the survey were adopted from the Stauffer et al. (2012) study. Within this Stauffer et al. (2012) study, there is a scenario of cyberbullying taking place at home, while the other occurs at school. These surveys can be found in Appendix 23. Additionally, the Stauffer et al. (2012) study provided a very important set of 11 questions about the perceived effectiveness of particular strategies to address cyberbullying in schools (adapted from Olweus's OBPP interventions).

3.4.2 Piloting Surveys

In an attempt to understand the different scenarios from the teachers' perspectives, the researcher piloted the surveys with five teachers from the US and five teachers from England in order to ensure that the questions made sense to different individuals from different contexts. This strategy remained helpful during the MSc dissertation in England, since some of the taunts within the verbal bullying scenarios did not make sense across different countries. This allowed the researcher to edit before actually implementing the surveys with a larger number of research participants.

When teachers reviewed the pilot surveys, one of the major trends was one of diction and word choice between England and the United States. In the MSc study, some of the teachers noted that they did not necessarily understand the verbal bullying scenarios, as some of the retorts between scenarios did not make sense. In the DPhil, the researcher tried to ensure that the scenarios were as generic as possible in order to reduce any bias that could potentially emerge from any differences in the language. This is why the survey focuses on scenarios in which cyberbullying takes place at home and school. However, one important difference between the MSc and the DPhil research was the

introduction of the items to assess teacher perceptions of the likely long-term effectiveness of scenarios to deal with cyberbullying, as seen within the Stauffer et al. (2012) study. Within those particular questions, there was a difference in terms of the perceived seriousness of the scenario. Some of the language was too broad. For example, some of the PGCE students claimed that “teacher supervision in certain areas” was too broad and should be specified as the campus or the school (to make sure that it was not just assumed that the classroom was the only place). “More specific school policies” was also deemed too broad, and some individuals thought that it would be better to emphasize that these policies had something to do with anti-bullying concepts. “Facilitate school climate encouraging students to report cyberbullying” was seen to be a complicated way of saying of ‘encouraging students to report cyberbullying.’ The idea of ‘school climate’ could potentially be seen as too hypothetical, leading to different ideas of what that entailed especially for trainee teachers. Hence, the simpler idea of ‘encouraging students to report cyberbullying, which they observed’ seemed to be a more appropriate way of framing the same concept. “Professional development teacher seminars” also seemed quite broad because ‘professional development’ could connect to a lot of different ideas outside of anti-bullying preparation. As a result, the survey was changed to ensure that the teachers knew that the professional development particularly connected to ideas of classroom management, in order to ensure that they realized that it was not merely a session on another factor of their professional development (such as pedagogy of a particular discipline). All of these language changes were utilized across countries because teachers felt that this made more sense, as the strategy seemed more ‘direct’ to the original intention of assessing a strategy tailored to the situation.

What is interesting is that the teachers tended to suggest that the prompts needed greater specificity and clarity rather than the questions themselves. The one exception emerged when one teacher highlighted the word ‘perpetrator.’ The only suggestion was that the word ‘perpetrator’ might be too extreme, as it already suggests that harm is done. For example, the severity of the deed could be already framed through the word choice. However, the other alternatives such as ‘bully’ would also be too extreme. Hence, the analysis adopted the original framing in order to remain consistent with other studies such as Bauman and Del Rio (2006) as well as Yoon and Kerber (2003). Hence, the

survey respondent was asked about the potential responses to the “victim” and the “perpetrator.” My study follows up with these questions by also utilizing Expectancy Theory, additionally asking the level of confidence with one’s ability and the task’s capacity to carry out its intended end. For this reason, the words “victim” and “perpetrator” find their way into the survey more often than in the original studies. There is an emphasis on the feelings and reactions within specific, hypothetical scenarios.

3.4.3 Assumptions within Survey Design

One of the main assumptions is that the respondent can interpret the scenarios. The Stauffer et al. (2012) study presented a set of very broad scenarios (cyberbullying happening at home and school) when the content of the cyberbullying is not shared with the teacher. Such an example suggests that this may lead to discrepancies within the findings, because teachers are likely to possess different experiences leading up to the survey. This relies greatly on the teacher’s experience rather than the scenario itself. However, keeping the scenarios similar between different studies is important for the cross-cultural comparisons and results. If the scenarios are changed too drastically during the piloting it is difficult to discuss relevant findings, because the results between the methodologies cannot be compared. Hence, the methodology requires similar surveys between different cultural contexts. Additionally, creating too specific examples for a scenario denies the “believability” of the scenario if the details do not conform to the teacher’s personal experience, thereby reducing the relevance of the results.

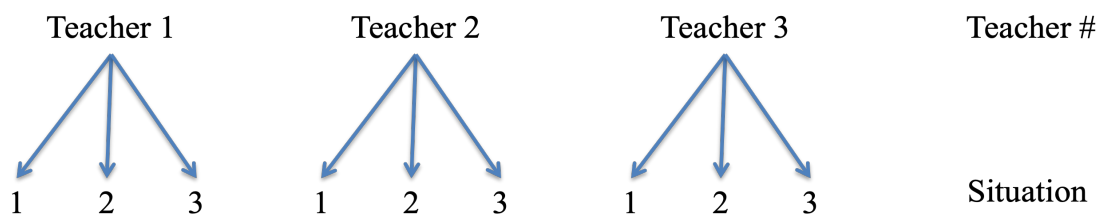
However, my study changed the scenario slightly from the Stauffer et al. (2012) study during the pre-piloting process in order to ensure that the language remained relevant to teachers from England and the US. Instead of just saying that bullying occurred at school, the researcher added the detail that it was happening on a public computer in the computer lab to emphasize the “public” nature of the scenario. For a more in depth analysis of the different assumptions associated with this survey design, please refer to Appendix 19.

3.4.4 Quantitative Analyses

The project utilized both Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Stata 14 was the statistical package used. EFA identifies the underlying associations between survey items. These associations suggest which survey items are related to a central construct. In this study, the EFA identified nine different underlying constructs. EFA is used before moving onto a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The CFA sought to confirm the validity of the constructs. The CFA was repeated across the English and the US samples of teachers. This replication across country sought to test the validity of the constructs measured to check if they were appropriate. This is another way of saying that strong invariance in the constructs was tested across cultures. Intercepts and factor loadings were constrained in the CFA across the United States and England. The Confirmatory Factor Analysis also shows the correlations between different constructs (latent variables) identified.

The different scenarios in the surveys are nested within teachers filling out the survey. Hence, hierarchical models can be utilized in order to ensure that the regression models heed this underlying association (clustering) in the data sets. There are three scenarios presented within the survey: a scenario of home cyberbullying, a scenario of cyberbullying at a computer lab, and a situation of cyberbullying with a group and a cellphone. This hierarchical nature of the data is incorporated into the design of the regression models. Figure 3.2 below highlights how responses to scenarios are nested within teachers.

Figure 3.2: Scenarios Nested within Teachers for Hierarchical Models



There are multiple ways in which to judge whether or not a variable is a statistically significant predictor. This study uses four different regression models:

multiple regression, fixed effects, between effects, and random effects. In the multilevel models, the scenario responses are nested within teacher, and Chapter 4 goes into a greater level of detail for each of the models. However the consistent findings between the different regression models suggests that the findings are robust.

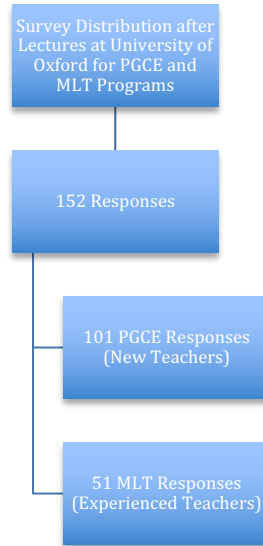
In addition to the multilevel regression models, a repeated measure analysis of variance within the different cyberbullying scenarios was conducted. The MSc dissertation (Hurtubise 2013) that formed the pilot to this DPhil study conducted several statistical tests on this particular type of analysis (for verbal, physical, and relational bullying) and this approach was again adopted to analyse the new data collected for the DPhil. This would indicate whether certain types of cyberbullying are considered less serious when compared to other forms of bullying. However, given the inherent complexity of cyberbullying, the repeated measure analysis of variance (and its non normal equivalent: 'Friedman's ANOVA') was also implemented across three different cyberbullying scenarios. For example, the research explored the perceived seriousness, anger for perpetrator, likelihood of intervention, expectancy of intervention, and instrumentality of intervention in three different scenarios: scenarios of an individual i) using a computer at school, ii) an individual cyberbullying at home, and iii) a group using a cell phone at school.

3.5 The Sampling Strategy

The sampling strategy sought to ensure that both more and also less experienced teachers in two countries were included in the sample with a mix of genders. Survey information for this research project came from 212 teachers (53% Female, 47% Male). The sample consisted of a range of teaching experience from 0 to 47 years ($M = 5.87$ $SD = 9.49$). Within England, there were two convenience samples of teachers, covering new and experienced teachers. The sample was drawn from two different courses at the Department of Education at Oxford University. The new teachers were on the PGCE, and were doing their school-based practicum in secondary schools ($n = 101$). The experienced teachers ($n = 51$) were on the MSc program for Learning and Teaching (MLT), and had more teaching experience ($M = 6.95$ $SD = 7.18$). This English sample

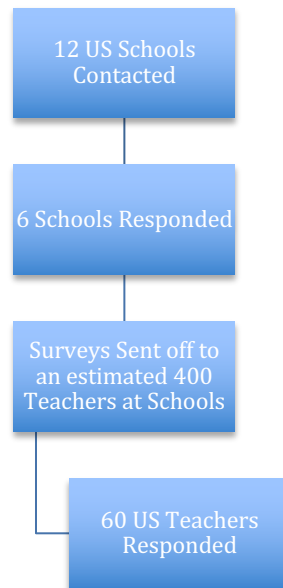
was 42% Male and 58% Female. Therefore, the sample of the UK consisted of 152 teachers, as shown in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3: Sampling Strategy within England



A sample of secondary educators from the United States was also used. The survey distribution was coordinated from abroad, outreaching to school administrators. Twelve schools were contacted personally but only six schools responded with an interest in participating in the study; these institutions disseminated the survey to their staff. In the sample there were 60 survey respondents overall (58% Male, 42% Female). It is difficult to pinpoint an exact response rate, since the surveys were forwarded onto all of the teachers at the six schools. Particularly, those that had a paper distribution system for the survey had a significantly higher response rate than those using electronic communication only. The average years of teaching experience was 15.5 years ($SD = 11.2$). Altogether there were 60 US teachers from this sample, as shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4: Sampling Strategy within the United States



This study utilized a purposive convenience sample. The aim is to understand and to explore secondary teachers' perspectives of bullying in schools. A sample of English teachers (n=152) and American teachers (n=60) participated in the study. The English sample consisted of a mix of qualified MLT (n=51) and PGCE (n=101) teachers. The sample of PGCE teachers consisted of interns training to teach in England, from a range of backgrounds. The MLT sample consisted of practicing teachers. The England response rate was around 62% of the MLT (51/55) and PGCE (101/191) programs. A comparable convenience sample of qualified teachers and trainees from a high status teacher training institution was originally sought within the US. However, the remote access provided challenges for finding such a sample with personal contacts. I adapted the sampling strategy due to difficulties in gaining access. The sampling strategy is not directly comparable, because high status institutions with contacts (Stanford and Berkeley) did not offer an exclusive focus on secondary teacher training, thereby reducing potential sample size. Therefore, the US sample consisted of only practicing teachers with a range of experiences. I personally contacted US administrators. US Schools had an average of 56 teachers (range of 31-89), with a response rate of 18%. However, it remains unclear how many teachers received the survey based upon the emails. EFA was conducted

separately for each country providing similar results, therefore giving a rationale for the combined sample. Additionally, structural validity was explored while constraining factor loadings and item intercepts across countries.

The intended sample size was originally 100 from each country context, forming a sample size of 200. Previous research using similar methodologies utilized a similar sample size, following on the MSc dissertation (Boulton et al. 2014; Bauman and Del Rio 2006). For repeated measure ANOVAs, analysis assumed $\alpha = .05$, $\gamma = .80$, error variance = 1.3, correlation between measurements = .3. If average values were assumed as 3.75, 4.00, and 4.25, estimated sample size would be 83. Intended sample size meets this. In terms of multilevel modeling, when group number is larger than 20, “sufficient power for finding cross-level effects can be obtained...” (Kreft and Leeuw 1998: 126). Post hoc power analysis could also be conducted, assuming $\alpha = .05$ and $\gamma = .80$, with $n = 3$ (scenarios per teacher). Based upon the ψ , θ , and variance of the covariates in the multilevel model, the 212 groups (teachers) still meet the requirements set out by Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal (2012: 169-171).

This research had descriptive and exploratory aims as opposed to seeking generalization. Thus, the use of convenience sampling and personal contacts was deemed appropriate. A research project aiming at more generalizability with more time and funding would seek to use a similar sampling strategy between the two countries. However, the purpose of this research is highly exploratory. The techniques might further guide future work with teachers, informing studies on teachers’ approaches for combating bullying. As this marked a purposive convenience sample, the findings are not generalizable beyond the sample. However, the exploration can inform the meaning of cyberbullying as understood by teachers in these contexts.

3.5.1 Limitations of the Sampling Strategy

Asking prospective or experienced educators to fill out a survey in a postgraduate program has become an established practice (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Boulton et al 2014; Yoon and Kerber 2003). However, there is a certain limitation due to the biases associated with such a sampling procedure. For example, going to a department of

education provides an obstacle for achieving a fully representative sample of the teaching population; there is a certain geographic distance an individual will travel before they are unable to partake in a specific graduate program. Additionally, many students who apply to post graduate degrees may not be accepted into the program selected for the study. Hence, the prestige of the PGCE or MLT programmes at Oxford may preclude survey participation from more typical teachers. Furthermore, because individuals choose whether or not they participate in the survey itself (as reflected in CUREC), this also suggests that there is a potential selection bias, since individuals opt to participate in the study. For all of these reasons, the sampling strategy can only reflect the views of the sample that completed the survey and cannot be generalized. As an exploratory study, the researcher does not seek to make generalizable conclusions but rather describes patterns and associations -- illuminating the contextually framed perceptions of bullying for teachers.

3.5.2 Advantages of the Sampling Strategy

However, there are many reasons for why this sampling strategy proves useful for the research project. The current sampling strategy improves upon the previous sampling strategies in other bullying studies. Bauman and Del Rio (2006) approached pre-service teachers; however, a majority of the research participants were those that were studying education in an undergraduate degree. Since many individuals require a graduate degree before teaching, it is hard to know which percentage of these undergraduate students will be able to teach afterwards. A series of factors could distract a student between the time of the survey and the time they submit their application to a postgraduate program. This project improves upon this methodology in that it directly goes to the department of education as teachers begin their internships in England, so as to understand the perspectives of new educators.

Additionally, the sampling strategy allows for comparison with past research within a new context. In order to allow for some comparison with existing studies, the researcher drew on similar methodologies used in previous studies in order to ensure that the results could be compared with previous findings (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Boulton et al. 2014; Stauffer et al. 2012). This project is intended to

fill a gap in the current literature in the field. From this perspective, the similarity in the sampling procedure enables the researcher to compare the results with previous findings in the field.

Furthermore, this sampling strategy composes an improvement from other accepted sampling strategies currently adopted in similar fields. As a project focusing on motivational and psychological perspectives, it is important to understand the research context. Arnett (2008: 604-605) writes that a majority of the world psychological research comes from the US, with 67% of those studies focusing on American undergraduate students, in order to make claims regarding the rest of humanity. The sampling strategy of this study marks an improvement, because it ensures that the reader remains fully aware of the limitations and the nature of the sample population before making any claims. This project marks a shift from overstating the conclusions made as a result of a convenience sample. To compare, this project focuses on a particular demographic of teachers within England with a supplementary follow-up in the US, never seeking to form universal claims. Rather, the research seeks to explore patterns and associations and to increase understanding of teacher's perspectives in two different country contexts but without making generalizations.

The sampling strategy tests whether or not the constructs remain similar across samples in different societies. There is a potential concern regarding the research in two different societies, because it could potentially hamper the construct validity of the items on the survey. Different societies may adopt different words and definitions of bullying, so it would seem that they might adopt different notions of appropriate ways to deal with bullying. If a very different data set is compared, it is hard to ensure that the research instruments remain valid across different cultures. However, there is an important point: if internal consistency is not preserved between constructs, it does not necessarily point to a problem, but rather a nuance needing further clarification and exploration within the qualitative methods. This difference is important for understanding whether there are distinctions in terms of how bullying is addressed and framed. The expectancy factors attempt to focus on the nature of the action as opposed to the cultural nuances between societies, thereby improving the validity of constructs pertaining to selected actions. Questions on the survey are based upon the responses of the individuals. For example,

how confident does one feel in one's ability to fulfill the task and what is the level of confidence in the task itself.

Additionally, the sampling strategy improves upon a previous study seeking to understand a comparative demographic. Using a simultaneous online survey is a common practice for gathering data, especially if researchers find themselves in different countries or contexts; Bauman and Del Rio (2006) attempted to understand an additional perspective through a supplemental online survey. However, their survey reached out to thought leaders from different countries, not necessarily teachers of a similar background. Most of these were in educational research or governmental policy. I considered this to be a distinct demographic from the previously mentioned pre-service teachers. In order to improve upon the Bauman and Del Rio research design, I felt that creating an online survey for teachers in another country targeting a similar demographic (secondary educators) would improve the methodology. The most ideal situation would be to use the same methods within the field (such as going to the actual location). However, due to the logistical limitations, providing online surveys and working with schools to administer the surveys in paper form was the only practical alternative whilst based in England with the school term dates. Online surveys do present a set of challenges – particularly the lower rate of response when compared to the higher rate of response associated with paper surveys and greater difficulties in targeting respondents (Nulty 2008). So, although there were more individuals asked within the six schools that agreed to participate in the US, there was a lower response rate (as mentioned in the previous section). However, since a major focus of the sequential design of the mixed methods research was qualitative in nature, it was helpful to ensure that individuals could name their willingness to respond for an interview within the online interface. Additionally, although the rates of participation differ, there is no clear evidence that would suggest that participants would respond differently. Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were utilized to establish the applicability of these constructs for educators in the purposive sample across England and the US, testing for measurement invariance. Furthermore, this sampling strategy is one of the only ways to contact pre-service teachers just before they begin their careers. The inherent problem lies in the time constraint between the officially expressed interest of becoming an educator and the

moment the teacher begins his or her career. One of the only places that could assemble such a demographic together would be a PGCE program. This is the probable reason for why previous studies have also utilized this convenience sample of a university to study this particular demographic (Bauman and Del Rio 2006).

Furthermore, alternative sampling strategies have potential challenges in the interpretation of the results. Replication is useful, yet it may remain quite challenging to compare results if the writers did not adopt similar research aims and questions. Differences can be distorted by other factors outside of the original comparison if too much time separates the studies, and the two regions prove radically different. For example, meta-analytic techniques have been subject to this criticism, where researchers gather data from intervention studies that may have different aims and methodologies (Jiménez-Barbero et al. 2016). On the opposite extreme, some social psychology research projects prove too specific, and their replication within different contexts makes it very difficult to compare findings due to distinct analytic frameworks. Conducting a project in multiple contexts provides a way to verify the validity with further comparisons.

The use of this research design is helpful for seeking whether there is potential construct validity across samples from two different country contexts. This study adds to the literature in the field because current teacher perception research on bullying only uses Cronbach's alpha as the most advanced method for exploring reliability (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Boulton et al. 2014; Stauffer et al. 2012). Although there is internal consistency within a single study, how does the reader conclude that the survey items make sense across cultures? By using Cronbach's alpha, an exploratory factor analysis, and a confirmatory factor analysis across the English and US samples in this study (constraining factor loadings and intercepts to equality), the researcher can contribute to the field. By showing whether or not there is construct validity within the latent variables across samples from these potentially different cultures, the research adds to the literature in a novel way. This can also help to inform future research on how far the survey design can be used again within other similar contexts. Additionally, this also provides a foundation for the interview design. The

interviews occur with individuals from samples that are found to interpret constructs in the survey in a similar way based on the confirmatory factor analysis.

To summarize, this sampling strategy marks an important step in the right direction for social psychological research. Although replicating social psychology research in multiple countries can remain quite challenging, it becomes important to conduct such designs in order to resist the current framework of convenience sampling that conforms to a single demographic of college educated psychology majors (Arnett 2008). The replicated nature of the social psychological studies build upon previously established techniques with the intention of finding particular demographics in an effective manner, whilst also improving previous sampling strategies. This leads to more legitimate comparisons than what is currently practiced in the research literature. The ability to sample across multiple societies also grants the researcher a greater power to ensure that there is some level of construct validity across samples from different countries, which would prove to be an original and helpful contribution to the research literature.

3.6 School Strategies

This section covers the tools of measurement, particularly connected to teacher strategies. A closer examination of each of the topics clarifies what is being measured.

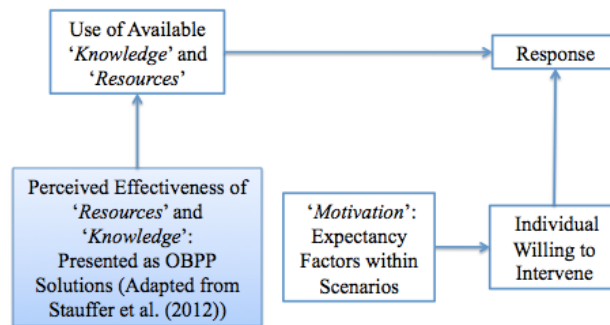
Strategies: School Strategies were developed using the scale from Stauffer et al. (2012).

The strategies consisted of eleven survey items that would be classed under the same category (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$). However, the Exploratory Factor Analysis (shown in chapter 4) confirms the statistical validity of three latent variables across the United States and England. This new addition to Stauffer's original study, which did not pursue tests of structural validity, is further explored within chapter 4 (Stauffer et al. 2012).

Strategies such as KiVa are gaining international regard in terms of their implementation and their success in multiple contexts (Nocentini and Menesini 2016; Axford, Hutchings, Bjornstad, Clarkson and Hunt 2014). The original RCT within Finland showed promising results within an RCT of 8000 students, with self-reported bullying decreasing by 17% and self-reported victimization going down by 30% (Axford, Hutchings, Bjornstad, Clarkson and Hunt 2014). Research within Norway revealed a significant reduction in student reports of bullying as a result of the OBPP strategies (Olweus and Limber 2010:

127). Within a sample size of 8388 students from 56 schools across Norway, reported bullying was reduced by 33% over the course of a single year, recalculating similar percentage reductions in two additional cohorts (Ibid). However, Olweus and Limber noted that the results have not always been effective in other contexts, reflecting on one specific intervention in South Carolina, “There were no significant changes in the frequency with which students reported being bullied ... it unfortunately was implemented with such low degrees of fidelity that it no longer could be considered a faithful implementation of the model” (Olweus and Limber 2010: 129). To use the previous framework, the perceived effectiveness of OBPP strategies proves important for the later use of institutional knowledge and resources, as seen in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5: How Perceptions of Resources and Knowledge Relate to a Response



Olweus’s original interventions (within the OBPP) are classed into the following categories: “School-Level Components”, “Classroom-Level Components”, “Individual-Level Components”, “Community-Level Components” (Olweus 1993). However, ‘Community-Level Components’ do not have a counterpart within Stauffer’s (2012) survey design. Additionally, it is assumed that encouraging student bystanders to report and to respond would occur during classroom meetings. Table 3.1 compares the Stauffer et al. (2012) survey items with the OBPP actions (classed within Olweus’s Component levels).

Table 3.1: The Connections Between Stauffer et al. (2012) survey and the OBPP

	Stauffer et al. (2012) Survey Items	Olweus (1993) Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP)
School-Level Components	Increase parental involvement	"Involve parents"
	Increase consequences for cyberbullying	"Introduce the school rules against bullying"
	Provide professional development	"Conduct trainings for the BPPC and all staff Administer"
	Develop more specific school policies	"Review and refine the school's supervisory system"
	Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	"Hold a school-wide kick-off event to launch the program Involve"
	Establish a task force	"Establish a Bullying Prevention Coordinating Committee (BPCC) Conduct"
Classroom-Level Components	Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	"Post and enforce school-wide rules against bullying"
	Adopt anti-bullying lessons	"Hold regular (weekly) class meetings to discuss bullying and related topics"
	Encourage student bystanders	(Assumed that this would happen in Class Meetings)
	Encourage students to report bullying	(Assumed that this would happen in Class Meetings)
Individual-Level Components	Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	"Supervise students' activities"

3.7 Deciding a Framework for Teacher Perceptions

In order to explore the research questions, the researcher needed to decide a framework to explore teacher perceptions. As mentioned previously, the researcher attempts to combine Expectancy Theory and Social Cognitive Theory because of their complementary natures. As many of the ideas from the theories depend upon one another, many past studies have highlighted the interconnection between Vroom's Expectancy Theory and Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (Barakat and Moussa 2017; Sun, Vancouver, and Weinhardt and 2014; Sigaard and Skov 2015). Social Cognitive Theory

provides an interconnected theory of reciprocal determinism, showing how personal, environmental, and behavioral factors interrelate. Expectancy Theory clarifies specific factors that correspond with a willingness to respond. As this project focuses primarily on perceptions, the research explores motivation outside of the scope of a strict behaviorist framework. One of the original thinkers to question the behaviorist framework was Tolman (1948). He tested how individuals could learn and feel motivation outside of a strict system of punishment and rewards, laying the groundwork for the importance of researching perspectives. To review other motivational theories that were also considered in this process, please refer to Appendix 16. It is argued that Vroom's (1964, 2007) Expectancy Factors are an adaptable way of combining some of the key concepts between different motivational models in a simple and effective way. While Vroom presents a motivational model that can test perceptions of alternative actions in different scenarios, Bandura (1986, 2018) provides a model that can emphasize the interrelated nature of personal, behavioral and environmental factors that can later be explored within the qualitative methods.

Vroom's 'Expectancy Theory' combines many of the best elements of the motivational frameworks found in Appendix 16. Namely, it creates a simplified model of motivation that is adaptable to different contexts. Vroom's selected factors of motivation combine many of the key strengths between Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen 2011) ('subjective norms', corresponding with 'valence'; 'attitude towards the behavior' linking with 'instrumentality'). However, there is a very important difference, which is the amount of focus that Vroom places upon the perception of the selected task -- which is fundamental within this exploratory design. The meaning of these constructs will prove quite important in order to maintain the validity of the constructs measured within the surveys in the two country contexts. For example, ability to express one's confidence in a selected task may be easier for teachers to define rather than constructs such as "perceived behavioral context" (Ajzen 2011) or "self-regulation" (Bandura 2002). This could have very different meanings across cultures, making it more difficult to convey within the survey design. Vroom developed Expectancy Theory in order to provide a model of motivation in the simplest terms. Up until that point in time, motivational theory pertained primarily to a system of punishments and rewards touted by behaviorists.

Vroom (1964:8) asked simple and fundamental questions, “What determines the form that activity will take? Under what conditions will an organism choose one response or another or move in one direction or another?” He did this by focusing on using three factors that could adapt easily and readily to different actions.

First, in his original work, Vroom sought to understand the thought processes driving decisions within what he termed expectancy. He writes, “Whenever an individual chooses between alternatives which involve uncertain outcomes, it seems clear that his behavior is affected not only by his preferences among these outcomes, but also by the degree to which he believes these outcomes to be probable” (Vroom 1964: 17). Hence, the perceived probability of success based upon skill level determines self-perceptions (represented in his factor known as expectancy). Second, instrumentality included an individual’s perception of the task itself (as an effective mechanism for reaching a particular result). Lastly, the third factor of valence pertained much more directly to the end result itself and the desirability of that end; Vroom (1964: 15) argued, “Preference, then, refers to a relationship between the strength of a person’s desire for, or attraction toward, two outcomes.” This idea suggested that the process by which a person made a decision, connected back to belief systems. Vroom’s factors of expectancy, instrumentality, and valence present a model that combines the three concepts corresponding with a likelihood of action. This is deemed to be helpful for the present research, which focuses on the influences of a teachers’ likelihood of intervention for different bullying scenarios. This provides a model that can be tested to explore teacher perceptions across different contexts. The researcher maintains that this is an important part of the comparative nature of this DPhil research, in order to see whether the constructs remain valid within the samples. Hence, factors from Expectancy Theory (such as instrumentality, valence, and expectancy) are deemed likely to be helpful for understanding the different components that could lead to action and the findings could be relevant to developing future interventions.

For the purposes of this research project, valence is seen as the amount of seriousness and overall necessity of a response. The scale for the perceived valence maintained satisfactory reliability, all Cronbach’s $\alpha = .78$. An Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were conducted to verify the component

across cultures. Within the scenarios, research participants were asked how ‘serious’ they considered each of the scenarios. This is a methodology adopted from Bauman and Del Rio (2006) and Yoon and Kerber (2003). Interestingly enough, Olweus deems that valence is one of the reasons for why interventions in other countries do not occur as readily, “Early in the dissemination of the OBPP, it was common to find a sizable number of staff (and parents) at schools who believed that bullying was not a concern—either because they felt it did not exist (or was rare) or because they viewed the experience of bullying as a rite of passage or even a positive learning experience for children” (Olweus and Limber 2010: 130). Additionally, Olweus wrote of how the increasing emphasis on standardized testing within other countries was leading to less time to implement OBPP (Olweus and Limber 2010: 131). Training students how to handle bullying seemed to have less importance compared to other incentivized actions.

Expectancy pertains to self-confidence, whilst performing an action. The measure of expectancy had a good level of reliability, all Cronbach’s $\alpha = .89$. An Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis also confirmed its statistical validity. In the survey, the survey participant is asked the level of confidence for dealing with the victim and the perpetrator (adopted from Bauman and Del Rio (2006) and Yoon and Kerber (2003)). Olweus alludes to expectancy as a reason for why the OBPP did not work in other contexts. He noticed that schools within the US tended to “‘cherry-pick’ program elements that are perceived as easier to implement, while failing to implement elements that require greater effort” (Olweus and Limber 2010: 131). Olweus particularly noted how Americans used an assembly or PTA meetings to introduce OBPP, whilst not taking further steps beyond that point (Ibid). This suggests that individuals chose their actions based upon the perceived level of ease of the task, as opposed to what was necessary. Improving perceptions of how well members of staff can get involved in bullying reduction could potentially encourage a likelihood to address bullying in the future.

Instrumentality represents the amount of confidence a teacher feels with a selected task. In the survey, educators are asked the level of confidence in the task itself before they respond in a cyberbullying scenario. The scale for perceived instrumentality also was at a good level of reliability, all Cronbach’s $\alpha = .90$. Additionally, an

Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis sought to verify the statistical validity. Interestingly enough, Olweus argues that one of the reasons for reduced success within other countries pertained to the array of alternative frameworks for dealing with bullying, undermining the confidence within a selected bullying strategy; for example, Olweus writes how culturally accepted 'zero-tolerance policies' conflict with the central philosophy of the OBPP program (Olweus and Limber 2010: 131). This would suggest that instrumentality (or perceived effectiveness of a task) is important for understanding the differences between alternatives. Further qualitative interviews conducted within this study clarified that teachers sometimes did not consider educators leading anti-bullying lessons as worthwhile, because non-profits were much more effective at presenting this material. This suggests that the perceptions of strategies influence one another, as strategies can be weighed against one another to determine their relative value. A strong school culture could promote a sense that certain actions would indeed be effective because such strategies would receive the support worthy of skilled colleagues and students. Perceived effectiveness of alternatives available to deal with bullying (such as professional development, anti-bullying lessons, school policies, task forces, etc.) could thereby frame and influence the instrumentality measurements.

A likelihood of response marks the most important output variable within the survey design in the present study, because it measures the likelihood of a teacher to respond to a given scenario. The measure for likelihood of intervention was also registered at a satisfactory level, all Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$ (an Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis confirmed the validity of the construct). This survey design was adopted from Bauman and Del Rio (2006) and Yoon and Kerber (2003). In his reflection on the varying levels of success within other countries, Olweus states that the effectiveness of the implementation of the OBPP hinges upon the motivation of staff members (Olweus and Limber 2010: 132). My DPhil study focuses explicitly on how expectancy factors such as valence, expectancy, and instrumentality relate to this willingness to respond.

3.8 Qualitative Methods

The sequential explanatory strategy tasks the qualitative methods with discovering *rich narratives* that would enable the researcher to investigate and to interpret the meaning behind overall patterns and associations revealed in the quantitative survey data. This would generate deeper understandings and relevant insights outside of those revealed by the quantitative evidence. These stories grant the researcher an added ability to frame assumptions and general findings within a specific context.

Triangulation could confirm whether such evidence and insights conform, extend, or challenge the main survey findings. For example, Stake (2010:170) states, “As a researcher, you do not have the privilege to invent stories, but your perception of how something has been working can be told in story form ...”. This opportunity to *listen* and to *engage* with the stories of others allows the researcher the opportunity to grasp a narrative hopefully pre-existing the discourse of that particular day. Stake (Ibid) writes, “The story or history is seen to exist, and the researcher’s job is to dig it out, interpret it, and make it available to others.” In those terms, the methods permit the researcher to approach a narrative that compiles, creates, and shares a whole set of accounts, in an attempt to answer the research questions.

Yet, in order to understand and to interpret such stories provided within the interviews, it becomes important to explain *what a story entails*. Stake (2012:172) writes, “A vignette is a verbal illustration of a response to a research question, not necessarily generalizable, sometimes poignant.” It is important to recognize that the scenarios within this research project do not relate to a way of presenting ethnographic data, as the methodology focuses on interviews for the qualitative methods. Also, the scenarios reappear multiple times within this particular research project. The quantitative methods pose particular scenarios in which the individual is meant to respond. Particular background factors and motivations that would lead to an intervention were explored within the quantitative analysis using different scenarios. While the quantitative methods explore generic scenarios reflecting physical, verbal, relational, and cyberbullying, the qualitative methods *search for* situations in terms of examples from individual teacher’s recalled experiences. This grants the interviewees the opportunity to state and to outline

their particular perspectives in the overall framing of the previously stated trends by sharing experiences (or “personal stories”). However, these qualitative stories are not used to generalize findings but to enhance the depth of understanding underpinning that specific context. The cross comparative nature of the study seeks to provide stories from teachers’ interview accounts that are pertinent and credible to particular contexts.

Yet, the narratives which teachers present to explain their perceptions do not remain complete in and of themselves, even whilst paired with one another. The very structure of the narrative highlights only a limited “cast of characters” in order to trace the actions and results after a set of highlighted interactions. For instance, Stake (2010:174) continues, “The traditional form of story is, first, an introduction of characters and context, then the revelation of problems that stirs apprehension, increasingly complexifying, and ending in good or bad resolution of the problems.” The challenge with the compilation of such stories is that sometimes the resolutions do not fit. The stories do not conform to the same settings, assumptions, standards, or conclusions. Yet, instead of rejecting these findings as incompatible, this result provides a rich opportunity to explore the reasons for why such discrepancies *emerge*. An underlying respect for this *complexity* allows Stake (2010:179) to reframe interviews: “Usually qualitative research will be more effectively perceived as episodes, patches sewn together by ideas, not a story of a researcher in data sites.” From this perspective, the opportunity to discover “snap-shots” of experiences allows the researcher to search for underlying “ideas” or “concepts” that tie all of these narratives into a meaningful and engaging account of how teachers perceive and react to bullying between cultural contexts.

3.8.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

Twenty interviews were conducted in total. Teachers that filled out the surveys were asked if they would like to participate in an interview. Hence, all twenty that were contacted were those that expressed an interest within the surveys. Altogether, there were ten interviews conducted with English teachers and ten interviews conducted with US teachers. As a result, those that participated in the interviews had prior participation in the project. This allowed them to understand the background of the study. Interview

participants were notified that the interview could take up to one hour, yet a majority of the interviews lasted around thirty minutes. Interviews themselves were semi-structured, guided by the results of the quantitative findings.

For the sake of this project, the semi-structured interviews serve the very important function of unpacking the overall findings uncovered within the quantitative methods. The interviews also offer an opportunity to explore in depth teachers' understanding of bullying and the appropriate interventions. The link between the research questions proves very important for understanding the reasons for why particular teachers from different contexts say they would or would not respond in a given bullying scenario. Section 3.7.1 of the conclusion highlights how the themes were identified and coded when the information was processed within NVivo. One of the most important functions of the interviews in this context connects back to the ideas of Rubin and Rubin (2012: 3), "Qualitative interviewing helps reconstruct events that researchers have never experienced...". Hence, interviews provide an opportunity for '*reconstruction*.' Rather, the researcher intends to grant the research community a greater awareness as to the social worlds in which an interviewee exists. This information paves the way toward the "end goal" of providing different situational contexts in a project, *encouraging* teachers to share their perspectives as to what they think may be "appropriate" ways of dealing with the given conflict.

From this perspective, the researcher must expect differences in responses within the semi-structured interviews. Instead of simply looking for consistency (which would be more useful for clarifying within a larger quantitative method such as a questionnaire survey), the interview provides an opportunity for teachers to highlight the potential intricacies within the specific situations of the research participant. This can expand and initiate a more complex perspective into the exploratory process. Rubin and Rubin (2012: 4) also write, "... listening to differing versions of the same incident leads to more thoughtful and nuanced conclusions." Teachers within the same school may have very different understandings of bullying due to contextual variables. Yet, these teachers may have some shared understandings too. According to the limitations section of the study, one of the most challenging barriers to overcome lies within the potentially large number of background characteristics of the teacher. Hence, the researcher utilized the interviews

to highlight unexpected findings from the answers to the posed research questions, while taking into consideration the general trends found within the quantitative strand of the study.

At the same time, the semi-structured interview affords a certain *flexibility* to ensure that the interviewer can understand the “nuances” and clarify any unexplained terms or constructs. For example, Rubin and Rubin (2012: 6) write, “Qualitative interviewers listen to hear the meaning of what the interviewees tell them. When they cannot figure out that meaning, they ask follow-up questions to gain clarity and precision.” This is important within the research process, because rigidly asking the same exact questions during each interview would not afford the flexibility to adapt to different social contexts within separate countries. Hence, the interview process provides a particular set of important base questions, serving as a solid foundation to potential follow up questions and probes.

3.8.2 Piloting and Background Interviews

While the surveys from Yoon and Kerber (2003), Bauman and Del Rio (2006), and Stauffer et al. (2012) provide a foundation for comparing the differences between separate bullying scenarios, the interviews provide a potential foundation for exploring these trends from a different perspective. To explore the research questions more closely requires the researcher to set aside time to hear the situations that have shaped teacher perceptions of the definition of bullying, as well as their perceptions of the responses chosen. In order to explore the term bullying in more depth the researcher conducted five interviews with teachers in England and five teachers from the US before finalizing the administration of the surveys. These conversations also provided good ideas in terms of potential follow up questions based upon the knowledge that the teachers shared. The research utilized NVivo to organize a planned interview analysis, connected back to the constructs from the original research design.

The questions from the interviews were overall adapted to the general results derived from the quantitative findings. For example, the surveys have shown that teachers were more likely to indicate they would respond in scenarios of school cyberbullying

rather than home cyberbullying. During the piloting it became apparent that the question should explain the differences between home cyberbullying and school cyberbullying, in order to ensure that the teachers could provide relevant feedback. Additionally, during the discussions, it was apparent that individuals potentially had different ideas of what bullying entailed. Some teachers shared that they thought physical bullying was bullying, whilst others thought that verbal bullying could be considered ‘mere banter.’ As a result, I asked the interviewees for their definitions of bullying so that the results could contextualize themselves to that definition.

One of the final ideas from piloting interviews was the idea of regression. The teachers did not have the same level of statistical training, and it would be important to ensure that they understood the nature of the quantitative findings before any comments. If it became clear that an individual did not understand the nature of some statistical findings, it would be important to review the nature of the statistical finding once again. Especially in cases of regression or correlation, it was important to say that factors did not necessarily ‘produce’ a willingness to respond, but there was some connection according to the statistical findings between certain ideas such as expectancy of the action with the perpetrator and the willingness to respond. I did not use technical terms such as expectancy or instrumentality within the interviews as these terms were not readily understandable outside of expectancy theory. Hence, when trying to explain the association between the different constructs and the results from expectancy theory, I made sure to use simple definitions such as ‘confidence in one’s ability’ and ‘confidence in the selected task.’ Since the motivational framework remained quite specific, it was also important to try to establish whether the interviewee’s answers seemed connected back to the theoretical framework. I also provided opportunities for participants to bring out their views in more open-ended ways not just in relation to the survey findings.

3.8.3 Assumptions within Qualitative Methods

The questions developed during the qualitative phase of the research drew on findings from the quantitative results as part of the mixed methods. Yet, a lot of the research focuses on perceptions, as well as actions. From this point of view, the interview

provides a very important additional source of evidence in order to understand the narratives that teachers construct in order to interpret the social realities of their schools. However, there are many critiques that emerge from the use of interviews within the context of the sequential explanatory strategy. One such critique surfaces from the possibility that the words that people select to describe their social realities sometimes stray from the relevant actions within those same environments. In particular, Walford (2001: 85) states, “It reminds us that most research is actually more interested in what people do than what they say they do.” This quotation suggests that sometimes there exists a *discrepancy* between what the individual does and what they intend to accomplish. Nonetheless, the interview provides a relevant solution because it serves as the most ethical and consistent mechanism in which an educator can explain their perceptions of the scenarios as well as the reasons underlying the strategies that they considered most helpful. For an exploration of some additional assumptions within the interview design, please reference Appendix 20.

3.8.4 Analyzing the Qualitative Interviews

One of the main goals of using the qualitative methods rests within the capacity to understand the *general findings* provided by the quantitative methods. The sequential explanatory strategy provides the means to explore whether or not the research questions provide evidence that reveals similar findings between methods. However, within the overall qualitative methods, there is an ongoing process of exploring consistencies between different contexts and interviews (such as the US and England teachers interviewed) and how deeply these differences relate to context. For example, Silverman (2010: 225) reflects on the nature of qualitative methods utilizing interviews making the claim, “Following this approach (interviews), it is appropriate to build into the research design various devices to ensure the accuracy of your interpretation. So you can check the accuracy of what your respondents tell you by other observations.” Hence, the process of utilizing interviews as a reliable method depends on providing more findings amidst the discoveries of other methods. Silverman (Ibid) provides a very different way of conceptualizing the information presented within the interview, “This approach

(narratives) claims that, by abandoning the attempt to treat respondents' accounts as potentially 'true' pictures of 'reality', we open up for analysis the culturally rich methods through which interviewers and interviewees, in concert, generate plausible accounts of the world." The value of the finding, therefore, depends on the plausibility of the narrative, suggesting that an individual (based on their particular background and experience) creates a specific storyline. Whether or not it is *believable* depends on the contextual variables assessed within the qualitative and quantitative methods as a whole. Furthermore, Silverman (2010: 226) goes on to use the idea of "voices" to clarify further the ways in which an individual forms opinions of reality *within* interviews, "... rather than eliminate multiple voices, we need to examine what voices people use, how they use them and with what consequences." When reflecting on the nature of bullying in schools, it is important to realize the complex set of *interactions* preceding the interview. The nature of bullying may take place separate and apart from the purview of administrators and teachers, and that is why bullying is often "very difficult" to address. Hence, it is important to understand instances in which a teacher *was able* to identify bullying and associate the appropriate level of seriousness whilst intervening (or not). Silverman (2010: 248) attempts to summarize his perspective on interview analysis when stating, "Avoid the temptation to rush to explanations of your data. Don't begin with 'why' questions. Instead ask yourself 'what' verbal and behavioral and contextual resources are being used here, and look for the details of 'how' they are being used (and with what consequences)." Hence, in this research, writing the transcription and rereading interview transcripts explores teachers' perceptions and experiences to address the research questions through the qualitative data.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

In March of 2016, approval was granted for the study by the Ethics Board at the Department of Education at Oxford University. This was completed before the transfer of status, as well as prior to the interviews and surveys.

There are many ethical dimensions within the gathering of data regarding bullying. First, the research project depends on confidentiality, not revealing any

background characteristics, narratives, or any other information regarding the interviewees within the presentation of the thesis (other than the nationality of the participant, the level of experience, and the gender of the respondent). Often times, administrations at the schools were the ones granting access to the teachers within the American samples.

Additionally, the interviews provide a very important space for preserving the confidentiality of the teacher. Teachers can only be identified by ID number, gender, and experience level (for example: Teacher 1, M, Experienced) and no details were used that could lead to the identification of individuals. Transcripts of interviews are all password protected. This step is important because teachers must feel that confidentiality is preserved and protected before sharing any information. The teacher may bring up sensitive topics. If the teacher did bring up bullying situations that they felt uncomfortable discussing, the researcher would not follow up and ask the specific details of the incident, unless there was a serious threat (as discussed within the ethics of reporting section).

Second, some teachers may have had situations in which they were bullied or indeed had bullied others in the past, and filling out a survey or speaking about such issues could cause a certain level of stress or distress. As a result, the researcher ensured that all participants were made aware that they are not obliged to complete the survey or the interview, if thinking about such issues would make them uncomfortable. The teachers were made aware of this through the information sheet as well as the introduction of the researcher. None of the teachers that participated in the study withdrew.

It is also important to realize that the researcher must maintain a high level of responsibility for providing accurate information and seeking to provide plausible findings while decreasing any bias. Within this project, it is clear that there are strong objectives, trying ‘to produce findings that may in the long term help address and reduce bullying in schools.’ It is important to realize and to become more aware of the biases that I as a researcher carry, when approaching such a project. In his discussion of research ethics, May (2011: 47) writes, “In our everyday conversations and judgments, we tend to make statements of two kinds: *positive* and *normative*.” It is important to

recognize the difference between these types of statements and to ensure that the results do not become distorted as a result of the values. At the same time, May also recognizes that these same values, which could potentially serve as an obstacle to create an unbiased account, can also potentially become a strength. For example, May (2011: 69) writes, “Values and experiences are not something to be bracketed as if ashamed by their entry into the process. On the contrary, many now argue that an examination of the basis of values and their relationship to decisions and stages in research is required ...”. One of the reasons for the extended discussion of the pragmatist theory is to understand which statements can and cannot be made as a result of the research design.

The intention of this research is to provide findings that may in the future help inform the development of resources for teachers and possibly to create some type of bullying intervention program, that may support teachers in training or professional development. The assumption of this study is that bullying is indeed a “negative action.” However, some may criticize such an analysis claiming that bullying is a relative construct that does not necessarily pertain to reality so much as social constructions associated with actions. Hence, a more complete discussion of the ramifications of a proposed set of actions is needed before the researchers can fully attest to the legitimacy of the constructions and the ideas proposed. However, at this point in time, the research has mostly exploratory aims and does not seek to create an intervention.

The research around bullying often gravitates towards uncomfortable and negative actions of students and sometimes staff. As a result, the researcher must be prepared to act and to report any illegal behavior that is learned as a result of the research process. For example, Robson (2011: 218) states, “If you discover something you know or suspect to be illegal ... this must be reported to the police or other appropriate authority.” The researcher has a duty to report any illegal situations that have not been reported up to that point into time. Although confidentiality is important in order to establish trust, it is important to report illegal activity learned during the research project. None of these instances occurred during the research project.

3.10 Concluding Remarks

This Methodology chapter provides the research aims and questions, specifying a relevant mixed sequential explanatory strategy to answer the research questions. After presenting the pragmatist philosophy, the chapter presents the quantitative methods (focusing on the content, assumptions, piloting process, and analyses) as well as a sampling strategy. The Methodology chapter then covers the qualitative methods, with a focus on the piloting and the analysis of the semi-structured interviews. The chapter then concludes with the ethical considerations. The next chapter covers the quantitative findings within the sequential explanatory strategy.

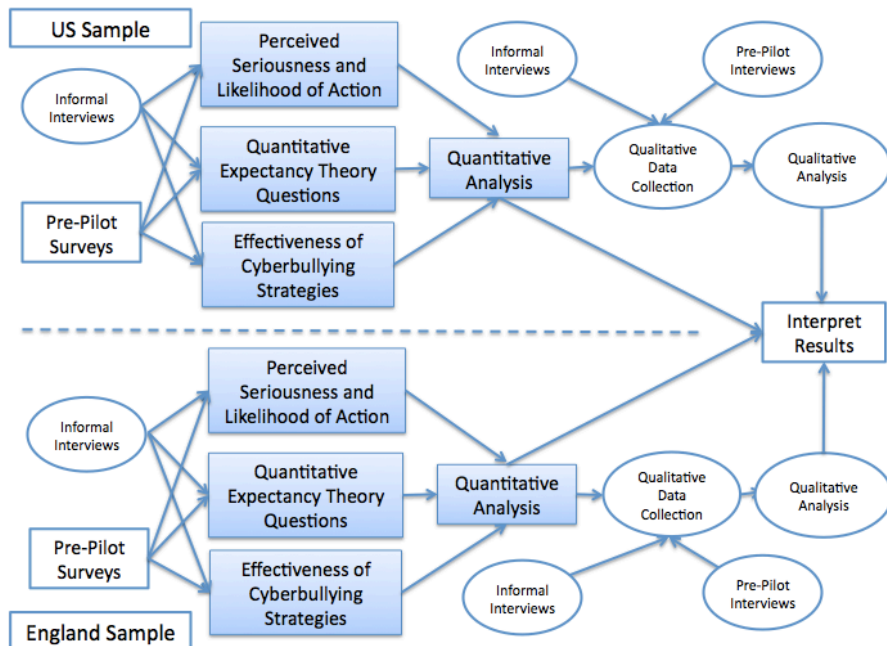
Chapter 4: Quantitative Findings from Questionnaire Survey

4.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter accomplishes the following tasks:

- A brief introduction presents the structure of the chapter.
- The research conducts an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). A CFA with intercepts and factors loadings constrained across country is also presented.
- The analysis uses a combination of descriptive statistics, repeated measure ANOVA, and multilevel modeling to address the four research questions.
- Next, the chapter discusses the steps in the mixed methods project and a timeline for the project as a whole. Figure 4.1 (shown below) highlights the blue boxes to emphasize how the quantitative strand fit into the larger mixed methods design.

Figure 4.1: Quantitative Sections Highlighted in Mixed Methods Research Design, Repeated Diagram from Figure 3.1



4.1.1 Notes on the Structure of the Quantitative Findings Chapter

This research project aims to understand teachers’ perspectives of bullying. The research questions are classified into two main categories: current understandings of bullying and appropriate ways of dealing with it. Since bullying exists across multiple contexts, English and American teacher samples were utilized in an attempt to understand the consistencies and differences in perceptions of bullying. This fourth chapter aims to elucidate the major ways in which teachers may consider different alternatives to deal with cyberbullying. Chapter four follows the following structure to meet the previously stated aims:



First, this chapter reviews the data, so as to understand its nature before moving into the analysis. Descriptive Statistics are presented in order to give a broad overview of the data and explain how missing values were treated. Next, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is presented. This was run to see whether there are underlying constructs from the literature within the survey items that could be deemed useful for further analysis in later statistical models. The same analysis strategy was then repeated in Appendix 8 across the US and England individually to determine whether there were consistent measures within each country. One of the helpful contributions that the EFA offered the analysis was that it identified underlying constructs that could be further explored within strategies for cyberbullying. The EFA revealed three underlying constructs within the survey items for strategies: “School Culture Strategies”, “Bystander Strategies”, and “Consequence Strategies”.

Next, the chapter focuses on the first research question, regarding perspectives of cyberbullying strategies. To remind the reader, the first research question is ‘*How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies for cyberbullying interventions?*’ The descriptive statistics then can be compared across the English and US samples, to see whether there were notable differences between the samples. To explore the reliability of

the construct of strategies, Cronbach's alpha was initially calculated. Satisfactory reliability was found for the eleven strategy survey items ($\alpha = .83$). However, since there were two countries, Cronbach's alpha was also calculated for each country individually (English teachers ($\alpha = .79$) and US teachers ($\alpha = .89$) both had satisfactory reliability when strategies were explored within each sample. Descriptive statistics are shared for each country sample. The rest of the chapter explores these constructs further by running a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and looking at the correlations between these different underlying constructs. Factor loadings and intercepts are then constrained by country.

After addressing the first research question, the next portion focuses on the perceptions of bullying itself. It intends to answer the next three research questions (*RQ2: How do background factors [such as teacher gender and country] and Expectancy Factors (instrumentality, expectancy, and valence) relate to teacher perceptions and responses? RQ3: What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying? RQ4: What is the likelihood of intervention for different scenarios of bullying?*) The previously mentioned Exploratory Factor Analysis revealed the underlying constructs from Expectancy Theory (valence, expectancy, instrumentality) and another construct termed likelihood of intervention.¹ CFA was also used to explore the validity of these constructs within and across the English and US samples. Regression models particularly focus on the second research question (*RQ2: How do background factors (such as teacher gender and country) and Expectancy Theory relate to teacher perceptions and responses?*). Expectancy Factors (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) were used as predictors with other teacher background factors (such as country and gender), whilst the factor 'likelihood of response' was the continuous dependent variable. There were two types of regression models: multiple regression with clustered standard errors around each teacher and multilevel regression. For the multilevel regression, it is important to recall that fixed effects, between effects, and random effects models are used with clustered standard errors for each teacher. Within these models, the

¹ Cronbach's alpha was also used in order to explore the validity of the constructs. Valence ($\alpha = .78$), Instrumentality ($\alpha = .90$), Expectancy ($\alpha = .89$), and Likelihood of Intervention ($\alpha = .72$) were all deemed to have satisfactory reliabilities.

different scenarios (*i*) are nested within teachers (*j*). The chapter first presents the null models without predictors for the random effects model so that the reader can compare the results with those of later models including the predictors. The inclusion of intra-class correlation (ICC) uses the symbol ρ within the tables to understand how variance is distributed between the levels of the models.² Statistically significant predictors are found and compared across models. I also explored simple patterns of association among measures whilst using correlations, and these details can be found within the Appendix 2. However, the regressions were used to predict variations in a reported likelihood of teachers' response in different scenarios. The third research question (*RQ3: What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying?*) was explored using a repeated measure analysis of variance, where the seriousness level was compared across the different scenarios. The fourth research question of likelihood of response utilized a repeated measure analysis of variance and multilevel models to see if there was a statistically significant difference in the likelihood of an intervention between scenarios. The analysis answered this question by including the different scenarios as categorical predictors in the multilevel models.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics about Teachers' Responses



The analysis first begins with more descriptive statistics regarding the data. Before a discussion of the EFA and CFA, a presentation of the descriptive statistics reveals more information regarding the nature of the survey data. Table 4.1 presents the Cronbach's alpha measurements for the factors valence, expectancy, instrumentality, likelihood of teachers' responses, and strategies (all found to have acceptable because all of the measures were greater than .7). Many studies in bullying research end with a calculation of Cronbach's alpha (Stauffer et al. 2012, Bauman and Del Rio 2006) based

² $\rho = \psi / (\psi + \theta)$; ψ = 'between subject variance'; θ = 'measurement error variance' (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012: 80)

on scale items. However, there are limitations associated with only using Cronbach's Alpha (Agbo 2010). Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were also used in this research project. Table 4.2 provides the descriptive statistics for all of the survey items across the samples in England and the United States. As can be seen from table 4.2 on the following page, the likelihood of teachers' responses across the three scenarios is fairly high (all mean values are above 4). However, scenarios of home cyberbullying tend to have slightly less likelihood of response ($M = 4.09, SE = .95$) than school cyberbullying ($M = 4.57, SE = .62$) and group cyberbullying on a cell phone ($M = 4.51, SE = .77$). The chapter goes into greater detail with a repeated measure analysis of variance to see whether these differences are statistically significant for my samples. Additionally, the methodology section mentions key constructs pertaining to Expectancy Theory and the perceptions of different strategies to combat cyberbullying. The different measures were valence, instrumentality, expectancy, likelihood of response, and strategy perceptions.

Table 4.1 Cronbach's Alpha for Combined Data

	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha
Valence	3	0.78
Instrumentality	6	0.90
Expectancy	6	0.89
Likelihood of Response	3	0.72
Strategy	11	0.83

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Items in Questionnaire for Combined Data

Variable	Mean	SD	SE	n
School Intervention	4.57	0.62	0.04	211
School Seriousness	4.43	0.70	0.05	211
School Anger	4.45	0.70	0.05	212
School Perpetrator Expectancy	3.85	0.80	0.06	211
School Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.27	0.83	0.06	208
School Victim Expectancy	3.78	0.87	0.06	211
School Victim Instrumentality	3.11	0.81	0.06	210
Home Intervention	4.09	0.95	0.07	212
Home Seriousness	4.55	0.60	0.04	212
Home Anger	4.43	0.73	0.05	212
Home Perpetrator Expectancy	3.76	0.88	0.06	206
Home Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.25	0.90	0.06	206
Home Victim Expectancy	3.77	0.90	0.06	208
Home Victim Instrumentality	3.15	0.90	0.06	209
Group Intervention	4.51	0.77	0.05	210
Group Seriousness	4.55	0.66	0.05	210
Group Anger	4.48	0.75	0.05	210
Group Perpetrator Expectancy	3.91	0.79	0.05	208
Group Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.36	0.86	0.06	208
Group Victim Expectancy	3.90	0.89	0.06	206
Group Victim Instrumentality	3.09	0.96	0.07	207
Increase supervision in areas	2.05	1.11	0.08	206
Develop more specific school policies	2.74	0.95	0.07	205
School-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.67	0.98	0.07	205
Encourage students to report bullying	2.88	0.95	0.07	205
Establish a task force	2.54	0.97	0.07	204
Encourage student bystanders	2.73	1.11	0.08	206
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.68	0.95	0.07	206
Provide professional development	2.81	0.92	0.06	205
Increase consequences	3.14	0.94	0.07	206
Warn about consequences	3.02	0.94	0.07	206
Increase parental involvement	3.17	0.90	0.06	206

4.2.1 Missing Data

In terms of missing data, many tests were run and all of them came up with certain predictors as statistically significant across the different techniques. The statistically significant predictors included valence and expectancy with perpetrator. First, the multilevel models (discussed in sections 4.4.3 – 4.4.4) used list-wise deletion for missing variables. This method removes the data entries for those observations with missing data in the specified model. There was a low level of missing data (2% of the data points). List-wise deletion has been found to express a very small amount of bias, to depict very small amount of dispersion around true sources, and to display an average error for estimating standard deviation that is quite accurate (Roth and Swinzer 1995). Due to the high response rate and no clear pattern in non-response this was deemed a good choice for the analysis; the probability of missing values for the independent variable does not appear to correspond to missing values of the dependent variable, thereby strengthening its use (Allison 2002).

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (as shown in Appendix 13) was also used to confirm that the same predictors were also found to be statistically significant when compared to results based on the list-wise deletion. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) selects approximations of variables that would increase the likelihood of seeing what was observed within the actual dataset; this means that MLE proceeds by “summing the usual likelihood over all possible values of missing data” (Allison 2002: 13-14). This technique would serve a particular service to the analysis when the missing data is monotonic, such as when there is one particular variable that is missing (Ibid). This might relate to this data set when one considers that perpetrator instrumentality and victim expectancy tend to have missing values. Nonetheless, the analysis still reveals similar results. Joop Hox (2002: 37) writes “An advantage of the Maximum Likelihood estimation is that it is generally robust, and produces estimates that are asymptotically efficient and consistent.” Hence, the same statistically significant predictors were still the same between the models.

The models using multiple imputation (as shown in Appendix 12) also revealed that valence and expectancy with perpetrator were consistently statistically significant predictors (similar to the original findings based on listwise deletion). There are three

main steps in the multiple imputation: first, create complete sets of data where imputation occurs for missing values given the actual data; second, find standard errors and parameter estimates by analyzing each data set; third, form a single result based upon the standard errors and parameters estimates from the multiple datasets (Snijders and Bosers 2012: 137). There is debate on the correct number of imputations that would be needed to generate meaningful findings. Five imputations is quite a common choice in the field, and studies with high response rates (like this study) would further warrant the use of this number of imputations (Judkins 2008: 491). The consistent result of valence and expectancy with perpetrator as statistically significant predictors further supports the original findings. For more information regarding the descriptive statistics, please reference Table 4.2. Appendix 26 includes additional descriptive statistics such as skewness and kurtosis.

This following section presents results from the first EFA, finding the initial eigenvalues for different components of the survey. This step is important to uncover how much of the variance can be explained by the different components within the survey design. While EFA is driven by the data, CFA is used to confirm the assumed constructs identified. This also becomes critical for testing whether there is strong invariance across cultures. Afterwards, the correlation tables provide a greater understanding of the potential connections within these constructs identified by the EFA, thereby leading to a further discussion.

4.2.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (Combined Data)

An EFA was used across the English and the US samples to uncover the constructs across the two samples. For an EFA for the English and US samples specifically, please reference Appendix 8. For the English sample, 68% of the variance could be explained by the factors found from the EFA with 81.25% of the values with λ at or above .6. In the American sample, 72% of the variance could be explained by the variance found within the EFA, with 69% of the λ values at .6 or above. When the two samples were combined into a single data set, 68% of the total variance could be explained statistically by the factors found from the EFA. Table 4.3 presents the eigenvalues for the eight different components, showing how much of the variance can be

explained by each component. This study implements Principal Component Factor Analysis (also known as PCFA), where factor loadings were calculated using oblique rotation. Of the 32 items on the survey, a majority had a high λ value. Only 3 of the 32 items on the survey had moderate values of λ (between .4 and .5), and 81.25% of the loadings had high levels (with λ at or above .6). Table 4.4 shows the different components of the exploratory factor analysis for all of the teachers in the sample, revealing the λ values for each survey item. The last eleven survey items were originally thought to be classed under one factor because of their similarity (perceptions of strategies). However, the PCFA results showed a correspondence between three separate components within these interventions: school strategies, bystander strategies, and strategies focusing on consequences. There are still arguments for combining these three factors into a single component of ‘perspective of response’: 1) they have very similar meanings; 2) the last two components (‘bystander strategies’ and ‘consequence strategies’) each accounted for less than 5% of the overall variance; 3) there were only two items for the ‘bystander strategies’ component. According to Hair (2014: 107), “in the social sciences ... it is common to consider a solution that accounts for 60 percent of the total variance (and in some instances even less) as satisfactory.” This PCFA solution meets this requirement because if there were simply 6 components (combining all strategies into one category), the PCFA would still explain 61% of the variance.

Table 4.3: Initial Eigenvalues for Different Components of All Responses ($n = 212$)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Cronbach's alpha
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
Instrumentality	7.86	0.25	0.25	0.90
Expectancy	3.56	0.11	0.36	0.89
School Strategies	3.11	0.1	0.45	0.76
Valence	1.91	0.06	0.51	0.78
Intervention	1.81	0.06	0.57	0.72
Anger	1.33	0.04	0.61	0.90
Bystander Strategies	1.17	0.04	0.65	0.66
Consequence Strategies	1.12	0.03	0.68	0.72

Table 4.4: Different Components of Exploratory Factor Analysis for Combined Data

Factor Name	Page No. Item No.	Item Description	Component							
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Instrumentality	Page 1, Item 6	School Victim Instrumentality	.71							
	Page 1, Item 9	School Perpetrator Instrumentality	.88							
	Page 2, Item 6	Home Victim Instrumentality	.86							
	Page 2, Item 9	Home Perpetrator Instrumentality	.87							
	Page 3, Item 6	Group Victim Instrumentality	.75							
	Page 3, Item 9	Group Perpetrator Instrumentality	.67							
Expectancy	Page 1, Item 5	School Victim Expectancy		.80						
	Page 1, Item 8	School Perpetrator Expectancy		.74						
	Page 2, Item 5	Home Victim Expectancy		.65						
	Page 2, Item 8	Home Perpetrator Expectancy		.69						
	Page 3, Item 5	Group Victim Expectancy		.89						
	Page 3, Item 8	Group Perpetrator Expectancy		.88						
School Strategies	Page 4, Item 1	Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus			.37					
	Page 4, Item 2	Develop more specific school policies			.68					
	Page 4, Item 3	Plan school- wide anti- bullying assemblies			.60					
	Page 4, Item 5	Establish a task force			.48					
	Page 4, Item 7	Adopt anti- bullying lessons			.73					
	Page 4, Item 8	Provide professional development			.68					

Factor Name	Page No. Item No.	Item Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Valence	Page 1, Item 1	School Seriousness				.84				
	Page 2, Item 1	Home Seriousness				.81				
	Page 3, Item 1	Group Seriousness	.58			.42				
Intervention	Page 1, Item 3	School Intervention					.51			
	Page 2, Item 3	Home Intervention					.47			
	Page 3, Item 3	Group Intervention					.90			
Anger	Page 1, Item 2	School Anger						.88		
	Page 2, Item 2	Home Anger						.94		
	Page 3, Item 2	Group Anger						.86		
Bystander Strategies	Page 4, Item 4	Encourage students to report bullying							.60	
	Page 4, Item 6	Encourage student bystanders							.77	
Consequence Strategies	Page 4, Item 9	Increase consequences for cyberbullying								.88
	Page 4, Item 10	Warn about consequences for cyberbullying								.79
	Page 4, Item 11	Increase parental involvement								.53

4.2.3 Summary of Findings from the Initial Analysis

A presentation of descriptive statistics revealed the nature of the data. Namely, there seemed to be a difference in terms of the degree of response by scenario (home cyberbullying with less of a likelihood of response). Later analyses using multilevel modeling and repeated measure ANOVA tries to determine whether or not this difference is indeed statistically significant in predicting the dependent variable likelihood of response. Additionally, the analysis identified eight different components or constructs (as presented in the preceding table). The next sections test the validity of these constructs across the different samples with CFA.

4.3 Strategies for Teachers (RQ1)



While the first part of the chapter presented background information, this next section examines teacher perceptions of strategies for dealing with cyberbullying. First of all, a presentation of the descriptive statistics by country highlights the similarities and differences between the US and English teacher perceptions of strategies. The rank ordering is shown to reveal the differences in the ways teachers perceive particular strategies across the two samples. Next, the analysis focuses on a CFA. The EFA based in principal components revealed three constructs when it came to strategies: ‘Consequence Strategies’, ‘School Culture Strategies’, and ‘Bystander Strategies.’ Yet, these constructs can be explored further. Namely, it would be interesting to see if there is a positive or negative association between these different constructs. Additionally, it would be helpful to see whether or not these constructs remained consistent across the two samples in England and the United States.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Strategies

Up until this point, the descriptive statistics have explored the data within one combined dataset. However, separating the descriptive statistics by country can reveal how teachers potentially perceived these strategies slightly differently across the samples. Table 4.5 shows the descriptive statistics for teacher perceptions of response by country. As can be seen from Table 4.5, teachers across England and the United States perceive the strategies slightly differently. For example, Table 4.5 reveals that the US sample ranked ‘encouraging bystanders’ as one of the top alternatives, whereas the English sample considered the same strategy as one of the least effective strategies in their ranking. These cultural nuances are important to interpret, whilst also emphasizing similarities. Namely, both the English and the US samples consider ‘involving parents’ as

the most effective strategy and ‘increasing monitoring’ as the least effective.³ Interviews explore these trends and ask teachers their perspectives as to why they might consider these strategies.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics for Teacher Perceptions of Responses by Country Sample

Descriptive Statistics for all Teachers					
All	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	
Increase parental involvement	3.17	0.90	-1.02	3.86	
Increase consequences	3.14	0.94	-1.04	3.57	
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	3.02	0.94	-0.74	2.98	
Encourage students to report bullying	2.88	0.95	-0.61	2.83	
Provide professional development	2.81	0.92	-0.47	2.64	
Develop more specific school policies	2.74	0.95	-0.55	2.86	
Encourage student bystanders	2.73	1.11	-0.52	2.41	
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.68	0.95	-0.34	2.78	
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.67	0.98	-0.20	2.15	
Establish a task force	2.54	0.97	-0.40	2.76	
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.05	1.11	0.07	2.14	
Descriptive Statistics for English Teachers					
England	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	
Increase parental involvement	3.27	0.84	-1.16	4.59	
Increase consequences	3.25	0.87	-1.20	4.23	
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	3.17	0.87	-0.91	3.51	
Encourage students to report bullying	2.93	0.90	-0.57	2.83	
Provide professional development	2.79	0.90	-0.43	2.74	
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.71	0.99	-0.27	2.24	
Develop more specific school policies	2.68	0.97	-0.57	2.91	
Encourage student bystanders	2.67	1.15	-0.41	2.13	
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.64	0.97	-0.39	2.96	
Establish a task force	2.60	0.96	-0.47	2.84	
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.03	1.10	0.06	2.08	
Descriptive Statistics for US Teachers					
USA	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis	
Increase parental involvement	2.95	1.02	-0.68	2.79	
Develop more specific school policies	2.88	0.90	-0.46	2.47	
Encourage student bystanders	2.88	0.99	0.81	3.55	
Provide professional development	2.88	0.96	-0.58	2.46	
Increase consequences	2.87	1.07	-0.67	2.57	
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.77	0.93	-0.17	2.10	
Encourage students to report bullying	2.75	1.04	-0.59	2.59	
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	2.65	1.02	-0.32	2.39	
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.57	0.98	-0.02	2.01	
Establish a task force	2.4	0.99	-0.24	2.69	
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.1	1.13	0.09	2.24	

³ For a list of the descriptive statistics by Gender, please refer to Appendix 25. From this information, it can be seen that male teachers tended to rank ‘developing more specific school policies’ more highly than female teachers.

4.3.2 A Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Teacher Strategies

This section conducts a Confirmatory Factor Analysis with the US and English samples for the previous strategy constructs arising from the EFA. The Principal Component Factor Analysis identified three out of the eight latent variables as relating to strategies (School Culture Strategies, Bystander Strategies, and Consequences Strategies). This section 4.3.2 summarizes results for a CFA for these three latent variables pertaining to teacher strategies, whereas section 4.4 uses a CFA for the latent variables dealing with Expectancy Factors. This section also explores teacher perspectives of different types of strategies, assuming that there was a correlation between the survey items, “increase consequences” and “warn about consequences” because it is assumed that both of these survey items relate directly to the nature of the selected response; a teacher who would communicate the consequences might be more likely to believe in their effectiveness ($r = .43, p < .01$). The ‘modification index approved model fit’ also suggested two correlations. Firstly, ‘School Assemblies’ and ‘Encouraging Reporting’ were a recommended correlation ($r = .39, p < .01$), which made sense because explaining the school’s reporting channels could be seen as effective material for an assembly. Secondly, correlating ‘Adopt Anti-Bullying Lessons’ and ‘Encouraging Student Bystanders’ ($r = .32, p < .01$) was recommended, which seemed plausible since teachers would probably encourage student bystanders during the classroom lesson.

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis identified the three latent variables: ‘School Culture Strategies’, ‘Consequence Strategies’, and ‘Bystander Strategies’. All three of the latent variables were correlated, and the model was appropriate for the data based upon the results, CFI = .97; RMSEA = .046, 90%, CI (.008, .072). Table 4.6 presents the results with the factor loadings designated as ‘School Culture Strategies’, ‘Bystander Strategies’, and ‘Consequence Strategies’. Table 4.7 presents all of the correlations between the latent variables. Figure 4.2 presents the Confirmatory Factor Analysis diagrammatically. The correlations between the perceived effectiveness of different types of strategies correlate, suggesting that teachers’ perspectives of the effectiveness of strategies positively relate with one another. To compare, the alternative of fitting all of the strategies into just one latent variable led to a less good model fit (CFI = .78, RMSEA

= .124). Appendix 2 presents the correlations of all of the survey items within the three constructs.

Table 4.6: Confirmatory Factor Analysis with Standardized Metric for Latent Variables: School Culture Strategies, Bystander Strategies, Consequence Strategies for Combined Data

Strategy Type	Page No. Item No.	Item Description	Different Types of Strategies		
			School Culture	Bystander Strategies	Consequence Strategies
School Culture Strategies	Page 4, Item 1	Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	.45**		
	Page 4, Item 2	Develop more specific school policies	.55**		
	Page 4, Item 3	Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	.69**		
	Page 4, Item 5	Establish a task force	.59**		
	Page 4, Item 7	Adopt anti-bullying lessons	.72**		
	Page 4, Item 8	Provide professional development	.63**		
Bystander Strategies	Page 4, Item 4	Encourage students to report bullying		.79**	
	Page 4, Item 6	Encourage student bystanders		.61**	
Consequence Strategies	Page 4, Item 9	Increase consequences for cyberbullying			.48**
	Page 4, Item 10	Warn about consequences for cyberbullying			.68**
	Page 4, Item 11	Increase parental involvement			.62**

$\chi^2(38) = 54.15$, CFI = .97; RMSEA = .046, 90% CI (.008, .072);

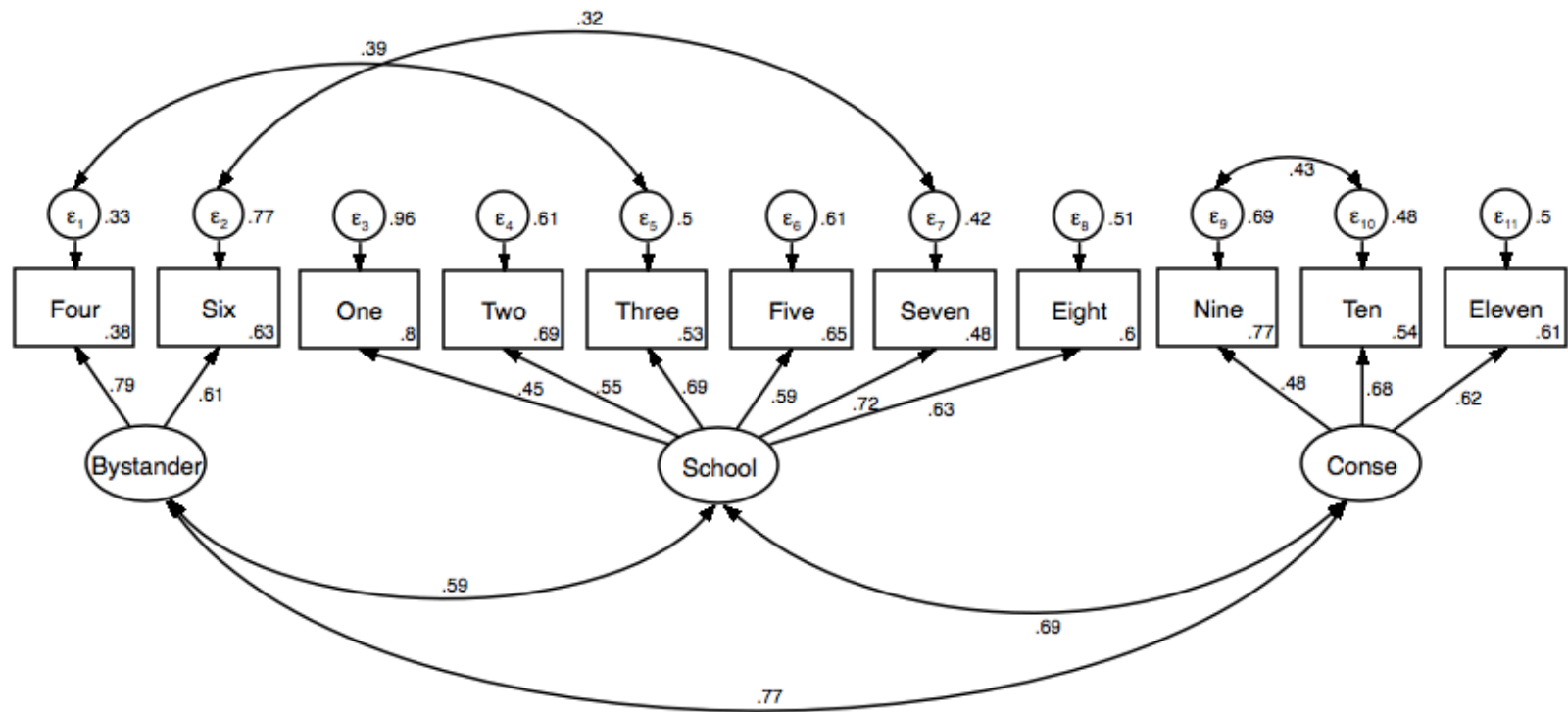
** $p < .01$; CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = 90% Confidence Interval.

Table 4.7: Correlations between Perceived Effectiveness of Different Types of Strategies

	School Culture Strategies	Bystander Strategies
Bystander Strategies	.59**	
Consequence Strategies	.69**	.77**

** $p < .01$

Figure 4.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Different Strategies with Standardized Loadings of Combined Data (Table 4.6 Provides Item Descriptions)



The next analysis tests whether there is strong invariance in the CFA solutions across cultures. The question becomes if intercepts and factor loadings are constrained, does the previously stated CFA solution still fit the data? When intercepts and factor loadings were constrained across country, an appropriate fit was identified, CFI = .94; RMSEA =.065, 90%, CI (.037, .089). Table 4.8 shows the CFA analysis across countries with standardized metrics when intercepts and factor loadings are constrained by country. Table 4.9 highlights how the different types of strategies still correlate when factor loadings and intercepts are constrained by country, suggesting that teachers within both countries had a high correlation between the perceived effectiveness of the different types of response.

Table 4.8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis across Countries with Standardized Metric for Latent Variables: School Culture Strategies, Bystander Strategies, Consequence Strategies

Item Description	School Culture Strategies		Bystander Strategies		Consequence Strategies	
	England	USA	England	USA	England	USA
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	0.43**	0.52**				
Develop more specific school policies	0.53**	0.60**				
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	0.65**	0.75**				
Establish a task force	0.56**	0.64**				
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	0.69**	0.76**				
Provide professional development	0.61**	0.70**				
Encourage students to report bullying			0.78**	0.76**		
Encourage student bystanders			0.57**	0.71**		
Increase consequences for cyberbullying					0.42**	0.59**
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying					0.58**	0.73**
Increase parental involvement					0.52**	0.75**

$\chi^2(92) = 130.81$, CFI = .94; RMSEA =.065, 90%, CI (.037, .089)

** $p < .01$; CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = 90% Confidence Interval.

Table 4.9: Correlations between Perceived Effectiveness of Different Types of Strategies for Combined Data by Country

	School Culture Strategies		Bystander Strategies	
	England	USA	England	USA
Bystander Strategies	0.53**	0.66**		
Consequence Strategies	0.71**	0.77**	0.75**	0.93**

** $p < .01$

4.3.3 Summary of Teacher Strategies Section

This section sought to provide an initial understanding of how teachers perceived strategies to cyberbullying based on the questionnaire survey results. The descriptive statistics suggested that there were broad similarities but some differences in terms of perceptions by country samples. For example, US teachers were more likely to consider ‘encouraging bystanders’ a good alternative. Strategies such as ‘parental involvement’ were seen as effective across countries, while ‘increasing monitoring’ was seen as the least effective in both countries. Furthermore, the results of the EFA and the CFA suggests that there are three main constructs underlying the listed strategies: Bystander, Consequence, and School Culture. In my initial analyses of the survey data, I originally tested to see whether the survey items for school strategies (consisting of eleven survey items) had satisfactory reliability with Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha = .83$). However, the further analyses (EFA and CFA) provide more detailed findings and suggest that treating the items as forming one overall scale masks underlying patterns of variation. Stauffer et al. (2012) made the decision of testing for overall fit using Cronbach’s alpha rather than running an Exploratory Factor Analysis in a prior study in the US. However, further analysis of patterns using Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses in this study revealed three important and distinct constructs that provide a better understanding of teachers’ responses. The presentation of these three new constructs of school culture strategies, bystander strategies, and consequence strategies provide an original contribution to the research literature. Although chapter three focuses mainly on findings, an additional discussion of these findings can be found in Appendix 26.

4.4 Introduction to Expectancy Factors (RQ2)



The next section seeks to highlight the connections between Expectancy Factors (valence, expectancy, instrumentality) and a likelihood of response. The section uses CFA, explores correlations between constructs, and then presents regression models in order to understand whether expectancy, instrumentality, and valence serve as adequate predictors for a likelihood of response. These next sections presents first a CFA, and then the analysis tests to see if there is strong invariance across the US and English samples. After the tests of construct validity, the analysis then focuses on addressing RQ2 (*How do background factors (such as teacher gender and country) and Expectancy Theory relate to teacher perceptions and responses?*). The analysis presents the different types of regression models utilized within this study. Multilevel assumptions are tested, and the null models introduced. The null models are later compared to the fitted models including background variables and factors from Expectancy Theory (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence). Teacher likelihood of response is used as the dependent variable. The multilevel models also address RQ4 (*What is the likelihood of intervention for different scenarios of bullying?*). The different scenarios are here used as categorical predictors for a likelihood of response.

Further analysis then addresses RQ4 with the use of a repeated measure ANOVA. This additional repeated measure ANOVA is used to explore in more detail the differences of teachers' responses for the three different scenarios. RQ3 (*What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying?*) is also explored with a repeated measure ANOVA. The last sections then outline the next steps, clarifying the connections between the quantitative findings and follow on qualitative methods.

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics for Expectancy Factors

To review, the descriptive statistics as well as Cronbach's alpha for each of the constructs (valence, instrumentality, expectancy, and likelihood of teacher response) are shown in Table 4.10. The results show that all α values were all within an acceptable range ($0.70 < \alpha$).⁴ This chapter focuses on creating regression models, using the expectancy factors (valence, instrumentality, and expectancy) and background factors (Gender and Country) as predictors for teachers' self-reported willingness to respond.

Table 4.10 Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha for Expectancy Factors

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Number of Items	Cronbach's alpha
Valence	4.51	0.65	3	0.78
Instrumentality	3.20	0.88	6	0.90
Expectancy	3.83	0.86	6	0.89
Likelihood of Response	4.39	0.82	3	0.72

4.4.2 A Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Expectancy Factors

The model specifically assumed a set of correlations between expectancy and instrumentality error terms (further clarified in Appendix 9). The 'modification index approved model fit' also suggested one additional correlation between mobile group seriousness and mobile group response ($r = .48, p < .01$). This correlation seems plausible because the content of the group mobile post is critical for understanding how far the cyberbullying has advanced. Whereas, in the first two scenarios, it is unclear whether others have become involved in the cyberbullying. The group nature of this third scenario suggests that the bullying in a sense has moved to a consequential level. Appendix 2 presents all of the correlations within survey items (namely, instrumentality and expectancy metrics are highly associated with one another due to the similarity of the questions posed in the scenarios).

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis took into consideration four latent variables: expectancy, valence, instrumentality, and willingness to respond. All four of the latent

⁴ Within the US and English samples, Cronbach's alpha also had reliable results: US Valence ($\alpha = .77$), English Valence ($\alpha = .79$); US Expectancy ($\alpha = .88$), English Expectancy ($\alpha = .90$); US Instrumentality ($\alpha = .92$), English Instrumentality ($\alpha = .89$); US Response ($\alpha = .73$), English Response ($\alpha = .71$).

variables were correlated, and the model was appropriate for the data based upon the results, CFI = .96; RMSEA = .062, 90%, CI (.047, .077). Table 4.11 presents the results with all of the factor loadings designated as expectancy, valence, instrumentality, and response. Table 4.12 presents all of the correlations between these latent variables. The correlations between ‘Perceived Effectiveness of Different Types of Strategies’ were significant, indicating that the different factors are correlated. An alternative solution of fitting the strategies without the correlations between any of the error terms provided a poorer model fit, CFI = .84, RMSEA = .11.

Table 4.11: Confirmatory Factor Analysis with Standardized Metric for Expectancy Factors and Likelihood of Intervention for Combined Data

Factor	Item Description	Latent Variables			
		Instrumentality	Expectancy	Valence	Intervention
Instrumentality	Instrumentality at School with Perpetrator	0.70**			
	Instrumentality at School with Victim	0.62**			
	Instrumentality with Home Cyber Bully	0.84**			
	Instrumentality with Home Cyber Victim	0.85**			
	Instrumentality with dealing with Cell Phone Perpetrator	0.68**			
	Instrumentality with dealing with Cell Phone Victim	0.77**			
Expectancy	School Victim Expectancy		0.67**		
	School Perpetrator Expectancy		0.72**		
	Home Victim Expectancy		0.81**		
	Home Perpetrator Expectancy		0.79**		
	Group Victim Expectancy		0.70**		
	Group Perpetrator Expectancy		0.70**		
Valence	School Valence			0.80**	
	Home Valence			0.84**	
	Group Valence			0.63**	
Intervention	School Intervention				0.73**
	Home Intervention				0.85**
	Group Intervention				0.50**

$\chi^2(104) = 184.25$, CFI = .96; RMSEA = .062, 90%, CI (.047, .077);

** $p < .01$; CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = 90% Confidence Interval.

Table 4.12: Correlations Between Different Factors of Expectancy Theory for Combined Data

	Intervention	Instrumentality	Expectancy
Instrumentality	0.45**		
Expectancy	0.55**	0.61**	
Valence	0.56**	0.28**	0.39**

** $p < .01$

The next analysis tests whether there is strong invariance across cultures for different constructs of Expectancy Theory. The question becomes if intercepts and factor loadings are constrained, does the previous confirmatory factor analysis still fit? When intercepts and factor loadings were constrained across country, an appropriate fit remained evident, CFI = .94; RMSEA = .078, 90%, CI (.064, .093). Table 4.13 shows the results of CFA across countries with standardized metrics for expectancy factors and likelihood of response when intercepts and factor loadings were constrained by country. Table 4.14 shows the correlations between the different factors of expectancy across England and the US. All factors of Expectancy Theory correlate with a greater willingness to respond. This becomes especially notable for expectancy correlating with likelihood of a response within the American sample ($r = .84, p < .01$).

Table 4.13: Confirmatory Factor Analysis across Countries with Standardized Metric for Expectancy Factors and Likelihood of Intervention

Factor	Item Description	Instrumentality		Expectancy		Valence		Intervention	
		England	USA	England	USA	England	USA	England	USA
Instrumentality	Instrumentality at School with Perpetrator	0.66**	0.73**						
	Instrumentality at School with Victim	0.61**	0.70**						
	Instrumentality with Home Cyber Bully	0.85**	0.81**						
	Instrumentality with Home Cyber Victim	0.86**	0.87**						
	Instrumentality with dealing with Cell Phone Perpetrator	0.64**	0.69**						
	Instrumentality with dealing with Cell Phone Victim	0.76**	0.81**						
Expectancy	School Victim Expectancy			0.69**	0.60**				
	School Perpetrator Expectancy			0.70**	0.62**				
	Home Victim Expectancy			0.85**	0.76**				
	Home Perpetrator Expectancy			0.82**	0.73**				
	Group Victim Expectancy			0.73**	0.65**				
	Group Perpetrator Expectancy			0.71**	0.60**				
Valence	School Valence					0.82**	0.70**		
	Home Valence					0.86**	0.81**		
	Group Valence					0.61**	0.62**		
Intervention	School Intervention							0.68**	0.76**
	Home Intervention							0.84**	0.92**
	Group Intervention							0.48**	0.54**

$\chi^2(236) = 379.85$, CFI = .94; RMSEA = .078, 90%, CI (.064, .093);

** $p < .01$; CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CI = 90% Confidence Interval.

Table 4.14: Correlations For Different Factors of Expectancy Across Countries

Item Description	Expectancy		Valence		Intervention	
	England	USA	England	USA	England	USA
Instrumentality	.54**	0.73**	.27*	.23	.44**	.54**
Expectancy			.35**	.51**	.44**	.84**
Valence					.61**	.51**

** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

There were different degrees of correlation across the factors from Expectancy Theory, meaning that an individual with a higher score on one construct tended to have a higher score on other constructs. However, measurements of valence and instrumentality were only weakly related (correlations under .3 in both England and the US, $p > .01$). This would suggest that individuals with higher levels of confidence in the task did not necessarily interpret the scenario as more serious. Correlations tended to be stronger for other constructs. Table 4.15 reveals the descriptive statistics associated with each of the factors. Instrumentality had the lowest mean score ($M = 3.20$, $SD = .88$); expectancy showed the second highest mean score ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .86$); while valence had the highest mean score of the three ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .65$). However, an important part of the analysis connects back to the question of how the other factors of Expectancy Theory relate to the final construct within the table, ‘Likelihood of Response’ ($M = 4.39$, $SD = .82$).

Table 4.15: Descriptive Statistics for Expectancy Factors with Skewness and Kurtosis for Combined Data

Descriptive Statistics for Expectancy Factors					
	All	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Valence		4.51	.65	-1.11	3.69
Instrumentality		3.20	.88	.02	2.88
Expectancy		3.83	.86	-.37	2.85
Likelihood of Response		4.39	.82	-1.44	5.10

4.4.3 Multiple Regression Models Introduction

In order to address the second research question (*'How do background factors [e.g. country, gender] and factors of Expectancy Theory relate to teacher perceptions and responses?'*), multiple regression models were utilized. This enables the researcher to test and to retest whether Expectancy Factors were statistically significant predictors for a likelihood to respond and establish the roles of other background factors. Standard errors were clustered around each specific teacher filling out the survey. As each of the teachers filled out three separate scenarios, it is posited that the standard error could relate to the answers given by that specific teacher within each of the questions. For example, a compassionate teacher might consider all of the scenarios as more serious than a less compassionate one. In addition, a series of multilevel models were also implemented, including a random effects model, a fixed effects model, and a between effects model. For more details in regards to the assumptions behind the multiple regression models, please reference Appendix 11. The next section examines each of these different models in more detail.

4.4.4 Multiple Regression with Clustered Standard Errors

This first model clusters the standard errors of the multiple regression by teacher. Ordinary Least Squares inherently assumes that all of the responses are independent from one another. However, the fact that teachers fill out multiple survey items suggests their responses should be clustered, assuming that there is some relationship between their responses. This designation is important for emphasizing that the variation within teachers is not independent. Hence, the standard errors emerge from aggregated metrics generated for each of the teachers filling out the survey. The model is thereby represented in Equation 4.1.

Equation 4.1

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{2i} + \beta_3 x_{3i} + \beta_4 x_{4i} + \beta_5 x_{5i} + \beta_6 x_{6i} + \beta_7 x_{7i} + \beta_8 x_{8i} + \beta_9 x_{9i} + \beta_{10} x_{10i} + \varepsilon_i^5$$

⁵ In this analysis, y_i is the likelihood of intervention, β_2 is valence coefficient, β_3 is victim expectancy coefficient, β_4 is victim instrumentality coefficient, β_5 is perpetrator expectancy coefficient, β_6 is perpetrator instrumentality coefficient, β_7 is the country coefficient, and β_8 is the gender coefficient, β_9 is the home cyberbullying coefficient, β_{10} is the group cyberbullying coefficient.

4.4.5 Random Effects Model

A random effects model is used within the analysis, accounting for nested factors by changing intercepts in a preferable manner (Gelman and Hill 2007: 245-246). In order to find the specific designations for each of the β values in all of the models listed, please look at the footnote below⁶. Unlike multiple regression, the random effects model suggests that the responses should be nested within teachers filling out the survey. The logic goes something like this: each teacher fills out a survey, which suggests that the responses that they provide within different scenarios will be inherently connected due to similar perceptions. So, y_{ij} differs from the output of a multiple regression in that it states that the result (willingness to respond) is an outcome i nested within a specific teacher j . A random effects model suggests that perhaps each of the teachers filling out the survey could have an error term, respecting the inherent variance specific to that teacher answering the survey, as can be seen in Equation 4.2 (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012: 127-128).

Equation 4.2: Random Effects Model

$$y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2x_{2ij} + \beta_3x_{3ij} + \beta_4x_{4ij} + \beta_5x_{5ij} + \beta_6x_{6ij} + \beta_7x_{7ij} + \beta_8x_{8ij} + \beta_9x_{9ij} + \beta_{10}x_{10ij} + \xi_{ij}$$

ξ_{ij} then can be divided into different parts: $\zeta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$. In this situation, the intercept would be specific to the teacher ($\beta_1 + \zeta_j$), whereas ε_{ij} marks a situation specific error component.⁷ Therefore the preceding equation can be rewritten in Equation 4.3 (Ibid).

Equation 4.3: Expansion of Random Effects Model

$$y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2x_{2ij} + \beta_3x_{3ij} + \beta_4x_{4ij} + \beta_5x_{5ij} + \beta_6x_{6ij} + \beta_7x_{7ij} + \beta_8x_{8ij} + \beta_9x_{9ij} + \beta_{10}x_{10ij} + \zeta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

⁶ In this analysis, y_{ij} is the likelihood of intervention, β_2 is valence coefficient, β_3 is victim expectancy coefficient, β_4 is victim instrumentality coefficient, β_5 is perpetrator expectancy coefficient, β_6 is perpetrator instrumentality coefficient, β_7 is country coefficient, and β_8 is gender coefficient, β_9 is the home cyberbullying coefficient, β_{10} is the group cyberbullying coefficient.

⁷ The models assume $E(\varepsilon_{ij}|\mathbf{X}_j, \zeta_j) = 0$. This means that taking into consideration all covariates (as represented in the equation by matrix \mathbf{X}_j) and the random intercept of the model (ζ_j), the residual of the situation specific error term (ε_{ij}) is expected to be zero. The model also assumes $E(\zeta_j|\mathbf{X}_j, \zeta_j) = 0$, which means that given matrix \mathbf{X}_j , the random intercept of the model is also expected to be zero.

4.4.5 Between Effects Model

Each of the multilevel models has a specific intent. The between effects model focuses primarily on the between teacher effects. This is a model that is based upon averages. It takes into consideration the covariates and the responses of the survey for each teacher and averages them over all three scenarios asked within the survey. The bars over the y , x , and ε terms indicate that the regression model focuses on the average values for each teacher. One important note is that this i term has been removed from each of the independent variables. This reveals that the model focuses primarily on the effect between teachers as opposed to within teachers, facing differing scenarios. For example, a mean value is generated across all three scenarios (school cyberbullying, home cyberbullying, and group cyberbullying) for each teacher, and this information is used in the regression model as shown in Equation 4.4 (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012: 143-144).

Equation 4.4: Between Effects Model⁸

$$\bar{y}_j = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \bar{x}_{2,j} + \beta_3 \bar{x}_{3,j} + \beta_4 \bar{x}_{4,j} + \beta_5 \bar{x}_{5,j} + \beta_6 \bar{x}_{6,j} + \beta_7 \bar{x}_{7,j} + \beta_8 \bar{x}_{8,j} + \zeta_j + \bar{\varepsilon}_j$$

4.4.6 Fixed Effects Model

Whilst the between effects model focuses on the variances between teachers, the fixed effects model focuses on the variance within teachers. The previous random effects model recommended $\beta_1 + \zeta_j$, while this model uses α_j . This is different because it is a fixed intercept for the educator, thereby relying greatly upon the independent variables of the model to account for between teacher variations. However, it assumes that the differences between teachers should not be a driving factor in modeling the willingness to respond, and the mean of the output variable should be emphasized (Crawley 2013: 681). Equation 4.5 reveals the fixed effects model (Rabe-Hesketh and Skrondal 2012: 145-146)

⁸ Please note that, that \bar{x} indicates that the coefficients are generated as a result of the mean values across all three scenarios. In this equation, y_j is the likelihood of intervention, β_2 is valence coefficient, β_3 is victim expectancy coefficient, β_4 is victim instrumentality coefficient, β_5 is perpetrator expectancy coefficient, β_6 is perpetrator instrumentality coefficient, β_7 is country coefficient, and β_8 is gender coefficient. The coefficients β_9 (home cyberbullying) and β_{10} (group cyberbullying) are not included in the model because this variable varies within teacher, while this models focuses on between teacher effects.

Equation 4.5 Fixed Effects Model⁹

$$y_{ij} = \beta_2x_{2ij} + \beta_3x_{3ij} + \beta_4x_{4ij} + \beta_5x_{5ij} + \beta_6x_{6ij} + \beta_9x_{9ij} + \beta_{10}x_{10ij} + \alpha_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

α_j = the teacher specific intercept

Effect sizes were calculated using the method of Peter Tymms (2002: 55-62).¹⁰

4.4.7 Null Models

Next, the analysis shows the ‘null’ or empty models so as to see how the variance is partitioned.¹¹ Table 4.16 provides the empty model results for multiple regression, random effects, between effects, and fixed effects. Table 4.17 shows the Multiple Regression and Multilevel Regression for ‘Expectancy Factors’ and ‘Willingness to Respond’ with clustered standard errors. With scenarios nested within teacher, it would be helpful to see how the variance is spread across the model, and then compare this to the models with the expectancy, instrumentality, and valence variables as predictors for a likelihood of response shown in Table 4.17. This enables the reader to see how the inclusion of the previously stated predictors accounts for variance at each level, revealing the changes of the ICC and the reduction in the unexplained variance. The ICC in the random effects model ($\rho = .39$) suggests that 39% of the variance rests between teachers, whereas 61% rests between the presented bullying scenarios that they encounter in the survey. However, the ICC in the fixed effects model ($\rho = .49$) suggests that 49% of the variance rests between teachers, whereas 51% rests between the presented scenarios. To compare how the ICC changes with the inclusion of the predictors, please reference Table 4.17 to get a full listing of the predictors.

⁹ Please note that unlike the other models, β_{7x7ij} and β_{8x8ij} are not included in this model. The reason for this is both of these terms represent categorical variables that cannot be measured in terms of variance within the teacher. Please note that y_{ij} is the likelihood of intervention, β_2 is valence coefficient, β_3 is victim expectancy coefficient, β_4 is victim instrumentality coefficient, β_5 is perpetrator expectancy coefficient, β_6 is perpetrator instrumentality,

¹⁰ For continuous variables, $ES = (2\beta * SD_{Predictor}) / \sigma_e$; β is the regression coefficient in the regression model and $SD_{Predictor}$ references the independent variable's Standard Deviation, σ_e is the pooled standard deviation of within effects; for dichotomous variables $ES = \beta / \sigma_e$ (Tymms 2002: 55-62).

¹¹ When using the null model for random effects $y_{ij} = \beta_j + \zeta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$, the situations (i) are nested within teachers (j); ζ_j = the random intercept for each specific teacher; ε_{ij} = situation specific error component.

Table 4.16 Empty Models for Likelihood of Response for Combined Data

	Multiple Regression		Random Effects		Between Effects		Fixed Effects	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Fixed Part								
Constant	4.39	0.03	4.39	0.04	4.39	0.04	4.39	0.03
Random Part								
$\sqrt{\psi}$.51				.63 ^a	
$\sqrt{\theta}$.64				.64 ^b	
ρ^c (<i>teacher</i>)			.39				.49	
ρ^d (<i>scenario</i>)			.61				.51	

^a SD for estimated Level 2 residuals, α_j

^b SD for estimated Level 1 residuals, ε_{ij}

^c $\rho = \psi / (\psi + \theta)$; assuming $\psi = \text{Var}(\zeta_j)$ [variance of random intercept] and $\theta = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{ij})$ [variance of situation specific error component].

^d $\rho = \theta / (\psi + \theta)$

4.4.8 Regression Models for Expectancy Factors

The multiple regression and multilevel models were conducted to discover which Expectancy Factors served as statistical predictors for teachers' willingness to respond (as seen in Table 4.17). The analysis explores expectancy and instrumentality in terms of victims and perpetrators. The multiple regression was plausible, yet the multilevel modeling had a distinct advantage methodologically and substantively (scenarios were nested within teachers as described above). Table 4.17 shows that models consistently revealed that valence and expectancy with perpetrator were both identified as statistically significant predictors. The use of fixed effects and random effects models can be seen as two 'complementary approaches' (Clarke, Crawford, Steele and Vignoles 2015: 259).

As can be seen from Table 4.17, various regression models were run. The models sought to determine whether categorical predictors (such as gender, country, and scenario) as well as Expectancy Factors (such as instrumentality, expectancy, and valence) served as adequate predictors for a higher teacher willingness to respond. The first model was a multiple regression with robust standard errors clustered by teacher. The robust multiple regression using gender, country, valence, instrumentality with perpetrator, instrumentality with victim, expectancy with perpetrator, expectancy with victim and scenario was statistically significant, $R^2 = .33$, $F(9, 201) = 24.17$, $p < .01$. The

random effects model also had statistically significant results as well, overall $R^2 = .33$ (within $R^2 = .26$, between $R^2 = .36$), Wald $\chi^2(9) = 209, p < .01$. The between effects model also had statistically significant results, overall $R^2 = .19$ (within $R^2 = .18$, between $R^2 = .40$), $F(7, 194) = 15.99, p < .01$. The fixed effects model had statistically significant results, overall $R^2 = .30$ (within $R^2 = .27$, between $R^2 = .32$), $F(7, 201) = 16.34, p < .01$. The random effects model is deemed preferable to the clustered regression model, because scenarios were nested within teachers, better reflecting the natural clustering in the survey data. The random effects model also seems preferable to the other multilevel models because it has the higher overall R^2 value. The Hausman Endogeneity test was conducted to test the estimators β within the random effects and fixed effects models. Because the Hausman endogeneity test was not found to be significant ($\chi^2(7) = 4.09, p > .05$), the random effects model is treated as more appropriate whilst analyzing the beta coefficients.

Across the models, valence, expectancy with perpetrator, and home cyberbullying seemed to serve as the most consistent predictors for a likelihood of response. According to the random effects model, valence ($\beta_2 = .37, p < .01, ES = .75$) and expectancy with perpetrator ($\beta_3 = .25, p < .01, ES = .68$) were both significant predictors for likelihood of response. The scenario of cyberbullying at home ($\beta_5 = -.46, p < .01, ES = -.87$) was found to be a negative predictor of a teacher's likelihood of response. Other factors such as gender ($\beta_8 = -.13, p > .05, ES = -.25$) and country ($\beta_7 = -.12, p > .05, ES = -.23$) do not test as significant. What is interesting about this finding is that no instrumentality measure is found to be a consistently significant predictor of a teacher's likelihood of response. Victim instrumentality ($\beta_4 = .07, p > .05, ES = .20$) and perpetrator instrumentality ($\beta_6 = .05, p > .05, ES = .14$) both tested as non-significant predictors. This suggests that not all of the expectancy factors are significant predictors of likelihood of response for this sample. Appendix 28 includes additional random effects regression models for further exploration with the within and between level variables in separate blocks from the expectancy factors.

Table 4.17: Multiple Regression and Multilevel Regression for ‘Expectancy Factors’ and ‘Willingness to Respond’ (Clustered Standard Error except for Between Effects Model) for Combined Data

	Multiple Regression		Random Effects		Between Effects		Fixed Effects (Within)	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
Fixed Part								
β_1 [Constant]	1.64**	0.33	1.77**	0.32	1.37**	0.34	1.87**	0.44
β_2 [Valence]	0.40**	0.06	0.37**	0.06	0.43**	0.07	0.29**	0.08
β_3 [V. Exp.]	0.00	0.05	0.01	0.05	-0.05	0.08	0.02	0.07
β_4 [V. Inst.]	0.11	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.21**	0.08	0.02	0.06
β_5 [P. Exp.]	0.26**	0.05	0.25**	0.05	0.31**	0.09	0.22**	0.08
β_6 [P. Inst.]	0.01	0.05	0.05	0.05	-0.11	0.08	0.12	0.06
β_7 [Country]	-0.13	0.08	-0.12	0.09	-0.12	0.08		
β_8 [Gender]	-0.13	0.07	-0.13	0.07	-0.13	0.08		
Scenarios								
β_9 [Home]	-0.47**	0.05	-0.46**	0.05			-0.45**	0.05
β_{10} [Group]	-0.09	0.05	-0.09	0.05			-0.08	0.05
R-squared								
Within			0.26		0.18		0.27	
Between			0.36		0.40		0.32	
Overall	0.33		0.32		0.19		0.30	
Random Part								
$\sqrt{\psi}$			0.39				0.52 ^a	
$\sqrt{\theta}$			0.53				0.53 ^b	
ρ^c (teacher)			0.35				0.49	
ρ^d (scenario)			0.65				0.51	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, $n=595$ for each of the models, ^a SD for estimated of Level 2 residuals, a_j , ^b SD for estimated Level 1 residuals, e_{ij}

4.4.9 Summary of Regression Model Findings

The regression models addressed the second and fourth research questions. The second research question focused on whether Expectancy Factors and background characteristics affected teacher response. In particular, valence and expectancy with perpetrator were statistically significant predictors of a likelihood of a response, while gender, country, and instrumentality did not consistently serve as statistically significant predictors for a response. The fourth research question explored how the likelihood of a teacher response would differ by scenario. In particular, it was consistently found that scenarios of ‘home cyberbullying’ had less of a likelihood of a response across both samples.

4.5 Seriousness and Response Based on Scenario (RQ3 and RQ4)



This next section explores whether the seriousness and the response level differed for teachers between scenarios. RQ4 (covering the likelihood of response associated with each scenario) was initially answered within the multilevel modeling. The scenario was a categorical predictor, with the willingness to respond serving as a continuous dependent variable. The findings suggest that teachers were less likely to respond in home cyberbullying scenarios than other forms of cyberbullying. It is important to retest this finding using bonferroni adjusted post hoc tests after a repeated measure ANOVA to see whether this finding still stands. The analysis also tests whether perceived seriousness differed by scenario using a similar strategy.

4.5.1 Perceived Seriousness by Scenario

This section tests whether there is statistically significant difference in terms of the level of perceived seriousness across different scenarios (RQ3). Hence, the analysis utilizes a repeated measure ANOVA.¹² Here are the null and alternative hypotheses:

H₀: The level of teachers' perceived seriousness does not differ between the different cyberbullying scenarios.

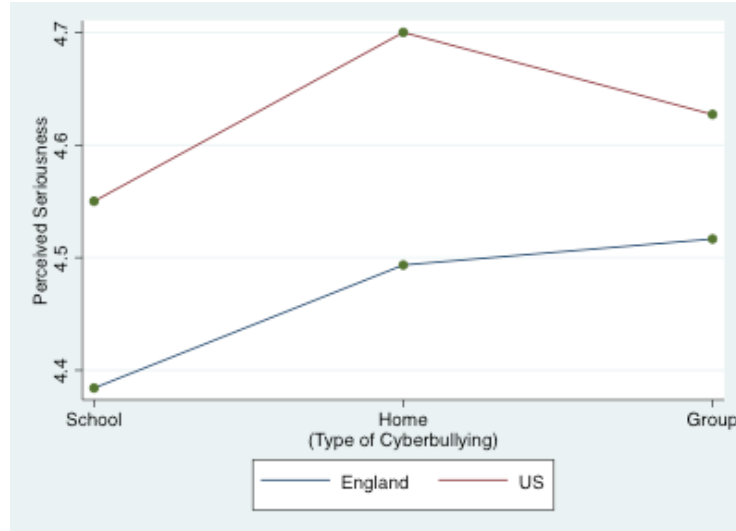
H₁: The level of perceived seriousness does differ between the different cyberbullying scenarios.

As can be seen from the repeated measure analysis of variance explored within Figure 4.3, there is a slight main effect of the type of cyberbullying on the perceived seriousness, $F(2, 211) = 5.78$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$ (however, if normality is not assumed as mentioned in the footnote, then the null hypothesis cannot be rejected).¹³ As a result, the analysis would recommend not rejecting the null hypothesis, as there was not a consistent finding suggesting a rejection of the null hypothesis when not assuming normality. A post-hoc comparison using a bonferroni correction found that teachers considered cyberbullying at school ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .70$) less serious than cyberbullying at home ($M = 4.55$, $SD = .60$), yet this difference of .12 was insignificant ($p > .05$). A post-hoc comparison using a bonferroni correction found that teachers considered cyberbullying in a computer lab ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .70$) less serious than a group cyberbullying on a cell phone ($M = 4.54$, $SD = .66$), but this difference of .11 was also not significant ($p > .05$).

¹² The first analysis assumes a normal distribution and suggests that there was a statistically significant difference between different situations, yet the non-normal Friedman's ANOVA in Appendix 4 did not discover the same difference in significance level. Therefore, the analysis assumes that there is no statistically significant difference between situations for perceived seriousness. Non-normal Friedman's ANOVA was considered because seriousness has a non-normal distribution (skewness = -1.11, kurtosis = 3.69).

¹³ $\eta^2 = SS_{\text{between treatments}} / (SS_{\text{total}} - SS_{\text{between subjects}})$

Figure 4.3: Seriousness Levels compared between Countries¹⁴



4.5.2 Willingness to Respond by Scenario

Next, the analysis considers whether the likelihood of response differed between scenarios with a repeated measure analysis of variance (RQ4).¹⁵ Here are the null and alternative hypotheses:

H₀: The likelihood of response does not differ between the different cyberbullying scenarios.

H₁: The likelihood of response does differ between the different cyberbullying scenarios.

As can be seen from the repeated measure analysis of variance explored within Figure 4.4, there is a significant main effect of the type of cyberbullying on the likelihood of response, $F(2, 211) = 41.34, p < .01, \eta^2 = .16$.¹⁶ This means that the null hypothesis can be rejected. A post-hoc comparison using a bonferroni correction found that teachers

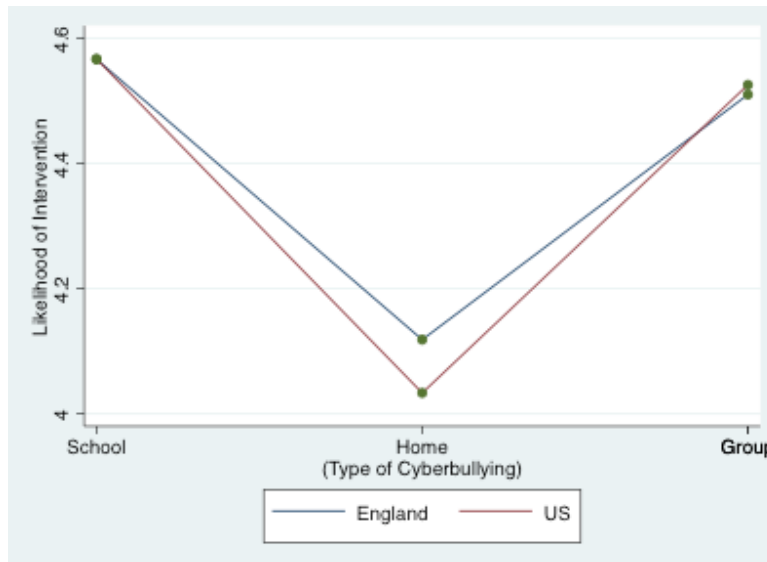
¹⁴ As noted earlier, the difference between scenario on perceived seriousness is not considered significant while using Friedman's ANOVA.

¹⁵ Normality is assumed, and there was a statistically significant difference found between situations on level of intervention. The significance was confirmed with the non-normal Friedman's ANOVA, found in Appendix 4, because skewness = -1.44 and kurtosis = 5.10 for likelihood of response.

¹⁶ $\eta^2 = SS_{\text{between}} / (SS_{\text{total}} - SS_{\text{between subjects}})$

were more likely to respond in scenarios of cyberbullying at school ($M = 4.57, SD = .62$) than scenarios of cyberbullying at home ($M = 4.09, SD = .95$), and this difference of around .48 was significant ($p < .01$). A post-hoc comparison using a bonferroni correction found that teachers were more likely to respond if they saw a group cyberbullying on a cell phone at school ($M = 4.51, SD = .77$) than when they were told of a student cyberbullied from home ($M = 4.09, SD = .95$), and this difference of .42 was also significant ($p < .01$). These results are consistent with the regression models, which suggested that Home Cyberbullying scenarios were statistically significant predictors for a reduced willingness to respond ($\beta_9 = -.46, SE = .05$, for the random effects model).

Figure 4.4: Willingness to Respond between Countries¹⁷



4.5.3 Summary of the Repeated Measure ANOVAs

The repeated measure ANOVAs address the third and fourth research questions. The third research question focuses on whether the perceived seriousness differed by scenario. The analysis suggests that seriousness level was not perceived to be different between scenarios. However, when exploring whether likelihood of response differed by scenario (RQ4), the analysis suggest that there was a difference, with home cyberbullying

¹⁷ As mentioned previously, the likelihood of response was deemed statistically significant between scenarios using Friedman's ANOVA and the repeated measure ANOVA.

having less of a likelihood of a response. This answer to the fourth research question remains consistent with the previous findings in the regression models.

4.6 Discussion of Quantitative Findings

The previous analysis suggests that not all of the originally claimed Expectancy Factors necessarily predict a higher likelihood of teacher response to various bullying scenarios presented in the survey. The EFA and CFA were used to test the factors in the theoretical models and the main findings across the two samples. Valence and expectancy are the two factors, consistently predicting a higher likelihood of teacher likelihood of response according to the multilevel regression models. However, the analysis highlighted that expectancy particularly dealt with how an educator felt that they could respond to a perpetrator of bullying. The preceding information suggests that a random effects model might produce an effective equation for predicting a teacher's willingness to respond (y_{ij}).

Equation 4.6: Random Effects Model¹⁸

$$y_{ij} = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \text{Valence}x_{2ij} + \beta_5 \text{PerpetratorExpectancy}x_{5ij} + \beta_9 \text{HomeCyberbullying}x_{9ij} + \zeta_{ij}$$

Home cyberbullying was seen as a negative predictor, suggesting that teachers across the US and England were less likely to report they would respond in those scenarios. A test of repeated measure analysis of variance further confirmed this result that there was a difference in the level of response between cyberbullying and other scenarios. However, the repeated measure analysis of variance test did not consistently show that teachers perceived different types of bullying in the same way. Further follow up interviews are used to explore how teachers perceive home cyberbullying differently (see Chapter 5) in Phase 2 of the research. At the same time, instrumentality did not necessarily represent a significant predictor for likelihood of response. This following section explores the

¹⁸ $\zeta_{ij} = \zeta_j + \varepsilon_{ij}$, as stated in the Random Effects Model Section

connection between the quantitative and qualitative methods. Here are the main findings from the quantitative methods:

- Likelihood of teacher reporting of response was greater for cyberbullying happening at school rather than cyberbullying taking place at home overall.
- Expectancy (especially confidence in one's ability to deal with perpetrators) and valence were statistically significant predictors for the likelihood of a response.¹⁹ However, instrumentality was not a statistically significant predictor for likelihood of response.
- There were slightly different results in terms of the perceptions of what constituted an ineffective and an effective way for dealing with cyberbullying across countries. For example, American teachers were more likely to think that encouraging student bystanders would be one of the most effective strategies to deal with cyberbullying than teachers from England.²⁰

4.7 Summary and Next Steps

The findings provide partial support for the theoretical model presented within the literature review. Instrumentality was not a part of the following analysis, while expectancy and valence were included in the interviews. The quantitative analysis provides a basis for follow up in the analysis of the interviews. If the qualitative interviews produce findings that do not conform to a particular result found in the quantitative analysis, the researcher can follow up with the interviewee in order to understand the possible reasons for the difference. Moreover, if there were similar findings, it would still be important to identify the reasons for why interviewees hold a particular belief. One such strategy becomes readily apparent with the strategies to long-term cyberbullying situations. For example, across both of the samples, increased consequences for cyberbullying was ranked highly as a strategy. However, teachers

¹⁹ Appendix 5 includes a correlation table showing similar results. Namely, the likelihood of intervention is significantly correlated with Valence and Expectancy measures. This was repeated assuming normality (Pearson's r) and not assuming normality (Spearman's rho).

²⁰ For a list of the descriptive statistics by Gender, please refer to Appendix 25. One difference between Genders is that more specific school policies ranked higher for the male teachers.

across England and the US might express different reasons for why they thought that this would potentially be an effective strategy.

As was shown in the CFA at the beginning of this chapter, the highest correlation of all was between the constructs of instrumentality and expectancy. This brings up an interesting finding, which should be taken into consideration whilst approaching the qualitative interviews. It is unclear whether this connection should have any directionality (for example does a higher belief in one's ability lead to a high confidence in the task at hand, or the other way around?). Perhaps, there is no clear direction, but rather the two may mutually reinforce one another and thinking of the association just as correlations may be more appropriate (as suggested by the CFA). However, by collecting and analyzing qualitative data it is possible to explore further whether teachers connect the idea of 'confidence in task' with valence or expectancy. This analysis of interviews becomes critical before promoting a potential model that could involve instrumentality into teacher perceptions of cyberbullying.

4.8 Concluding Remarks

Up until this point, the research has presented the methodological considerations and procedures, an analysis of the quantitative data, and the discussion of the main quantitative findings in relation to the main research questions. The theoretical and methodological considerations behind the selection of a mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy have been presented, while connecting the research questions to particular quantitative and qualitative methods. A quantitative findings chapter then focused on the analysis and the results garnered through a questionnaire survey, clarifying the different levels of teacher perceived seriousness between the different bullying scenarios and the reported likelihood of teacher response. Additionally, chapter 4 explored the different Expectancy Factors identified as statistically significant predictors for a response. Strategies deemed to be more or less effective were compared across countries and teacher experience levels, identifying and comparing the strategies seen as the three least and the most effective for dealing with cyberbullying.

Chapter 5 Qualitative Findings: Using Interviews to Explore and Illuminate Teachers' Perspectives

5.1 Introduction to Qualitative Analysis

This chapter builds on and extends the quantitative analyses presented in chapter 4. The interviews were conducted after the initial analyses of the quantitative data so that they could be informed by emerging findings (in line with the sequential Mixed Methods design as covered in Chapter 3 Section 3.2).

Thus, the qualitative design element employed an exploratory approach, seeking to better understand teacher perspectives with the help of open-ended questions. Hence, themes could emerge from the data. School culture, pastoral role, and relationships with students were three consistent main themes arising from the qualitative research. The interviews provided an opportunity for follow up sub-samples of a total of 20 teachers from England (n=10) and the United States (n=10) to comment on the main quantitative findings from the earlier survey (discussed in Chapter 4). These teachers shared their perspectives on the different conceptions of bullying/cyberbullying and the appropriate responses.

The theoretical model (covered in Section 3.7) drew attention to expectancy, instrumentality, and valence as independent variables for the dependent variable of likelihood of response. Based on the main findings from the quantitative analyses conducted with multilevel models (discussed in Section 4.4.8), the follow up interview analysis focused on expectancy and valence. These two factors were identified as significant predictors for a likelihood of response in the statistical models. Given this, questions on these topics were included in the interviews.

The chapter explores how themes emerging from the data interacted with Expectancy Factors such as expectancy (confidence) and valence (seriousness). The quantitative analysis provided a basis for follow up in the analyses of the interviews. If the qualitative interviews produced comments consistent or inconsistent between the two methods, the researcher followed up with the interviewee in order to further probe and understand the possible reasons for such a similarity or difference. For example, the follow up interviews produced findings on the role of teacher confidence and perceptions

of the seriousness of bullying incidents as influences on teachers' likelihood of intervention, thereby furthering support for the theoretical model that had been tested in the statistical models. Thus the findings were consistent and mutually reinforcing between the qualitative and quantitative methods. However exploration in the interviews on the topic of long-term cyberbullying strategies received different justifications for their high or low rankings. The interpretations of strategies such as parental involvement and increased consequences depended greatly on the context and experiences of the teachers themselves.

5.2 Exploring Themes

First, it is important to delve more deeply into the main themes that emerged from the quantitative findings. The qualitative interviews provided a chance to explore the findings set out in Chapter 4, while also providing an opportunity to analyze teachers' broader understandings and experiences of cyberbullying and bullying. The main quantitative themes stem from the research questions and aims. The first main theme pertained to long-term strategies for cyberbullying. The quantitative findings revealed that parental involvement and consequences were ranked highly across country samples. However, monitoring and task forces were ranked low across both contexts. These long-term strategies served as the foundation for the discussion questions during the semi-structured interviews reviewed within this chapter. The summarized findings about the high and low ranked strategies were presented to the interviewees for comment and exploration.

Secondly, there were situations in which highly ranked strategies were given mixed reviews within the interviews. This chapter offers a greater chance to explore the nuances with which teachers interpreted the different strategies. The semi-structured nature of the interview afforded the researcher the opportunity to explore the nature of these answers.

The next research themes pertained to findings on Expectancy Factors (expectancy and valence), as they relate to a likelihood of response. In particular, the research covered how expectancy factors could predict a likelihood of response on behalf of the teacher in different scenarios. The previous quantitative chapter presented a series

of regression models that explored which Expectancy Factors and background characteristics were statistically significant independent variables for the dependent variable of likelihood of response. Valence (seriousness) and expectancy (confidence in one's self) remained the two statistically significant factors across samples. These two factors were further explored within the semi-structured interviews. Although Confirmatory Factor Analysis initially investigated the constructs, the interviews did suggest that there were slightly different conceptions of what confidence and severity could mean across samples. In addition to severity, the interviews also investigated teacher perceptions of expectancy (level of confidence within themselves). Many key themes emerged from the interviews, suggesting that teachers came up with slightly different reasons for why they would adopt greater confidence whilst handling bullying. Some of these themes related to level of experience and national background. However, overall there were seven main themes arising from the interviews as they related to the interviewees. Some of the major themes include the following: resource availability, respect from students, mentor support, trust in school culture, self-care, training, pastoral role awareness. The findings and later analysis cover how these seven main themes related to one another as well as to the previously identified valence themes.

The later research questions were more focused on the themes of severity and likelihood of response. In particular, the research measured how these ideas of severity and reported response rates differed by scenario. One of the challenging aspects of the research was to convey a complete definition of cyberbullying. This was quite apparent during the pre-piloted interviews, as many of the interviewees had very different interpretations and experiences. As a rapidly evolving phenomenon, starting a conversation with an assumption that there was a common understanding for a new term could potentially bias the results. One of the ways of ensuring that similar constructs were addressed in the same manner was by starting the research project with replicable scenarios of cyberbullying that could elicit responses from educators. This was important for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Additionally, a number of important themes emerged during the interviews themselves. These relate to how teachers defined bullying. Varying ideas such as 'discrimination', 'harassment', a 'sign of insecurity', and an indication of 'weak school

culture' all presented nuanced interpretations as to the reasons for its occurrence. These themes related to many other key ideas such as the perceived seriousness of bullying scenarios, which (in a sense) could be a spectrum for assessing the definition. Major themes in teachers' definitions of bullying were found to relate to the interpretations of what constituted an effective response for dealing with the problem. For instance, a much more ingrained notion of bullying could warrant a more proactive, long-term strategy, as opposed to a more simplistic response. The major definitions could shape the notions of the individuals with the responsibilities to counter bullying, whether parents or teachers. Hence, strategies concerning how to deal with bullying could be different, depending on the teacher's definition of the bullying 'problem'.

5.2.1 Interview Connections

With all of the information, it becomes important to store the data garnered from the qualitative interviews in relevant ways so that they can be utilized within the remainder of the analysis. The qualitative analysis explores how teachers conceive and understand bullying scenarios and responses. In doing so, the analysis seeks to illuminate theoretical constructs of interest, such as valence and expectancy. The interviews also provide contextual insights in terms of US and English comparisons. The nature of the information becomes increasingly complex. For example, Richards writes, (2015: 87), "When a record is safely stored, read it. Always while you are reading data, record your thoughts and responses and store safely anything you recorded." Richards emphasizes the consistent review of greater data, so that the researcher can understand the connections of the findings within a larger research framework. The process of labeling and coding different pieces of information allows a researcher to access the data that relates, confirms, or denies other findings that confirm or stray from other accounts of bullying responses. Richards outlines major types of coding within the analysis: 'descriptive', 'analytic', and 'topic' codes (2015:109). The more descriptive information is collected during the quantitative portion of the methodology, because research participants listed their willingness to interview based on the information that they provided within the survey itself. As a result, the interviewer already knew information regarding the country,

level of experience, and gender of the educator. Hence, the information within the interview can be contextually framed, thereby leading the researcher to *group* the results based upon these background characteristics. The researcher could potentially follow up with information regarding potential information in the trends of the sample, whether the shared information confirmed or denied the overall finding.

When reflecting on the nature of responses with bullying, there is an inherent *time element*. One factor that is implemented within the coding is whether the reflections happen *after* a previous situation of bullying or a potential analysis *before* a future scenario. Personal beliefs or factors, as well as contextual variables may influence a response or perception of the bullying scenario. This broad framework could form the foundation for *topic coding*. The survey respondent might provide some analysis as to the reasons for why such a reality exists or also the ways in which the system can be improved.

In order to form a coherent framework for analyzing the data, it would be helpful to understand the broad categories by which information can be organized and coded. The research focuses both on the perceptions and motivations for intervening within a bullying scenario. The findings reveal how feelings and impressions regarding bullying in schools change based upon past experiences and current perceptions in regards to bullying. However, as evidenced by the research questions, the motivational framework inherently analyzes how self-perceptions and contextual perceptions lead one to a willingness to respond. Hence, particularizing and framing the discourse of the interview in terms of the previous moments within the teachers' experiences remains important. In order to accomplish such a task it would be helpful to frame the analysis in terms of Stake's (2010: 150) descriptions of interpretation, "Telling how it works is both description and interpretation. Sorting is a part of interpretation." The research finds a way of coding and reorganizing the information into a coherent whole. From this framework, the perceptions and the willingness to respond becomes a *process* by which an individual comes to a greater understanding regarding the situation based upon experiences before and after a situation of perceived bullying as shown within the following chart with codes. Here are the four main subcategories that can be covered within the interviews:

Figure 5.1: Subcategories explored within Interviews

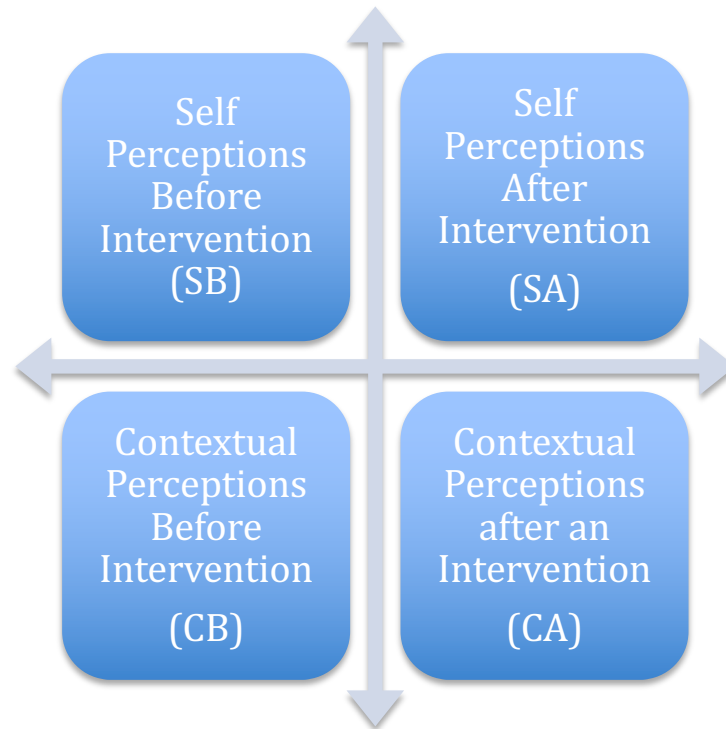
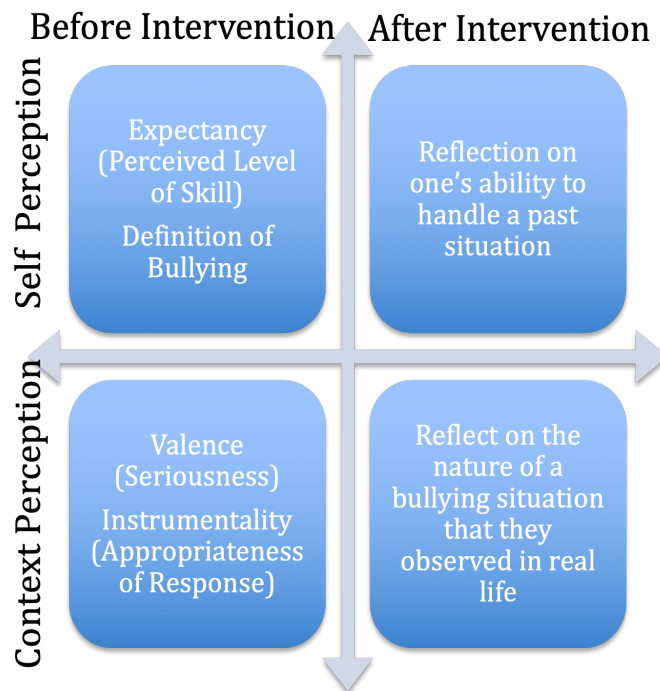


Figure 5.1 displays quadrants on the left depicting constructs occurring before the actual bullying situation paired with the motivational framework of Expectancy Theory, since these ideas often influence the willingness to respond before the action has occurred. Trends noticed from the larger quantitative data (such as the influence of valence and expectancy should be addressed on this side). Questions in the interview built off of these trends, asking teachers what they would need in order to increase their perceived level of confidence to handle a task or increase the severity of their perceptions of a particular bullying scenario. These two variables were found to be associated with a teacher's willingness to respond. However, as instrumentality was not as significant in predicting response (according to the quantitative results), the interviews do not explore how to improve perspectives of instrumentality. Instead, the research draws on findings emerging from the Stauffer et al. (2012) methodology. It asks for perspectives on whether the interviewee agrees with the overall findings emerging as to the most and least effective ways of dealing with cyberbullying. US teachers were asked to reflect on the

alternatives considered the most and least effective from the US sample. English teachers were asked about the approaches identified as most and least effective by the English group. This provides the research participant the ability to respond whether they agree with the overall findings.

However, the right column in Figure 5.1 highlights more particularized information based upon individual teacher’s perceptions and experiences. By asking the interviewee to provide stories of when they encountered bullying and attempted to mediate the situation, this highlights a potentially influential frame through which other perceptions of bullying were shaped. Hence, an overarching framework of Expectancy Theory (depicted on the left column) relates and interacts with the personal stories of the individual research participants. Figure 5.2 is a diagram illustrating how the previously mentioned constructs could fit into the overall qualitative portion of the study:

Figure 5.2: Overview of How Constructs Fit into Coding Schemes



Within the initial coding scheme, there are three key elements to classify the content and relevance of data within the interviews:

- **Context:** Does this ask for an idea before or after a response? Does this question or answer pertain to the context or the research participant directly?
- **Construct:** What is the idea encapsulated within this section? Does this information constitute a story, a definition, or an analysis for why something occurs?
- **Perception (optional):** Does the research participant provide follow up advice for how this construct can be improved or list feedback as to why they deem this as negative or positive? This is optional, as research participants might not always provide this feedback.

For example, if a teacher wanted to understand a self-perception before a bullying response in terms of his or her level of expectancy (or perceived skill level) the code would be SB.Exp. If the researcher received information on how the individual thought that their level of self-confidence could improve before the next bullying situation, the coding would be SB.Exp.I. Here is a list of the potential codes that were applied in the initial interview coding scheme.

Coding Scheme:

- SB.Exp (Self Perception Before Response in terms of Expectancy)
- SB.Exp.I (How research participant considers expectancy can be improved)
- SB.D (Self Generated Definition of Bullying)
- SA.S (Most Influential Case of Bullying for Research Participant upon response)
- SA.PI (How well does the research participant perceive their ability to handle the situation)
- CA.V (What were the effects of the bullying situation on the Victim)
- CA.P (What were the effects of the bullying situation on the Perpetrator)
- CA.C (Perceived causes of the bullying after looking back at situation)
- CB.Sev (How does one determine the severity of a situation)
- CB.Sev.I (How does one improve one's perception of the severity of the situation)
- CB.Sev.L (How does one consider the severity of the situation as less)

- CB.InsLTC.G (What does the research participant think about the Long-Term Cyberbullying strategies that were rated highly within the research group)

It is also important to realize that other themes emerge over the course of the interviews as well. In order to see how the different questions could potentially fit into this overall initial coding framework, please reference Appendix 21. At the beginning of the interviews, I asked the participants to provide a definition of bullying, thereby grounding the responses in that central definition. From this perspective, the teacher has the ability to set the frame of the discourse, allowing the researcher to follow up on the nuances behind such a definition, so as to understand the greater context of the potential responses within the different scenarios.

5.3 Research Question 1: How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies for cyberbullying interventions?

The next part of the chapter will answer the research questions using the qualitative findings from the semi-structured interviews. The four different responses that will be explored within this first section of the qualitative findings include the highest ranked strategies (parental involvement and increased consequences) and lowest ranked strategies (monitoring and task forces). The first research question builds upon the research that is committed to understanding teachers' perceptions of the strategies for dealing with cyberbullying (Stauffer et al. 2012). This research is important for understanding how and why certain strategies are deemed appropriate for schools. The perceptions of these strategies could potentially explain why they succeed in their implementation in differing contexts. Sections 5.3.1 to 5.3.4 cover the two highest (parental involvement and consequences) and lowest ranked strategies across samples (monitoring and task forces).

5.3.1 Parental Involvement

Parental involvement refers to the teacher seeking participation from parents in dealing with issues of cyberbullying. As cyberbullying could take place at home, there

were questions of ‘whose’ responsibility it was for settling such issues. Parental involvement has been ranked highly in past studies as a key strategy for dealing with cyberbullying issues (Stauffer et al. 2012). Many of the strategies for dealing with behavioral problem often involve outreach to parents (Olweus 1993; Olweus and Limber 2010). The quantitative findings also accord with the literature. It is a positive sign to see that teachers at interviews also made favorable comments about its importance. However, there are questions of why this might not always be explored as an option. What are the obstacles for fuller participation within the school, and how do teachers create a more concerted effort that would involve more stakeholders in this process of resolving issues?

Parental involvement was recognized as an important strategy for responding to bullying by interviewees within both the US and English samples, in line with the survey ($M = 3.17$, $SD = .90$). The logic dealt with parents and teachers sharing a responsibility for improving student behavior, and often the parents spent the most time with students. One teacher said,

“They are held accountable in ways ... for doing their homework, for going to talk to their teacher if they need help, for being nicer to other students. I think that having parents on their back uh totally makes them more accountable, decreases the likelihood that that will happen.”
(Female American Teacher, ID 123)

This creates a dynamic in which the parent and the child are very familiar with their roles, based upon past interactions. A parent may consider ‘treating others with respect’ an extension of other forms of accountability that the parent establishes with the child.

The quantitative results suggested that both the US and English samples considered parental involvement as the most important long-term strategy. A male English teacher suggested that the high ranking could be due to how easy it would be to conceive of a parent affecting the life of a child. For instance, one of the experienced teachers framed parental involvement in these terms:

“We see so little compared to their home lives, it has to be the establishment of their broad behavior from their homes, and I think that having the parents in on it has to be a part of it because I think actually that’s to a certain extent trying to deal with the problem at its source.”

Instead of being reactive and punitive, you have to be proactive and preventative.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

This teacher recognized that the home shaped the conceptions of the different issues that a student may face; however, any attempt to partner with the parents assumed that the parents could provide an enriching perspective that would enable the children to overcome the situation. In addition to understanding the background of the parent, the teacher might also have a particular strategy for dealing with such situations.

However, although teachers considered parental involvement important, some also commented that it would depend upon the family’s willingness to participate. One teacher shared,

“ ... interesting his father messaged me and wanted to come meet with me and talk to me ... about his grade in general, and he just did not show up.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

This quotation suggests that although parental involvement may be considered important, the success of the response often depends on the parent’s willingness to participate. Parents might feel motivated to outreach to the teacher for different reasons. One teacher went as far as doubting any authority that the teacher could have for influencing parent’s responses:

“I do not think that school can really impact to help parents establish parenting, I think that is something that is outside of the school’s power in a sense.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

One of the experienced English teachers also said that parents had little time to assist to reduce bullying:

“ ... the parents are so busy that the parents might not think about the students. They don’t see the social aspect of the schooling as much as the grade...”. (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

From this perspective, parents might not have time to participate in the lives of students (or be too concerned about grades), thereby reducing a willingness to get involved. One

teacher suggested that quick metrics such as grades were viewed at the expense of the bullying situation.

One teacher stated that parents in the home needed to learn about the lives of their children, because the students often did not report these situations. One teacher framed the importance in this way:

“If they (the parents) do not know what is going on, then they are completely at a loss, then they are relying on the son or daughter, to say, ‘I am being bullied online’.” (Female American Teacher, ID 198)

This poses a challenge, especially if the students do not feel confident speaking about their lives. If the teachers do not discuss bullying with parents, mothers and fathers may not have other ways to understand what is happening to their children at school.

One English teacher emphasized the connection between different approaches. Parental involvement would only be considered a single strategy among many others. He felt that isolated responses like parental involvement would be ineffective on their own accord. Instead, he suggested that an educator should not view potential strategies as separate but rather seek interconnected strategies within a larger framework. For example, the teacher shared:

“I think that these are all separate heads of the same hydra, where each of them in isolation is fundamentally a good idea, but the whole point is that they cannot work in isolation. They have to come from a centralized ethos of the school.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

This imagery of the hydra suggests that a multifaceted response must come from a central *ethos*.

Another teacher claimed that he often had a greater level of confidence dealing with parents due to his age. For example, one teacher shared,

“You think that you can communicate better if you are older and you can relate to and communicate better with people obviously who are parents.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

For example, in addition to having more knowledge, the same teacher also proposed that more experienced educators also had the ability to relate to parents. For example, he shared:

“Teachers in the sense, (that) are of an older age, can communicate better and on the same level. They would say, ‘I have a daughter and I understand.’ Possibly they would know how to get through to other parents better possibly.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

From his perspective, such a teacher might be able to relate with the parent due to the level of similarity (if they were a parent). Similar people might relate to one another in more favorable ways. This level of confidence would suggest that experienced teachers might have a greater ability to deal with parents because of their similar experiences.

Although the quantitative survey results revealed that experienced teachers were more likely to report that they believed parental involvement was a useful strategy to counter bullying, the interviews extended the finding. For example, one teacher was aware that parental involvement would not work in all situations. This teacher drew attention to the difficulties in monitoring online activity of children. This teacher realized that students could easily set up alternative ways of not being monitored, and the parents might also have a limited perspective of their child’s daily life. Children could adopt online profiles separate and apart from what their parents could know about or monitor. For example, one experienced teacher reflected,

“They (the students) may have one sort of clean parental approved profiles. You know they might have a separate profile that they do not want their parents to see so ... if you don’t have student buy in on that it makes it really hard to make that work.” (Male American Teacher, ID 132)

This quote suggests that the effectiveness of the parental involvement might depend on the relationships that the student has with the parents.

5.3.2 Consequences: “It is very easy for us to go too far into punishment”

Consequences refer to increasing the student repercussions for partaking in cyberbullying. By increasing the consequences, students might rethink their behavior, thereby reducing cyberbullying. These findings are in line with previous studies (Stauffer et al. 2012). However, there are mixed findings in the greater field. Some studies have shown the increased consequences and retributive frameworks can lead to even greater bullying in schools, which might suggest that more cooperative strategies could form a more appropriate approach (Banzon-Libroo, Garabiles, and Pena Alampay 2017; Wachs, Bilz, Niproshke, and Schubarth 2018).

The survey results gave a high score to increased consequences ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .94$). One teacher felt that warning about consequences could be an effective tactic, because it granted the bully an opportunity to weigh the ramifications of his or her actions. Warning about the potential action was seen to offer a chance to factor into a student’s *decision making process*, thereby potentially reducing the chance of it happening in the future. For instance, one English PGCE teacher said,

“If you make it obvious, if you do this, then this will happen to you, which makes it much more that the ball is in your path, and they will be much more likely to stop doing that. If you are like ‘You were bad, you are going to get a detention,’ that is not going to work, but if you say that if you continue to choose to work in this way, there will be consequences that is much more personal and pertinent to their field.” (Male English Teacher, ID 301)

Hence, the individual will be able to make their own decisions, and that bully will be prompted to assume responsibility for their actions due to the added information on consequences. This teacher acknowledged that in order for this to work, the teacher must make it obvious to the student and remind them of these decisions in order to ensure that they make the right choice. Increased punishment was ranked highly by one PGCE teacher saying,

“It makes sense, don’t drink and drive or you will spend 100,000 GBP and 10 years in jail there is a big incentive for an adult to not drink and drive.”

Whereas if it was like, pay 10 GBP they might take the chance ...”.
(Female English Teacher, ID 308)

This framing suggests that she felt a clear punishment and reward systems could strongly affect student behavior through the prospect of major consequences. Hence, consequences could serve as a way of precluding negative action, since bullies might think more seriously about consequences before partaking in the behavior.

Yet, some qualitative interviews suggested that increased consequences might not always be effective. One female American teacher emphasized that the effectiveness of the response depended on how the actions resonated with the bully (which would often differ by situation). This, however, presented a challenge because teachers recognized that although consequences sometimes did influence the change in the bully’s perception, forcing an action did not always lead to a change. For example, one new educator shared,

“I think it is more important for them to learn simply that they can’t do that as opposed to punishment for the sake of punishment.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

This teacher reflected on what students were learning as a result of the punishment. She suggested that ‘punishment for the sake of punishment’ could distract the child from ‘learning’ the appropriate behavior.

Although increased consequences were viewed as an effective strategy by teachers in responding to the survey, one experienced teacher suggested that punishment by its very nature could not address the foundational reasons for why students were bullying. For example, one of the experienced teachers from the US emphasized that the end goal was to increase the idea of *responsibility*. The teacher shared,

“It is very easy for us to go too far into punishment. We really are setting an example for other students as opposed to dealing with the actual crime or the guilt of the student, and also helping them grow in responsibility.”
(Male American Teacher, ID 102)

The act of increasing the consequences really served as a way to frame the issue and to set an example. If the consequences dealt more with physical force rather than actually

addressing the emotional or psychological reasons for why the bully victimized others, it would not really serve to settle the core issues at the heart of the discussion. This educator acknowledged that the punishment might work in the short run, but ultimately felt a long-term strategy needs to develop the bully's sense of personal responsibility.

However, recognizing that cyberbullying constantly evolves, one teacher suggested that it seemed hard to deem which punishments needed to be used for each offence. For example, the teacher shared,

“So they snapchat like videos and pictures of each other all the time, of me all the time and I tell them not to do it about me. It makes me really uncomfortable and I told them that if they do it to each other. They get participation points per week, I told them that if they do it to each other, they run the risk of losing all of their participation points for that week.”
(Female American Teacher, ID 123)

From this perspective, the teacher can monitor and rate the individuals within the class based upon participation points, which might reflect the policy of the school. A centralized school policy around snapchatting videos of one another was not present, yet it could change over time due to what was reported.

5.3.3 Monitoring: “The Big Brother Approach”

Increasing monitoring as a strategy to respond to possible bullying dealt with strengthening the supervision in areas of the school, so as to reduce opportunities for cyberbullying. If students felt as if they were watched, this could dissuade them from partaking in particular types of behavior. Across both the US and English samples, this was rated as less effective (rated as a lower response) in terms of strategies of response. This finding is different from what was found by the Stauffer et al (2012) study, which identified this approach in the middle of ranked responses. Potentially, the seven-year difference between the studies could reflect the greater accessibility of cellular phone and social media, thereby making it harder for teachers to monitor due to increased use of technology. The sheer number of interactions on social media these days could make it virtually impossible to track. Nonetheless, the qualitative themes from teacher follow up

interviews also highlighted core issues such as shared responsibility for monitoring and the potential reasons for its existence.

As noted previously in Chapter 4, the survey results across both countries indicated that teachers did not rate increased monitoring as a useful approach, rating it the least effective strategy ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.11$). The interviews sought to probe this finding further. One of the American teachers referenced Orwell's *1984*:

“The ‘Big Brother Approach’ is almost impossible of a task because when we were students we had pencil and pen and notebook and now these guys have services with keypads and keyboards but to observe is very difficult.”
(Male American Teacher, ID 143)

The teacher went on to explain his view that students could easily hide what they were doing. According to this view, the technologies granted to students ensured their online freedom to bully, and teachers would be unable to monitor online actions.

Monitoring did not seem to be a credible strategy for teachers in schools, because the actions could take place at home. One English teacher shared,

“I think that increasing supervision does not happen at school, cyberbullying happens at home. People need their devices at school, and I do not think that it would be really difficult to cyberbully because all you need is your phone.” (Female English Teacher, ID 351)

The teacher suggested that the accessibility of phones posed a major obstacle to monitoring. The unmonitored time at home could be a reason for the prevalence of cyberbullying.

Even when there was cyberbullying at school, it would be difficult to track due to the interface of multiple screens. The ability to switch screens quite rapidly could disguise the actual action, granting students less supervision. One experienced teacher shared,

“I do know that my students even in class, at least occasionally participating in stuff that you know, is not programming. They are supposed to be in the class programming all of the time, and I think that they are pretty good at staying on task, but I am sure that there are times

when the screens are doing other things, and I am totally unaware of it.”
(Male American Teacher, ID 132)

This sense of unknowing seems quite intimidating, because the teacher realizes that he can only perceive a limited portion of reality, even when in the same classroom because the technology itself affords substantial power to the user.

It was believed by some teachers that some of the students participated in cyberbullying because they adopted a deleterious notion of *freedom*. For instance, one teacher claimed,

“And, the attraction of this new virtual world is the freedom, ... as a teen, they love taking risks that’s what they’re about.” *(Female English Teacher, ID 314)*

A limited understanding of freedom could motivate the cyberbullying according to this teacher’s perspective. The same teacher hinted that typical punishments do not work in the cyber realm because it is hard to track the actions of individuals in such a setting and the enforcement mechanisms for consequences do not readily apply.

One teacher felt that he could not sustainably interact and prevent bullying because it was a simple numbers game. One experienced teacher described it in these terms:

“Teacher presence is important, but yet again we are not in their social groups, we are not having lunch with every group of kids on campus we are not there all of the time. We are outnumbered, it is as simple as that.”
(Male American Teacher, ID 102)

This absence from private messages led the teacher to doubt the effectiveness of this particular strategy in the long-term. Monitoring could potentially prevent bullying, yet only at particular times in which students felt ‘watched.’

5.3.4 Task Force: “Overstepping my Boundaries”

Setting up a task force entailed developing a school anti-bullying group that would counter issues of bullying. This is a central part of the Olweus approach for engendering a community that had a sense of ownership for the bullying policies over an extended period of time (Olweus 1993; Olweus and Limber 2010). However, this strategy received a low rating in the survey. Moreover, the interviews highlighted that it was unclear to many teachers which types of strategies such a group would partake in and how it could operate within the larger school culture. This was also ranked less helpful within previous research on cyberbullying strategies (Stauffer et al. 2012). Although the idea of anti-bullying task forces in general did not seem to be seen as an effective strategy according to survey results ($M = 2.54$, $SD = .97$) the interview results extended and refined this conclusion. For example, in some instances teachers did say that specific types of task forces could be useful. Thus, one of the American teachers shared,

“When we have this new technology which is new even for us, and some of our teachers, when they are growing up, we did not have this kind of technology, so we all need to learn about it somehow, to have uhm a task force or people who are trained to start talking about these things to students.” (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

Hence, if the task force presented teachers with new skills, this could potentially create an opportunity to learn how to deal with cyberbullying. However, this new teacher doubted that the teachers themselves would know what to do, without an expert opinion. Hence, this suggests that task forces could be viewed as potentially effective if they involved more skilled perspectives.

Nonetheless other respondents highlighted their lack of confidence in task forces as a strategy. For example, one experienced American teacher suggested,

“I think that assembling a task force can give you the perception that you are doing something, and the best thing that they could do is come up with something that is useful suggestions, like the ones that you have on your list.” (Male American Teacher, ID 132).

This respondent did not think a task force could produce anything extra compared with the survey findings that were shared at the interview.

There were several differing reasons given by teachers on why a task force might not be effective to deal with cyberbullying. For example, in the interviews, one American educator shared,

“I mean idealistically it would be effective but the problem there is that a faculty committee basically makes recommendations to the principal and then the principal just basically decides what they want to do. So, I think the point is kind of mute...”. (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

For this interviewee, the presence of a task force would create the *appearance of action* rather than actually implementing change. In his view, the task force would not necessarily acquire the organizational power to affect a sustainable policy and would operate more as an advisory role to the central administration, rather than being active itself.

Another response suggested some teachers were not familiar with the concept of an anti-bullying task force. A new American teacher shared,

“I think that the bullying task force was probably not selected as one of the most feasible options because I am not completely sure what that would look like. I think that if you had an anti-bullying club, I do not know what the club would do because it is hard to just find instances of bullying. Would the club just go around campus and just find instances of bullying? And like solve them out, how could they do that really?” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

Hence, if an anti-bullying task force were to meet, she felt it would be important to specify its mission and means for reaching its goals.

However, she felt that the real reason for any task force’s lack of effectiveness as a strategy to counter bullying stemmed from an inability to secure relevant information regarding the occurrence of bullying within the school. For instance the teacher reflected on her inability to understand everything about the situation by highlighting her lack of knowledge of social media,

“I just don’t know, I’m not their friend on social media, I refuse to be their friends on social media. Unless a parent or unless another student tells me that that is going on, I don’t really know, I would get involved if I was made aware of it, but I do not really know how to make myself more aware of it without overstepping my boundaries with them. I mean I think that they have the right to privacy. I do not check on them online, I don’t search them, I don’t do any of that, so it’s, and I don’t think that teachers should.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

This sense of doubt in her ability to understand the full situation and ethical dimensions led her to feel that a task force was unlikely to be the most effective strategy for promoting change. Hence, the panel might also express and assume a certain limitation in knowledge about the situation.

One English teacher doubted the effectiveness of task forces, because teachers might not recall school policies. Understanding policies seemed fundamental for successful task forces according to this teacher’s perspective. The English teacher said,

“A task force. I am not sure if that would work. You are going out to look for certain behaviors, and I think that most policies do not work because most teachers do not read the policies any way so if you have a policy, I do not even know what the behavioral policy is. I don’t think it will work.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

From this English teacher’s perspective, setting policies within the school and disseminating those policies in a credible and relevant manner seemed fundamental before creating the task force. His inability to recall the behavioral policy suggested that others on staff might also experience the same challenge. Yet the teacher did suggest that the success of a task force might also depend on the greater society as a whole. The same English teacher said,

“Instead of saying, oh this is a school setting and we need to do it this way, I think possibly you need to look at it in terms of what other kinds of behavior do we not tolerate what kinds of behavior are now nonexistent in the certain cultures.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

The English teacher suggested that these ideas adopted by task forces could be an extension of what was already tolerated within the greater society. He went on to

express how the presence of same-sex marriage within the society could inherently shape the beliefs and values of task forces, even though this was not a conscious decision on behalf of the task force. Hence, he suggested that the task forces could represent a microcosm of the culture's beliefs.

However, one new English teacher suggested that her safeguarding training specifically shaped her conception of task forces in the school. She reflected,

“I think that they (the school) could do more, because we get safeguarding training at the department but we don't really have that much in the school. We get these professional development sessions that talk about different things and hopefully we get to meet the head teacher tomorrow and hopefully that gives us more information.” (Female English Teacher, ID 304)

After the safeguarding training, the English teacher suggested that it seemed unclear whether the school's head teacher led a task force that could clarify and encourage behavioral policies. The teachers also stated that she did not know what the head teacher would present next, suggesting that these lessons might not adopt a clear structure, potentially making it harder for new teachers to learn the material.

5.4 Research Question 2: How do background factors and Expectancy Factors relate to teacher perceptions and responses?

While the previous section outlined the qualitative findings for the rankings of particular strategies, this next section will begin to focus on qualitative findings for themes of expectancy theory. More particularly, it will explore perceptions of valence and expectancy for new and experienced teachers within England and the US. Expectancy Theory provides three factors that could affect a willingness to respond to different bullying scenarios (valence, expectancy, and instrumentality). The previous quantitative analysis found that valence and expectancy with perpetrator predicted a greater likelihood of response. In other words, the confidence the teacher has with dealing with the bully and the perceived seriousness of the situation both correspond with

a likelihood of response. These following sections explore how these two factors are articulated across the English and US samples and reveals some differences across contexts.

5.4.1 Expectancy Factors for New Teachers in the US

New American teachers often described counteracting bullying within large class sizes with very little training, leading to them feeling as if they had to handle the situation alone. When asked to identify the seriousness of bullying, one educator claimed that the severity would differ from the normal methods of perceiving an altercation. For instance, one American teacher shared,

“I do not know if you know the image of the massive iceberg that you see on the water then underneath the water there is this huge chunk of ice that you do not even see, that is what I think about bullying you don’t know how severe it is just seeing it inside of the classroom because there is social media out there you only see them for at least 50 minutes a day so there is a good chunk of the day that you do not even interact with... ”.
(Male American Teacher, ID 143)

This perspective highlights how a paucity of interaction with the student leads to less detection of bullying situations. The *inaccessibility* of the student experience, whether within the home or the schoolyard, posed a major obstacle for teachers trying to understand the bullying.

When asked to identify the nature of bullying, many different ideas came up including discrimination and escapism for new teachers (leading to two different codes). The severity would therefore depend on how this characteristic connected to the identity of the victim. For example, American teachers shared,

“A good definition of bullying. I think that it is clearly a form of discrimination. It is in not necessarily based upon one thing. Students are bullied for a variety of reasons. It is not their fault, but I think that in the bully’s mind, I think that they are picking apart somebody because of some discriminatory thought.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

The expression of discrimination was an interesting point, especially considering the history of segregation, which still had implications for present schools.

Another teacher tried to articulate the ways he could explain his thought process for identifying the nature of the bullying. In particular, the teacher explained his thought process,

“... for me personally, to freeze time, to stop. Why (is) what they were doing a bad idea?” (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

“I do not have the experience nor the knowledge to counsel. That is when I need to get the dean’s office involved as well as the counseling department involved.” (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

This particular perspective suggests that the teacher perceives a classroom of multiple stimuli. In order to assess the seriousness, this teacher suggested that he needed to “stop time” to better grasp what was happening. Time spent with students remained a limited resource from his perspective, so his willingness to *slow time down* (so to speak) by stopping and thinking allowed him to peer ‘beneath the surface.’ However, he also realized that he did not have the ability to deal with the situation in terms of counseling, driving him to hand off the situation to another person who might be more qualified. This two-stage process for the new educator seemed to focus on disentangling information before reporting it to someone else on staff.

This diminished confidence of new educators took on many forms, and teachers offered advice on how to improve their level of confidence. Some of the new teachers believed that their confidence would increase if they had more resources at their disposal to address bullying. For example, here were some of the comments shared,

“I think that knowing what each teacher’s resources are is very important both at the school and legally and I do not know if it is federal, but in California I know that I am legally obligated to intervene.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

The presence of laws or school policies could potentially emphasize the importance of dealing with bullying, suggesting that the school would have resources although new

educators might not know about these policies at the outset. This was common and extended to other teachers as well (cited by 8).

Sometimes very broad directions given to new staff member could confuse new educators. Simply reporting a situation did not necessarily explain the finer nuances of how to respond. This would lead new teachers to seek out guidance. However, the nature of the guidance would be a little unclear. Who would guide and what information should they provide? For example, one teacher tried to outline his thought process,

“I know that when I first showed up to my school there was no specific training for how to address these problems. Basically it was simply given as if you detect something is wrong, just seek out support.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

“I began to change just because I was exposed to new research and good practices so I think that giving teachers that exposure to training and research and best practices could be big especially if it stands on its own merits. Teachers like being given things that work and have been proven and empirically work.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

Resources were considered important, but these resources did not always need to be offered by the school itself. One teacher felt greater confidence because of a YWCA professional program. A lack of training provided by the school forced the teacher to seek external support. The reference to research in the comments suggested that this teacher felt he needed evidence on the likely benefits of a program before implementing changes within his classroom.

One American teacher described countering bullying as a matter of teachers and bullies competing for authority through asserting confidence. The relative confidence of the bully was a common theme (cited by 11). A *struggle of will* between the teacher and the bully determined who developed a greater confidence with time. However, she recognized that teachers may not have the confidence whilst encountering a new situation. For instance, the teacher claimed,

“Students are creative, some things just cannot be written down for this one, just cannot be put into a massive manual. But uh, if there were uhm not necessarily a protocol, but say these are some ways to diffuse situations to put it on the bully to see what is going on. Just because

sometimes, like last year when I had an encounter with bullying, I was a deer in headlights.” (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

One of the lessons learned from this analysis is that incidents of bullying experienced by a new teacher are often quite different than expected. Because a teacher has never encountered a situation requiring them to address such an incident, the teacher may feel unable to act, reflecting a “*deer in headlights*” mentality.

5.4.2 Expectancy Factors for Experienced Teachers in the US

While new American teachers focused on feeling overwhelmed with little support, the experienced teachers emphasized the necessity of applied definitions of bullying and greater contexts for understanding its nature. When asked how to improve teacher confidence as a prompt to elicit more detailed reflections, one American educator suggested that she needed to recognize an *applied definition*. This would be a key component of the training, which was referenced many times as important for teacher development across the two interview samples (cited by 15 teachers in total). The teacher framed her understanding in these terms,

“I need to recognize bullying, and recognize the more subtle instances of bullying. So tools to recognize and then know what my school expects, or what my school would expect me to do if the school has a response plan, then I would like to know what that is.” (Female American Teacher, ID 198)

She went on to suggest as a solution:

“And then, I need, as much as I hate doing role plays, I have found that they are actually really helpful. So maybe there is a situation that’s described on a card, and I can role-play the role of teacher and someone else can role-play the role of student or the role of parent.” (Female American Teacher, ID 198)

This experienced teacher realized the importance of applied definitions, and suggested role-playing as a means for establishing an understanding of what bullying could look like.

One experienced teacher suggested that *greater context* would afford an ability to understand the severity and the right strategy. Noting that he often felt limited confidence because he could not understand the context, he shared,

“I suppose knowing, understanding, the difference between insignificant teasing, like what I might do with my friends, you know, calling my buddy an idiot on facebook, because that is what I do with my friends. You know truly recognizing, what is truly a hurtful situation.” (Male American Teacher, ID 132)

He followed up further, by explaining how he would also trust the greater context to provide potential strategies to deal with the situation.

“If I knew that student A was posting mean things about student B and student B was devastated by that, uhm so what is the best approach? Do I just confront student A and say stop that. Or, do I go to student B and say how do you want me to approach this? Having something besides my own instincts uh some sort of the thing that has been proven useful to those situations at other schools.” (Male American Teacher, ID 132)

This teacher was really interested in the history of the bullying, and the past strategies for how to deal with similar situations. Although a person may have faith in their instincts, the possibility of gathering information as to the workability of certain strategies would offer greater confidence.

The notion of being aware of the caring and compassionate elements of being a teacher (cited by 8) was an important factor for establishing confidence. One experienced US educator shared,

“We have to be compassionate. We have to be citizens, as educators, of the beloved community. If we are not, the kids won’t be. It has to be who we are at our core as educators. That requires a lifetime. A new teacher has to realize that it is a lifetime journey, and that is really important too.” (Male American Teacher, ID 102)

He then explained how public role models could frame the response.

“It is kind of like Socrates said, ‘you have to find someone who is a little older and wiser than you and be like them.’ That is really what it is for us as teachers. We find someone else who is a little older and wiser than us,

in this case Martin Luther King or Cesar Chavez or Thomas Merton, or Daniel Berrigan, and as educators we need to study and to become that kind of person in our own way and express that in our own way with our own individual gifts and opportunities...”. (Male American Teacher, ID 102)

The teacher frames his response in terms of a lifetime journey of educating oneself. The teacher raises the possibility of change in terms of an ongoing process of familiarizing one's self with the teachings of others that could foster a more caring community. In his view the willingness to identify and to recognize the ability of others to enact such principles could provide a deeper confidence for dealing with bullying.

References to self-care were identified for some teachers in both England and the US (cited by 5). One experienced American educator highlighted an interconnection between different elements of life,

“We are evading one of the most important responsibilities that we have as educators which is to our families. In other words, what we are ultimately communicating is self-inflicted ‘busyness’ for success, and that is a very violent lesson that is learned very well in elite schools...”. (Male American Teacher, ID 132)

According to this teacher's view, the sense that one was not good enough could be a driving force for a limiting notion of individual success, thereby forgetting other values that could promote the emotional health of students. The educator highlighted this distinction in order to admit how this behavior could sacrifice foundational relationships with friends and family (that he implied could be a fundamental support for strength and compassion that could counter bullying). He could then see how this might lead children to feel lost and isolated, leading to a greater sense of suffering and potential violence.

5.4.3 Expectancy Factors for New English Teachers

Like new American teachers, new English teachers also felt a high level of doubt for dealing with bullying, yet they emphasized the importance of knowing students and other teachers to find a collective strategy. One of the PGCE English teachers suggested that the educator would need to learn a framework by which they could assess the

severity of the situation. This could be a portion of the teacher training (cited by 15 as important for establishing teacher confidence). Typically, teachers claimed that they observed thousands of *micro interactions* within a school environment, and they found it quite difficult to distinguish instances of bullying. One teacher also claimed that they needed suggestions for how to deal with different situations. For instance teachers shared,

“You would need new teachers to recognize different forms of bullying and where to peg them on this scale of severity. I see very little good in doing that if they are not going to underpin it with ‘these are the steps that you should take.’ If you did not do that, I could just imagine walking around the school and go oh my gosh that is a seven or a ten, I have to do something, this is a six out of ten, this is a six out of a ten. Bleh!!” (Female English Teacher, ID 308)

After being able to identify where the bullying was on a scale, another theme came up: reporting to the appropriate person.

“Yeah, you are given a proper safeguarding training. If you see anything going on, you have to tell someone. You have to report it. For teacher training you have to tell the head of science, and then they report it.” (Female English Teacher, ID 304)

Yet another teacher suggested that it was not merely enough to report. Checking in after reporting was critical for the long-term success of the bullying reduction.

“And they say if you are not happy with the person in management’s strategy (after reporting), you go above them straight away. You do not worry about your professional standpoint, you will not be jeopardized at all, think about the child.” (Male English Teacher, ID 314)

Teacher strategies suggested understanding the severity on a scale, reporting that incident, and then checking in with the response. Reporting an incident of course provides many ethical issues. Although an individual acknowledges a particular social hierarchy within an organizational framework by reporting a situation, that same individual must constantly assess whether or not reporting meets an objective.

The researcher explored how new educators understood their level of self-confidence whilst responding to bullying. One of the teachers experienced high doubt in her abilities. She expressed,

“I think that experience would be one thing and also support from other teachers. I know that we are based in school, but we are not supported, we go around to other classes, but I only meet my mentor, and he is really busy.” (Female English Teacher, ID 308)

“I was just by myself. I do not feel like a teacher, I do not know how I am perceived. I do not know the structure of the school. I do not know who I go to. I do not know the name of anybody there.” (Female English Teacher, ID 308)

“I think that being with a teacher and learning and watching and shadowing a teacher instead of students, so that I could ask. If I was in that situation I could see how a teacher does it, and the students would see that I was with a teacher, then they would be like, ‘oh this is a teacher.’” (Female English Teacher, ID 308)

The teacher felt a greater confidence if she could accompany another, more experienced educator. She suggests that other students might associate the experienced teacher with the PGCE teacher, if they see them together.

The interview also highlighted the connection between positive *school culture* and a willingness to respond to bullying incidents. One of the teachers elucidated the personal importance of school culture. As mentioned earlier, positive school culture was a common theme (cited by 16). If individuals trust one another at a school, they tended to have a greater likelihood of reporting the bullying and taking action. The perception of school culture paired with a sense of professional humility could lead to a higher rate of reporting. For example, one English PGCE teacher shared,

“I think a lot of this comes down to the school ethos. I would be likely to intervene, I would involve someone else as well because I do not feel qualified to deal with it on my own.” (Female English Teacher, ID 351)

“I think if you are socially aware and emotionally aware, you should get to know the children, and you should go up to the children and talk to them.” (Female English Teacher, ID 351)

“Instead, just emphasize that at this school, people’s emotional well being and their pastoral roles are just as important as being a teacher. It is all part of feeling that you are a part of a team and we really want to encourage you to share that with us and to reiterate the fact that you will have full support.” (Female English Teacher, ID 351)

Pastoral care was a common theme (cited by 8). This sentiment was seen to encourage educators to strategize collectively with the administration and to foster a *shared responsibility* in providing pastoral care for all students. The teacher suggests that the willingness of one teacher to take a stand in defining this as a main priority encourages, engages, and inspires a whole network of teachers.

The surveys suggested that the confidence of the teacher was highly correlated with reporting willingness to respond. When asked how to foster confidence in the follow up interviews, one English teacher repeated that she would need to clarify the situation. She recognized the benefit of tailored responses, depending on specific situations. For example, the teacher claimed,

“ ... a workshop that actually tells you what to do if that happens with school rules, because that would be helpful for new teachers and old teachers as well because laws change. So, I think that effective teacher training for how to deal with bullying situations would increase confidence because they would know what was going on.” (Female English Teacher, ID 304)

A greater clarity as to the rules and the correct protocol could become a part of the teacher training program. Yet, the teacher suggested that such training might have to evolve with time based upon the context.

5.4.4 Expectancy Factors for Experienced English Teachers

Like the experienced American teachers, experienced English teachers also emphasized the importance of finding a shared definition of bullying across the school, yet there was a wide array of responses (some feeling a need to act in all situations,

whereas others felt quite confused about the right response). One experienced teacher tried to emphasize how the severity could extend to other facets of the student experience. He could understand how bullying affected learning outcomes,

“I would see bullying as one student feeling uncomfortable enough about a situation to have it affect their learning ... (the bullying) may not be initially bad but eventually has a more long-term effect on the individual.”
(Male English Teacher, ID 303)

Hence, it is quite difficult to judge the impact of the bullying because of two factors: the effects do not occur instantaneously and the effects may become evident later on (which may be hard to connect to the original bullying incident due to the lapse of time). When the teacher does not notice any reactions on behalf of the victim, the teacher may assume that the victim is okay. However, when the educator perceives possible effects such as depression, anger, or decreased performance, it may be difficult to connect it directly with a previous bullying incident because of the gap of time between the incident and the reaction.

Bullying can also intensify if members of the community do not share the same understanding of a negative action. However, actions are not always interpreted as similarly negative by all of the given parties. In cyberbullying, teachers and students can form different interpretations of appropriate behavior. One experienced teacher shared,

“It is interesting that we had one student who is very quiet, he said to me quite recently, I have been excluded or suspended for a few weeks because I was cyberbullying and it is interesting that he termed it like (that). What he said is that both of us did not see it as cyberbullying but the teachers did. So it was interesting that the students did not see if both of them, the student that seemed to be bullied and the bully could not see it as bullying.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

Hence, the label of bullying could differ between students and/or between teachers. This would suggest that teachers may need to emphasize with students the school policies in order to clarify a shared and clear definition of bullying.

For one English teacher, the seriousness of bullying depended on the *intent* of the bully. This was a common theme across samples (cited by 11). This perspective

emphasized the *long-term* nature of the situation since a bully may repeat his or her behavior. For example, one teacher shared,

“I would suggest that it is a deliberate act designed to have a negative effect on another ... I would always put myself in the parents’ shoes or the child’s shoes and ask myself if this was an issue that was a day to day thing.” (Experienced Male English Teacher, ID 302)

This conception is important because it grants the teacher a new outlook, which would grant them a greater perspective. This new perspective could emphasize the seriousness from another lens. It also points to the socio-emotional features of teachers’ work in understanding and responding to incidents of bullying.

One experienced teacher in England spoke about how acting immediately was necessary for developing confidence, although it might not always be clear what to do. For example, he shared,

“Not to give them (bullies) the benefit of the doubt and to presume that their behavior is severe because all bullying is to an extent severe. And then if teachers have that mindset of zero tolerance ... and didn’t differentiate between different types of bullying as severe and ... act immediately then I think that would increase confidence. Certainly I am very confident when I deal with bullying because I do not tolerate it at all.” (Male English Teacher, ID 302)

“I think that this is difficult because even within the teaching profession you have such a wide range of responses of what constitutes my particular responsibility uhm that is something that I have found anywhere. You have some people who given a situation of bullying where someone is online but it takes place outside of school would there would be no argument, it’s not at school, it’s not my job, it is not my responsibility, what do you want me to do about it? We’re not parents.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

The teacher then reflected how this mindset could potentially present “contradictory advice” to new teachers, still seeking to learn their role within the school. This lack of agreement regarding roles and responsibilities can potentially undermine the confidence derived from a strong school ethos committed to principles of agreement and safety of students.

In addition to clarifying responsibilities, one experienced teacher also suggested that teachers should become more aware of the implications of teachers not having confidence and not acting. By highlighting the necessity of action, the teacher may feel a greater urge to respond. That level of pain experienced whilst observing bullying could serve as the foundation for a response. For example, one experienced teacher shared,

“As soon as you see it slide in the eyes of one pupil, then you are immediately diminishing your responsibility of someone that can make a difference, so I think that is perhaps one thing that, I think when it comes to intervention of bullying perhaps it is something that could be put into a wider theme.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

Hence, the teacher suggested that the actions of the students needed to be placed within a greater context. The ability to involve more than just the present action engages a broader lens, which can understand the ramifications of inaction.

5.5 Research Question 3: What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying? “It is a Volume Problem”

While the previous section focused on expectancy factors for new and experienced teachers in England and the US, this next section will address the third research question by exploring how severity differed by scenarios. By exploring the differences between how teachers perceived home versus school cyberbullying situations, it would be helpful to see why and whether teachers conceived of differences between scenarios within the interviews. Severity was considered important for predicting whether a teacher would respond. However, a fuller discussion would be helpful to uncover what severity actually meant in different scenarios. An understanding of how individuals conceived of severity would be appropriate for finding potential ways in which it could be emphasized across contexts.

It would seem that the severity would hinge upon how well the phenomena met a preconceived notion of bullying. There were many different understandings for why bullying could be present. For example, one teacher suggests that bullies often assume an underlying fear of powerlessness. For example, one American teacher recounted,

“A feeling of insecurity motivates it (bullying). With my classes students get off on the fact ... Everyone wants to join the bully and make the other person feel like an outcast, teaching others what should and should not be accepted.” (Male American Teacher, ID 57)

Hence, the insecurity of perpetrators and peers was seen to drive the bullying. School culture hence was intimately related since the actions of others could frame the bullying and potentially perpetuate it. The strong identity and popularity of the bully could drive the actions further, and peers could ally themselves with stronger personalities perhaps to avoid victimization. This teacher framed bullying as a form of *collective behavior*. The bully and the peers mutually define the social norms for one another – identifying what is right and wrong based on the next capricious target of victimization. This set of *shared expectations* drives actions, and the severity of this collective belief system was seen to relate to a “feeling of insecurity.”

Another teacher suggested that the level of *pleasure* the bully derives from the victimization could accentuate the severity. The more satisfaction, the more *addicted* he or she could become to the inappropriate behavior. The teacher continues,

“They (the bullies) want control, they want to feel in power. They want to feel as if they are holding that power over another student, and it is not satisfying when it comes willingly.” (Male American Teacher, ID 34)

Hence, the bully’s ability to derive pleasure could stem from a *feeling of control over others*. This means that one aspect of seriousness would hinge upon the extent to which the bully has become *addicted* to this notion of power and control.

One English teacher looked at how the bullying affected multiple stakeholders *outside* of the victim when deducing severity. One of the images that resonated with him was the level of anger and fear of a victim’s mother. The teacher reflected,

“From one falling out, he was devastated. I remember his Mum was very upset, what was surprising was how upset was how the Mum was as well, and how that could affect the parents.” (Male English Teacher, ID 302)

From this perspective, the educator could realize that parents can be deeply impacted by bullying, vicariously experiencing the pain of their child. A teacher could start a conversation with the parents to uncover multiple ramifications of the bullying situation.

The teacher also felt it necessary to assess the effects on the perpetrator. This was a common theme for understanding the confidence of the bully (cited by 15). For example, the teacher shared,

“The boy (the bully) was in a sense satisfied, very satisfied that what he had set out to do, he had managed to do. So this is the impression that I had gotten from him, and I think that we isolated him from the class, he was sent to another class for a few weeks because he was seen as such a catalyst.” (Male English Teacher, ID 302)

The ability to *be seen as a catalyst* could potentially grant the bully a greater level of confidence. The confidence of the bully seemed to reinforce his behavior, and isolating the bullying seemed like a strategy needed to counteract his perspective of superiority.

According to one teacher, teachers tend to consider more believable stories as serious and easy to track. One teacher claimed that cyberbullying remained serious because she could conceptualize and find the posts. For instance, one teacher said,

“Cause its happening there and you have the feeling that you have the power to stop because you can have the phone, get the parents, because you have clear evidence of what is happening, you can see who has posted the image, because you can trace it, you can see it on the social media platform, you can see who has commented or liked it...” (Female English Teacher, ID 304)

This teacher emphasized the importance of the evidence trail on the phone. The information on the phone could speak for itself, and the teacher suggested that using this would be important for uncovering the severity.

Another teacher emphasized how the media shaped the conception of bullying. Seeing the effects on a personal level could potentially emphasize its proximity, yet the extreme examples highlighted on the media could distract teachers from looking for more local examples. For example, the teacher shared:

“We become numb to it assuming that happens every day whereas if you hear someone laugh about it, it almost makes your blood boil you can think of this poor student suffering making you want to take immediate action because it is very in your face.” (Male English Teacher, ID 314)

The *obviousness* of the seen action could highlight the necessity of responding.

One of the teachers suggested that a visual depiction of the day of the student could really emphasize the complex interconnections. Resource availability was a common theme from the interviews (cited by 8). These different elements could highlight the impact on the student experience:

“I would have almost like a web where you said this first bullying encounter in your 50 minute class period among your six other periods on the schedule you see that bullying instance, and say what else can that be connected to because that might not be the only instance, so visually showing teachers this might not be the only case ...”. (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

The teacher suggested that if he could perceive the nexus between those actions and the lives of other students, there would be a more complex structure revealing the severity. Standing up in one instant could change the trajectory of the bullying.

Another new US teacher framed the severity of bullying in terms of repeated harassment. The framing suggested that the teacher interpreted bullying as a *legally actionable offense*. One teacher shared,

“If we think of harassment in terms of some kind of repeated, directed negative communication between individuals, where one individual is directing that negative attention towards another individual repeatedly, then I think that is the best way of thinking about bullying for me.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

From this analysis, harassment (and therefore bullying) connects to *repeated and unwanted communication*. By expressing one’s repeated power over another in physical, relational, emotional, or verbal terms, an individual may simultaneously make the targeted individual feel unable to express themselves with effective and personal communication as to their needs and feelings.

The teacher later went on to say that the severity had to be assessed in terms of “psychological effects.” More specifically the teacher shared,

“... psychological things can be much more damaging so it is always measuring the impact upon the victim that measures the severity.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

As a form of communication, bullying impacted the individual by sending particular negative messages. Hence, the impact could be determined by the extent to which an individual had internalized such messaging. Psychological effects may have long-term implications because they could affect the victim for years to come.

One new US teacher remarked that the most powerful methods for assessing the severity occurred when the teachers already formed a deep relationship with the victims outside of the lectures. The idea of speaking with students was a common theme across samples (cited by 17). For example, one of the teachers said,

“She (the victim) could very easily have one of the very highest grades in my class and she is currently failing. So, I do not think that it is just because of this one incident with this one student or her feeling comfortable in my class because after that class she started coming after school to do more work. I think that she started to feel more like she could trust me, she volunteers a lot more in class, she is very confident in certain ways, but also is very insecure in certain ways.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

The teacher distinguishes this bullied student within the *level of description* she was able to share. The teacher’s interactions outside of the classroom provided a foundation for a greater awareness of the student’s needs. The conclusion that the victim has developed greater trust in this instance is based on the report that the victim willingly returns after class. In that sense, the classroom may have become a *sanctuary* fostering the freedom to grow and to reflect. This account of the connection with the educator seems to provide a very important foundation for trust, deepening an awareness of the feelings of the student. This type of relationship with the student would suggest that the notion of education connects more to a development of the different parts of the student outside of the formal curriculum. Hence, the understanding of the severity may not only depend on

the action, but also the preceding relationship the teacher establishes with the student. In the same way a parent may consider bullying more serious with his or her own child, a teacher may recognize, approach, and address particular situations with students they know on a personal level.

Once one develops trust with a student, the teacher may also become more aware of the effects of bullying. One teacher described a particular victim in these terms,

“I think that her intellect makes her very confident ... and I think that she gains some strength from that and she thinks that he is just a bully, and that is what bullies just do, they make you feel bad about yourself, and I think that she knows that cognitively, I think that it affects her more than she would like to admit or I would like to admit.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

The teacher feels empathy for the victim, thereby further emphasizing the seriousness of the issue. Her ability to talk with her students also grants her a greater understanding and ability to create hypothetical reasons for the displayed behavior.

One American teacher framed severity in terms of awareness. Conversations, relationships, discourses all revolve around the ability to hear and to respond. Trust in school culture was a common idea among the samples (cited by 16). Communication was key to conveying the needs of such a school culture. He said that the coexistence of multiple stimuli diminished his capacity to notice bullying. For example, the teacher shared,

“The thing to always remember is that it is a volume problem, which means that there are always problems and there are always, and there are constantly not meeting every student’s need just because even at a place like (X school) class sizes are just too big.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

This description seems quite limiting, highlighting the inevitability of bullying. However, at the same time, it does suggest that the teacher must become aware of the different levels of his experience. Hence, deciphering the differences in *volume* may serve as the first step towards distinguishing which ‘sounds’ deserve greater attention.

One teacher highlighted that students and teachers simply did not know what was happening in their classrooms. For example, one new teacher shared,

“So there was one class where I had a student come up to me and say ‘Hey, you need to pay attention to what these two students are saying to a third student’ and allegedly the two students were saying racially derogatory comments to this third student. What is interesting to me about that is that I just had no idea that theoretically it was happening in my classroom.” (Male American Teacher, ID 101)

If the student did not report, the teacher would be oblivious to the racial statements. Although the bullying had occurred for a long time, the teacher seemed unaware, revealing that he somehow missed instances of these negative interactions within his classroom. This suggests that bullies could make such comments clandestinely.

One new teacher emphasized that statistics could also emphasize the seriousness. These statistics could potentially connect to their classroom by placing the bullying into a larger context. For instance, one new teacher said,

“I think seeing the data on how many students commit suicide or sadly cut themselves or are depressed generally or seeing that data which is crazy because there are so many of them. Uhm, and they are teenagers, no one should be made to feel like that especially in adolescents which is a really difficult time in most people’s lives.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

This teacher felt she could understand the feelings of her students, because she experienced similar emotions and situations whilst referencing back to her life. Statistics could simultaneously emphasize that emotions could be experienced on a large scale.

One of the ways that a new educator suggested that individuals could learn of the severity was through empathy. By reconnecting with one’s feelings of being hurt in the past, the teacher suggested that a student could foster a greater ability to understand the feelings of others. By realizing that no one would like to be victimized, the teacher suggested that she could understand the severity much more readily. For instance, the teacher shared,

“I would hope that the majority of students have not been bullied but I am sure that they have had somebody say something bad about them or say something bad to them, and if you have them reflect on well like how does that make me feel? I shouldn’t feel that way. And, if they thought about that, I think that they would be less likely to do it to someone else, even for those students that aren’t necessarily the most compassionate.” (Female American Teacher, ID 123)

From this perspective, the teacher imagines that associating pain with a past situation of perceived bullying will afford them the opportunity to empathize within the situation. According to this perspective, individuals do not want to feel pain, yet empathizing with the others could create a connection between the student and teacher.

Social upbringing could also frame what was seen as severe or culturally inappropriate. This could potentially lessen the overwhelming feeling teachers experience whilst initially encountering bullying. For example, one teacher shared,

“These kids are coming from all different kinds of place(s), and they are coming from all different kinds of experiences. And these are kids, and they may say something that we may be horrified with, but for them, they are maybe in some ways just parroting what they have heard at home...”. (Male American Teacher, ID 102)

The diverse experiences of the students suggest that many different types of victimization remain possible. Teachers could become aware of the many possibilities in which bullying can occur, and they can become aware of how families and community role models can respond.

Sharing the stories of actual students could emphasize the intensity of the bullying, while simultaneously creating a message that remains meaningful to the educator. Confidence in training was a commonly referenced theme (cited by 15). However, the question was the nature of the training. One of the experienced teachers reflected on the power of a story when it came to translating the importance of bullying:

“They are choosing to become, based on their experiences of people who were already those types of things ... this resonates with some people and it doesn’t with others. Some people have a family story or a personal story

even an experience about reading about someone else ...". (Male American Teacher, ID 102)

Hence, in addition to emphasizing how students might be facing particular situations within the school this teacher suggested, it would also be important to ask the individual to reflect on how similar expressions of violence affected loved ones. This process could become more powerful, according to a teacher, if the teacher takes the time to consider how similar actions resonated with them.

Some experienced educators asked the question of whether a training program could accentuate the seriousness of a bullying situation. Potentially, teachers were socialized by their cultures, schools, and families to understand the severity of a situation. Hence, the framework would recommend that starting in schools at a younger age level would be even more important to ensure that they learned positive values. One experienced teacher framed the issue of seriousness in this way:

"I think that it is something that is a part of your personality, it is formed by a large part your own experiences. If you have passionate feelings because of your early childhood, your experience, some people, its just not, some people see it as a character building moment, the world is an unfair place, so get used to it, don't be so delicate. It's very difficult, in terms of impressing upon new staff the severity of this." (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

Although more serious situations may correspond with a greater likelihood of intervention, the teacher was fully aware that there were some limitations in terms of the amount of change that could occur as a result of a single training event. This would suggest that an intervention might be more of a journey of reflection, because teachers and students could learn with time.

One teacher suggested a sense of moral duty would precede a willingness to address serious situations. From this perspective, bullying heightened in its intensity as a result of the teacher's willingness to accept welfare as a part of the job description. Pastoral role awareness was a fairly common theme across samples (cited by 8). One experienced teacher framed bullying in these terms,

“I find that the word that keeps on coming to mind is injustice. Which sounds almost batmanesque or something like that. Its actually, that for me is the key for why I intervene for the small things as well as the big things.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

From his perspective, the severity of the action would not become readily apparent until after the strategy. Through attempting to address the bullying in all instances, the teacher claimed that he could deepen his awareness of the issue. Hence, sensing severity often occurred *after* engagement, thereby serving as an added inspiration for encountering more situations. This experienced teacher had a very high level of willingness to respond, even to the point of breaking up physical fights between students taller than himself. However, he claimed that students never resisted him when he attempted to break up a fight, because he had achieved a certain level of respect due to his consistency.

One American teacher claimed that seriousness depended on its continuity. From this perspective, it would become progressively more observable over time, meaning that serious bullying would be more identifiable. The teacher explains,

“The main part is the continual harassment. It is continual behavior to assert dominance over another group of students.” (Male American Teacher, ID 34)

The interesting part about this explanation is twofold: *length of the time* and *the number of people* involved. The reference to groups emphasizes the social nature, and how *one group of students* as opposed to a single individual often approves and reinforces the *continual victimization*. Its public visibility among other students was a common theme for assessing severity (cited by 11). The continual nature often depicts a much larger social system that enables and reinforces its existence, thereby suggesting the necessity of more multifaceted strategies.

One problem an English teacher perceived was that students might not report. Although teachers considered knowing students important (cited by 17), this teacher tried to emphasize the difficulty of understanding the victim’s life. When asked to explain the reason, one teacher shared,

“Maybe the students are ashamed of what is happening, and they feel that they are responsible and that they should be able to deal with it. To go to report it means that they have to admit that they have failed or they have to talk about it with someone, which is embarrassing. It is vulnerability. It is a message of failure.” (New Female English Teacher, ID 333)

In a society that may deride victims, parents and friends may not want to associate with these targeted individuals. Hence, students may experience shame, precluding them from reporting bullying. Additionally, parents may erect alternative spaces within the life of the child, such as extracurricular activities to foster the belief that their child thrives within the new environment. Admitting victimhood may create a further sense of inferiority, although this could serve as a path to seeking the necessary counseling support.

5.6 Research Question 4: What is the likelihood of intervention for different scenarios of bullying?

While the previous section covered differences in perceived severity, this section will use qualitative findings to explore perceived differences in the likelihood of response between scenarios. This will be important for verifying whether or not the findings are consistent between the quantitative and qualitative findings (when surveys suggest that there is a distinct difference in the level of response between home and cyberbullying situations). Likelihood of response pertained to the willingness of a teacher to respond to different situations. The research was interested in exploring whether the location (at home or at school) changed the willingness of response. The findings revealed that different spaces adopted different meanings across separate contexts. For teachers, there was a higher willingness to respond in cyberbullying situations at school rather than home. The qualitative interviews provided a space for teachers to elucidate the ways in which they conceived of responses to bullying.

One teacher suggested bullying developed from larger societal issues, such as racism, discrimination, and homophobia. The presence of such elements within the larger school structure presented many key challenges to educators feeling that the space should become a sanctuary from hateful language and ideologies. This could be one of the challenges of translating some of the anti-bullying policies from the Olweus (1993)

strategies, as Norway may have faced different societal issues from England and the United States. For example, one experienced American teacher saw a negative statement, anonymously written on a whiteboard, directed at Muslim Americans. The educator recalls,

“You know, and I addressed it, ‘someone wrote this, this is a derogatory term, someone wrote this under cover, what does this mean?’ The lunch bell rang I remember and I said that we are going to stay here for just a few minutes, I tried to exhort them to reflection ... I did not say that we are not going to leave until the guy that wrote it raises his hand, whoever did this I am going to jug (punish) you. I did not go down that road, and to this day, I do not know if this was the right way or the wrong way but, uhm, we stayed in lunch in 5 minutes, 10 minutes at most ... You do not need to solve the problem. You can’t resolve the problem, but maybe you could make it a meaningful teaching moment for many of the kids in the classroom, and that is our job.” (Male American Teacher, ID 102)

From this perspective, awareness and reflection seemed much more important than direct punishment. The teacher did not claim to know whether his actions were effective, yet he created a space of reflection. The teacher’s response enabled the students to contemplate the effects of bullying and to transform a specific incident of hatred into a moment of potential reflection.

Several teachers suggested that different types of bullying lead to different responses. For example, physical bullying (expressed in situations such as kicking a student) could be seen as deleterious, whereas the other instances such as social exclusion were not considered as serious. According to one experienced teacher who said that he often did not report bullying in schools,

“Especially for new teachers, I can remember when I first started teaching, it is a case that if you don’t see it you don’t address it.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

When asked for the reason for this, the teacher presented a metaphor for learning how to teach:

“I think that especially for new teachers, there is so much to remember it is kind of like trying to drive a car. When you think about when you are first learning how to drive a car you have to think about changing the gears indicating, you are less focused about what is happening verbally, you know what can be said verbally or what could be said as something that you not consider as important because ultimately when we think of new teachers ...”. (Experienced Male English Teacher, ID 303)

This presents a very interesting notion of the *process of learning* how to become a teacher is often quite complicated. It is very hard to fulfill all the roles well when one is first learning how to teach.

A lack of teacher professional development could also influence the willingness to respond. Without such support, it may become difficult for teachers to adapt and to respond to varied situations. If teachers receive *prompting* as to the nature of bullying within the school community as well as the importance of the situation, these same individuals could assume a more active stance when faced with bullying. One teacher stated,

“ ... more of the PGCE course needs to address bullying and every type of bullying as important as the lesson planning and other aspects of teaching. I think that it is only addressed according to my experience during the CPD lesson or an in set session in my first school which is not enough.” (Male English Teacher, ID 303)

This teacher felt that there is an inherent lack of training within the school system. Bullying remains a very complex issue, and trying to train educators can lead to many important questions. Does the responsibility to train teachers rest in the hands of the PGCE program, the school itself in which the teacher is based, or a combination of both?

One American teacher said that the response would differ based upon the school culture. Although school culture was cited often (cited by 16), there were many different ways of suggesting what school culture could mean. For example, this teacher emphasized reporting depended on the level of trust established by colleagues within the school. Interestingly enough, the teacher explains,

“... adults show the same exact behavior (bullying). In any work place, even when you have schools you might have people that are adults that are working at the school and are bullies themselves.” (Male American Teacher, ID 34)

This has very important implications for not reporting bullying. If the staff feels mistreated, teachers may not consider the administration as qualified to handle the situation. Hence, the seriousness of the bullying between students can parallel the seriousness of the bullying between members of staff. The inability of staff members to handle bullying might be linked to perceptions that the administration may not foster a *process* by which they can settle the bullying. If some staff members bully other staff members or students, this could potentially encourage student bullies to emulate such behavior, because such actions would seem permissible within the school.

One teacher claimed that he would potentially report because he did *not* feel confident in his abilities. This did not accord with the earlier statistical findings from the survey, which suggested that greater confidence in one’s ability would correspond with a willingness to respond. Hence, this provides a nuance within the mixed methods findings. Instead of being an empowering experience, passing off the situation to another teacher provided an alternative, which reflected a lack of confidence. For instance, one teacher said,

“At the moment, I would find it very hard to go and say, ‘oy get away from each other.’ I would not know exactly what the policy would be, who to send them to, and if it is a group of students that I do not know I wouldn’t know how to assert my authority over them early on. I would go to a more experienced teacher and say ‘oy they’re fighting could you go and sort it out’.” (Male English Teacher, ID 301)

The *newness* of the school could potentially lead to less confidence among PGCE teachers and more reliance on others to settle bullying situations. However, mentor support was not cited that often as an effective means for dealing with bullying (only cited by 2). This new teacher did not know the school’s policies, thereby reducing their ability to make an *informed* decision. Some educators suggested that they could run the risk of seeming to ‘not trust’ the head teacher if they asked too many questions after

reporting. This set of perspectives highlights how trust with the administration may shape a teacher's response.

Passing on information with trust serves as a reflection of *school culture*. One teacher realized that whenever a student feels endangered, the teacher should check in repeatedly with the student and the administration to ensure that this particular individual received the proper assistance. He shared,

"I remember that I saw in class there was a student who had a very deep cut on his finger, and it happened at the weekend and it was Wednesday, you know he should have stitches by now. So I told the classroom teacher, and he was like yeah we really need this okay, and I wasn't really happy with this response, so I went straight to the safeguarding officer to just check that this student has been dealt with tomorrow, so it wasn't confrontational to know that I went above and I wasn't criticizing I was just caring about the child." (Male English Teacher, ID 314)

The teacher's emphasis on "*caring for the child*" marks a shift in terms of the focus of developing the whole child. For this teacher, the child's *safety* preceded an exclusive set of expectations connected to curriculum development.

Willingness to respond also related to the perceived role of the educator. New educators tended to suggest that they did not feel ready yet to intervene, because they did not yet understand the school and the relations within it. For example, one new teacher said,

"I think it's that bystander effect, why does it have to be me that intervenes in this, especially if you are a trainee teacher or a recent teacher, where is the member of the leadership team on this, where is the member of the staff on duty?" (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

The bystander effect poses a very real challenge, because the collective responsibility diminishes once an individual assumes that others within the organization should intervene before one's self. Some new teachers may want to avoid the bullying situation, because the 'opportunity cost' of acting seems substantial if there is a highly skilled individual able to handle the situation.

A shared responsibility could extend to all members of staff, since the bullying situation can occur at any time. One teacher conceived that the process of dealing with bullying needed to be a process introduced at a young age. One experienced teacher suggested,

“I think that the one thing that I find when I talk to my trainees is that one of the single most important things I took away from my PGCE had nothing to do with my subject and as well as obviously the delivery of my lessons, it was obviously that sense of professionalism, and the importance of being held to a higher moral standard, rightly or wrongly it was going to happen, and as a result, you have to be the pupils’ eyes, someone that will correct the behavior in that way.” (Male English Teacher, ID 328)

Conveying this professionalism could serve as a foundational process for improving school culture. The teacher’s emphasis on the awareness of the children suggested that students were the ones who often assessed the level of professionalism within the school.

In terms of developing a long-term strategy for bullying, one English teacher expressed the need to encourage the victims to stand up for themselves. For example, the teacher reports,

“I am going to say something that is not deemed by the school particularly well, but I think a good way to end bullying is to teach people to stand up for themselves. I think that bullying week is something that English schools do but I do not know how effective it is ...”. (Male English Teacher, ID 301)

This quotation was unusual but suggested that the teacher believes that the schools often do not encourage students to stand up for themselves, but often encourage bystanders or teachers to intervene. However, the teacher suggested that the children should have a way of potentially defending themselves physically. However, this was not a view shared by other interviewees and he did not mention the potential for increased fights, further violence, or retaliation.

One of the greatest hurdles for new English teachers was fostering a sense of confidence *in a new school*. This new space presented alternatives, yet also marked a

foundational transition for the teachers themselves, as they transitioned from student to practitioner. For example, one teacher shared,

*“We consider ourselves as fake teachers at the moment. So that’s why people who say they do not have the confidence would not intervene.”
(Male English Teacher, ID 314)*

The lack of clarity of role and responsibility when entering the new environment could potentially undermine a willingness to act. Up until this point in their PGCE training, the preparation has emphasized the importance of safeguarding and reporting a bullying incident.

When discussing reporting, one teacher suggested that sustainable reporting depended upon the mental health of the teacher. Self-care was sometimes cited across samples (cited by 5). For example, the PGCE teacher shared,

“You’re just starting, ask for help. You know after supper there are trainee teachers that lose sleep at night and become very upset or deep in depression because they do not know how to deal with these situations. And, we are always told how to deal with these situations, the safeguarding office, the head of department, the class and teachers, so we know straight away that it is not a weakness to ask for help and to divulge information that will not hold any concerns at all.” (Male English Teacher, ID 314)

From this perspective, the perceived actions of the students left a deep impact on the teacher. Similar to a bystander, the teacher can feel vicarious pain by seeing how the victim feels and experiences the injustice of bullying on a day-to-day basis. The administration placed a high level of confidence in the safeguarding process as a way of dealing with bullying in schools. This emotional investment paired with knowledge of what to do led to higher levels of reporting according to the teacher.

One of the major factors for overcoming bullying from this teacher’s perspective related directly to compassion. Knowing students and making time to listen to them was the most common theme (cited by 17). For example, the new teacher shared,

“It is really the knowledge, the ability to be aware of the people that are around you and saying, you don’t have to see the world through their eyes, you just have to understand their world.” (Male American Teacher, ID 143)

From that perspective, a collective focus on the situation of the victim could potentially lead the bully to understand and empathize more with the individuals that they are hurting. The teacher’s compassion related to an ability *to feel* for students and *to foster* understanding within the bully.

As in all organizations, the school has a unique power structure, which could inhibit action. Dangers can arise if certain students feel as if they can get away with their actions due to a level of power, which could extend beyond the mere classroom.

Confidence of the bully was a common theme (cited by 11). For example, one teacher reported that a student had a grandmother in the school who was a school secretary. The teacher reflects on the actions of the student, remarking,

“It is on the border of being acceptable or not acceptable (the bullying performed by the student), and since she has that clout as the grandmother as someone influential, she stays right on that line. It makes it very difficult for us as staff to say this is alright or this is not alright.” (Male American Teacher, ID 34)

This may reflect a larger problem within other school institutions, especially with “popular” bullies. The teacher suggests that the school itself should explore how the school culture might support the power structure of bullying. The level of support that bullies receive could preclude teachers from responding.

In addition to the possibility that popular individuals within the school might assume a certain amnesty, the teacher further described these individuals as “bully-proof” (Male American Teacher, ID 34). This linguistic construction presents two elements: the popular student is both safe from “experiencing” bullying or “being labeled” as a bully. Like the closely related phrase “bullet-proof,” a student experiencing such safety may possess a greater willingness to take risks, because they feel as if the system of rules and punishment may not apply to them.

One common theme in the American sample that rarely appeared within the British sample of teachers was the idea of observing the bullying before the intervention. According to some American teachers, the meaning of the bullying could emerge from the aftermath of the bullying situation. As one teacher stated,

“It depends on whether I am capable of intervening. I usually just let it play out and (I am) interested in seeing how students learn how to stand up for themselves.” (Male American Teacher, ID 57)

In this situation, the teacher suggests that he needs more information before reporting, so he must watch what is happening with the victim. Additionally, the teacher claimed that if he just stood up and intervened in that situation, the student would just continue to receive the bullying in another situation. This suggested this teacher was unwilling to intervene and may reflect a lack of empathy for the victim.

Additionally, one of the teachers claimed that reporting did not always occur because he wanted to speak to the victim first. In this particular situation, the teacher described a situation of speaking with a victim. The teacher said,

“You take them aside ... ‘Would this be something that you would like me to talk about with the administration(?)’ ... For the most part, most students do not want intervention at the school admin[istration] level. They maybe don’t like the impacts with the bully, they don’t want to make it into a big deal.” (Male American Teacher, ID 57)

Within this situation, the victim determines the next steps, because the teacher imagines that the victim perceives the situation most accurately. However, this reaction hinges upon a level of subjectivity, because (although the victim probably has a better understanding of the situation) he or she may be afraid of the implications of reporting and *being labeled a victim*

In terms of reporting on a peer-to-peer basis, one American teacher suggested that that most information emerged during informal discussions. The teacher remembers,

“Our lunch room is where we discuss student gossip. ‘Hey I have been noticing that this is what our student has done.’ Different teachers pick up

on different things and share it in the lunch room.” (Male American Teacher, ID 57)

What is significant about this is how it differs from another situation mentioned later on within the British sample, where a group of children directly addresses the teacher during the informal time period of the lunch hour. These comments suggest that during these *informal time periods* (such as lunch) teachers can learn more about the serious issues of bullying. Although school culture was referenced as a common theme to provide confidence to teachers (cited by 16), it was interesting to see that often school culture thrived off of communication happening between members of the community during breaks.

Furthermore, an English teacher discussed special training in how to report *confidential information*. Confidence of training was a common theme for teachers across samples (cited by 15). One English teacher mentioned,

“We have to be aware of safeguarding issues with any kind of abuse; anything that is going on at home or at school. We had a couple of lectures on that, and people came in to talk about it.” (New Female English Teacher, ID 333)

Hence, the administration of the school was aware of how confidential information needs protection and trained staff accordingly. This issue did not present itself as readily within the US sample. Although teachers acknowledged that reporting confidential information of students was important for fostering a positive relationship with the child, there was not as much of a legal discourse within the teacher training that would guide such actions.

However, the willingness to report also depended on the bystanders having the courage to accompany the victim. The teacher recalled,

“The students that came were quite vulnerable. The one student that was bullied in the toilets was accompanied by a group of other students. ‘They told me miss, he is being bullied’.” (Female English Teacher, ID 335)

The victim needed the support of friends whilst approaching the teacher. Although the victim did not feel comfortable speaking because he was so upset, talking to the teacher

with two of his friends seemed a safer alternative for expressing his concern. Bullies can isolate their victims. Students affected by bullying may require support from friends to express their deep feelings. Hence, the ability to have “buddies” to help report the situation ensures that the victim feels heard and appreciated when he or she does not have the ability to express his or her concerns directly to a teacher. Students that did not know other students had much less of a likelihood of forming these important relationships that could support them whilst reporting. One English teacher described one of these students,

“The boy who was being bullied is on the autistic spectrum. He did not have many friends. Going into a new school and not knowing anyone in year 7 is quite difficult. He finds it hard to socialize with other students, making it hard for him to feel safe. He is on his own, so he is quite vulnerable. He did not come to school regularly...”. (Female English Teacher, ID 335)

The quotation shows that the victim does not necessarily have relationships with peers, which could pose a challenge for reporting the situation, it also points to the link between special educational needs and the likelihood of being bullied.

One teacher emphasized the frequency with which reporting took place at her school. The PGCE teacher was not only willing to report incidents, but also displayed an acute awareness as to the different levels of commitment of reporting to the school community. For example, the English teacher shared,

“ ... they (the tutors) have house meetings once a week and they talk about tutor time activities and spreading messages within the tutor system ... If your student came to school, and they were not as well dressed, she expected to have a note.” (New Female English Teacher, ID 308)

The quotation reveals that the PGCE teacher understood the extent to which she was expected to report new information.

5.7 Key Findings:

As the previous section outlined the qualitative findings for the four research questions, this section will explore the key findings before moving on to a broader analysis within the discussion chapter, relating these findings to the greater literature. The next section describes the key interview findings as they relate to responses, Expectancy Factors and the difference between scenarios. The interviews were used to explore teachers' perspectives of the most and least effective responses to cyberbullying. The second section explores how key factors (such as expectancy and valence) corresponded with a higher likelihood of response. The third section investigates how severity and likelihood of response differed by scenario.

5.7.1 Responses:

Long-term strategies generally perceived as likely to be more effective within the questionnaire survey were explored further using follow up interviews with sub-samples of teachers in the US and England. The interviews sought to explore and illuminate teachers' views and experiences with potential strategies. The opportunities to reflect and comment on the survey results reveal rich details about teachers' perspectives.

Especially in terms of parental involvement, the home was presented as a powerful environment, shaping conceptions of how parents could hold their children accountable for their actions. Yet, there were questions about how much influence a teacher could have upon a parent, as parental involvement depended upon multiple factors. Busy parents might not have time to devote to the life of their children, although they might be the first line of defense. Parental involvement could be an extension of wider aspects pertaining to school culture as well. Additionally, increased consequences were also ranked highly within the surveys, but the qualitative findings suggested that increased consequences might oversimplify the real issue of dealing with bullying. For example, one teacher suggested that the consequences only mattered if they resonated with the bully, which might not be the situation. Another teacher questioned whether consequences really addressed the root causes of the behavior, which might require fostering a sense of responsibility. Teachers also called into question the efficacy of

consequences in a world where a lot of the cyberbullying took place anonymously. Others however called for clarity and zero-tolerance.

By contrast, monitoring students and task forces were ranked as less effective strategies according to the survey results. The follow up interviews explored these in more depth. One teacher suggested that it would just be too challenging to monitor all online actions, especially since cyberbullying thrived secretly. Also the interviews highlighted differences across cultures (as US samples had the Patriot Act, whereas teachers had safeguarding training in England). Hence, the idea and purpose of data protection were framed differently across contexts. One teacher suggested that the task forces would not have power within the school. Upon further clarification, another teacher suggested that it was hard for him to conceive of the task force's responsibilities. Hence, the inability to imagine the duties of such a group limited its perceived effectiveness in relation to combating cyberbullying.

5.7.2 Key Findings: Expectancy Factors (Valence and Expectancy)

Teachers' perception of the severity of the bullying (linked to the theoretical concept of valence in this research) seemed to be shaped by how teachers framed the issue of bullying itself. The interviews provided an opportunity for teachers to define bullying, thereby affording an opportunity for interviewees to identify major themes. Isolation was a theme for defining severe bullying, for the teacher's inability to perceive it could make the bullying more severe. One US teacher used the word discrimination as well, which connected with first amendment rights within the US. Additionally, escapism was another theme for bullying. Bullying others could form an escape from the bully's problems, and the severity would relate to how deeply the child identified with bullying as a form of escapism. Others pointed to the increased confidence and power experienced by bullies from victimizing others. One new teacher suggested slowing down in order to perceive all of factors playing into the situation. However, experienced teachers from England and the US emphasized better *applied* definitions in order to understand what actually constituted bullying. One way that a teacher suggested this could happen was

through role-playing, so she could distinguish the different severities with feedback within different scenarios.

Teachers also suggested that the expectancy (confidence in one's ability) would relate to several factors. Firstly, one teacher suggested that they needed resources and an awareness of the laws for how these issues should be handled (cited by 8). Familiarity with the policies would enable teachers to feel that their actions were not isolated responses. Other teachers suggested that the confidence would emerge from trusting the school culture as a whole (cited by 16). Trust in other staff members and the administration, as a whole would frame confidence within the actions they performed, as they realized that they were a part of a larger team handling these issues. Confidence within the training could correlate with confidence within one's self when responding to future bullying scenarios (cited by 15). Newer teachers suggested that the support from a mentor and respect from students themselves would be helpful for establishing confidence (cited by 2). One of the ways that a teacher suggested increasing his own confidence was through familiarizing himself with leaders as role models. Being clear about the teaching role and highlighting the other leadership responsibilities would be key for enabling teachers to take the initiative to collect more information. Fostering compassion for others strengthened the ability to understand the needs of others whilst performing responsibilities.

5.7.3 Severity and Responses between Scenarios

The level of severity did not differ between scenarios according to the quantitative survey findings. However, the interviews produced rich qualitative findings that suggested that the types of severity could differ between scenarios. One teacher suggested that the severity would strengthen depending on whether or not the understanding fit within the agreed definition. Labeling bullying as harassment (especially within the US) could promote its importance, thereby building off a previously developed judicial system, which could identify the legality of actions within home or school environments. Viewing bullying as a form of discrimination was also noted, suggesting links with equity and social justice agendas. However, beyond defining

the terms themselves, teachers emphasized how confidence of the bully would influence perceptions within different environments (cited by 11). Effects on the victims also framed teacher perceptions of the severity of bullying in different spaces, as physical and/or psychological abuse could haunt the victim for a sustained period. In order to convey the severity across differing spaces, one teacher recommended presenting visual displays, highlighting the life of the victim and bully over the course of the day. Another teacher suggested the use of statistics, because it seemed much easier to comprehend the bullying's scope. Additionally, other teachers suggested establishing relationships with their students would grant them clearer information and greater clarity (cited by 17). Those relationships, according to the teacher would be helpful for spotting it in different environments, as well as observing the long-term impacts on behavior. This connected with broader themes as well, such as establishing empathy. Being watched by other students was also a common theme for severity (cited by 11). Feeling that other students were observing the behavior heightened its importance.

Although the level of severity did not differ that much between scenarios, likelihood of response did differ between scenarios according to the quantitative findings. The interviews provide further insights and tentative explanations suggesting that educators perceived their roles differently within differing settings. One new teacher clarified that he felt that if he did not see the offence he did not need to address it. This extends to another teacher's comments, emphasizing a clear recognition of the role of the teacher (an aspect referred to by 8 interviewees). This would then in turn guide the level of awareness he would direct at his students' lives. Another teacher tried to emphasize that the level of action would depend upon perceived support. Within the schools, this would be quite high. Yet, when looking at home scenarios it would be much more challenging to feel support far from the school. An additional teacher said that his willingness to report would connect to how well equipped his colleagues were at dealing with the situation. The school culture itself could inhibit an active response to bullying according to some teachers (cited by 16). School cultures which did not act or had a history of bullying between members of staff might lose credibility for dealing with this situation, thereby prompting the teacher to feel isolated before eventually dealing with the situation themselves.

5.8 Concluding Remarks

By probing further for insights linked to the main quantitative findings, the semi-structured interviews garnered greater information in terms of how teachers understood bullying in schools. The interviews explored several themes, including Expectancy Factors, strategies for dealing with cyberbullying, and differences between conceptions of home versus school cyberbullying. Emergent themes also arose from the interviews (such as school culture, confidence in training, and teacher-student relationships). These emergent themes framed the previous findings in a slightly different light, suggesting that the school environment and the experience level could lead to slightly different interpretations of bullying and its appropriate response. The following Discussion chapter goes into a greater analysis of the findings and highlights the initial connections between the findings from the quantitative and qualitative components. The chapter shows how the mixed methods could add to the findings from the different methods, drawing attention to the links with existing literature and outlining the theoretical contribution.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Chapter Introduction

The overarching aims underpinning this thesis were to explore and to understand teachers' perceptions and responses to bullying in schools in two different country contexts. This research continues along the research tradition of teacher perceptions of bullying in schools (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Stauffer et al. 2012; Boulton et al. 2014), as outlined in the Literature Review (Chapter 2). Olweus (1993) created a pioneering strategy for reducing bullying in schools across countries. Olweus and Limber (2010) suggested that one of the possible reasons for mixed results in implementation of anti-bullying strategies across different country contexts was linked to staff motivation. This chapter discusses the broader findings of this mixed methods study of teachers' perceptions linked to the main research questions and how they contribute to the literature in the field. It reveals ways in which the research questions overlap, linking the main findings to previous studies and highlighting how this project advances an understanding of teachers' perceptions of the phenomenon of strategies to combat student bullying with a special focus on the under-researched topic of cyberbullying.

Questionnaire surveys were developed to address the research questions by asking about teachers' perceptions of different scenarios of bullying in schools, within a convenience purposive sample of teachers from England and the US. The research design implemented a mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy starting with surveys, that drew on and extended an approach used in previous studies (Bauman and Del Rio 2006, Stauffer et al. 2012) and the study conducted during my MSc degree (Hurtubise 2013). A subsample of teachers was followed up to further explore the survey results by probing teachers' views on the survey findings and explore reasons for their answers with rich descriptive findings and insights garnered through semi-structured interviews. The inclusion of a qualitative component was a development not included in previous work by Stauffer et al. (2012), and the particular focus on cyberbullying was also a new focus.

This discussion chapter furthers the research aims by examining and drawing together the main findings from the quantitative analyses (presented in Chapter 4) and the qualitative findings (described in Chapter 5) in line with the sequential mixed methods

design outlined in Figure 6.1. The chapter also links the findings to the literature and the theoretical models that underpin the investigation. It explores the similarities and any differences between the findings of different methods, and seeks to integrate and synthesize the quantitative and qualitative findings to provide more robust conclusions and enhanced understandings (in accord with arguments made by Teddlie and Tashakkori 2012; Schrauf 2017). Like previous chapters, the discussion chapter structures the argument by showing how each research question was explored and further developed from the combination of methods. The connections between methods are further utilized to highlight how the research quality was enhanced as a result of the sequential explanatory strategy. Directions for future research are presented within the conclusion of the thesis.

As Chapter 5 focused primarily on qualitative findings, this chapter will synthesize an argument by relating findings to the greater literature in the field. Firstly, school strategies from this study will be linked to the findings from other key studies (Stauffer et al. 2012); perceived effectiveness of strategies will also be framed in terms of greater trends in the society, in light of laws that could frame the perceived permissibility of strategies within schools. Secondly, the discussion will show how the motivational model shaped by Vroom (1964, 2007) and Bandura (1986, 1989, 2001, 2018) relate to the response to bullying in schools. The discussion will also highlight emerging themes from the qualitative findings (such as relative confidence of the bully, identity of the victim, trust, school culture, and pastoral care) relate to the level of response, as conceived by Expectancy Theory and Social Cognitive Theory. Thirdly, the chapter will highlight how the scenarios themselves framed severity and level of response. Specifically, the chapter will more clearly elucidate the ideas of Bandura (2001), in terms of how environmental factors shape personal factors and behaviors (whilst discussing cyberbullying at home versus school scenarios). Key themes such as experience of the teacher and the level of uncertainty at home will also unpack whether the dynamics of Social Cognitive Theory differ between the scenarios (Bandura 1986, 1989).

6.2 Review of Mixed Methods Approach to Data Analysis, Integration, and Synthesis

Figure 6.1: Mixed Methods Sequential Explanatory Strategy

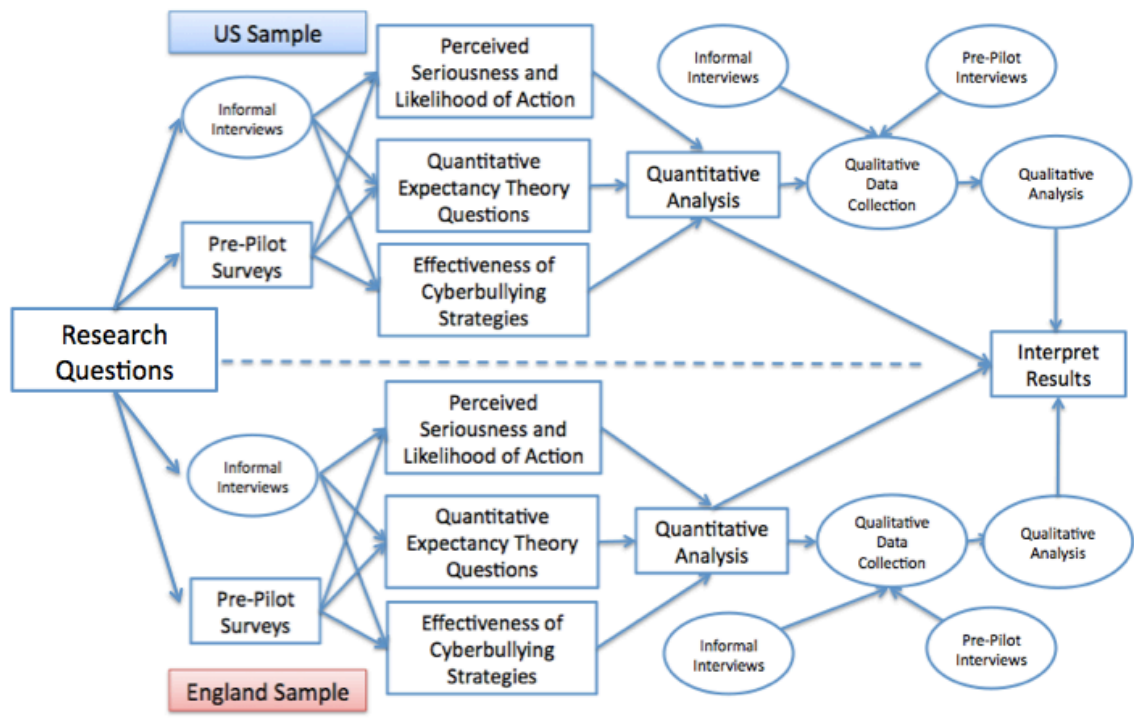


Figure 6.1 acts as a reminder to illustrate the mixed methods sequential explanatory strategy design (as discussed earlier Chapter 3, Section 3.2). Chapter 4 (as covered in Sections 4.3 to 4.5) presented the main quantitative findings (represented with squares in the above diagram). Chapter 5 then covered the qualitative findings (represented by ovals in Figure 6.1). This chapter affords an opportunity to compare the consistency of findings between the two methods (survey and interview) in addressing the three main research questions. One of the reasons underpinning the choice of a mixed method design pertained to the complexity of unpacking the nature of the teachers' roles in relation to strategies to combat school bullying, especially in relation to the phenomenon cyber bullying. Pragmatism as a research paradigm suggests that mixed methods may have greater utility in exploring teachers' strategies for responding to bullying, especially the little explored topic of cyberbullying (Teddlie and Tashakkori 2012). Previous research (Boulton et al. 2014) focused primarily on the topic of teacher

confidence in relation to strategies for responding to bullying incidents. The combination of the surveys and later follow up interviews with a subsample allowed space and time for teachers to share their perspectives in more detail. It also provided a space for teachers to share their views on strategies for dealing with victims and perpetrators within different school and country contexts and to discuss their own experiences in more detail.

6.3 Research Question 1: How do teachers perceive long-term, school wide strategies?

The first research question explored how teachers perceived long-term school wide strategies to address bullying. Increasing consequences and parental involvement were highly ranked options across countries; at the same time, monitoring and task forces were ranked quite low by both teacher samples. These findings were generally in line with previous research for teacher samples in the United States (Stauffer et al. 2012) that studied other forms of bullying but not cyberbullying specifically. Qualitative interviews with sub samples of those completing the surveys enabled teachers to follow up on the main survey findings with more comments and reasons for their responses. This provided a unique addition to the existing literature on teachers' perceptions of the phenomenon of bullying (particularly cyberbullying) and views on strategies to combat it. This was deemed necessary as the literature in the field suggests that increased research as to teacher motivation may be important for the successful implementation of bullying strategies into the future (Olweus and Limber 2010). Although there were similar results within the quantitative findings, the qualitative results suggest that there were a range of different reasons individual teachers gave in relation to their explanations for their responses. For example, teacher relationship with the students, trust in school culture, confidence in training, and their perceptions of the relative confidence of the bully were all instrumental factors affecting teachers' self reported willingness to respond to different bullying scenarios according to the qualitative findings. The literature in the field recommends understanding teachers' perceptions, which could affect the actions of the students (Aun et al. 2006).

Interview evidence suggests many of the teachers' conceptions of different strategies to respond to cyberbullying seemed to have been framed through societal contexts. At a most basic level, beliefs about the effectiveness of particular strategies seem to have been shaped by their experience and knowledge of the success of past implementations. Previous research has shown that the same type of bullying intervention could be successful in certain contexts like Pennsylvania (Olweus, Limber, Wang, Masiello, and Breivik 2018), whereas it was found less effective in other places such as South Carolina (Espelage 2013; Olweus and Limber 2010). US teachers in this research particularly considered school culture as central for determining a response to different bullying scenarios. This accords with earlier research which shows a positive school culture is associated with a lower incidence of school bullying (Mucherah, Finch, White, and Kendra 2018). Teachers in the present study sometimes used words such as 'vision' in order to highlight long-term ambitions. Previous American research has labeled teachers as 'the first line of communication' (APA Zero Tolerance Task force 2008: 857). While English teachers indicated they were quite willing and open to report incidents to senior staff based on protocols, the US teachers' comments suggested they needed to develop greater trust in the school culture. US teachers perhaps sought to see if they could settle the matter themselves before reporting to a system that could emphasize zero tolerance policies.

Paradoxically, neither English nor US teachers (in the surveys) rated the idea of a bullying task force as one of the more effective strategies to address hypothetical bullying scenarios, even though it could be considered an expression of the priorities of a strong school culture. This finding resonates with other research, highlighting the importance of interventions seeking to increase collaborative activity within schools to deal with problem behavior (Ertesvåg 2014). The low rankings linked to the perceived utility of the idea of such an anti-bullying task force (a quantitative finding) could be a wider expression of difficulties impeding teacher collaboration. Yet the literature is suggesting that even more complex forms of collaboration between non-profits, parents, schools, and the government will be necessary for countering cyberbullying in the future (Cohen-Almogor 2018). In analyzing the interviews, it was found that some teachers felt a task force would likely become a waste of time, because they were not completely sure

whether teachers could provide more accurate or relevant information when compared to an outside consultant, focusing primarily on bullying reduction. Thus it seems teachers were worried about their lack of expertise compared with external experts.

Some US teachers suggested that they trusted outside opinions more than those of colleagues, noting that they might consider these to be more ‘objective’ perspectives. There may be a deeper question of why the teachers would not consider their own perspective (or that of colleagues) as equally or more relevant. When there is an institutional problem, outside agencies sometimes are contacted to ‘rescue’ the situation; however, this may lead to problems in terms of the agency of the organization. Whereas English schools in theory have the chance to exercise and to develop behavioral policies (Department for Education 2016), the decisions for how to deal with bullying seemed far removed from the actual teacher experience in US schools. Higher incarceration, suspension, and expulsion rates in the US (plus the larger size of high schools and concerns about gun culture) suggested that there were different processes and alternatives considered when teachers thought about strategies for handling bullying in schools.

When discussing the possibility of monitoring cyberbullying, one American teacher alluded to concerns about the idea of ‘Big Brother.’ This apparent Orwellian reference perhaps links with larger, societal issues facing the United States, which could correspond with a greater surveillance culture after the Patriot Act (2001). Even some US schools are turning to ‘third-party surveillance companies’ to watch for speech that would be deemed ‘disruptive’ based upon the *Tinker v. Des Moines* Supreme Court ruling (Mendola 2015). Later Supreme Court rulings would further specify that school administrators were within their right to discipline students for particularly offensive speech without infringing upon first amendment rights (*Bethel School District v. Fraser*). Yet the Supreme Court still must elucidate what authority schools have over online speech (King 2010). However, there is a question of who has the responsibility for this monitoring of speech on online platforms, when around 50% of students say that their parents have no involvement in online activity, although one study has suggested parental supervision online is linked with the reduction of cybervictims *and* cyberbullies (Baldry et al. 2019). English Teachers and US perceived monitoring as likely ineffective as a strategy for combating cyberbullying, suggesting that they felt it was neither ethical nor

relevant due to the sheer volume of information within social media, thereby making it an unsustainable strategy. This calls into question some of the previous analysis in the literature review focusing on Foucault (1977:202-203), which suggests that visibility and monitoring could preclude deleterious behavior. The greater fear of a surveillance culture and the overwhelming amount of data could diminish a sense of accountability in spaces where active monitoring is needed.

A number of teachers from the English sample spoke about the importance of safeguarding and so felt they had the duty to pass on bullying information if they became aware of incidents. This is reflected in the interview findings, revealing a somewhat different set of norms pertaining to monitoring. Some teachers in the US sample linked the idea of monitoring in relation to cyberbullying as a possible extension of an Orwellian type system, involving surveillance of a large numbers of students without much protection. Some of the US interview sample seemed to feel confused on how to deal with cyberbullying, because they recognized it was a problem, but they viewed strategies such as data monitoring as either infeasible or possibly draconian. This falls in line with current research suggesting that even WhatsApp groups started by educators for their students are often impossible to monitor completely for cyberbullying content (Rosenberg and Asterhan 2018). However, teachers in the England sample viewed monitoring in terms of a duty not to overstep bounds. They framed it within a larger discourse of safeguarding while not going beyond the role of what they felt it meant to be a teacher. The comprehensive support provided by safeguarding as a system created a more multifaceted approach involving multiple stakeholders to cover case reviews and the training of the safeguarding standards (Children's Act of 2004). However, both English and US teachers suggested that there is room for interpretation, and that the role of school leadership would be important for setting the standards and responding based upon those standards.

6.4 Research Question 2: How do background factors and Expectancy Factors relate to teacher perceptions and responses?

The second research question sought to understand teachers' perspectives of bullying across two different country contexts by identifying a range of potentially

relevant factors. Three factors emerging as important include the following: valence, expectancy with perpetrator, and the location (school versus home). The ability to compare the quantitative and qualitative evidence enabled this mixed methods research study to identify and investigate the statistically significant independent variables (linked to the constructs of expectancy and valence) identified from statistical models with a greater level of scrutiny through follow up in depth interviews with a subsample of teachers. The interviews also provided an opportunity to explore whether there might be any differences in terms of the framing of these core ideas by teachers across the two contexts and to explore teachers' understandings in depth.

Although the results of the quantitative analysis of survey data findings did not specifically suggest that country context predicted teachers' responses on the likely effectiveness of different strategies to combat different bullying scenarios, the qualitative findings suggested that the educational system and the larger national and cultural system could frame the ways in which teachers perceived bullying and the possible strategies to address it. Teachers in the US sample tended to discuss bullying in terms of the social exclusion of victims. Within a larger extroverted society, social exclusion (especially by cyberbullying) was perceived as posing a potential threat to victims valuing care and attention, thereby posing a challenge to educators, more used to detecting physical forms of bullying. Literature in the field already suggests that victims are quite critical of the ways in which schools deal or do not deal with bullying (Rigby 2017). Teachers reported that victims often needed to be the ones that reported the situations so that they could form a proactive, sustainable strategy. However, this may be especially difficult for victims.

Several teachers in the US sample identified time as a limited resource, and intervening thus composed a distinct investment with an inherent opportunity cost. This is in accord with the findings of US school administrators looking at the implementation process as one of scarcity of time with 'limited funding and staff', 'difficulty with selecting prevention strategies', and challenges associated with 'understanding the school's jurisdiction' (Bruening 2018: 284). Yet, little time to allocate limited resources did not exclusively preclude strategies, for a number of the US teachers also reported that they lacked a complete understanding of bullying. For example, several teachers framed

bullying in highly 'legalistic' terminology, such as harassment and discrimination. Research has suggested that state legislation in the US, clearly delineating what constitutes bullying could be a predictor for its reduction (Terry 2018). A response could seem more uncertain in the cyber world, where the laws were not as delineated. Although these terms may not specifically label what constitutes bullying, they did appeal to a larger historical and cultural context. The unfortunate history of racial discrimination and segregation within the US has created powerful images of how victimization had been entrenched within past educational institutions in the form of racial segregation for example. This could become particularly hard for conveying the expectations of an appropriate response if the laws of the state change or the policies set at the school level differ over time. Simply put, the legal history of the country or state could shape the available policies for handling bullying in schools. In order to overcome these histories, it would be important for local contexts to develop positive school cultures and shared understandings of bullying behaviors particularly in the cyber context. According to the Literature Review, promoting a positive school culture is associated with lower rates of bullying, for Guerra (2011: 307) associates positive school culture with relationships built upon trust. But what seems to unite the 'School Culture Strategies' is their longer-term nature, conveyed by the notion of consistent and persistent actions from staff members.

Most teachers in the US interviews typically referred to bullying in terms of individual students within their own classrooms. The reported process of assessing a bullying situation was therefore done individually -- fostered by dialogue and conversation rather than in terms of wider social trends or problems. Several US teachers argued that the victim should define the severity of the bullying. Some interviewees suggested that they did not know of specific incidents in their classes although they still believed it was happening. This could become a problem in light of past research that suggests that classroom 'not being supportive' could be considered a reason for bullying according to shy students (Lund, Ertesvåg, and Roland 2010). Two problems were noted by teachers in the US sample. Firstly, the victim often does not always display his or her emotions publically, because that would serve as a representation of weakness and might encourage bullying. This is interesting, especially when considering how some teachers defined bullying in terms of isolation. For them bullying was viewed as quite severe

when the students responded by isolating themselves further by separating themselves from the rest of the community, thereby precluding their social and emotional development in the presence of teachers, counselors, and friends. Secondly, some teachers suggested that they could judge the severity within the larger context of the child's development (actions by older bullies in their final years of secondary education might seem more serious because they had not transitioned out of sophomore behavior). The idea that younger students were 'experimenting' within a social hierarchy suggested that first year students might require time to adjust to the American high school. Several of the US sample claimed that laughing at specific individuals seemed instrumental for group formation within new environments, yet they felt as if there could be more proactive ways of forming groups and channeling this group energy among students (such as assorted extracurricular activities).

In addition to the adverse effects on the victim, several US teachers emphasized how they would need to consider the intent of the bully in assessing the severity. If the actions constituted hateful action directed at core elements of the victim's identity (such as race, sexual preference, or ability), then the actions would be considered more serious. Recent research in the US has suggested also that school bullying directed at the LGBT students is particularly deleterious in how it prevents freedom of speech by targeting 'relational communication' and 'identities' (Berry 2018: 502). At the same time, it is also important to realize that LGBT students often experience bullying at three times the rate as their straight peers (Chemaly 2019: 152). In another example, one teacher spoke a student targeted for their autism, and the research suggests that such bullying deeply affects 'self-esteem', 'social participation', and 'academic performance' (Ashburner et al. 2019: 27). Some of the American teachers suggested that hateful actions were not always the result of decisive action, but rather a reflection of the ways in which the bully had been treated in the past. The severity could be understood in terms of the difficulty of changing the actions of an individual. These actions could take on a life of their own, especially if the bully becomes a part of a group asserting dominance (as with gang culture). Teachers sometimes attempted to understand the bully themselves, because as assessment of severity would often hinge on the teacher being able to understand the life of the bully. As mentioned previously Coyle (2008: 109) references Donahue's notion

that school culture emerges round ‘symbols’, ‘values’, and ‘beliefs’ -- suggesting that ‘School Culture Strategies’ often build upon proactive sentiments (like fairness and morality rather than deterrence). The question becomes how to develop a positive school culture that could develop the ability for proactive relationships built on mutual trust to flourish, so that teachers could develop a better understanding as to the lives of bullies for their future growth and development.

Reporting these situations highlighted the theme of trust for American teachers. Trust for some could correspond with the level of time invested with parents and students. Some teachers believed this level of trust could diminish if parents did not invest the needed time to offer support. This falls in line with research, suggesting moral disengagement of cyberbullying and lack of engagement of parents predicted a higher bullying rate (Meter and Bauman 2018). Although teachers from across the US and England ranked knowing students as important, a number of American teachers doubted their school’s ability to establish a meaningful relationship with students, although the literature in the field also suggests that this is important (Rosario Di Stasio, Savage, and Burgos 2016). This creates an interesting framework, because it suggests that the confidence to report may disproportionately affect students from low socioeconomic backgrounds – for if a child and teacher have very low interaction with a parent who is working three part time jobs, the student might have less interaction to create a moral compass with potential role models. However, this could also affect students from high socioeconomic backgrounds, if the parents have demanding careers with work that involves long hours or travel. Hence, parents may have little contact with the child and depend on the reports of others in order to learn about bullying (Arseneault et al. 2010: 719). Some US teachers suggested that visually representing the complexity of the situation – whether within a slide or diagram – would help enable educators to understand the very real and multifaceted nature of student victimization. For such teachers, visual displays with statistics could be used to emphasize the severity of different potential bullying situations and highlight the need for response.

Additionally, the notion of teacher role could potentially frame what was ranked highly as a response. For example, the concept of ‘pastoral care’ appeared as an important element of the teacher’s role within the English sample. In the US, teachers in

the sample did not use the same language and could not clearly elucidate a part of the institution within the school that would address these issues outside of counseling services and the central administration. Whole school approaches have been seen to be critical for emphasizing the multiple facets of becoming an educator, engaging and educating the different and interconnected parts of student life (e.g. Migliaccio 2015). Linguistically, within the US, the term pastoral care meant something very different, often associated with religion. The separation between church and state may preclude the use of such a term, especially within the American public educational system. Pastoral care ensured that teachers in the English schools could define the role teachers had for getting to know students outside of a specifically academic context within respective tutor groups. Such weekly tutor group meetings were felt to enable teachers to learn more about their students' lives and to improve potential communication and trust according to interviews. At the same time, the English teachers also emphasized the importance of safeguarding and protecting the privacy of students in important matters (as noted previously).

Some of the new teachers in England reported that they felt isolated from the rest of the school. So, safeguarding could enable a centralization of gathered information, yet it became unclear whether or not this would actually lead to trust between staff members. Some new teachers in the English sample suggested that more support from other staff members would be helpful, and they needed to foster trust among themselves in order to counter bullying. This isolation seemed quite consistent, even to the point where some of the teachers in the new teacher sample in England reported that bullying of students affected them personally to the point of depression. This is an important result, especially when considering how this can affect personal identity and well being of new educators in England, as research suggests "positive professional identity is associated with well being..." (Sammons, Day, Kington, Gu, Stobart, Smees 2007: 699). Teachers reported how bullying could lead to sadness in staff and a decreased level of well being, whilst they also admitted that *not dealing* with the situation would augment the intensity of their negative feelings.

The mentorship relationship between new and experienced teachers could be considered a way to help inexperienced teachers. However, the research cannot be clear

as to whether or not the new teacher and the experienced teachers drew the same meanings from this mentorship relationship. Several new teachers indicated that they wanted ongoing support for approaching novel and intimidating situations. This is an interesting finding in light of other studies that suggest that teachers beginning their careers are ‘developing a teacher identity’ and ‘finding their place within a team’ (Kington, Reed, Sammons 2014: 551). But beyond forming teacher identity, the literature also suggests that many new teachers do not consider their training sufficient for dealing with cyberbullying, and they lack the confidence to deal with it (Yot-Dominguez et al. 2019). It was unclear whether experienced teachers would be willing or able to provide such support for the PGCE interns given their current workloads and responsibilities according to the interviews.

However, some of the experienced teachers in the English sample mentioned a need to convey a sense of professionalism instead of a need for support. Although the two are not mutually exclusive, it does suggest that the needs and priorities can be interpreted differently as teachers become more experienced. Some of the new teachers felt that their needs were not met within the school culture, thereby undermining the level of trust with members of staff. It was apparent from interviews that most of the teachers in the English sample knew of staff with distinct roles within the school that could potentially address any bullying situations: the safeguarding officer, the head of department, etc. However, it was less clear whether such teachers trusted these subdivisions of the institutions as a way of dealing with bullying. Ability to trust the actions (instrumentality) depends upon positive associations within the school culture. This is an interesting finding, given that other research has suggested weaker measurements of ‘leadership’, ‘teacher affiliation’, and ‘collaborative activity’ corresponded with higher rates of bullying in schools (Ertesvåg and Roland 2015: 195). Simply put, actions situate themselves within a larger institutional framework. The qualitative interviews covered in the second phase of this research suggested that teachers potentially base their choices on their perceptions of the skills of other staff members. Hence, professional development courses, more specific school policies, task forces, and anti-bullying lessons could impact a teacher’s perception of the effectiveness of other staff in their school and such perceptions may well alter as teachers move from being new to more experienced.

Whereas the US teachers in the sample would utilize general terms such as harassment whilst describing bullying, teachers in England used more ‘process-oriented’ language. Instead of one specific instance, one English teacher emphasized a negative action’s consistency, especially in the form of “micro-aggressions.” Americans often associated the terminology with an illegal offence, automatically prompting a legal process; for example, creating an unsafe learning environment by not intervening in situations of harassment could constitute a legally actionable offence (as seen in the 1999 case of *Davis v. Monroe*). Words such as discrimination also took on an added level of meaning considering first amendment rights of students, prompting the use of federal law. Paired with the growth of zero tolerance policies in the US, the use of language may shape the strategies deemed effective for bullying already at play within disparate contexts. For example, increasing consequences takes on different meanings within an educational landscape already utilizing specific punishments. However, Lewis and Kern (2018: 723) suggest that the awareness of educational laws should not focus on escaping ‘liability’, but rather form a foundation for establishing ‘social justice’ and ‘inclusion.’ School strategies that were ranked lowly within the teacher samples such as monitoring could be deemed inappropriate if looked through the lens of the US Constitution, especially when the use of CCTV could challenge core constitutional principles such as ‘due process’, ‘privacy’, and ‘autonomy’ (Perry-Hazan and Birnhack 2018: 47). Within the literature review (section 2.7.3), ‘Organizational Justice Theory’ was outlined and viewed as providing a basic model for assessing the legitimacy of these strategies within institutions. The review introduced the concepts of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. At the same time, it is important to understand that Greenberg (1987:9), one of the founders of ‘Organizational Justice Theory’, wrote of ‘reactive’ and ‘proactive’ strategies whilst comparing ‘process’ and ‘content’ nature of institutional policies and practices. The latent variable for strategies focusing on consequences (further clarified in section 4.3.2) could be seen as a ‘reactive content.’ The latent variable of bystander strategies may be viewed as a ‘reactive process.’ However, the ‘School Culture Strategies’ seem more focused on ‘proactive processes and contents.’ Hence, these findings connect to Organizational Justice Theory, framing perspectives as to the fairness of the ‘content’ and the ‘processes’ (Ibid). According to the results from

the CFA, there were strong correlations between teachers' responses to survey items measuring their perceptions of the likely effectiveness of different strategy types across samples in the US and England.

Some of the teachers could see how placing themselves in informal spaces outside of the school would create a greater awareness, but it was unclear whether the rigid hierarchy within the school system could bridge this gap between the teacher's role and the lives of students. Instead of using terms such as 'surprised' and 'flabbergasted' (quite emotional terms from the American sample), the English teacher explained their feelings in terms of 'confusion' whilst perceiving bullying, similar to a puzzle or conundrum. In order to lessen this confusion, research is recommending additional emphasis on how to react to multiple stakeholders, particularly with an emphasis on how to deal with victims of bullying, as teachers might not necessarily feel skilled in dealing with victims (Sokol et al. 2016: 867). Like a detective, the English teachers felt that they could piece together the different clues that led to its occurrence. One English teacher mentioned 'reading' that friends could offer a support to other individuals. Speaking with friends about these issues could help to reflect whilst addressing the bullying puzzle.

6.5 Research Question 3: What is the level of seriousness associated with different types of bullying?

The third research question was intended to measure and help understand the perceived severity of different types of bullying. Previous research suggests that the understanding of different types of bullying will be important for the response (Wachs, Bilz, Niproschke, and Schubarth 2018: 21). However, it is interesting to see how the qualitative findings in Chapter 5 suggest that similar types of bullying (such as verbal bullying) could translate themselves differently across cultures. For example, two English teachers used the term 'banter'. This term highlighted the uncertain nature of verbal bullying, perhaps making it appear slightly more permissible. From the literature it appears that verbal bullying seems to be the most visibly apparent bullying (Gumuseli, Hacifazlioglu, and Cakmak 2014). By contrast, the US teachers used the term harassment much more readily. Bantering seems directed at playful teasing between mates.

However, it is difficult to tell whether or not a friendship preceded the bantering, especially for new teachers.

Teachers utilized broad terms whilst considering bullying, connecting to ideas such as ‘stress’, ‘threat’, and ‘injustice.’ Teachers realized the level of sophistication and nuance behind bullying could affect multiple dimensions of the student’s socio-emotional development. These general definitions could evolve in different environments, whether it became a passing comment or an unnoticed smile, which falls in line with social cognitive theory, suggesting environmental factors could influence behaviors (Bandura 2001). Also, teachers highlighted the social dimensions of bullying – how often the situation did not always coincide with a clear example of bullying, but a network of students contributing to an *experience* of bullying. Experienced teachers would frame the issue in terms of something that he or she did not want within that particular class.

Experienced teachers framed the severity slightly differently based on alternative roles they also had. For example, some experienced teachers were also parents themselves, which provided a different lens for interpreting the challenges between students. Having to resolve conflicts between siblings over time could provide more experience of how to handle and understand conflicts between students, which would be less common for new teachers (unless they were older entrants with families). One of the experienced teachers specifically mentioned he was a parent, saying this made it easier to conceptualize similar issues that his students’ parents might have to face. He went on to acknowledge that he knew what it was like to relate to a student or child, since he had to mediate problems between his own kids. Research is suggesting that parental monitoring is often complex, as controlling and punitive parental involvement is not as effective as ‘collaborative’ and ‘warm’ approaches (Elsaesser et al. 2017). This suggests that it is important for teacher perspectives to be clear about the type of collaboration that they seek, because the experiences can be so diverse, thereby creating different reasons for involvement across a school. As quoted earlier, Olweus and Limber (2010) reflected on why bullying interventions did not necessarily succeed in all contexts. This provides some insights as to why the implementation of the Olweus anti-bullying approach was not found to be successful in all countries due to the limitations of the implementation. Olweus and Limber (2010: 129) write, “ ... it (the OBPP) unfortunately was implemented

with such low degrees of fidelity that it no longer could be considered a faithful implementation of the model.” Olweus then concludes that the continued success of implementation in other contexts will hinge upon teacher and staff motivations to implement the model with high fidelity (Olweus and Limber 2010: 132). The Stauffer et al. (2012) study took a different direction to experimental designs by asking teachers about their perceptions regarding different bullying scenarios and the potentially different elements that link with suggested strategies. It was not linked to any specific intervention programme but rather sought to investigate teachers’ perspectives on appropriate ways to respond. However, it remains important to study possible different roles that teachers might adopt within other aspects of their lives to understand more fully what would actually motivate them to involve themselves in reducing bullying.

There were very different responses to the concept of punishment in general within the teacher sample. Some experienced teachers believed that punishments should remain specific and timely whereas other experienced teachers focused more on actions that would engage and empower a sense of ‘responsibility’ within their students, indicating they hoped this might offer a more long-term strategy. This is consistent with the literature that suggests that there is variance in how new teachers regard the concept of punishment due to cultural background and upbringing (Kesner et al. 2016). Yet between samples there was also a question of who had the right to punish students. The presence of police in schools in US schools could lead to situations in which officers were the ones punishing students instead of teachers. Research suggests that students are often more deterred from bullying by discipline from parents rather than police officers, even though the police are having an expanding role whilst dealing with bullying (Patchin and Hinduja 2018). One American teacher mentioned larger societal frameworks, such as violence enacted by the state as a way of interpreting the contexts within their schools.

One experienced teacher *widened* the definition so that violence could be construed even as self-inflicted busyness, precluding one’s ability to interpret and to understand the given situation. Hence, there seemed to be a much more complicated notion of the interconnectivity behind the nature of bullying – especially emphasizing the ways that one’s inaction could foster further victimization. It did not seem as readily

clear that one person was necessarily responsible. One particular teacher reflected on how state violence and injustice in general was reflected within the actions of the bully. He suggested that individuals often *sanitized* such actions as coping mechanisms for dealing with bullying. These findings fall in line with research that suggests that often bullying and violence in schools can be expressions of ‘structural and cultural violence’ within the rest of the society (Cremin and Guilherme 2016). This questions some of the remarks in the introduction as to the nature of bullying as a narrative of power. The literature review quoted Nietzsche (1967: 636), ‘... every specific body strives to become master over all space and to extend its force ...’; yet the problem with this analysis is that teachers suggested that cyberbullies act differently in different environments, thereby undermining the notion of a consistent and ‘specific body.’ Cyberbullies could also be influenced by ‘structural violence’ and the anonymity afforded to them, thereby questioning the nature of the force that they specifically wish to extend. Experienced teachers gave more detailed responses about the implications and complex origins of bullying since they observed its occurrence over time, yet newer teachers often realized the diverse power dynamics within cyberbullying due to their familiarity with social media platforms.

One of the experienced teachers suggested that new educators could connect the experiences of bullying to others that they might know. For example, if a child or friend of the teacher was also bullied, this could shape the way they perceive the situation. From this perspective, teachers might know someone that has been bullied and vicariously feel pain. In order to overcome the original apathy, experienced teachers suggested bridging the gap by highlighting how the victim is very similar to another person equally affected by such issues. The idea of reframing the actions in terms of closer ‘human relationships’ appeared multiple times within comments made by teachers, as 17 teachers cited knowing students as important for assessing the severity. This falls in line with previous research suggesting that the level of trust students developed with teachers could be a predictor for less bullying (Veenstra, Lindberg, Huising, Sainio and Salmivalli 2014). This also accords with research that suggests that cybervictims needs are very complex at a young age, requiring time and patience from others to heal when they ‘lose themselves’ and ‘attempt to cope’ (Brandau and Evanson 2018: 1584). As a result of life experience,

one teacher suggested that they had become more accepting of others, due to their familiarity with individuals from diverse backgrounds.

The experience of teaching in the classroom could expose a teacher to a diverse set of individuals, thereby enabling the teacher to form relationships with individuals from many different backgrounds in order to promote a sense of community within the classroom. These relationships with students would be key for greater peer relatedness, which led to levels of motivation and engagement (Ruzek, Hafen, Allen, Gregory, Mikami, Pianta 2016). Experienced teachers framed the long-term strategies in a similar manner – teaching individuals to become accepting of difference. However, the idea of relationships with students reappeared multiple times for teachers. Reflecting on his experiences, one teacher shared that he was influenced by mentors helping him to process all of the incidents. This granted him a greater sense of emotional support. Experienced teachers showed more in depth understanding in conceptualizing bullying, and the ability to reflect on more experiences and to interpret one’s emotions and reactions within a larger context. This could promote teacher well being when handling serious situations such as bullying and grant the experienced teacher a greater perspective.

6.6 Research Question 4: What is the likelihood of intervention for different scenarios of bullying?

This research question investigated whether teachers had a different likelihood of response based upon different scenarios presented. The survey presented alternative scenarios, and the interviews provided an opportunity to follow up the main quantitative findings and explore teachers’ perceptions in more detail. While teachers’ ratings of the severity of bullying were not found to differ between the various situations outlined in the scenarios in the initial repeated measure analysis of variance in the quantitative survey items (see section 4.5.1) the likelihood of response was found to differ by situation according to findings from the repeated measure analysis of variance (see section 4.5.2). Teachers reported that they were more likely to respond in situations of school cyberbullying as opposed to home cyberbullying (section 4.5.2). There may be several reasons for this (home situations are less visible and the teacher feels less responsibility

according to some comments made in follow up interviews). However, there is also a much deeper issue in terms of the nature of the response. For example, the role of teaching is complex, as highlighted by research on classroom behavior that suggests authoritative teaching is more effective and can consist of multiple dimensions including ‘warmth’ and ‘control’ (Ertesvåg 2011). The exploratory framework of looking at the ways in which individuals consoled victims or maintained rules with bystanders was an important aspect of exploring teachers’ perceptions of their roles within a multifaceted situation. A number of differences between the experienced and the new teachers emerged from the framing of cyberbullying.

The social world of the new educator could differ quite greatly from the more experienced teacher, which could correspond with the level of response. Over time, a teacher could evolve a discourse around what the classroom meant to them personally, which could frame their willingness to respond. One experienced teacher spoke about the multiple facets of his career and how (with time) he could more easily learn how to navigate and integrate the alternative roles. This accords with the literature, which suggests that experienced teachers are often more aware of ‘parent interaction’, ‘balancing teaching with other tasks’, and ‘private life versus work’ (Van Der Want et al. 2018). This element of balancing seemed to resonate with this experienced teacher’s comments – perhaps because he had the time to develop his skills as an educator (as opposed to newer teachers, not necessarily considering how they could learn from a limited repertoire of experiences). The role of the teacher became more complex and multidimensional from the experienced teacher’s perspective – very similar to the notion of what learning could entail. Anything that could hinder that craft development, such as bullying could be seen as deleterious, as it prevented them from actualizing their purpose as a teacher. One experienced teacher went into greater detail, framing education in terms of educating multiple aspects of their students, such as becoming a better person and contributing to the rest of the world. If a bully continually harassed others, the teacher could feel as if they are not living up to their potential as a successful educator. This could remain quite challenging for a new teacher to conceptualize, especially when they are teaching for the first time in the subject area.

By contrast, new teachers often provided a more nuanced perspective on how cyberbullying could take place perhaps due to greater familiarity with social media. One new educator suggested that a major portion of addressing cyberbullying related to ‘bridging the gap’ between students’ actions in the cyber world and in the real world. This however may seem quite challenging given the research that says that students often see teachers and parents as unable to help with issues of cyberbullying (Mark and Ratliffe 2011). This potentially suggests that the US and England might require more rigorous laws (such as the Nova Scotia Cyber-Safety Act) applying ‘tort responsibility’ to negligent parents aware that their child is already a cyberbully (Heller 2015: 165). One new teacher emphasized the ease with which one could act so differently in real life from online (perhaps prompted by access to violent media and video games at home). New teachers themselves might have played similar video games, thereby affording them greater insights as to the reality of students’ home environments whilst working with parents to resolve such issues.

Some new teachers framed the cyber reality as an unmonitored space whereby students could exhibit and showcase a new form of power, unsupervised by typical authority figures. However, these new teachers realized that this world differed fundamentally in terms of *visibility*. This falls in line with research suggesting that the online space is incredibly difficult for educators to monitor (Rosenberg and Asterhan 2018). Teachers referenced specific features within Facebook and Snapchat, which could afford the bully anonymity. However, this conception of the issue further added to their concerns about their ability to handle cyberbullying situations. This differed from the points raised by experienced teachers, doubting their ability to understand fully the complexity of cyberbullying in general. Hence, although both groups felt a reduced sense of confidence for an intervention – the reasons for this lack of confidence seem to differ.

In addition to understanding potential cyberbullying more deeply, new teachers also felt less confidence within their schools, which could potentially shape their perceptions of their roles within these new environments. This decreased confidence could translate itself into multiple forms – including a decreased willingness to respond to bullying situations. Firstly, new educators reported that they did not know all of the

staff members at the school, making it hard to assess whether or not an intervention would succeed; secondly, some new teachers felt they did not know their students well enough yet, making it more difficult to assess whether or not actions constituted bullying behavior or playful banter. New teachers suggested that improving confidence would be critical, and such strategies could connect to improving the relationships and trust maintained with their coworkers and students. Some, new teachers suggested that working with the victim and the bully personally would ensure that they could build upon whatever relationships the educator had previously fostered. This falls in line with previous research that has suggested that emotional support from teachers leads to higher internal value and responsibility within the students (Wentzel, Muenks, and McNeish 2017). Additionally, such a strategy could help reduce the likelihood that a new teacher did not feel overwhelmed.

Some new teachers indicated they felt they still had a lot to learn, thereby leading to diminished confidence. In situations of home cyberbullying, weighing potential strategies seemed quite confusing. Their unfamiliarity with the new school environment suggested that they could potentially ‘step on the shoes of others.’ At the same time, the literature suggests that a majority of cyberbullying does take in the home environment and forming a partnership with schools and parents will be critical (Doty et al. 2018). New teachers may not always have the confidence or trust with existing colleagues within a new school environment when outreaching to parents. This could suggest that such individuals recognize the inherent limitations whilst weighing the options for intervening in such situations. This could lead to less of a willingness to respond directly since new teachers would not necessarily imagine an ideal result, but they might be more likely to refer incidents to more senior staff in the school.

This level of uncertainty within a new environment was noted in interviews, across the US and England, suggesting teachers might believe that they need additional emotional support and professional guidance whilst adapting to a new school. From this perspective, bullied victims would not necessarily be the only ones in need of counseling. The mentor relationship hence seems much more complicated than just communicating protocol. Mentorship could be seen as a combination of leadership development and pastoral guidance for new teachers. New educators in this sample in a sense were

students as well, still learning how to be class leaders within the school culture. However, there were questions, in terms of how much guidance experienced teachers were actually given to adopt this role. In the interviews, experienced teachers never cited mentorship as a method for countering bullying, but new teachers did since they felt that they needed this guidance to deal with bullying. One US teacher emphasized how there is a greater dependence on outside organizations hosting the trainings, which makes it harder for schools to improve them. As students have many different aspects to their development, past research suggests that teacher relationships with victims from a low peer status can be quite important for improving well being (Hendrickx, Mainhard, Boor-Klip, and Brekelmans 2017). The interview findings in this research suggested that new educators had a better understanding of the complexity of cyberbullying, while experienced educators had a more holistic understanding of student well being due to other roles and life experiences such as parenting. This suggests that educators within the same community could display different strengths, thereby suggesting collaboration between teachers is likely to be important in order to understand how to address bullying collectively as a school community. Nonetheless, the survey evidence indicated that teachers ranked working with a task force within the school quite low in terms of strategies to intervene in bullying scenarios (section 4.3.1). Thus the qualitative and quantitative findings do not necessarily accord on this point, and more research in terms of alternative ways of establishing collaboration outside of a task force may be helpful.

The interviews with the teachers also revealed that some new educators also felt like victims themselves to a certain extent. Some expressed views that recommended an added level of compassion for a newcomer, because they could display similar characteristics. For example, one of the new teachers claimed that it would be very important for someone to tell them what to do in a situation of bullying. Likewise, he used very similar language when it came to the victim, arguing that a victim of bullying would also need very clear protocol of what to do. The literature suggests that a greater emphasis on ‘Real-Time coaching’ might be a strategy to buffer the diminished confidence of pre-service teacher, providing additional support in the form of ‘multiple collaborative feedback cycles’ and ‘feedback via headset in real time’ (Stahl et al. 2016). These approaches help to bolster confidence, because they offer teachers a sustained and

direct feedback system in terms of what worked and what did not work whilst responding. New teachers invested a greater trust in the central institution as a whole for outlining their actions; however, often new teachers could not clearly identify a single individual that could reflect the 'voice' of the institution, since there was no inherent trust established up to that point. New teachers desired a clear protocol, because they were not familiar with the rules or expectations. After more time in the school, new educators felt that they could understand how to work with their colleagues to address such issues, yet at the beginning reporting to a superior seemed the most appropriate action. A supportive learning environment seemed like something that could benefit new students *and* new teachers, which falls in line the ideas of how environmental factors could influence behaviors (Bandura 1986, 1989).

6.7 Similarities between Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The research considers key factors for teacher perceptions across the sequential mixed methods design. The two main categories of teacher perceptions pertained to strategies for dealing with bullying and the bullying itself. The first research question explored teachers' perceptions of long-term strategies to address different bullying scenarios. The quantitative methods identified high-ranking strategies (parental involvement and increased consequences) and low ranking strategies (school task forces and increased monitoring). The qualitative methods provided an opportunity for teachers to identify the reasons for why teachers in the survey had ranked strategies in this manner and to discuss their own experiences and understanding of bullying in a more open ended way. Secondly, the research explored how key factors (expectancy, instrumentality, valence, country, and scenario etc.) corresponded with a likelihood of teachers' responses to different hypothetical bullying scenarios. Quantitative methods identified valence, expectancy with perpetrator, and location of scenario as statistically significant independent variables for predicting variations among teachers in the reported likelihood of response (dependent variable). The qualitative methods followed up these findings, to uncover what such factors could potentially mean to the teachers themselves. The qualitative findings suggested that teachers' experience level and country context could

shape the perceived severity and the conceptions of the different spaces in which bullying could occur. This provides further evidence to add to understanding bullying outside of the scope of using a purely quantitative methodology. The mixed methods sequential explanatory design provided the opportunity for linking the qualitative and quantitative findings. The comparison provides deeper insights that extend and build on the initial quantitative results through the study of teachers' expressed interpretations and understandings of bullying and ways to respond to it particularly focusing on the phenomenon of cyberbullying.

Overall, there were similar findings when it came to teachers' views of strategies for addressing cyberbullying in schools. Parental involvement and increased consequences were ranked highly, whereas monitoring was ranked low. Additionally, the use of a particular statistical analysis (CFA) provided an opportunity to explore the consistency of different constructs across cultures while constraining factor loadings by country. This could be important for establishing 'conceptual integration' across samples before 'methodological integration' between quantitative and qualitative analysis (Day, Sammons, and Gu 2008: 340-341). The statistical analysis suggested that the use of constructs such as expectancy, instrumentality, valence, and response would be appropriate for the later multilevel regressions. The results from the multilevel models suggested that the constructs of valence and expectancy with perpetrator were both statistically significant predictors (independent variables) for the likelihood of a teacher's response (dependent variable) to bullying scenarios. Although there was agreement that these two factors could correspond with a greater likelihood of response, there were differences in terms of what expectancy or valence could look like between samples (which is explored in the next section). Background variables such as gender and country were not found to be statistically significant in predicting teachers' responses. Additionally, scenarios did affect the level of response but not the perceived level of seriousness across the country samples. The findings also reveal that response level differed across scenarios for home versus school situations (as seen in 4.5.2).

The qualitative evidence obtained from teacher interviews suggested that there were similarities in terms of how teachers viewed many of the strategies for dealing with cyberbullying in the US and England. Teachers in the interview samples from both

countries suggested that monitoring would be an unsustainable practice, because teachers could be unable to access or deal with all of the data present within the cyber worlds of their students. However, this presents many deleterious implications, because without monitoring there are questions of the extent of the bullying itself. In addition to the monitoring of these incidents, the US Department of Education (2011) raised questions of how well this information was codified within state laws. The inability to track student behavior and find ways of compiling this information for the long-term raised questions for how well school districts in general could assess the level of success of their strategies to address bullying.

Task forces were found to be ranked low as strategies to address bullying in the survey, the interview findings suggested this was because many teachers often felt that they did not know what to do. Hence, they perceived little value in gathering individuals into a school task force that might not know the strategies, thereby accentuating their uninformed perspectives. This connects with a larger discussion of how policies actually support the sustainment of these task forces in general. For example in the US, of the 20% states that ‘mandate’ or ‘encourage’ task forces, only 6% of states include state laws “... identifying sources of funding to support bullying prevention programming” (Department of Education 2011: 33-34). Bullying laws in the US also rarely, “... specify school and community resources or prevention approaches” (Cascardi et al. 2018: 3267). Hence, there is a discrepancy between states in terms of bullying laws, yet recent studies nonetheless suggest that robust bullying laws are associated with a decrease in bullying and school violence (Sabia and Bass 2017). At the same time, it is important to consider how these bullying laws may affect different demographics based upon implementation. For example, in the US context, bullying laws tended to reduce victimization of LGBT boys, but did not have the same effect on LGBT girls (Seelman and Walker 2018). This brings up a larger question of besides passing laws, who will provide the policy guidance, resources, and funding to ensure that task forces remain legitimate, sustained, and credible committees that can learn and inform others about current laws to provide equal protection? There were also findings within the qualitative interviews suggesting that collaboration among teachers could be helpful. Namely, teachers displayed different skill

sets over the course of the conversations (experienced teachers could deal with parents quite well, whereas newer teachers knew more about the reality of cyberbullying).

Highly ranked strategies (based on the quantitative survey analysis) such as parental involvement were considered likely to be more effective by those interviewed because many teachers realized that students needed the support of their families, and that teachers did not have a complete perspective on the child's life. The literature suggests that in cases of bullying, parents often do not trust the ways teachers handle bullying situations, which suggests that schools need to work especially hard to overcome the bias that parents might direct towards them (Hale et al. 2017). Research has suggested that it is also important to further classify which type of parental involvement is needed, parental monitoring somewhat corresponds with less cyberbullying, but 'parental connectedness' in general corresponded with decreased cyberbullying and victimization (Doty et al. 2018). Knowing parents in England and the US also involves outreaching to families from potentially diverse backgrounds, requiring an understanding of the cultural and family differences based upon the student's life, which is important for bullying reduction (Ostrander et al. 2018). Outreaching, working with families, and ensuring that parents could provide support to the child seemed like a way of creating healthy partnerships. However, other potential strategies identified as important (highly rated) in the survey (such as clear and increased consequences) received mixed comments in the qualitative interviews, discussed in the following section.

6.8 Differences in the Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

The qualitative analysis highlighted that although there were similar general findings in both the survey and interview findings, there were also some differences. Individual teachers perceived bullying in different ways, and the scenarios presented in the survey led to various explanations of strategies for addressing bullying when discussed in the interviews. Namely a teacher's experience level and the country context seemed to shape conceptions of bullying according to the qualitative findings. The multilevel models were constructed to analyse the quantitative survey data, testing statistical associations and identifying predictors of the likelihood of a teacher's response.

However, the models did not reveal *how* experience level might shape teachers' conceptions of bullying. The qualitative findings suggested that new educators may have a better understanding of the cyber world, thereby leading to a greater grasp as to the nature of cyberbullying due to their ability to understand newer technologies used by students such as Snapchat and Instagram. This could be helpful in terms of new teachers interpreting the nature of the cyberbullying problem, sometimes granting them a greater ability to make informed judgments about the potential severity of a bullying incident online. However, newer teachers can also experience greater pressure and stress. Since they are adopting a new role, inexperienced teachers might feel less confident about interventions, needing to refer to another authority in the school.

A new teacher still seeks to establish a presence in the classroom. As newer teachers clarify their presence, it might be harder for them to specify how the role of an educator could extend beyond the classroom without needed experience. The analogy of learning how to drive a car came from an experienced English teacher. He highlighted how the different ways of operating his identity might seem quite difficult at first, just due to the sheer number of facets to the system. Other studies have clarified that new teachers often see themselves as 'ready for the challenge' before getting involved in education, before switching into a certain 'survival mode' midway through the first year (Thomas and Beauchamp 2011). Experienced teachers expressed a greater confidence in dealing with different roles in the qualitative findings, being more able and willing to address situations as they came up.

The socio-legal histories between contexts could potentially influence the interpretations of bullying in schools. Namely, the legal history differs between the US and England, thereby affording schools a different set of principles and guidelines through which to navigate their understanding of the problem of bullying and cyberbullying in particular. Researchers are starting to focus studies on how conceptions of political rights (such as freedom of speech) seem to be shifting within a changing technological landscape of social media (Brison and Gelber 2019: 1-9). However the nature of freedom of speech inherently differs between contexts. For example, other countries such as Germany in 2017 created draft laws, placing greater responsibility on social media companies refusing to remove hate speech through a system of fines

(Polkempner 2019: 234). Forms of verbal or online bullying (such as racism and homophobia) can be harder to prosecute within the US due to greater protections for freedom of speech. For example Weinstein (2019: 56) claims, ‘whether the speech is about a matter of public concern, and (2) whether the expression occurs in settings dedicated or essential to democratic self-governance such as books, magazines, films, the internet or in public forums ...’ are important for determining the permissibility. Because the statements could relate to a larger public sphere, some offensive statements could be considered constitutional and expressions of freedom of speech within US law. At the same time, the US context more often used a zero tolerance framework for physical bullying. The use of words such as ‘harassment’ was quite common in interviews from the US teacher sample, meaning that the teachers often considered these bullying actions as potential offences. As a result, this could potentially undermine the perceived agency of educators. The opposite finding could be found in some of the US sample, not sharing the information, fearing that the administration would utilize a punitive approach that did not respect their perceptions of the nature of the issue. Words such as ‘discrimination’ in the US also take on very different meanings due to the first amendment rights afforded by constitutional law, which slightly differ from the Equalities Act in England. This marks one of the weaknesses with the constitutional protections approach within the US for cases of bullying, as they often apply only to cases of protected groups outlined by the first amendment (Cornell and Limber 2015). Due to the paucity of federal legislation on bullying in the US and the high presence of police on school campuses, teachers could feel overwhelmed by these issues, instead trusting or expecting outside authorities to handle such situations. This falls in line with the previous research in the US, which suggests that the lack of ‘comprehensive’ and ‘enumerated’ legislation serves as a major threat for the reduction of bullying (Espelage 2013: 124).

Increased consequences for bullying incidents to deter perpetrators were ranked highly in the survey responses from teachers within both countries. Nonetheless follow up interviews suggested that there were slightly different interpretations. Large-scale studies seem to suggest that teachers favor clear consequences for disciplining students (Burger, Dagmer, Sprober, Bauman, and Rigby 2015) which accord with the survey

results in this study. The US often had approaches to bullying focusing more on consequences (APA Zero Tolerance Task Force 2008). Hence, the idea of increased consequences might have meant something slightly different in each context. Perhaps this could differ because freedom of speech could offer different interpretations across contexts, as the notion in the US could deal much more with a ‘rule against content regulation’ (Weinstein 2019: 54). Yet if the definition of consequences hinges upon freedom of speech, judicial innovations within the European Court of Justice focusing on ‘The Right to be Forgotten’ could shape the consequences in the future, which places a greater responsibility to remove ‘inaccurate’, ‘inadequate’, or ‘irrelevant’ information as soon as possible (Pokempner 2019: 228). Teachers in England suggested during interviews that they needed to escalate consequences.

However, this differs from the policies for dealing with bullying in England on the systematic levels. English teachers were aware that Ofsted assessed schools on their strategies to address and prevent bullying. The lack of a clear definition of bullying marks a challenge for English schools, which often leads to an even greater complexity when transitioning to cases of cyberbullying (El Asam and Samara 2016). Schools have their own behavioral policies for dealing with the issue, which extends to safe internet use; head teachers also have the power to discipline students for actions outside of school grounds (Education and Inspections Act 2006). Yet there is also a question of how much schools could do in cases of intense cyberbullying, when ‘malicious’ messages on social media were criminalized (Communications Act of 2003). Some academy trusts have developed policies that are adopted by their schools, yet there is a question of how much these are ‘tweaked’ over time. Two English teachers used the term ‘banter’ to describe bullying. These two teachers in England did not mention any attempt to follow up to find out how serious this ‘banter’ had become, but they realized that protecting the student information would be very important. This was something not as common in the US, a society that already had other monitoring policies such as the Patriot Act. These ideas led to a slightly different system of reporting in England, where educators would realize their pastoral roles and report to the senior management team or head of the department.

6.9 Expectancy Theory

The literature review introduced a series of theories covering some of the major literature from social psychology that could be relevant for research on teachers' perceptions of bullying in school (Section 2.7). These theories particularly focused on how perceptions interact and interrelate with actions. The three main theories were Expectancy Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, and Organizational Justice Theory. The following sections describe how the previous findings relate to these theories.

Expectancy Theory was originally presented by Vroom (1964, 2007), covering how anticipatory beliefs could potentially shape actions. The three different perceptions were expectancy (confidence in self), instrumentality (confidence in action), and valence (severity). The quantitative findings suggest that Vroom's factors are partially relevant for predicting whether a teacher would respond to bullying scenarios presented. Two out of the three factors predicted a higher likelihood of response: expectancy and valence. However, instrumentality did not correspond with a higher likelihood of response. Expectancy Theory framed the second research question by outlining the different factors motivating a response.

6.9.1 Expectancy

The constructs from Expectancy Theory (expectancy, instrumentality, and valence) were first operationalized in the questionnaire survey (based on EFA and CFA) before being used subsequently in multilevel models to predict the likelihood of a teacher response to bullying scenarios. According to the random effects multilevel models, expectancy with perpetrator was a statistically significant independent variable for the dependent variable of likelihood of response ($\beta_3 = .25, p < .01, ES = .68$). This revealed that across both samples, teachers with higher confidence in their abilities to deal with perpetrators (linked to the concept of teacher self-efficacy) expressed a greater likelihood of responding to bullying situations. The qualitative interviews extended this statistical finding, identifying in more detail what this confidence entailed.

The interviews revealed that a teacher's self-confidence seemed to link with a greater trust of the school culture. For example, self-confidence connected to comments

about the quality of the training, the resources, and trust between staff members. Simply having the information did not seem like enough in the trainings, as many students did not internalize the rules around cyberbullying when applying it to their every day lives (Paulon et al. 2012). Perceptions of the school culture appear either to reinforce or detract from teachers' perceptions of their own abilities to respond to bullying incidents within their school context. While resources and trainings were two ways in which the school culture could strengthen notions of confidence, the confidence of the individual teacher also seemed to be shaped by their confidence in other staff members. Nonetheless, it seems the relative confidence of the student bully perpetrator could also affect some teachers as well, according to the interviews. This falls in line with the research that suggests that high levels of peer victimization (mediated by negative emotion) could predict higher levels of bullying (Yang et al. 2018). If the school culture seems dominated by widespread bullying and a common sense of negativity, then others had a higher chance of partaking, which would make the teacher's job much harder. If the student bully was more assured in their approach to targeting a student, the teacher could feel less confident in their own abilities to intervene in the situation. So in addition to focusing on the preparations, teachers across contexts also considered self-care a very important part of the process of engendering *sustainable* confidence. Hence, the qualitative interviews were helpful in revealing that teachers perceived confidence as something that could be improved (with resources and training) and sustained (with an ongoing process of self-care presented by a trustworthy school culture).

6.9.2 Instrumentality

Once again the construct of instrumentality was first identified using EFA and CFA. Instrumentality was not found to be a statistically significant independent variable for predicting the likelihood of a teacher's response to different bullying scenarios presented in the survey in this study. In the multilevel (random effects) statistical model, this was confirmed for victim instrumentality ($\beta_4 = .07, p > .05, ES = .20$) and perpetrator instrumentality ($\beta_6 = .05, p > .05, ES = .14$). This is important because this finding differs from the suggestions of Vroom (1964) and Bandura (1977) within Expectancy Theory

and Self-Efficacy Theory. These theoretical models suggest that instrumentality or ‘outcome expectations’ should affect the likelihood of a response (Bandura 1977). However, the quantitative analysis of teacher surveys did not suggest that perceived instrumentality was important in accounting for the variation in teachers’ reported likelihood of responding to bullying scenarios. The follow up qualitative interviews did not explicitly ask about this topic, because they focused on the significant predictors based on previous quantitative findings. However, during the interviews, teachers’ comments were made that suggested that there might be a co-dependent relationship between expectancy and instrumentality. For instance, teachers might have more confidence in themselves if they have a greater confidence in tasks that they have chosen (or vice versa). This was not a part of the original theoretical model, but this tentative finding from the qualitative interviews could guide further research. Upon reflection, this qualitative insight seems plausible, especially since the level of confidence in one’s abilities can potentially correspond with the success of the action. This example illustrates how the use of mixed methods enables more nuanced understandings to emerge. Understanding the availability of the parents for talking with children was also a common theme from the interviews that could link with instrumentality. The responsiveness of the bully and victim could shape how the teacher conceived the bullying situation and the available options. All of these factors could potentially influence how teachers perceived the effectiveness of their actions within the bullying situation.

6.9.3 Valence

Similar to previous factors, the construct of valence was also tested across samples using EFA and CFA. Valence was tested and found to be a statistically significant predictor for the dependent variable of teacher’s likelihood of response to bullying scenarios according to the multilevel statistical model ($\beta_2 = .37, p < .01, ES = .75$). The qualitative interviews followed up on this result and sought to clarify and explore what the seriousness of a bullying incident might mean for different teachers. Although severity was viewed as equally important between home and school

environments (which addresses the third research question), most teachers interviewed expressed the view that they did not have adequate information to respond to home situations of cyberbullying (since they did not have access to students' activity on social media platforms). One teacher suggested the parents held a greater responsibility for monitoring their children's online behaviour at home, thus teachers felt less responsible for bullying happening outside the school. The notion of responsibility also influenced the perceived severity of a bullying scenario for teachers. Teachers that considered pastoral responsibilities as a key feature of their role were often more able to learn about the lives of their students. This notion of responsibility could become a self-fulfilling prophecy. Teachers that adopted pastoral roles were more likely to check in with students. As a result of fostering these relationships, these teachers would be better equipped to understand the nature of the situations that their students faced. This falls in line with major findings that also suggest that understanding intergroup processes are important for understanding the dynamics of bullying (Palmer and Abbott 2018). The level of responsibility of the teacher could also shape the perceived severity of the situation, since teachers with greater awareness might be better placed to judge the seriousness of a bullying situation.

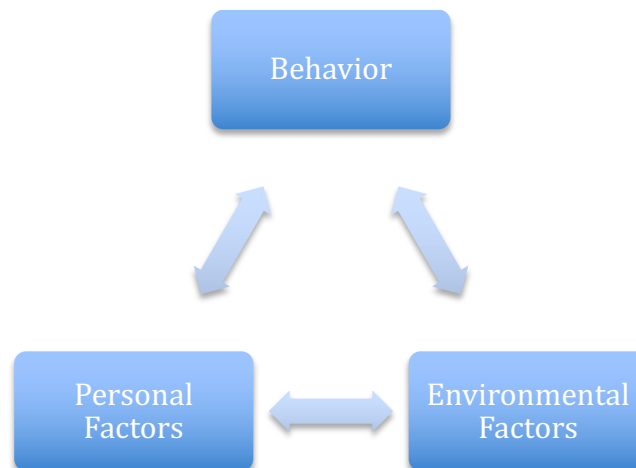
One teacher highlighted how she learned about bullying as a result of fostering informal spaces of communication, such as lunch periods or private discussions between teachers and students. Hence, a willingness to be available could be important for teachers to understand the nature of bullying among students in their classes and how it could differ in and out of school contexts. Williams and Littlefield (2018) suggest that the level of bullying is getting so complicated that even clothing brands could be used as a way to exclude and maintain bullying hierarchies in schools. This becomes particularly relevant when considering the ideas of corporate freedom of speech in schools, as they seek to advertise and commercialize products within educational settings at younger and younger ages (Marsh 2018). This suggests that teachers must be open to interpreting many different pieces of non-traditional information to understand the intergroup processes of bullying in schools. In this way, the willingness to be available and to interpret many different pieces of information could affect their willingness to report the incidents to senior staff. In addition to the ongoing process of checking in with students,

teachers also suggested that further training would be helpful and could emphasize the severity of the bullying phenomenon via student testimonials and statistics. Trying to make the nature and impact of bullying more real for teachers within such trainings could be important for emphasizing its importance within the school. Instead of saying ‘This is a Bully Free Zone’, it would be important for teachers to recognize the prevalence of bullying because the opposite message could engender a false sense of complacency.

6.10 Social Cognitive Theory

Social Cognitive Theory suggests that behavioral factors, personal factors, and environmental factors are reciprocally associated. While Expectancy Theory focuses more on how personal factors can shape individual behaviors, social cognitive theory takes a wider perspective, attempting to understand how the environment can also shape behavioral and personal factors. This is helpful for understanding the third and fourth research questions, focusing on the differences between scenarios and how these differences can shape responses and conceptions of severity. The qualitative interviews offer new data that help to reveal and clarify possible interactions between these behavioral, personal, and environmental factors (whereas the quantitative findings were useful in identifying which personal factors predicted a behavior such as responding to bullying scenarios).

Figure 6.2: Social Cognitive Theory



6.10.1 Personal Factors/Behavioral Factors

How do teachers' conceptions of actions shape their behaviors? According to the results of the multilevel statistical models there were two different factors that predicted a greater likelihood for teachers to respond to bullying scenarios. This included expectancy (confidence in self) and valence (perception of the severity of the situation).

Instrumentality was not a statistically significant factor across the scenarios. A greater exploration can be found for each factor of Expectancy Theory from the follow up interviews. Yet what was fascinating about the factors was how these self-perceptions would also extend to school cultures and the permissibility of actions within them. For example, the actions of other teachers within the school could be framed by their ability to carry out similar behaviors. By finding a mentor, two of the new teachers reported that they could learn appropriate behavior in the new school context. At the same time, new teachers simultaneously realized that they were often more skilled in understanding social media platforms for cyberbullying. This finding is in accord with some of the literature, which suggests that certain aspects of mentorship paradigm need to change and emphasize the relationship as 'co-learners' (Jaipal 2009). With the introduction of new technologies for cyberbullying, new teachers may be able to educate more experienced teachers about the social media landscape.

The personal experiences of teachers and behaviors were often socially framed by informal spaces. For example, in some instances teachers commented on the realization of severity that happened as a result of contact made during informal lunch periods. Situations in which students mentioned what they saw or heard bullying affected their perceptions of the severity of a bullying incident. However, teachers noted that student comments suggested that the presence of bullying seemed commonplace, although teachers themselves had felt that bullying was not nearly as widespread. This can be of particular importance when cyberbullying conforms to cybermobs: a series of students harassing one student based on race, gender, or sexual preference. Often those from marginalized backgrounds can be deluged with cyberbullying, and the need to report each offence through the social media platform could be an overwhelming and emotional experience considering the amount of times it happens (Chemaly 2019: 154). One

American teacher's comments link to this idea by saying that it was a volume issue. Students reported to him issues of racist bullying that they had seen in class themselves, although these situations were quite difficult to identify for the teacher. This was even more the case in the cyberworld, where teachers felt that they had little to no knowledge of what was happening with their students on social media. This was consistent with research suggesting that teachers feel unable to monitor cyberbullying on social media (Cassidy et al. 2012). The plethora of stimuli overwhelmed teachers with information, sometimes making it hard for them to detect bullying that could seem more obvious to students that report the bullying. When students reported, teachers felt a heightened responsibility to respond once they did learn about the situation.

The idea of reporting bullying to others on staff would be shaped by many other conceptions according to the interviews. For example, what did the teacher perceive as their responsibility? How did other members on staff reveal their competency for dealing with such situations? In addition, notions of teacher responsibility seemed critical for influencing whether or not a teacher would get involved. Beyond the severity of a bullying incident or the personal confidence that they would have in addressing the situation, some teachers said in their interviews that they felt that pastoral care was a core element of their teaching responsibilities. The literature also suggests that pastoral care extends beyond personal responsibility, but also applies to teaching pupils to not become 'hostile bystanders' by forwarding cyberbullying content (Kyriacou and Zuin 2018). Hence, beyond merely assessing individual ability, training and the school culture were instrumental in shaping how teachers identified what it meant to be a teacher. Although this became clearer with time (more experienced teachers seemed more likely to articulate the complexity of their responsibility), newer teachers in England were often introduced to two main messages: 'pass on the information' or 'safeguard information'. This was not seen as much in the US sample, which emphasized reporting much more than safeguarding. This led to some new teachers in England feeling overwhelmed with their new roles, often finding it challenging to assess what information to feed to the administration.

Qualitative interview evidence also emphasized the importance of the teachers' relationships with their students. Finding ways of clarifying student relationships via the

surveys would be challenging, since teachers probably had different interactions with students, and standardizing a hypothetical situation would become challenging across contexts. However, the qualitative interviews were valuable in highlighting that the level of trust with students would also be helpful for understanding the nature of the bullying incidents and responses to them. Theoretical models such as those of Vroom or Bandura may consider this an expression of expectancy (or the level of confidence with dealing with a situation). However, the problem with this is not so much in identifying the construct, but rather creating a factor that could clearly delineate the importance of the relationships within the child's life. For example, a teacher with a strong understanding of student life would potentially have greater ability to assess the severity of a bullying incident due to more information. This in turn may produce greater confidence, because they have garnered more information to inform their judgments. It was almost as if the personal beliefs were already embedded within the relationship with the teachers. The level of information students shared may depend upon the established trust. The fostering of informal spaces in which students felt welcomed led to greater rates of reporting according to one of the English teachers. Instead of looking at bullying response as a single entity, the qualitative interviews support the interpretation that it is important to think of it as an ongoing process involving engagement with other members of the school community.

6.10.2 Environmental Factors/Behavior

The other dimension of social cognitive theory explores how the context of the bullying would shape the likelihood of response. The statistical analyses revealed that situations of home cyberbullying had less of a likelihood of teacher response than those of school cyberbullying. Interviews followed up the rationale for this finding of difference in likelihood of teacher response. Reasons given included teachers feeling that home scenarios were not a part of their primary responsibility. They also reported that they knew very little about this space. The idea that this type of bullying was indeed secret would preclude teachers from actively seeking out information. This might put greater pressure on other environmental factors such as social media platforms to prevent

deleterious comments. According to the 'Community Standards' of Facebook, forms of cyberbullying such as hate speech are already forbidden, but the question is how aware are students of these standards and the channels of reporting information about cyberbullying (Bhugawat 2019: 92). Many laws, such as the section 230 of the 'Communication Decency Act', are seen as "... protecting interactive computer providers from liability for the actions of their users" (Franks 2019:138). Hence, there are not many protections from cyberbully victims, and teachers also feel less responsibility for dealing with home cyberbullying. It is important to explore how a teacher needs to interact and interrelate with key stakeholders to provide a safe cyber environment for children.

Beyond the context of the action, the context of the school culture was also instrumental for influencing a likelihood of response. Previous studies have suggested that unsuccessful replication of anti-bullying strategies can be due to 'limited capacity, inadequate preparation, lack of readiness at school, or lack of school district support' (Ertesvåg 2015: 365). Teachers in this study suggested that reporting cases of bullying was not enough, and checking in with the administration to follow up would be important. How well schools dealt with other forms of bullying (such as between staff bullying) could influence whether or not the teacher felt that the school was well equipped to deal with bullying between students. One of the major facets of school culture seems to be how well teachers trusted key stakeholders. If teachers trusted that parents were well equipped to handle the differing types of bullying, it would seem that reaching out would be a good idea. Although teachers ranked parental involvement as high in their strategies, the challenge for some teachers was establishing sustainable relationships with parents, when the time seemed so limited for adults. Even when parents respond to teachers, it seemed difficult for teachers to determine how that relationship could be fostered and sustained over time.

From the quantitative component of this mixed methods study, exploratory factor analysis suggested that there were three underlying constructs in terms of strategies to address bullying scenarios: school culture, consequences, and bystanders. These three groupings for strategies emphasize the perceived interconnections between bullying behaviors and the environment. The construct of 'Bystanders' related the actions of other

students not involved directly in an incident but observing it. Previous research suggests that better relationships with teachers could motivate bystanders to respond (Jungert, Piroddi, and Thornberg 2016). School culture related to features of the school environment as a whole. School culture was already embedded within a larger society, and the nature of consequences could mean different things, as one American teacher suggested that bullying could be a reflection of a larger culture of violence. In some ways, this notion of the larger culture could make bullying seem culturally appropriate (whether xenophobic comments of political leadership, executive orders, or codified laws); for example, anti-gay curriculum laws are permissible in 20 US states, which could engender school culture of embedded homophobia (Rosky 2017). The qualitative findings suggest that the alternative strategies for dealing with bullying might depend upon the school culture, sustaining long-term approaches built upon constructive values. Leadership from all stakeholders (whether student, teacher, administration, or parent) seemed important for teachers from their interviews. This accords with conclusions from other research suggesting transformational and transactional leadership are both positively correlated with ‘collaborative activity’ and ‘innovation climate’ (Oterkiil and Ertesvåg 2014). But the question becomes how to frame this leadership when teacher perceptions suggest that collaborative spaces such as task forces are not currently considered effective strategies according to the interview and survey findings.

6.10.3 Environmental Factors / Personal Factors

Interview analysis revealed teachers emphasized that environmental influences and personal factors corresponded. In this study, teachers were asked about their personal experiences and stories, so as to understand the unique influences that could shape their perspectives, as opposed to making general statements about the school leadership as a whole in addressing bullying situations. One of the very important topics that the survey results did not address was how individual teachers perceived they could develop confidence in addressing bullying incidents. Some teachers indicated that their confidence in dealing with particular situations was typically framed within the organizational culture as a whole. Confidence in dealing with a bullying scenario did not

depend solely on one factor, but rather a complex network of interrelations, as seen within the correlations of the CFA. For some teachers the complexity of bullying seemed to require a multifaceted response from multiple actors within the school. Several teachers' comments suggested that the skill levels of the parents, the bystanders, the administrators, and the other teachers could all influence an assessment of the appropriate response. Hence, expectancy was not simply limited to a set of perspectives of the individual teacher himself or herself, but rather a complex milieu with multiple interacting levels within the ecosystem. For example, one teacher mentioned that difficulty in engaging with busy parents was one of the reasons for why their son continued to bully. Another teacher cited the lack of accountability for superiors with reported information. Hence, a new framework was recommended by some of the teachers that did not focus simply upon reporting information, but also evaluating the response to ensure that responsible actors were taking necessary steps. This shift suggests a mindset of 'internal assessment', which seemed much more like developing leadership at all levels of the school, a concept linked to school improvement research as it relates to bullying more generally (Coyle 2008). From this perspective, teacher leadership did not rest simply in identifying protocols and goals, but rather in creating a sustained openness to understand how the environment related to their role within it. This would happen by establishing spaces of listening to others within the community, which relates to more cooperative strategies for dealing with bullying (Wachs, Bilz, Niproschke, and Schubarth 2018).

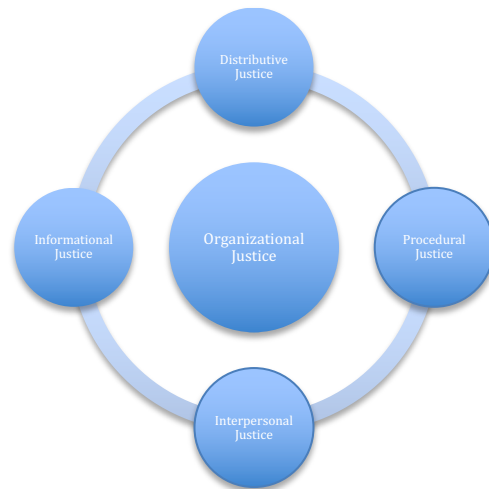
The environment also shaped teachers' perceptions of the severity of bullying scenarios and incidents they had experienced. For instance, one teacher noted that bystander students would report worries about bullying instances to the teachers, often providing key details as to the extent and the nature of the bullying. Bystander reporting was shaped by many factors, but some studies suggest that the responses of some teachers to bullying were shaped by more broad conceptions of justice in the world and the identification with the class as a whole (Jiang et al. 2018). Teachers claimed that the ability to gather information from students depended upon trusting and relating to the students. Some studies have suggested that victims might need to develop positive views of themselves before they would feel able to report incidents (Boulton, Boulton, Down,

and Sanders 2016). Additionally, the interviews suggest teachers feel that students sometimes needed to form a good relationship with the teacher before they would be willing to report incidents. However, the literature suggests that many victim students have not developed trust with teachers for handling bullying situations at this time (Bradshaw, Sawyer, and O'Brennan 2007: 375). Additionally, the teachers realized that since bullying was so complex, regular 'check-ins' with important information would also be important to realize its nature. Also special trainings were cited as instrumental for shaping the conceptions of the importance of bullying.

6.11 Organizational Justice Theory

School culture was considered crucial for countering bullying by many members of the interview sample (cited by 16 of the 20 interviews). However, there is a question of how school culture could be conceived and conveyed within the community. The literature review (Chapter 2) introduced Organizational Justice Theory as a way of understanding how an individual could deem the appropriateness of responses to bullying in terms of the greater organizational culture of the school. This is helpful for conceptualizing the first research questions, by outlining how perceptions of different organizational responses could become interpretations of procedural, distributive, interpersonal, or informational justice. Figure 6.3 provides an illustration of different parts of organizational justice theory. Findings are then linked to these different aspects.

Figure 6.3: Organizational Justice Theory



6.11.1 Informational Justice (how well is information provided)

One of the core facets of organizational justice theory pertains to the quality of presented information. The analyses of the teacher surveys suggested that parental involvement was perceived as a helpful strategy, in order to ensure that multiple stakeholders were informed. One of the reasons cited by a teacher in follow up interviews was that parents created an impactful and different perspective. At the same time, current research is suggesting that in diverse classrooms, it is often hard to gather parental perspectives if parents are from different countries and do not always speak English, thereby requiring additional steps to make sure that the information is accessible (Snell 2018). The diversity of insights could translate into a greater ability to deal with the bullying, but it is important to form culturally appropriate strategies to convey that information. In addition, several teachers emphasized that working with parents served as a powerful mechanism for conveying essential information to key stakeholders with the potential ability to curb the actions of the bully and reduce the adverse effects on the victim.

Resource availability was also deemed important (cited by 8). However, there were different understandings of what resources could entail. The interviews suggested that resources could take on different meanings based upon the format, the presentation,

and the disseminators of the material. For example, some teachers suggested that an outside agency should be the one that provided the resources, since professional consultants could be seen as experts in the dissemination of specialized knowledge. Legal scholars suggest that an awareness of the defamation laws within the country could provide an opportunity to educate people and to hold social media platform accountable if there is proven negligence (Franks 2019: 143). Nonetheless, research suggests that half of teachers are lacking adequate understanding of bullying, which sets up a very important need for resource availability and training in the future (Shamsi et al. 2019). One new teacher conceived that an outside consultant offered a greater repertoire of skills than current educators. Others thought that it would be important to hear personal accounts of bullying from students within the school. A hybrid between the local and systematic approaches could emerge, where students shared their experiences while outside agencies were also contacted to share additional materials. In terms of content of the information, some teachers recommended statistics, whilst others wanted to diagram the day of the students.

However, inundating teachers with additional information (by increasing monitoring) was not seen as likely to be very helpful. This was the lowest ranked strategy according to the survey results. Hence, informational justice was conceived as important insofar as it provided *useful* information to key stakeholders (such as parents, administrators, and other teachers within the community). This finding seems interesting, considering that school surveillance is continuing to expand within schools, for arguments of ‘increased security’, ‘improved efficiency’, and the ‘desensitization to pervasive monitoring’ (Hope 2015: 840). However, the teachers that already had a lot of information to process felt that this could potentially overwhelm them if they did not find the information relevant or credible. At the same time, research suggests that technology is advancing, and social networking sites are testing automatic detection of cyberbullying (Van Royen et al. 2015). The SAFE System uses video surveillance in schools to send emails to the police or parents automatically, which could bypass teacher participation altogether (Smith 2011). Hence, the question becomes, who has the power to decipher which information is indeed relevant? How might training support teachers in

interpreting the information and deciding on appropriate actions as opposed to relying on automated systems?

Teachers also emphasized in the interviews the different levels of communication: from the central administration, from other teachers, from students, and from parents. Training was found to be a common theme (cited by 15), highlighting how current educators trusted that as a main means of informing and guiding strategies. Time limitations could be challenging if the material from such a community was not relevant, especially with the literature suggesting that new teacher often feel overwhelmed in the first year (Thomas and Beauchamp 2011). The diverse set of experiences of bullying and cyberbullying reported by teachers in the interviews suggest it might be complicated to design a relevant strategy across different school cultures. A more practice based, real-time approach, as suggested by Stahl et al. (2016) with real time feedback may be helpful for making sure that the confidence emerges from informational feedback on correct responses.

6.11.2 Distributive Justice (fairness in outcomes)

Increasing consequences was found to be a highly ranked strategy according to the quantitative findings from the survey analyses. This finding is in agreement with previous teacher perspectives research (Stauffer et al. 2012). However, it does not agree with some other findings in different contexts, which suggested that harsher consequences could lead to higher incidences of bullying (Banzon – Librojo, Garabiles, and Pena Alampay 2017). This of course may depend on context, as some countries may inherently have harsher consequences than those found in England and the US. Hence, a greater conversation in terms of the appropriateness between different communities could elucidate the appropriateness of the responses. Some judicial innovation provided by Kamala Harris in the state of California increased a more complex discussion within a ‘Cyber Exploitation Task Force’, bringing together “Victim advocates, 50 major technology companies, law enforcement representatives and experts” to discuss appropriate responses and trainings (Citron 2019: 126-127). The qualitative interviews highlighted a certain level of complexity in how some teachers could conceive of

sanctions, consequences and punishment. There was a simultaneous balance, where teachers admitted that empathizing with students and fostering a concern for them would be very important for their growth and development. However, some teachers noted they felt limited in terms of how much empathy they could develop for bullies. This corresponds with other research, which suggests bullies could receive less ‘emotional’, and ‘instructional’ support from educators (Ertesvåg 2016). Sometimes, the relative overconfidence of a bully could also form a major obstacle for the teacher establishing faith in his or her own abilities to address the problem.

6.11.3 Procedural Justice (fairness of process)

Who had the duty to respond, and what were the processes needed to deal with bullying? Several new teachers reported such occurrences to the administration, feeling that passing on the information was their primary responsibility. This is an interesting finding, because it feeds into the previous research in the field, suggesting that administrators may develop a different understanding of role and agency from teachers over time (Kennedy, Russom, and Kevorkian 2012). Yet at the same time, there is a question in terms of how the state itself facilitates justice procedurally. Especially in the US (which emphasized zero tolerance policies), there was a question of whether some of the more serious cyberbullying situations involving inappropriate use of images should be considered a federal instead of merely a state crime (Citron 2019: 126). For some teachers, the complexity of cyberbullying in particular seemed overwhelming, and getting too involved in these issues could lead to burnout or seem inappropriate when there was someone in the administration more suited to handle the situation. This brought up the question of whether the school culture could actually peg the severity of the situation with the right response within a changing legal and procedural environment.

However, other teachers were quite reflective, assessing whether their superiors were actually responding appropriately. This brings up a larger question of whether procedures are actually similar across schools. With greater school autonomy in England and varying procedures in US schools depending on ‘urban’ or ‘suburban’ environments, there was a question of how this variance could potentially subvert ‘civic engagement’

and ‘participatory democracy’ (Musheno 2011: 1063). One teacher shared that when he reported the bullying and noticed that nothing was happening, there was a crisis of responsibility. This notion of trust in self emerged if the teacher took the role seriously for pastoral care. This is consistent with the literature, which suggests that pastoral care should be used as a framework to engender personal responsibilities for bystanders in whatever form at school even in situations of cyberbullying (Kyriacou and Zuin 2018). Beyond merely being an element of fair treatment as expressed in interpersonal justice, the notion of pastoral care also served as a justification for assessing the processes within the schools. Was the administration meeting expectations for teachers to exercise their roles? How so? What forces held them accountable in doing so? What could the teacher do to improve the situation? Did the child’s family have the right to prosecute a school or bully for not creating a safe learning environment? In the more litigious society of the US, new mechanisms for funding judicial prosecutions appeared in the form of pro bono legal counsel in the ‘Cyber Civil Right Legal Project or ‘Cyberharrassment Clinic’ (Citron 2019: 127). However, expressions of agency within the school that would assess processes and evolve policies (such as introducing a task force) were not rated highly according to the survey results, which suggests that mediation processes may depend on outside institutions for handling procedural elements of dealing with more serious cyberbullying.

6.11.4 Interpersonal Justice (fairness in treatment)

The interviews suggested that knowing students is important for reducing bullying (cited by 17). This falls in line with recent research emphasizing that students often report bullying to teachers that seem ‘authoritative’ and ‘supportive’, and often these attributes stem from previous interactions (O’Brien et al. 2018). Fair treatment of students also connected to pastoral role awareness. Teachers who noted that they needed to foster compassion for their students were more likely to consider bullying issues as serious. Perceptions of the severity of an incident correlated highly with a likelihood of response based on teachers’ survey responses and this was also supported by the interview findings on an individual level. However, there were many dimensions that

would need to be understood, especially in terms of how teachers developed an understanding of what the responsibility entailed. One teacher cited how taking this responsibility very seriously could lead to increased stress or potential mental health issues if the teachers fully realized the extent to which some of their students were being bullied.

6.12 Concluding Remarks

This chapter has explored in detail the connections between the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the previous chapters in order to more fully address the underlying research aims and main research questions. The discussion seeks to weave together the two main sources of evidence (teacher questionnaire surveys and interviews) and link the various quantitative and qualitative findings in order to better describe and understand teacher perceptions of bullying in schools and responses to the phenomenon, especially in connection with cyberbullying. The integration of different data and findings has sought to go beyond findings from either tradition (quantitative or qualitative) through points of interface and deliberate comparison and mixing. The literature review (chapter 2) presented different theoretical perspectives, including Expectancy Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, and Organizational Justice Theory. The discussion provided a greater space to interpret the consistency of the findings across two country contexts by focusing on both survey results and then on follow up interview responses. The quantitative strand revealed that teachers' expectancy with perpetrator (confidence) and valence (seriousness) were two main factors that predicted the likelihood of a teacher's response to a bullying scenario across the two country contexts. The qualitative strand provided an opportunity to explore teachers' experiences in more depth through a small number of follow up interviews. Teachers' views of the main survey findings formed a source of further investigation. Exploring their understanding of bullying and what shaped their strategies to address it in their particular school contexts provided a nuanced addition to the current bullying research. The comparison of findings suggests that teacher confidence and seriousness means something slightly different for teachers with different experience levels and in the two different country contexts. Perceptions of the severity of bullying was also conceived of differently across contexts,

seemingly coinciding with larger societal differences in culture including the legal or policy context (such as zero tolerance policies and safeguarding of information). However, a strong school culture emphasizing pastoral responsibilities was perceived as key for developing greater understanding of the severity of bullying incidents and the confidence for addressing it. The different responses from teachers in different schools suggested that the strategies needed to be adapted, which links with previous research for dynamic approaches to school improvement (DASI), where individual schools might require different forms of assistance (Kyriakides, Cremer, Mujis, Rekers – Mombarg, Papastyliaou, Van Petegem, and Peason 2014).

Although notions of seriousness did not seem to differ across the various scenarios, the willingness of teachers to respond did differ across these scenarios. Incidents of cyberbullying occurring at home had a lower likelihood of response than school cyberbullying. Findings from interviews suggested that teachers did not consider it so much their responsibility to monitor cyberbullying occurring in the home (although US and English schools still had a legal mandate to reduce bullying in all instances) due to practical and ethical challenges. Teachers did emphasize that engaging with parents would be a key strategy for working together in the future, however.

This chapter integrates and synthesizes findings from the quantitative and follow up qualitative components of this sequential mixed methods research. The study elucidates the reasons why teachers did not necessarily support certain strategies such as increased monitoring and task forces (as shown in their survey responses). Teachers interviewed at follow up also felt that others with more expertise would be better equipped to handle the training of individuals than themselves. However, they did realize that collective responsibility would be important, tailored to their own school environments. Future research might be able to ask further questions in terms of developing pastoral responsibilities within schools.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The overarching aim of this research is to understand teachers' perceptions of bullying in England and the United States. Previous research has focused primarily on using quantitative methods to understand teacher perceptions of and responses to different forms of bullying in schools in one context (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Yoon and Kerber 2003; Stauffer et al. 2012). This research project adds to the literature by including research on cyberbullying with a mixed methods design. This chapter synthesizes and summarizes the major findings from this mixed methods study and relates the findings to existing research in the field. The mixed methods design provides a foundation for understanding the similarities and differences between the quantitative and qualitative findings. The results contribute to the larger research literature, advocating for the use of mixed methods for understanding cross-cultural teachers' perceptions of bullying. The chapter covers the key findings of the mixed methods study, limitations, contributions, challenges, and implications for further research.

7.2 Summary of Key Findings

The mixed methods design was important for understanding different dimensions of teacher perceptions of bullying in schools. The quantitative methods identified constructs and investigated which were statistically significant independent variables for predicting teachers' likelihoods of response to various bullying scenarios. The multilevel regressions involved constructing and comparing several models to produce findings concerning the predictors of teacher likelihood of response to different hypothetical bullying scenarios presented in the survey. The qualitative methods based on in-depth follow up interviews were intended to investigate the deeper meaning of these constructs as they relate to teacher perceptions and accounts of their experiences. The mixed methods design enabled the researcher to explore similarities and differences so as to elucidate the relationships between different constructs. The multilevel regression models suggested that there were three elements corresponding with a willingness to respond.

These included teachers' views of the severity of the bullying, the confidence in one's self to address bullying, and the location of the bullying scenarios (home versus school situations). The qualitative interviews provided an opportunity to explore the meaning of each of these ideas within a sub-sample of teachers in each country.

Firstly, severity was a major factor corresponding with a response. Teachers reported that the understanding of their roles shaped the significance of the scenario. Teachers suggested that developing an early awareness of their responsibilities served as an important facet of conceptualizing how to handle bullying. An expanded notion of serving 'the whole student' provided a way of strengthening a responsibility to educate and to mediate conflicts. Secondly, teachers suggested that knowing students seemed consequential for assessing the severity of the bullying. How does the teacher develop times to encounter students outside the classroom and to develop trust? Often, informal times could serve as an opportunity for teachers to gather information, so as to understand the intricacies of the situation and the potential repercussions of different responses. Furthermore, teachers reported that they assessed the severity of an incident based upon the impact on the victim. What were the feelings of the victim? How long did the teacher perceive the victimization? However, teachers realized at the same time that it would remain difficult to perceive that impact in shorter time spans. Even when they knew the bullying was serious, some teachers noted that some students said that they would prefer that the teacher remained uninvolved, thereby complicating the response.

In addition to severity, increased confidence in self coincided with a greater likelihood of teacher response. The more confident the teacher felt at dealing with the perpetrator, the more likely a response. Teachers felt that confidence in school culture would also facilitate their self-confidence. Did the teacher feel as if they were a part of a larger team? If they could deal with the situation and report, would others take it seriously and act? Did the school community have clear guidance on the relative skill and experience of colleagues that would deal with the situation? Secondly, teachers suggested that the quality of the training could facilitate the level of perceived confidence in their abilities. Did the training remain credible and relevant? How skilled were the teachers after the training? Were trainers good educators themselves, and did they provide relevant resources? Was the training ongoing or just a single session? The answers to

these questions could form a foundation for determining whether or not teachers felt supported. Thirdly, teachers suggested that confidence in one's self was often facilitated by the relative confidence of the bully. Was the perpetrator confident and how widespread was his or her influence over the other children? Does the teacher feel alone in dealing with the situation? How 'sophisticated' was the victimization and did the teacher feel as if his or her colleagues could collectively counteract this deleterious sophistication? Sometimes, the response would be hampered because the teachers themselves could feel as if the issue was probably outside of their existing skill set.

The location (whether home or at school) was also instrumental for a teacher's response. Teachers were less likely to feel as if they needed to respond in situations that took place outside of the school. The laws in England placed greater responsibility on head teachers for actions outside of schools, whereas US laws differed state by state. One issue that would reflect greater willingness to respond could be the parental relationships. Parents would be important for facilitating the dialogue at home and setting the standard of appropriate behavior. What was the relationship that the teachers fostered with the parents? How much confidence did teachers have in those interactions? What could teachers do to develop that relationship over time? What information should a teacher share? These questions suggested that the adult presence at home and school would be important for the moral development of the child. However, often teachers did not have working relationships with parents that could assist them in bullying reduction, although they considered parental involvement instrumental for resolving bullying situations. In the future, strategies for parental outreach seemed significant. Teachers needed to be aware of alternative strategies to convey the seriousness of bullying and develop a coordinated strategy that could extend to the home. Educating parents and involving them in their child's education could be a way of evolving trust, as maturation hinged on multiple, interacting levels of the student's experience.

7.3 Strengths and Limitations of the Study

This research intended to explore and to understand teacher perceptions *across* contexts (the US and England). This discussion points towards a much larger question in terms of how appropriate the use of certain words such as 'bullying' can be applied to

different contexts, as the notions of the term can change between samples (Smith et al. 2016). An understanding of technology, laws, and school leadership could all shape the conceptions of the term for teachers within and between country samples. The research intended to develop a better understanding of whether core concepts such as ‘confidence’, ‘severity’, and ‘bullying’ differed across context with statistical procedures based on a survey and follow up qualitative interviews. Yet the research does suggest that these notions of student bullying are continuing to change and evolve along with the massive recent development of social media. More anonymous forms of victimization across cultural contexts are becoming evident more frequently, including where the bullies and victims may not even be from the same countries. The examples of bullying described by new educators at interviews revealed that the research community needs to become more aware of what is actually taking place in the field. As these methods of bullying continue to change, the responses and the perceptions of those responses will evolve. As a result, a potential weakness of this research is that the *terms* themselves could alter in use by both students and educators. A more globalized society with a greater exchange of information and ideas will lead to more complex identities, and the methods for monitoring and solving these problems will also expand in their complexity. One example of this is becoming more apparent as cyberbullies sometimes victimize students in other countries, potentially drawing on issues of international law. Legislatures define the meaning of the word, and the understandings of teachers and students will simultaneously alter. Teachers’ perceptions will change over time, and future studies will be important for understanding the nature of the term’s evolution. What is construed as bullying changes historically and in different country contexts therefore more comparative research is desirable.

In addition to the changing opinions, the sample size forms a limitation. The 212 teachers that replied to the surveys constituted a purposive convenience sample. Therefore, they cannot be generalized. The trends discovered as a result of this research project are a reflection of the samples used in two country contexts (US & England) and particular groups of teachers. Further research should seek to use larger samples and attempt to obtain more comprehensive samples. However, it is recognized that it is frequently very difficult to recruit random or representative samples in research involving

teachers due to issues in gaining access and the pressures and demands on teachers' time. Additionally, as bullying extends to contexts outside of the US and England, future studies could also incorporate countries outside of a western context to investigate teachers' perspectives on bullying within diverse samples. For example, replicating studies in Japan would be of value, to see whether the ideas of *ijime* remain consistent and relevant to the bullying research and how far these cultural concepts can extend to cyberbullying. Additional improvements could increase the number of teachers involved in interviews, so as to uncover richer nuances. Longitudinal interviews could potentially elucidate how teachers' perspectives might change over time (especially since cyberbullying continues to evolve with advancements in technology). At the same time, teachers may gain more experience, take on leadership roles, or engage in CPD.

Further improvements could focus on ways of involving causal inference. The results do not substantiate the claim that independent variables such as expectancy, instrumentality, or valence studied in the surveys *caused* the likelihood of response. A critique could emerge, suggesting that the likelihood of response could lead to greater expectancy, confidence, or valence or that relationships may be bi-directional. Perhaps teachers more likely to respond already considered the hypothetical scenarios presented as serious, because they understand more about such situations as a result of past involvement with similar issues. Because the study involved only cross sectional survey data it was only possible to test whether factors identified as potentially relevant in the theoretical models used to inform the research did predict likelihood of teacher response in the ways the models proposed. Future research might use different strategies and models such as matching estimators to compare and to contrast whether individuals with similar background characteristics reported they would act in similar ways.

The research contributes to the literature by providing an original mixed methods comparative study on teacher perceptions of bullying in schools in two country contexts. The literature review provides a contextual background in terms of how the project builds upon Expectancy Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, and Organizational Justice Theory. The literature review also relates this research focus to similar methodologies also focusing on teachers' perceptions of bullying in schools (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Boulton et al. 2014; Stauffer et al. 2012). The research in particular yields an original

contribution, by utilizing mixed methods to understand teachers' perceptions of bullying in schools between two country contexts.

Teacher perceptions research in bullying does not usually involve both quantitative and qualitative methods. In particular, quantitative methods involving scenario of bullying is not usually followed up with qualitative research. However, this is an important step for comparative research, which unpacks nuanced interpretations in order to create a more full and real account of how teachers from different contexts perceive and approach bullying in schools. Mixed methods present an opportunity to investigate the ways teacher perceptions could emerge in different cultures. In some instances, the terms differ by cultural context. From the survey it was possible to provide an important and helpful grounding in the data to use exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to see whether the constructs deemed relevant in the theoretical models were appropriate when factor loadings were constrained across country context. Since the ideas of student victimization may change across cultural context, it is very important to ground the discussion in specific language that relates to these original factors. This ensures that there is a greater confidence in the robustness of findings that do occur across cultural context. This is one of the first studies to use such analysis methods cross culturally to explore teacher perceptions of bullying.

Comparative research remains important for understanding whether or not the trends in cyberbullying are similar across two country contexts. The ability to compare research across two English speaking contexts is important for understanding the nuances and differences with which teachers can perceive bullying in schools. The question is whether these perceptions remain similar or different depending on experience and context. The US and England provide two Anglophone cultures. However, whereas the US has more zero tolerance policies and England has more restorative justice approaches thanks to local school governance, it would be interesting to explore how and whether this corresponds to any real differences in terms of how individual teachers understand and explore their roles and relation to bullying.

This mixed methods study contributes to the literature by exploring teacher perceptions of bullying in schools from a unique, comparative perspective. The cross-cultural lens, paired with mixed methods provides an opportunity for understanding and

exploring whether or not teachers' perspectives remain consistent across country samples. Perspectives on highly ranked strategies to address different bullying scenarios, such as parental involvement and increased consequences remained high across cultures, which coincides with earlier findings in the US context (Stauffer et al. 2012). However, monitoring was ranked as one of the least effective strategies in this study, which differs from earlier research (Stauffer et al 2012). This may reflect the more recent prevalence of cyberbullying in this study, which teachers thought present greater challenges to monitoring and that earlier research had not addressed. In addition to studying teachers' views on the most effective strategies, the present study also used more advanced statistical methods (EFA and CFA and also multilevel models) to assess whether the certain constructs from Expectancy Theory predicted the likelihood of teacher response to hypothetical bullying scenarios at home and at school. The independent variables tested were valence, expectancy, and instrumentality; the dependent variable was a likelihood of response. The statistical models provide a foundation for assessing how these findings and comparative frameworks build on Expectancy Theory, Social Cognitive Theory, and Organizational Justice Theory.

One important element of social psychological research (especially in the field of bullying) is to test whether findings remain consistent across different spaces. Although Expectancy Theory suggests three central factors (expectancy, valence, and instrumentality), this study suggests that only two out of the three factors are statistically significant independent variables (valence and expectancy) for predicting the likelihood of a teacher response in bullying scenarios. These findings suggest that not all of the elements of Expectancy Theory are relevant across all scenarios. For example, the use of instrumentality might not be an appropriate way of looking at how to motivate teachers to respond to bullying. Instead, it seems as if valence and expectancy with perpetrator are more relevant. Additionally, scenario based research is important for exploring the nuances of an interaction. Responding to bullying in schools is complicated, and combining all of the responses between victim and perpetrator into one category could potentially distort the nature of teachers' responses. By separating the construct of expectancy with the perpetrator and with the victim, the statistical analysis provided a more realistic and detailed exploration of teacher perceptions with the bullying scenarios.

Reciprocal determinism (as seen in social cognitive theory) provides a helpful framework for understanding how different constructs of personal, behavioral, and environmental factors interact and interrelate. However, research would be helpful for investigating whether this interaction remains consistent across bullying scenarios. In a bullying intervention, it is important to decipher which influences remain instrumental. To claim that environmental, behavioral, and personal factors shape one another is helpful as a starting point, but further qualitative inquiry could uncover the nature of these interrelationships. Mixed methods were helpful for exploring the ways in which such relations could appear. For example, the connection between personal and behavioral factors was explored using multilevel modeling. However, the connections between environmental, behavioral, and personal factors were investigated further by using qualitative approaches via interviews.

The flexibility of the semi-structured interview was helpful for exploring, which personal, behavioral, and environmental factors could be linked with one another. An unpacking of the core concepts of bullying for a new teacher was also important for understanding how these conceptions could be framed by more environmental factors. Hence, the mixed methods framework provided multifaceted ways for understanding the connections between key concepts in the most appropriate ways. The nature of the relationship was helpful, because it suggested that expectancy and valence could be two anticipatory beliefs that shape the bullying response. Environmental factors such as laws (as shown by the common use of the term ‘harassment’ in the American sample) could shape the discourse and language used by teachers, thereby changing the ways institutions and individuals could react. For instance, the US context legally framed the responses in terms of discrimination and harassment, as bullying could be conceived as a legally actionable offence (which could herald zero tolerance policies). Bullying could also relate to the identity of the victim, thereby fitting under the framework of civil liberties within the US. However, terms such as ‘banter’ used in the English context could lead to less punishment and alternative strategies (such as restorative justice) while safeguarding and equalities policies again might be influential (sexual orientation and ethnicity being two characteristics given more weight in relation to bullying due to official guidance from Ofsted). However, it was equally important to uncover how zero

tolerance policies in schools could shape the governance of the school. The responses could extend to other dimensions of the school culture, shaping the authority of those tasked with identifying and implementing behavioral policies.

It would be helpful to think of the potential links between different conceptions of justice for framing and understanding teacher perceptions of bullying in schools. For example, how does access to information shape the ways in which individuals respond to bullying? A more complex form of interdependence can emerge, ways in which individuals could understand how different conceptions of justice mutually interrelate. Distributive justice depends upon the accessibility to information and fair treatment, as trainings and professional development remained inherently important across contexts for teachers in terms of how they identified their roles and their confidence whilst navigating alternative scenarios. Hence, this research maintained an exploratory focus, investigating how teachers conceive, convey, and apply their understanding of justice of the appropriate responses within a school culture.

Distributive justice was seen as something that was based not so much on the skills of the teachers, so much as the institutional architecture for facilitating that justice. If it did not work at one level (between staff members), teachers found it hard to conceive how that same system could disseminate and transfer appropriate responses to their students. In addition, informational justice pertains to the type of the information that would be important for different stakeholders. Involvement of parents and other staff members was a unique outlook for emphasizing how the perspectives of others would in turn affect the outlook on one's personal actions as a teacher. In terms of procedural justice, teachers suggested that they had the responsibility to follow up with administrations if they saw that processes were not working appropriately. However, newer teachers that did not know the school culture expressed concerns whilst intervening.

7.4 Future directions for research

This research provides a foundation for further inquiry. The mixed methods design proved fruitful and extended the findings on teachers' perspectives on bullying. The study suggests that future research on teachers' perspectives should include more

diverse comparative samples, uncovering potential differences in how teacher motivations may differ or relate between diverse contexts. In particular, further research could explore the connections *between* motivational factors. More research into the connection *between* instrumentality and expectancy and a greater exploration as to why instrumentality did not act as a statistically significant independent variable for the self-reported likelihood of teacher response to different bullying scenarios will be helpful in the future. The findings suggest that it could be of benefit to investigate further how the three Expectancy Factors relate to one another using multilevel modeling. It was not possible to collect longitudinal data in this doctoral research, yet future studies could collect this and therefore explore in more detail associations among factors over time.

Secondly, the CFA suggests that there are positive correlations between different factors, yet there was no research using multilevel models to verify the robustness of these findings. A more in depth study would explore the random, fixed, and between effects models, thereby introducing an added level of analysis to the original expectancy theory. Additionally, more qualitative questions could explore the relationship between teacher confidence and likelihood of response. These two ideas need to be explored in terms of how training or CPD may facilitate greater confidence and ability, and how that agency could play into school culture.

Thirdly, the qualitative interviews unveiled newer forms of cyberbullying. Further use of exploratory qualitative methods will be crucial for informing survey designs in the future. Filming other students via cell phones was becoming more commonplace as a form of cyberbullying according to teacher comments and media reports, due to the advancement in technology. The relevance of the scenarios introduced will grant more accurate understandings of how individuals understand actual bullying situations among students that they will encounter within the 21st century. Hence, more modern approaches to collecting data could help the research community share more realistic and plausible scenarios that will inform relevant responses. In terms of mixed methods, this might suggest that reversing the methods might be helpful as well, within a sequential 'exploratory' strategy. Starting with the qualitative interviews could inform the development of new scenarios later implemented within the quantitative strand. This research did test the survey scenarios in pre-piloting, yet the questions remained more

confirmatory in terms of asking whether the situation seemed plausible. Future directions may use more exploratory techniques early on, so as to garner more details of experiences from the teachers themselves before the creation of follow up surveys. This offers an idea for how pre-piloting can be utilized to expand future mixed methods projects, exploring perspectives on evolving phenomena such as cyberbullying.

Fourthly, the project recommends more research on parental involvement. The high rankings teachers gave to the role of parents to address bullying in the quantitative and qualitative findings remain consistent with the previous literature (Stauffer et al. 2012). However, interviews suggested that teachers often find it very hard to conceptualize *how* to outreach to parents to discuss these important and sensitive issues. Therefore a clearer guidance could serve as an important facet for approaching future research. The idea that teachers should involve parents is important, but it also remains crucial to understand how this could be done and verify whether this involvement remains consistent across cultures.

7.5 Challenges for Future Research

Cross-cultural research has the challenge of connecting a shared understanding across different social norms. Even two contexts speaking English have many different political differences and notions of the status quo that could readily change the notion of the ‘appropriateness’ of a response to bullying. One such difference emerged round the idea of ‘Pastoral Care’. There was no real parallel outside of counseling that could reflect what this meant for US teachers. There was no inherent language in which US teachers framed their role in dealing with personal issues of the student, other than positive role modeling. However, upon further clarification through qualitative interviews, it became apparent that teachers across England sometimes had different interpretations of what ‘pastoral roles’ entailed. Merely telling teachers to act responsibly seems quite arbitrary if different individuals have different notions of what this could entail across school cultures. The question then becomes, what are the different messages in the trainings for pastoral care? Which messages actually resonate with teachers as a result of the training? Is there a pre-established language that can reinforce what is required of teachers?

One of the important questions for teachers pertained to which information was readily available for labeling, clarifying, and reacting to bullying. Behavioral policies in England are set at the school level, therefore the ideas of bullying could potentially be shaped by daily experiences, engendering more restorative approaches. However, the US adopts a much more centralized approach, whereby the state delineates bullying's legal definitions. Hence, in the US, it could be said that there are fifty different, simultaneous notions of bullying according to the law. Attempts to specify bullying on a national level in the early 2000s of the US were not codified into federal legislation. There were opportunities to clarify dimensions within national legislation (The Safe and Drug-Free Schools and Communities Act). The lack of federal law accentuates the pressure on state legislatures for defining what bullying entails, as that could delimit the level of culpability of a school if it creates an unsafe learning environment if ever brought to court. US teachers reported in interviews that there must be laws around the area, but they were uncertain what they actually were. This approach led teachers to basing their definitions of bullying on instinct as opposed to fully clarified policies.

However, England finds itself in a very different position. The state schools are granted a greater power, with the head teachers granted the ability to set behavioral policies (Education and Inspections Act 2006). Under the auspices of the act, the head teacher was given full power to create policies that would engender good behavior on and off school property (thereby including cyberbullying); the head teacher must also disseminate said information to staff, parents, and pupils (Ibid). This important legislation placed the responsibility clearly on the head teachers, not only for drafting a behavioral policy but also for disseminating the policy.

The creation of said policies is important, but there is also a question of who has the right and the ability to facilitate the more procedural elements? Whilst bullying has changed over time, it is important that local school governance evolves and accommodates the range of issues faced by each respective community. The changing landscape of these issues requires policies that can clearly identify the role and actions of teachers with the right and the responsibility to respond to bullying. In the US, the creation of bullying laws by the state affords more actors outside of the school a responsibility for developing responsiveness. For example, after the creation of the Gun

Free Schools Act (1999), police officers assumed a greater capacity to monitor schools, and thereby react to bullying in the US. So instead of US teachers being the sole respondents, additional actors such as police forces and district attorneys facilitated the response. Teachers suggested that they wanted to observe before reporting, since draconian responses might not coincide with the original offence. Additionally, the victim would sometimes express that they did not want to report, thereby shaping the conception of procedural justice, as for some of the teacher's willingness to report could be shaped by the victim's perspective.

However, in the case of English teachers, there was less clear guidance in terms of appropriate punitive measures. There was a question of how durable these policies could be as instruments for facilitating a healthy school culture. Some of the schools had very strong school cultures, whereby bullying reduction could be considered an extension of a central ethos. School culture and behavioral policy mutually reinforce one another, and teachers reported that all levels of behavior management between students, teachers, or staff coincided.

However, in England, there were some situations in which school cultures displayed a negative culture. The variance of the response was due to the competencies of the head teachers. If the head teachers did not prioritize bullying in schools, it was unclear how other teachers would react. Some new teachers reported feeling as if they needed to check in on certain issues if they felt that the administration did not take their concerns seriously after the reporting. For example, one head teacher did not know how to deal with bullying, and created all staff emails, requesting that a member of staff please respond to the perpetrator. This notion of *dispersed agency* suggested that central administrations did not always feel comfortable with dealing with a bullying situation, despite the fact that they were granted greater power. This scenario points to larger questions, such as what trainings were granted to head teachers? In this situation, it was unclear how the administration could assess the effectiveness of its responses, because the approach may change drastically each time, depending on the individual responding.

If schools are granted greater independence, there are a series of considerations for interpreting how well these schools are exercising their responsibilities. What are the ways in which English teachers would check in with the central administration to see

whether there was actual change being made as a result of reporting? What were the mechanisms of reporting if teachers felt that the bullying was not handled appropriately? In the US, some teachers expressed a greater willingness to solve bullying themselves, sometimes claiming that the overly retributive framework could lead to greater harm. Teachers would watch and collect more information. This brought up a larger question in terms of how schools handle the greater level of local autonomy? How do schools foster ongoing political will to encourage reflexive management?

The responses to bullying were often framed in terms of what was deemed appropriate across contexts. Both samples of the English and the US teachers felt that increasing parental involvement was important. On one level, whether or not the policies were enacted at the school, many of the individuals felt that the greater responses would occur in the home environment especially in terms of creating a sustainable strategy. Many teachers did not see their students as inherently bad or good, but rather on a journey. However, there were complicating situations (such as increasing level of inequality within both countries) (Cable 2017). This increased inequality could lead to parents working more hours, thereby precluding them from talking to the teachers.

In terms of the distributive justice, many of the results of decisions were framed by the different options available. For example, many of the English policies evolved from preventative approaches focusing on restorative justice (Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act of 1999). The introduction of the ‘Referral Court Order’ created restorative justice panels from the community for more intense cases of bullying (Wallis 2014: 61). The use of ‘youth cautioning’ went on to replace ‘the final warning systems with ‘neighborhood justice panels’ according to ‘The Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act of 2012’ (Arthur 2017: 34). Hence, there was an increased use of restorative justice panels that would not necessarily resort to increased consequences to handle more intense forms of bullying. However, cases of bullying that were less certain may not be easily managed.

However, the distributive justice remains more punitive in the US for more intense cases of bullying. Paired with the greater litigious society, zero tolerance policies seemed like a way of evading culpability and negligence. The institution could be using zero tolerance as a precautionary method to avoid litigation, since the local police force

would share responsibility. This became particularly apparent in cases in which school boards could be prosecuted for negligence for not responding to bullying (Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education). Additionally, the emphasis on numbers driven results accentuated the need to get rid of bullies that could potentially inhibit scores on high stakes testing ever since No Child Left Behind. All these factors (combined with the rise in gun violence) have led to an increasingly high number of expulsions from schools. However, teachers felt a need to observe further, ensuring that they were not falsely accusing a student within a punitive system. This need to know more information and asking the perspective of the victim considered more factors before reporting, whereas reporting seemed more likely in England.

7.6 Implications for Future Research

The next section discusses future directions for the research. Taking into consideration the limitations of the time scale, it is important to clarify the unique directions that should occur within the research community. In particular, the teachers' surveys and interviews recommended parental involvement as an important strategy, which suggests that greater research on parental perspectives would be beneficial. Additionally, the findings in the qualitative research revealed a different *language* pertaining to bullying, which inherently framed the responses available to teachers. The use of words such as 'harassment' and 'racism' in the US context prompted a new outlook, which would shape the teacher's training and understanding based upon the laws. A greater understanding of the interaction between the teachers and the laws around bullying would be helpful for assessing whether or not teachers maintain the correct interpretations of responding based upon the political differences of the US and England. Furthermore, more robust findings would emerge with a greater sample size and more rigorous causal inference frameworks. This would be a better method for investigating whether some independent variables are indeed instrumental in shaping a teacher's response to bullying scenarios (perhaps using direct and indirect path analysis).

Parental Involvement was ranked highly across contexts as a strategy for dealing with cyberbullying. Future research should explore how teachers and parents can develop relationships as they address these very important issues. An understanding of parental

perspectives will be helpful for designing strategies that can incorporate the feelings and needs of all stakeholders. This will be important for understanding how parents can build upon their current relationship with their children to monitor online usage, to convey respectable standards of behavior, and to hold their children accountable to those principles. Many teachers suggested that parents were often absent from the strategy, especially when the students needed more help. The paucity of parental presence could engender the deleterious actions of the child. However, as teachers realized that bullying and cyberbullying were complex issues, the more holistic and collective responses from multiple stakeholders seemed more effective, although teachers did not necessarily know how to form a common, multifaceted, and mutual strategy.

Additionally, an understanding of how legal systems differ and operate within educational settings will remain helpful for understanding the alternatives strategies available to schools across diverse country samples. Many of the questions revolved around the different strategies for dealing with bullying. However, the overall culture could frame these alternatives based on the judicial system and laws within different contexts. The issues may differ, thereby leading to disparate responses. Strategies to bullying across different contexts should also explore the organizational and cultural leadership that inherently decides the response. Are the teachers granted credibility and power? What are the 'liability concerns' if a teacher does not respond appropriately? Who assesses and decides these procedures? The increasing rates of expulsions in England and the US suggest that school cultures are beginning to alter (with the increasing rate of knife and gun crimes at schools). Although not directly related to bullying, these contextual trends set the stage for the processes and methods available handling school violence and bullying. At the same time, there is research suggesting that being in a fight is a top predictor for bullying in schools (Brewer et al. 2018). The qualitative methods provided a foundation for understanding how teachers from different contexts dealt with bullying. However, there is a question of how these diverse issues conform to similar legal definitions.

Future research could also incorporate a greater sample size, testing more robust methods. One direction would focus on causal inference (using matching estimators). This would be helpful for verifying whether the findings exhibit a causal link between the

Expectancy Factors and the response. Matching estimators depend upon larger sample sizes, so that similar individuals can be compared. As correlation does not render causation, it is hard to speculate that any of these factors are indeed ‘responsible’ for an increased level of action. Also, a larger sample size would be beneficial for exploring more relationships *between* constructs, understanding whether instrumentality and expectancy correspond. This would be helpful for understanding more complex connections between how individuals conceive of cyberbullying. The greater the sample size, the more robust the design, testing alternative connections between constructs as well as additional scenarios.

7.7 Implications for Policy and Training

This study focuses on exploring teacher perceptions of physical, verbal, relational, and most especially cyberbullying. The comparison between the US and England consists of a sequential mixed methods study, that simultaneously investigates teacher perceptions of bullying and the ways for dealing with it first via surveys and then via interviews. However, there is an underlying question of how this research could shape policy and practice into the future. This research project makes the following recommendations based upon the responses of the teachers in the samples.

The implications of the study suggest that some teachers feel excluded from a coherent strategy for dealing with bullying. More holistic approaches involving more stakeholders (parents and administrators) were deemed important by teachers across samples, yet it was often unclear what this strategy would look like. Within the school itself, teachers also felt removed from the administrative decisions for dealing with bullying, often leading to teachers feeling that task forces might not be apropos, because of their lack of power. Hence, this would suggest that if trainings are to take place across countries, clearly delineating the role of task forces, outlining approaches for dealing with parents, and supporting *ongoing* trainings would provide valuable foundations for teachers.

The cross-cultural approach also highlighted many key social and political differences between England and the US. Namely, the laws dealing with bullying were

very different across contexts. The use of words such as harassment and discrimination (often associated with bullying in the interviews in the US) suggested that teachers had a very different notion of bullying. Teachers in England were afforded more flexibility, based upon the role of the head teacher in shaping policy. Hence, the structuralized US policies of zero tolerance (police in schools, imprisonment in youth, and high expulsion rates) were quite common so as to avoid culpability within an already litigious society (as seen within the *Davis v. Monroe Board of Education* court case). Hence, although the dynamics of bullying may be similar across contexts, it is very important for educational researchers and policy makers to understand the political differences between spaces before the implementation of a bullying policy. Does the approach remain consistent with the current laws surrounding the issues? Some contexts in England may have an easier time adapting since the head teacher is needed for the approval. School governors also play a role, with a strong pressure not to expel students. On the other hand, US schools often require a greater number of stakeholders that could extend even to the police and district attorney's office for more intense forms of bullying.

Another implication for policy is more research done on how teachers are educated about policies already present. US teachers recognized the existence of state bullying laws, yet they could not confirm what they entailed. English teachers might regard safeguarding training as the main procedure for learning what to do in a bullying situation. However, there are questions of whether this training is sufficient for covering all of the types of bullying, especially with the emergence of cyberbullying. The laws around cyberbullying are not necessarily clear and may differ drastically across contexts. This suggests that schools must emphasize the definitions of what constitutes cyberbullying according to state or federal law and then outline appropriate responses. Highlighting similar cases in the past would be helpful for teachers to understand the severity of the issues within their respective social contexts. A historical approach could also display successful navigation of legally mandated procedure within schools. Hence, policy approaches depend on clearly outlining what 'good policy' looks like. If head teachers are given greater power in the local governance framework, it becomes even more important to elucidate past success stories within that specific school. Additionally, promotions of head teachers could correspond with a successful record of conflict

management. These local success stories building off local laws or policies are important for simultaneously emphasizing the severity of the situation as well as increasing the confidence of teachers.

Another implication for the research is clarifying the nature of assessment. In both contexts, schools and governments need better mechanisms for assessing how well schools handle bullying. Teachers often felt that there was no clear feedback, whether they did reported a case of bullying successful. Administrators did not always share information of what happened after the reporting. It was often the informal lunches or discussions between teachers that would lead to more information regarding victims and perpetrators. These informal approaches were helpful, but there was also a question of what the school could do to provide greater support so that teachers could be more familiar with the nature of the bullying in the school. In England, Ofsted created a system of feedback, but some of the levels on the scale for assessing bullying seemed unrealistic, as it was nearly impossible to get a perfect score if that implied getting rid of all cyberbullying. Hence, the research would recommend setting up realistic expectations based upon process and protocol as opposed to results, as it is unclear whether schools actually have the incentives or means to record and clearly document each case of bullying if that information could be used against them in evaluation (England) or a court of law (US).

While bullying and cyberbullying constantly change and expand in scope, it is important to realize that this research project conceptualizes an exploratory approach that outlines future directions for research. This research is important because teachers form unique contributions for lasting change at the local level. A greater understanding of these perspectives and experiences will inform a greater awareness of future alternatives within eclectic school cultures, forming relevant approaches for diverse educational settings. An understanding of the different contexts is necessary for forming unique strategies that will inform and sustain future approaches. The rapid changes of technology, the evolving laws in school governance, and the increase in cultural diversity will lead to many important changes for the future classrooms of both England and the US. The creation of laws around bullying, the training of teachers for how to meet the

requirements of those laws, and a system of assessment for how well schools are meeting these objectives will be important for supporting strong, safe, and responsible schools.

Appendices

Appendix 1 CUREC Application Approval (20 / 6/ 2016)

Application Approval

Title: Teacher Perceptions of Bullying

Researchers: Peter Hurtubise (Nigel Fancourt and Pamela Sammons)

The above application has been considered on behalf of the Departmental Research Ethics Committee (DREC) in accordance with the procedures laid down by the University for ethical approval of all research involving human participants.

I am pleased to inform you that, on the basis of the information provided to DREC, the proposed research has been judged as meeting appropriate ethical standards, and accordingly, approval has been granted.

Please note that CUREC approval does not guarantee access to participants, and it is your responsibility to check whether countries or contexts in which you plan to conduct your research might impose additional requirements.

If your research involves participants whose ability to give free and informed consent is in question (this includes those under 18 and vulnerable adults), then it is advisable to read the following NSPCC professional reporting requirements for cases of suspected abuse

<http://www.nspcc.org.uk/globalassets/documents/information-service/factsheet-child-abuse-reporting-requirements-professionals.pdf>

Should there be any subsequent changes to the project which raise ethical issues not covered in the original application you should submit details to research.office@education.ox.ac.uk for consideration.

Good luck with your research study.

Yours sincerely,

Heath Rose

--

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Appendix 2 Correlations between Survey Items

Table 1:
School Culture Strategy Item Correlations

Strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus (1)	1					
Develop more specific school policies (2)	.29**	1				
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies (3)	.31**	.38**	1			
Establish a task force (4)	.17	.31**	.35**	1		
Adopt anti-bullying lessons (5)	.28**	.31**	.54**	.45**	1	
Provide professional development (6)	.32**	.35**	.39**	.34**	.48**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 2:
Consequence Strategy Item Correlations

Strategy	1	2	3
Increase consequences for cyberbullying (1)	1		
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying (2)	.61**	1	
Increase parental involvement (3)	.36**	.41**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 3:
Bystander Strategy Item Correlation

Strategy	Encourage student bystanders
Encourage students to report bullying	0.49**

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 4:
Expectancy and Instrumentality Item Correlations

Item Description	SVI	SPI	HVI	HPI	GVI	GPI	SVE	SPE	HVE	HPE	GVE	GPE
School Victim Instrumentality (SVI)	1											
School Perpetrator Instrumentality (SPI)	.55**	1										
Home Victim Instrumentality (HVI)	.64**	.58**	1									
Home Perpetrator Instrumentality (HPI)	.52**	.69**	.76**	1								
Group Victim Instrumentality (GVI)	.56**	.54**	.66**	.64**	1							
Group Perpetrator Instrumentality (GPI)	.42**	.59**	.52**	.68**	.64**	1						
School Victim Expectancy (SVE)	.37**	.27**	.29**	.26*	.34**	.33**	1					
School Perpetrator Expectancy (SPE)	.35**	.48**	.34**	.35**	.31**	.38**	.62**	1				
Home Victim Expectancy (HVE)	.33**	.30**	.52**	.49**	.38**	.31**	.61**	.52**	1			
Home Perpetrator Expectancy (HPE)	.27**	.34**	.46**	.52**	.32**	.32**	.51**	.60**	.77**	1		
Group Victim Expectancy (GVE)	.28**	.23	.33**	.36**	.42**	.36**	.53**	.50**	.60**	.55**	1	
Group Perpetrator Expectancy (GPE)	.30**	.36**	.30**	.37**	.38**	.51**	.52**	.66**	.51**	.63**	.67**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 5:
Correlation of Survey Items for Latent Variable of Valence

	School Valence	Home Valence	Group Valence
School Valence	1		
Home Valence	.65**	1	
Group Valence	.52**	.52**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 6:
Correlations of Survey Items for Latent Variable of Response

	School Response	Home Response	Group Response
School Response	1		
Home Response	.58**	1	
Group Response	.44**	.41**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 7: School Culture Strategy Item Correlations
(By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

Strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus (1)	1.00	.38*	0.39*	0.37	0.35	0.39
Develop more specific school policies (2)	0.26*	1.00	0.44**	0.28	.41*	.41*
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies (3)	.28**	.37**	1.00	0.44**	.67**	.50**
Establish a task force (4)	0.09	.34**	.31**	1.00	.52**	.55**
Adopt anti-bullying lessons (5)	.25*	.27*	.50**	.42**	1.00	.54**
Provide professional development (6)	.29**	.32**	.35**	.25*	.45**	1.00

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted), * $p < .05$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 8: *Consequence Strategy Item Correlations*
 (By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

Strategy	1	2	3
Increase consequences for cyberbullying (1)	1	.80**	.51**
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying (2)	.47**	1	.55**
Increase parental involvement (3)	.23*	.29**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted), * $p < .05$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 9: *Bystander Strategy Item Correlations*
 (By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

Strategy	1	2
Encourage Student Bystanders (1)	1	.56**
Encourage Student Bystanders to Report Bullying (2)	.49**	1

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted)

Table 10: Correlations Between Expectancy Factor Items in Expectancy and Instrumentality (By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

Item Description	SVI	SPI	HVI	HPI	GVI	GPI	SVE	SPE	HVE	HPE	GVE	GPE
School Victim Instrumentality (SVI)	1.00	.70**	.71**	.57**	.71**	.53**	.47**	.40	.35	.38	.43	.48**
School Perpetrator Instrumentality (SPI)	.47**	1.00	.64**	.69**	.56**	.63**	.34	.46*	.35	.46*	.29	.46*
Home Victim Instrumentality (HVI)	.59**	.55**	1.00	.75**	.67**	.56**	.38	.25	.55**	.57**	.34	.36
Home Perpetrator Instrumentality (HPI)	.48**	.68**	.76**	1.00	.56**	.70**	.33	.29	.51**	.61**	.27	.40
Group Victim Instrumentality (GVI)	.51**	.52**	.65**	.67**	1.00	.68**	.40	.24	.51**	.38	.55**	.45*
Group Perpetrator Instrumentality (GPI)	.38**	.58**	.50**	.67**	.63**	1.00	.40	.34	.36	.41	.38	.6**
School Victim Expectancy (SVE)	.31	.23	.22	.21	.31**	.30*	1.00	.66**	.66**	.52**	.58**	.53**
School Perpetrator Expectancy (SPE)	.30*	.47**	.35**	.36**	.33**	.40**	.59**	1.00	.35	.64**	.41	.68**
Home Victim Expectancy (HVE)	.29*	.27**	.50**	.47**	.32**	.28*	.57**	.58**	1.00	.66**	.52**	.42
Home Perpetrator Expectancy (HPE)	.22	.29**	.40**	.47**	.29*	.28*	.50**	.59**	.82**	1.00	.34	.60**
Group Victim Expectancy (GVE)	.20	.19	.32**	.39**	.37**	.35**	.50**	.52**	.63**	.65**	1.00	.65**
Group Perpetrator Expectancy (GPE)	.21	.31**	.27	.35**	.34**	.47**	.51**	.65**	.54**	.64**	.67**	1.00

** $p < .01$ (Bonferroni Adjusted), * $p < .05$ (Bonferroni Adjusted),

Table 11:

Correlation of Survey Items for Latent Variable of Valence (By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

	School Valence	Home Valence	Group Valence
School Valence	1	.59**	.52**
Home Valence	.66**	1	.49**
Group Valence	.52**	.53**	1

Table 12:

Correlation of Survey Items for Latent Variable of Valence (By Country: English teachers below diagonal, American teachers above diagonal)

	School Response	Home Response	Group Response
School Response	1	.66**	.27**
Home Response	.54**	1	.50**
Group Response	.52**	.38**	1

Appendix 3 Regression Models for Expectancy Factors and Response (Clustered *SE* except for Between Effects Model)

	Multiple Regression		Random Effects		Between Effects		Fixed Effects (Within)	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
<i>Fixed Part</i>								
β_1 [Constant]	2.77**	(.85)	2.82**	(.76)	2.41**	(.48)	1.87**	.44
β_2 [Valence]	.32**	(.08)	.32**	(.08)	.31**	(.09)	.29**	.08
β_3 [V. Exp.]	.02	(.05)	.02	(.04)	.06	(.08)	.02	.07
β_4 [V. Inst.]	.10*	(.05)	.06	(.04)	.19*	(.08)	.02	.06
β_5 [P. Exp.]	.11	(.08)	.11	(.07)	.02	(.09)	.22**	.08
β_6 [P. Inst.]	.01	(.05)	.05	(.05)	-.07	(.08)	.12	.06
β_7 [Country]	-.43	(.74)	-.45	(.75)	-.19	(.76)		
β_8 [Gender]	-1.37*	(.64)	-1.19*	(.62)	-1.67*	(.67)		
<i>Scenarios</i>								
β_9 [Home]	-.46**	(.05)	-.45**	(.05)			-0.45**	0.05
β_{10} [Group]	-.09	(.05)	-.08	(.05)			-0.08	0.05
<i>Interaction Effects</i>								
Country \times β_2	-.12	(.12)	-.13	(.11)	-.16	(.16)		
Country \times β_5	.22*	(.10)	.24**	(.10)	.21	(.11)		
Gender \times β_2	.18	(.12)	.14	(.11)	.21	(.14)		
Gender \times β_5	.11	(.09)	.11	(.10)	.15	(.10)		
<i>Random Part</i>								
$\sqrt{\psi}$.38			.52 ^a	
$\sqrt{\theta}$.53			.53 ^b	
ρ (teacher)				.35			.49	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, $n=595$ ^a SD for estimated of Level 2 residuals, a_{ij} , ^b SD for estimated Level 1 residuals, e_{ij}

Appendix 4 Friedman's Analysis of Variance

Table 1: Friedman's ANOVA for Seriousness and Response

Overall	Friedman's ANOVA	Kendall	P-Value
Seriousness	2.23	0.01	0.33
Response	31.55	0.08	0.00

Table 2: Friedman's ANOVA for Seriousness, Anger, and Response for English PGCE Teachers

PGCE	Friedman's ANOVA	Kendall	P-Value
Seriousness	0.72	0.004	0.70
Response	11.69	0.06	0.003

Table 3: Friedman's ANOVA for Seriousness, Anger, and Response For English MLT Teachers

MLT	Friedman's ANOVA	Kendall	P-Value
Seriousness	1.25	0.02	0.26
Response	9.21	0.09	0.01

Table 4: Friedman's ANOVA for Seriousness, Anger, and Intervention for US Teachers

USA	Friedman's ANOVA	Kendall	P-Value
Seriousness	0.44	0.003	0.80
Response	11.25	0.09	0.004

Appendix 5 Correlations for Different Expectancy Factors and Response

Table 1: Bonferroni Adjusted Pearson's r for Normal Analysis

All Data	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.38**	.36**	.39**	.51**
Exp with Victim	.30**	.27**	.46**	.16
Inst with Victim	.25**	.13	.43**	.17
Exp with Perpetrator	.37**	.30**	.48**	.26**
Inst with Perpetrator	.26**	.12	.40**	.22*

(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

England	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.42**	.35**	.43**	.58**
Exp with Victim	.26**	.20	.43**	.12
Inst with Victim	.24**	.29	.43**	.21
Exp with Perpetrator	.30**	.26*	.37**	.24*
Inst with Perpetrator	.26**	.07	.40**	.25*

(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

US	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.30**	.39*	.35	.32
Exp with Victim	.40**	.39*	.57**	.24
Inst with Victim	.29**	.29	.48**	.07
Exp with Perpetrator	.51**	.41*	.69**	.29
Inst with Perpetrator	.28**	.21	.42*	.13

(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

Table 2: Bonferroni Adjusted Spearman's Correlation Coefficient for Non-Normal Analysis

All Data	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.41**	.36**	.42**	.51**
Exp with Victim	.32**	.31**	.43**	.22*
Inst with Victim	.22**	.13	.38**	.17
Exp with Perpetrator	.34**	.34**	.41**	.28**
Inst with Perpetrator	.22**	.10	.34**	.20

(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

England	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.44**	.33**	.46**	.56**
Exp with Victim	.26**	.22	.39**	.15
Inst with Victim	.20**	.07	.39**	.18
Exp with Perpetrator	.27**	.28**	.31**	.22
Inst with Perpetrator	.21**	.06	.35**	.21

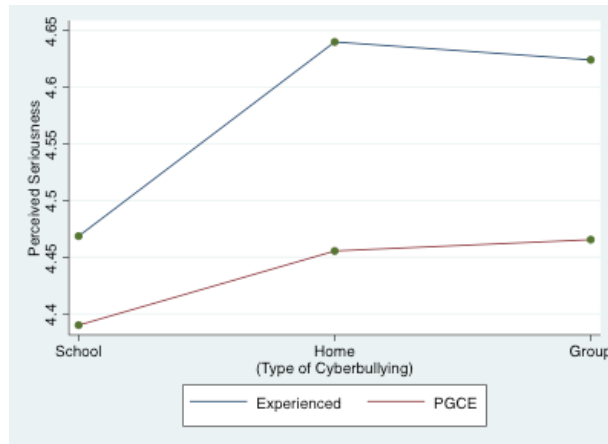
(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

US Teachers	Overall	School	Home	Group
Valence	.35**	.43*	.36	.37
Exp with Victim	.48**	.50**	.53**	.45**
Inst with Victim	.26*	.28	.38	.17
Exp with Perpetrator	.50**	.48*	.59**	.45**
Inst with Perpetrator	.24*	.21	.33	.20

(**p<.01 one sided, *p<.05 one-sided)

Appendix 6 Experience Level and Perceived Seriousness

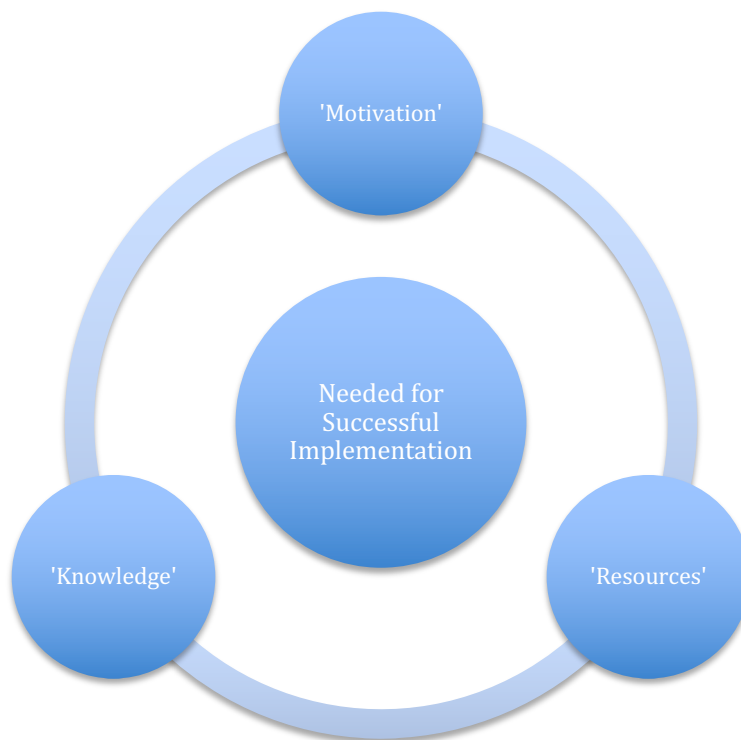
Figure i: Level of Perceived Seriousness compared between Experience Level



Appendix 7 The Importance of Teacher Perceptions

In an attempt to clarify the ‘missing ingredients’ for successful implementations of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) within international contexts (further clarified within Figure 2), Olweus writes that there were three ‘missing ingredients’ in the implementations outside of Norway: ‘Resources’, ‘Knowledge’, and ‘Motivation’ (Olweus and Limber 2010: 132). He presents these three ideas as interrelated, central, and necessary (as depicted in Figure 1). This research project suggests that current bullying research must involve these elements.

Figure 1: ‘Missing Ingredients’ for a Successful Implementation of OBPP (Olweus and Limber 2010: 132)



As can be seen from Appendix 10, teachers within the US and England find themselves in societies treating bullying and punishment in distinct ways. Zero-tolerance policies face a certain set of limitations. Olweus and Limber (2010) focus on recommendations from the American Psychological Association, which focus mostly on teachers as the ‘first line of communication’ for dealing with these problems (APA Zero Tolerance Task Force 2008: 857). As mentioned previously, Olweus and Limber (2010:132) highlight three key areas for successful implementation of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP): ‘knowledge’, ‘resources’, and ‘motivation.’ From such a list, it becomes apparent that teacher perceptions are important, insofar as they can serve to motivate individuals to respond. A number of researchers have studied teacher perceptions of bullying in the last fifteen years (Yoon and Kerber 2003; Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Stauffer et al. 2012; Boulton et al. 2014). A large portion of the research on cyberbullying currently focuses on students and the nature of the bystander effect (Song and Oh 2018; Erreygers, Pabian, Vandebosch, and Baillien 2016; Pabian, Vandebosch, Poels, Van Cleemput, and Bastiaensens 2016; DeSmet, Bastiaensens, Van Cleemput, Poels, Vandebosch, Cardon, and De Bourdeaudhui 2016). Research shows that teachers are very important for reducing bullying in schools, and understanding their perspectives could strengthen bullying reduction efforts (Burger, Dagmer, Sprober, Bauman, and Rigby 2015). This project posits that individuals may perceive bullying differently, and that it is important to understand the perceptions of teachers within the school community and the potential factors of a motivational framework that could influence a willingness to respond.

Teacher responses are quite important for influencing the nature of bullying in schools. Positive teacher-student relations serve as a statistically significant predictor for less victimization in schools (Rosaria Di Stasio, Savage, and Burgos 2016). Research also suggests that developing positive relationships between teachers and students is important for developing the motivation for student bystanders to defend victims (Jungert, Piroddi, and Thornberg 2016). This suggests that students are often influenced by how teachers act and respond to bullying. However, there is evidence that teachers are currently not seen as effective at responding to bullying by students; one study revealed that 61.5% of middle schoolers and 57% of the high schoolers said that that they felt that teachers made

the situation worse when they responded to bullying (Bradshaw, Sawyer, and O'Brennan 2007: 375). Some researchers have even suggested that specific actions such as harsher responses could predict greater bullying (Banzon – Librojo, Garabiles, and Pena Alampay 2017), while more cooperative teacher strategies were deemed by students as more successful in the short and long-term (Wachs, Bilz, Niproschke, and Schubarth 2018). Further research explores how positive school climate relates to less bullying (Mucherah, Finch, White, and Kendra 2018; Ertesvåg and Roland 2015). Teacher responses form an inherent part of school culture, as research has shown that a students' positive perception of a teacher's skill level for dealing with bullying corresponded with less levels of bullying (Veenstra, Lindenberg, Huitsing, Sainio, and Salmivalli 2014).

However, this research is also aware that student perceptions also affect the level of bullying in school. For example, victims sometimes do not report that they are bullied to a teacher, because they feel that doing so would lead to a decreased level of autonomy -- suggesting that the reasons for outreaching to teachers could be facilitated by how victims perceive themselves (Boulton, Boulton, Down, and Sanders 2016). This poses a challenge, especially since verbal bullying seems to be the most visible form of bullying (Gumuseli, Hacifazlioglu, and Cakmak 2014). Nonetheless, teacher perceptions are important because as leaders within school, their perceptions will influence how they respond, and these responses could affect the rate of bullying.

Teacher perceptions -- as a broader field of study -- has extended to other facets of educational research as well, such as curriculum development. In particular, Toh Kok Aun et al. (2006) conducted research on teacher perceptions across four countries. Whilst exploring its importance, Toh Kok Aun et al. (2006:1) wrote an article stating, "Teachers' perceptions are powerful influences on behaviors and we must never underestimate this power that causes their students to act." According to this analysis, educational institutions consist of a set of actions and behaviors -- and those behaviors resulted from a set of preceding perceptions. Many motivational theories suggest that willingness to act depends upon the culture, suggesting that an in-depth understanding of the context could serve as an important foundation for interpreting the likelihood of an intervention (Bandura 2001; Ajzen 2011). In order to understand this context, Toh Kok Aun et al. (2006:2) wrote, "The differential pace of development by different countries,

in particular with their cultural nuances, might account for differences in teachers' perceptions.” One method of analysis emerges from conducting research projects with similar methodologies between different environments -- in order to find overall trends that connect or differ across contexts.

International research presents an opportunity to understand more fully the role and nature of teacher perceptions in bullying responses. Cross cultural studies are beginning to emerge, recommending that intercultural research continue in order to track the dynamic nature with which cyberbullying adapts to different country contexts (Shapka, Onditi, Collie, and Lapid-Lefler 2018; Baek and Bullock 2014; Barlett, Gentile, Anderson, Suzuki, Sakamoto, Yamaoka, and Katsura 2014). This has paved the way for important justifications for comparative international education projects. Some researchers debate whether or not teachers need additional training to deal with bullying. Some large-scale studies reveal that teachers often naturally favor punitive approaches that involve authority (Burger, Dagmer, Sprober, Bauman, and Rigby 2015). Although responding to the bully with authority may be important, responding to the victim, working with parents, and involving the community remain core elements to bullying reduction (Olweus 1993; Olweus and Limber 2010; Axford, Hutchings, Bjornstad, Clarkson and Hunt 2014). It would be important to see whether these intended responses differ across samples from different societies.

The motivational model also suggests that understanding teacher perceptions and notions of collective agency could be important. Bandura (2001:14) writes, “ ... studies have examined the effects of naturally developed beliefs of collective efficacy on the functioning of diverse social systems ... the stronger the perceived collective efficacy, the higher the groups' aspirations and motivational investment in their undertakings...”. This suggests that these studies with diverse samples could clarify the fundamental factors that would drive collective agency. Bandura's emphasis on 'diverse social systems' suggests that different spaces could be explored in order to understand what fundamentally distinguishes them and what would motivate teachers from that context, whilst attempting to improve resiliency. This exploration could elucidate and potentially strengthen the shared agency of individuals within these organizations. Studies have suggested that bullying preparation corresponds with a greater sense of collective agency

(Williams and Guerra 2011). For a more in depth analysis of the alternative research designs for bullying research, please reference Appendix 14. Research is continuing to emphasize the importance of whole school approaches to familiarize teachers with the different facets of becoming a wholly engaged educator (Migliaccio 2015). The perceptions and bias that teachers have within certain situations could very well influence their decisions on how to respond, thereby influencing school culture (Marksteiner, Reinhard, Lettau, and Dickhäuser 2013). Successful responses to bullying would thereby spring from the actions that teachers have, as well as the understandings of appropriate roles that they must fulfill within a greater context.

However, there is a more specific argument when it comes to testing the contextual perspectives of bullying. For example, although bullying exists with a certain definition -- it often adapts to different environments in different ways, which leads researchers to suggest that teachers should be “... further sensitized to different kinds of bullying interventions and educated on how they can support students when they report bullying” (Wachs, Bilz, Niproschke, and Schubarth 2018: 21). This tailored approach to bullying responses should appeal to different perspectives. These perceptions could be particularly unique for teachers from others in the school institution, as studies are suggesting that administrators often adopt a different notion of role and agency for dealing with bullying (Kennedy, Russom, and Kevorkian 2012). Discussions have emerged in terms of how dynamic approaches to school improvement (DASI) could be implemented; more whole-school approaches understand that different schools require different forms of assistance based upon their specific needs and resources (Kyriakides, Creemers, Muijs, Rekers - Mombarg, Papastylianou, Van Petegem, and Pearson 2014). These whole school approaches will become more important since the reasons for bullying often remain quite complicated.

However, the experience of bullying can be shaped at multiple levels within the school. Amy Orange (2018) suggested teacher themselves feel that they can be bullied by administrators for various reasons including power, jealousy, or different styles of teaching. As schools differ across contexts, it would be important to understand how those differences manifest themselves in teacher perspectives in order to make sure that these more dynamic approaches to implementation are relevant to particular

communities. In addition to teachers, victims can have different perceptions of bullying, and these different understandings shape the perspectives of the responses themselves. Even the students themselves can differ in terms of their understanding of the word. Although victims and non-victims tend to be aware of bullying, victims tend to internalize more negative views of the school environment and become more critical of the approaches of the school to deal with bullying (Rigby 2017). If teachers and students adopt different definitions of bullying and interpret responses to it at different levels of the school, a coordinated effort becomes more necessary.

Teacher perceptions and responses remain quite important for defining the nature of the bullying and the appropriate responses. Responses to bullying lead to alternative perceptions at multiple levels of the school: fair treatment by teachers can affect students' conceptions of justice within the world, the overall relationship teachers have with students, and the students' identification with the class (Jiang, Liu, Ding, Zhen, Sun, and Fu 2018). The reactions to bullying leave quite an impact. Emotional support from teachers often leads to greater peer relatedness, corresponding with greater levels of motivation and engagement for students later in the year (Ruzek, Hafen, Allen, Gregory, Mikami, Pianta 2016). Furthermore, emotional support from teachers also corresponds to greater levels of internal value within students (Wentzel, Muenks, McNeish 2017). Teachers affect peer relationships, especially in terms of how they treat and perceive students with low peer status (Hendrickx, Mainhard, Boor-Klip, and Brekelmans 2017). All of this would suggest that teachers have a profound influence on the well-being and actions of students.

Teacher perceptions from samples across cultures are important to understand the unique environmental influences that could yield a willingness to respond. According to Social Cognitive Theory, environmental factors can inherently influence the personal behavioral factors according to the ideas of reciprocal determinism (Bandura 1986, 1989). In relation to environmental factors, Espelage (2013: 124) posits that bullying reduction has not been as successful within the American context relates to the lack of legislation that is "comprehensive" and "enumerated". Studies that have reflected effective implementations to the US took place in Pennsylvania (Olweus, Limber, Wang, Masiello, and Breivik 2018). However, Pennsylvania provides a very different space

South Carolina, which does not have as effective of results (Espelage 2013; Olweus and Limber 2010). This suggests that understanding contexts across different samples might provide useful information to design some kind of teacher training program.

Appendix 8 Exploratory Factor Analyses For English and American Samples

Table 1: Initial Eigenvalues for Different Components of Survey Solutions for English Teachers

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.54	0.24	0.24
2	3.61	0.11	0.35
3	3.07	0.10	0.44
4	2.01	0.06	0.51
5	1.82	0.06	0.56
6	1.42	0.04	0.61
7	1.34	0.04	0.65
8	1.09	0.03	0.68

In the Exploratory Factor Analysis (also known as EFA) for the English sample, 68% of the total variances could be explained by the factors found from the EFA. This study implements Principal Component Factor Analysis (also known as PCFA), where factor loadings were calculated using oblique rotation. Of the 32 items on the survey, a majority had a high λ value. 5 of the 32 items on the survey had values of λ beneath .4, and 81.25% of the loadings had high levels (with λ at or above .6). As mentioned earlier, the researcher originally assumed that the last eleven items of the survey could be classed into one component due to their inherent similarity (perceived effectiveness for dealing with cyberbullying). As can be seen by the following table, a majority of the lower λ values can be found whilst classifying these three components separately. The reason for this is because it is hard to categorize certain types of responses. The original argument in the project suggested that these school strategies, bystander strategies, and consequence strategies could be classed under one component since they repeat the same question (which asks for teachers perceived effectiveness from a list of strategies). One of the factors ('bystander strategies') only had two survey items. If the researcher disregards these differences, the model still would have a sufficient level of explanation for the explanation of the total level of variance. This would still be possible under these conditions because without the final two components (only explaining 7% of the total variance) the model would still account for 61% of the variance, which is a sufficient value. Hair (2014:107) writes that the level of explained variance needs to be at least

60%. Even with the lower λ , it would still be fine to continue the analysis, because as Alan Acock (2013:10) wrote, the higher λ value just suggests that this item “... counts slightly more in generation of the factor score.” There can be theoretical arguments made for why some items may not be centrally connected with the original components. A task force might not be considered a centralized school policy, since it could be formed by a group of teachers. Encouraging a student bystander is not necessarily a construct that would reflect bystander involvement, since those lessons would be adopted more by a centralized school policy. Increasing parental involvement might not be considered connected to consequences if English teachers might consider this more of a centralized school approach occurring with members of the administration over a prolonged period of time. Hence, segmenting the list of strategies forgets the nuances of their interconnection. Many studies have used Cronbach’s alpha as the only measure for strategy effectiveness (Stauffer et al. 2012). For the English data, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .79$ for the teachers showing that the measure for strategy effectiveness was registered as satisfactory if all of the strategies are compiled into one measure.

Table 2: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Solutions for English Teachers

Factor Name	Page No. Item No.	Item Description	Component							
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Instrumentality	Page 1, Item 6	School Victim Instrumentality	.61							
		School Perpetrator Instrumentality	.82							
	Page 1, Item 9	Home Victim Instrumentality	.82							
	Page 2, Item 6	Home Perpetrator Instrumentality	.84							
	Page 2, Item 9	Group Victim Instrumentality	.78							
	Page 3, Item 6	Group Perpetrator Instrumentality	.69							
	Page 3, Item 9	School Victim Expectancy		.74						
	Expectancy	Page 1, Item 5	School Victim Expectancy		.74					

	Page 1, Item 8	School Perpetrator Expectancy		.71					
	Page 2, Item 5	Home Victim Expectancy		.75					
	Page 2, Item 8	Home Perpetrator Expectancy		.85					
	Page 3, Item 5	Group Victim Expectancy		.87					
	Page 3, Item 8	Group Perpetrator Expectancy		.87					
Bystander Strategies	Page 4, Item 4	Encourage students to report bullying			.27				.33
	Page 4, Item 6	Encourage student bystanders			.75				
Seriousness	Page 1, Item 1	School Seriousness				.89			
	Page 2, Item 1	Home Seriousness				.86			
	Page 3, Item 1	Group Seriousness				.38			
Anger	Page 1, Item 2	School Anger					.97		
	Page 2, Item 2	Home Anger					.96		
	Page 3, Item 2	Group Anger					.82		
Response	Page 1, Item 3	School Response						.79	
	Page 2, Item 3	Home Response						.75	
	Page 3, Item 3	Group Response						.37	
School Strategies	Page 4, Item 1	Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus							.62
	Page 4, Item 2	Develop more specific school policies							.63
	Page 4, Item 3	Plan school- wide anti- bullying assemblies							.44
	Page 4, Item 5	Establish a task force			.70				.01
	Page 4, Item 7	Adopt anti- bullying lessons			.72				.35

	Page 4, Item 8	Provide professional development							.70	
Consequence Strategies	Page 4, Item 9	Increase consequences for cyberbullying								.92
		Warn about consequences								.69
	Page 4, Item 10	for cyberbullying								
	Page 4, Item 11	Increase parental involvement								.36

Exploratory Factor Analysis (American Sample):

Table 3: Initial Eigenvalues for Different Components of Survey Solutions for American Teachers

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.75	0.27	0.27
2	4.38	0.14	0.41
3	3.17	0.10	0.51
4	2.10	0.07	0.58
5	1.97	0.06	0.64
6	1.52	0.05	0.68
7	1.28	0.04	0.72

An Exploratory Factor Analysis (henceforth called EFA) was used for the American Sample. Upon calculation, 72% of the total variances could be explained by the factors found from the EFA. This study implements principal component factor analysis (also known as PCFA), where factor loadings were calculated using oblique rotation. Of the 32 items on the survey, a majority had a high λ value. 3 of the 32 items on the survey had values of λ between beneath .4, and 69% of the loadings had high levels (with λ at or above .6). As mentioned earlier, the researcher originally assumed that the last eleven survey items could be classed into one factor due to their similarity before the EFA. The EFA classed the strategies into two components (‘Strategies Focusing on Consequences’ and ‘Strategies adopted within a Central Administration’). School response level seemed less associated with the construct of response. This

difference in association could be due to American teachers having different ideas of how to deal with scenarios between school and home environments. In a slightly more litigious society like America, teachers may consider the administration to have greater culpability whilst school property is being used to bully (within a computer lab), thereby increasing the level of response. Statistics did show that US teachers had a higher level of discrepancy between home and school likelihood of response (with home being significantly lower than school). Hence bullying on cell phones and home computers could be understood as very different from bullying on school computers from a US teacher perspective. The framing of the question is very similar, pertaining to level of response, so the analysis can continue whilst taking into consideration these potential explanations for the lower value. Other studies famous in the field utilize Cronbach's alpha to determine the reliability of a measure whilst considering teacher perspectives of response (Bauman and Del Rio 2006; Yoon and Kerber 2003). For teacher perceived level of response, the measure proved to have registered with good reliability, Cronbach's $\alpha = .72$.

Table 4: Exploratory Factor Analysis for Solutions for American Teachers

Factor Name	Page No. Item No.	Item Description	Component						
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Instrumentality	Page 1, Item 6	School Victim Instrumentality School	.76						
	Page 1, Item 9	Perpetrator Instrumentality	.88						
	Page 2, Item 6	Home Victim Instrumentality Home	.88						
	Page 2, Item 9	Perpetrator Instrumentality	.90						
	Page 3, Item 6	Group Victim Instrumentality Group	.70						
	Page 3, Item 9	Perpetrator Instrumentality	.72						
Expectancy	Page 1, Item 5	School Victim Expectancy School		.78					
	Page 1, Item 8	Perpetrator Expectancy		.67					

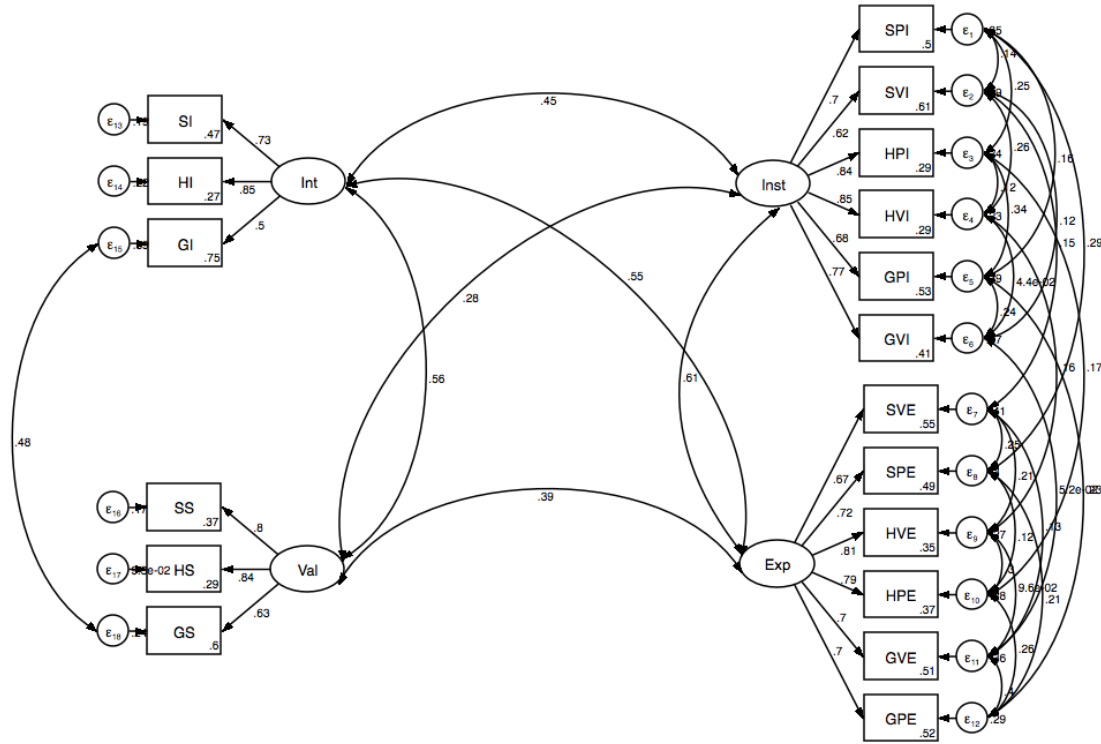
	Page 2, Item 5	Home Victim Expectancy	.37	.34				
	Page 2, Item 8	Home Perpetrator Expectancy	.36	.24				
	Page 3, Item 5	Group Victim Expectancy		.83				
	Page 3, Item 8	Group Perpetrator Expectancy		.67				
Consequence Strategies	Page 4, Item 9	Increase consequences for cyberbullying			.87			
	Page 4, Item 10	Warn about consequences for cyberbullying			.85			
	Page 4, Item 11	Increase parental involvement			.70			
	Page 4, Item 4	Encourage students to report bullying			.49			
	Page 4, Item 6	Encourage student bystanders			.54			
School Strategies	Page 4, Item 1	Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus			.62			
	Page 4, Item 2	Develop more specific school policies			.47			
	Page 4, Item 3	Plan school- wide anti- bullying assemblies			.70			
	Page 4, Item 5	Establish a task force			.49			
	Page 4, Item 7	Adopt anti- bullying lessons			.94			
	Page 4, Item 8	Provide professional development			.49			
Seriousness	Page 1, Item 1	School Seriousness					.78	
	Page 2, Item 1	Home Seriousness					.70	
	Page 3, Item 1	Group Seriousness					.63	
Anger	Page 1, Item 2	School Anger					.71	

	Page 2, Item 2	Home Anger						.94	
	Page 3, Item 2	Group Anger						.91	
Response	Page 1, Item 3	School Intervention					.38		.15
	Page 2, Item 3	Home Intervention							.53
	Page 3, Item 3	Group Intervention							.94

Appendix 9 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Expectancy Factors

Figure 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Expectancy Factors with Standardized Loadings (Table 3.11 Provides Item Descriptions)²¹



$\chi^2 (104) = 184.25, CFI = .96; RMSEA = .062, 90\%, CI (.047, .077);$
 CFI = Comparative Fix Index; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation;
 CI = 90% Confidence Interval.

The problem with moving straight into a typical Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) within this next research topic pertains to the scenario-based nature of the survey design. Tim Brown (2006: 213) writes about one of the potential challenges associated with CFA, “A common limitation of applied research is that the dimensionality and validity of constructs are evaluated in a cross-sectional fashion using a single measurement scale.” This becomes particularly problematic within scenario-based

²¹ Note on Acronyms in Figure1: Int = Likelihood of Response, Val = Valence, Inst = Instrumentality, Exp = Expectancy, SI = Likelihood of Response in School, HI = Likelihood of Response in Home, GI = Likelihood of Response in Group, SPI = School Perpetrator Instrumentality, SVI = School Victim Instrumentality, SS = School Seriousness, HS = Home Seriousness, GS = Group Seriousness, HPI = Home Perpetrator Instrumentality, HVI = Home Victim Instrumentality, GPI = Group Perpetrator Instrumentality, GVI = Group Victim Instrumentality, SVE = School Victim Expectancy, SPE = School Perpetrator Expectancy, HVE = Home Victim Expectancy, HPE = Home Perpetrator Expectancy, GVE = Group Victim Expectancy, GPE = Group Perpetrator Expectancy.

research. The survey items pertaining to Expectancy and Instrumentality present clearly interrelated questions that could correlate outside of the latent expectancy factors. The reader may wonder how expectancy and instrumentality differ inherently from the other survey items. Both of these constructs differ in that they pertain directly to ‘situated actions’, selected by the survey participant. This is critical for Vroom’s factors of Expectancy and Instrumentality, which focus on perceptions of task. Whilst ‘subjective norms’ and perceived behavioral context become important for Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen 2012), the researcher suggests that this would be very challenging to research across different cultures, since such notions could radically differ between societies (thereby undermining construct validity). Hence, the researcher opted for a focus on teacher perceptions of a selected task within the quantitative surveys in order to preserve the validity of the latent variables measured across cultures. However, in order to ensure that the researcher could glean specific expectancy factors from similar scenarios, the researcher asked interrelated questions. As mentioned previously, each of these actions is evaluated within a specific environment (school cyberbullying, home cyberbullying, and group cyberbullying on a cell phone), and the teacher is asked about expectancy factors for the perpetrator *and* then for the victim.

The reader may wonder why the researcher would ever desire to add such a level of specificity within the surveys. The reason for this has to do with the multifaceted nature of understanding different factors of bullying responses – such as level of confidence in one’s ability for handling a situation in a designated place with specific individuals. This methodology differs from other research projects simply asking about overall confidence (because the researcher recognizes that bullying scenarios involve a set of actions requiring different knowledge, skills, and abilities between the victim and the perpetrator). As seen from the literature review, dealing with the victim remains just as important as dealing with the bullying in order to address many of the long-term impacts (Copeland et al. 2013; Wolke et al. 2013). For example, a teacher may feel comfortable dealing with a bully, but may not feel the same level of confidence whilst consoling a victim. This nuance would not be recognized if the researcher did not ask questions about victims and perpetrators, as suggested by the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) study.

So, the reader might wonder how this complexity can be designed in a confirmatory factor analysis without distorting the central focus of the latent variables (Vroom’s different factors: expectancy, instrumentality and valence). The first step is to be aware of the nature of the survey items that focused on ‘task perceptions’ (expectancy and instrumentality). It would be difficult to find the interconnections by merely reading the survey items; so, this next list will color code the constructs within task-based (expectancy and instrumentality) questions:

1. Expectancy with Perpetrator of School Cyberbullying
2. Expectancy with Victim of School Cyberbullying
3. Expectancy with Perpetrator of Home Cyberbullying
4. Expectancy with Victim of Home Cyberbullying
5. Expectancy with Perpetrator with Group Mobile Situation
6. Expectancy with Victim with Group Mobile Situation
7. Instrumentality with Perpetrator of School Cyberbullying
8. Instrumentality with Victim of School Cyberbullying
9. Instrumentality with Perpetrator of Home Cyberbullying
10. Instrumentality with Victim of Home Cyberbullying
11. Instrumentality with Perpetrator with Group Mobile Situation
12. Instrumentality with Victim with Group Mobile Situation

It is predicted that a high level of correlation will emerge just due to the presentation of the scenarios, which should not factor into the overall correlation between the latent variables of expectancy theory. As the reader may notice, there are inherent similarities between these different survey items, just by the repetition of the color sequence. For example, a survey item pertaining to expectancy for dealing with school cyberbullying might be highly correlated with expectancy for dealing with home cyberbullying since they share many similarities in terms of the different components of the framing of the question. Hence, this suggests that there are three different levels of similarity:

1. The Factor (Expectancy or Instrumentality)
2. The Receiver of the Teacher’s Action (Perpetrator or Victim)
3. The Situation (School, Home, or Group Mobile)

One idea is to connect all the ideas sharing the same component. For example, all home scenarios would have correlated error terms; all group mobile situations would also

have correlated error terms. However, this would provide too many interrelations that would be unnecessary. For example, not all constructs would be interrelated just because they occur in the same place.

As an alternative, the researcher suggests that all survey items sharing two out of the three factors named above should correlate their error terms. For example, this would mean that all survey items asking for an expectancy measure for perpetrators should be correlated. The logic of this would be that an individual who is dealing with a cyberbully may have a similar level of confidence whether or not that cyberbully is at home or at school. This will present a better opportunity to ensure that the actual correlations between latent variables are true, and not reflections of underlying correlations that are not actually present. This model will present a more robust representation of convergent validity, because the latent variables of such a confirmatory factor analysis would account for variances that were inherent within the similar framing of the questions, thereby lessening the chance of distorting correlation between latent variables.

If correlation tests are run between all of the survey items under expectancy and instrumentality, it can be seen that there is a high level of correlation between many of these items (as shown in Appendix 2). For example, 32 of the correlations prove moderate (defined as $r > .50$). The above framework proposes that 24 would have high correlations due to the similar nature of the scenarios presented. A total of 21 out of the 32 moderate correlations were accurately predicted using the above framework, meaning that this scenario based framework of similar question framing accurately guessed 65.6% of the permutations of correlations of moderate significance. Out of the 24 that were selected, three were not deemed moderate ($r < .50$). Therefore, 21 (87.5%) of the predicted correlations had $r > .50$, based upon similar framing of questions. Hopefully, this model will respect the inherent correlations present within the analysis, thereby reducing any distortion of correlation between latent constructs, which proves central to the analysis.

Appendix 10 Comparison of the US and England

Similarities and Differences between US and England

Comparing teacher perspectives in the United States and England forms a meaningful research project. English is spoken in both countries and there are many economic and social commonalities, providing a foundation for exploring possible differences in how the cultures define and deal with bullying. England and the United States share many economic, social, and educational similarities. Measurements of inequality highlight the growing discrepancy between rich and poor within both countries. After citing some of the standard measurements of inequality (high Gini coefficients in both countries, earnings both plummeting drastically and consistently after the financial crisis, similar unemployment rates, etc.), Cable (2017) argues that inequality acutely affects England and the United States. Despite the widening level of inequality, both England (HDI score = .91) and the US (HDI score = .92) simultaneously maintain high and nearly identical Human Development Index Scores (Human Development Report, UNDP 2016). Average life expectancy also proves quite similar (United States = 79.2 years, England = 80.8); mean years of schooling also remain comparable (United States = 13.2 years, England = 13.3 years) (Ibid). At the same time, both England and the US experienced similar social trends with a new wave of populism -- centering on separatist, xenophobic rhetoric, eventually leading to the Trump Election and Brexit. In addition to these multiple similarities, both societies share very similar educational trends. For example, Turner (2011) writes that both the US and English educational systems are dealing with “charter schools”, “national curriculum and testing”, “parental choice”, and “site-based management.” Hence, at the school level, students and teachers observe similar trends in terms of the central policies affecting school culture and teacher perceptions.

The Differences Between US and England

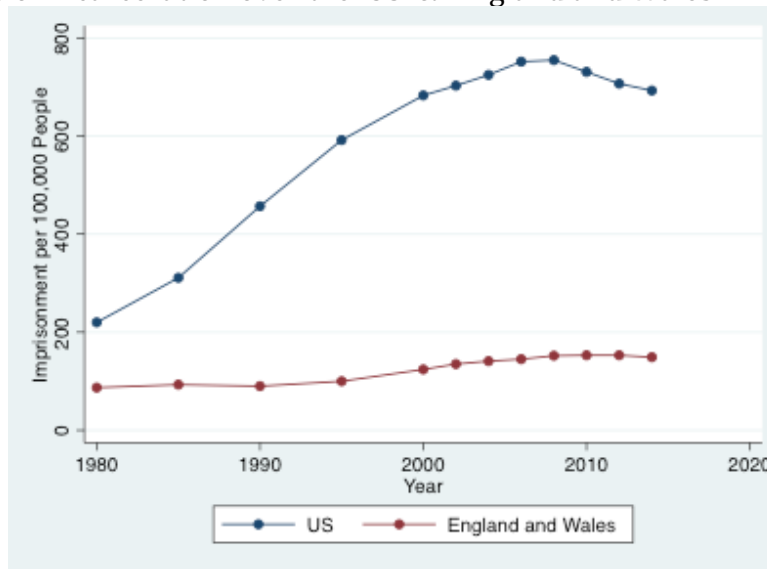
However, there is one very important distinction between these two societies: zero tolerance policies. Teachers across both nations probably understand the deleterious effects of bullying; however, processes for dealing with conflict inherently differ. Whilst

the US bullying laws stem from zero tolerance that vary by state, the United Kingdom creates policies encouraging more restorative practices. The UK's Youth Justice Board funded restorative justice pilots and trained many school members in these practices (Johnstone 2011: 145). Although the UK has national laws regarding bullying, these laws specifically state that the schools themselves are the ones with the responsibility of creating a "behaviour policy" (Department for Education 2016). There is no debate over whether bullying should include actions outside of the school grounds; Head Teachers of state schools are given the "legal power" to ensure safety in all contexts, regardless of whether it is on school property (Ibid).

A Focus on England

These policies stem from distinctive histories, delineating separate punishments. In England, within the 1960s, 'The Children and Young Person Act' promoted progressive visions for the youth justice system, heralding an emphasis on increasing the age of criminal proceedings for youth and bullies, connecting social workers, educators, parents and medical professionals to create multifaceted responses for young people; however, the conservative government of the early 1970s led to partial implementation, thereby precluding any major changes to the youth justice system (Cavadino, Dignan, and Mair 2013: 260). It was not until the early 1980s that Margaret Thatcher (similar to Ronald Reagan) started to take a tougher stance within speeches and writings (for a more in depth coverage of the speeches of Reagan and Thatcher during this critical decade, please reference Appendix 15). Despite the tough stance, Thatcher's neoliberal policies led to *less* incarcerations among youth, "reducing overall expenditures" (Hendrick 2015: 12-13). Over the course of a five-year period, the number of boys (ages of 14-16) in detention facilities reduced from 7,473 to 3,689 (Mathews 2009: 160). Ironically, Reagan and Thatcher both supported neoliberal policies, yet the implementation translated itself differently over the same decade: Thatcher sought to reduce public spending, whereas American conservatives privatized youth detention facilities with the private company Correction Corporation of America (CCA). The following graph hopes to highlight how the overall incarceration rate within the US rose rapidly during the 1980s, whilst England maintained the same rate of incarceration overall.

Figure 1: Rate of Incarceration over the 'US' & 'England and Wales'



Source: Calculated using data from International Centre for Prison studies, World Prison Brief, 2016.

Within England, less money invested in the youth justice system led to a radical decrease in the number of incarcerated students whilst streamlining the judicial processes (as represented within the 'Children Act' of 1989), which combined 'civil care' and 'criminal' court cases for young offenders (Cavadino et al. 2013: 261). The Children's Act of 1989 also reduced costs by granting social workers 'clearer guidance' and 'greater statutory duties', so as to reduce a dependence on an expensive court system (Fionda 2005: 254).

However, during this same time period in which the judicial system sought a simplified model, an important report emerged, which would shape how the UK government conceived of its interventions with violent youth and bullies. Schools were granted a greater power to deal with troubled children, because of the Elton Report in 1989, publishing an analysis which posited that school experiences were framed through relationships with peers and teachers, thereby shaping the level of violence; punitive approaches were deemed as leading to negative results (Cowie, Dawn, & Sharp 2003: 267). Whilst the US passed legislation that would ensure a rapid increase in school expulsions, England simultaneously developed pastoral support programs (providing 3000 GBP to support challenged students whilst changing schools) (Cowie, Dawn, &

Sharp 2003: 268). Hence, England's policies focused on creating multifaceted support strategies, trusting teachers and administrators to deal with disciplinary and restorative practices among their students. Governmental research focused primarily on preventative measures, which culminated in 'The Crime and Disorder Act' of 1998 and the 'Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act' of 1999 – requiring parents to seek greater support, advancing the needs of victims through a restorative justice framework, and fostering early interventions so as to prevent youth offences (Cowie, Dawn, & Sharp 2003: 266-268). This very important act introduced the "Referral Court Order", moving away from the youth courts, instead implementing a *mandatory* 'restorative panel' of volunteers from the community, involving the victim, the perpetrator, as well as supporters of these two individuals so as to draft a contract meeting the victim's needs (Wallis 2014: 61). The Legal Aid, Sentencing and Punishment of Offenders Act (2012) further dismantled a system of 'final warnings', instead focusing on 'youth cautioning', and the Home Office further encouraged the development of 'Neighborhood Justice Panels' within the paper '*More Efficient Responses to Anti-Social Behaviour*' (Arthur 2017: 34). The trend over time has led to more sustainable, local implementation, focused on restorative practices as opposed to retribution.

A Focus on the United States

However, the United States set policies pertaining to bullying and school aggression quite differently under the auspices of zero tolerance. Olweus specifically cites these zero tolerance policies as main obstacles for the implementation of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) (Olweus and Limber 2010). US policymakers erected a massive system of incarceration for youth, requiring 6 billion dollars of federal funding to sustain itself (Simson 2014: 521). In addition, parents of at risk youth were experiencing a rapid increase in incarceration, affecting 1,700,000 minors across the US population (Arditti 2012: 4). The percentage of the population incarcerated within the US is much larger than that of England and is represented within the table below:

Table 1: Prisons Population in 2005 and 2010 by Country

Country	2005		2010	
	Prison Population	Prison Rate*	Prison Population	Prison Rate*
United States	2,195,471	739	2,270,142	731
England and Wales	75,979	133	84,725	150

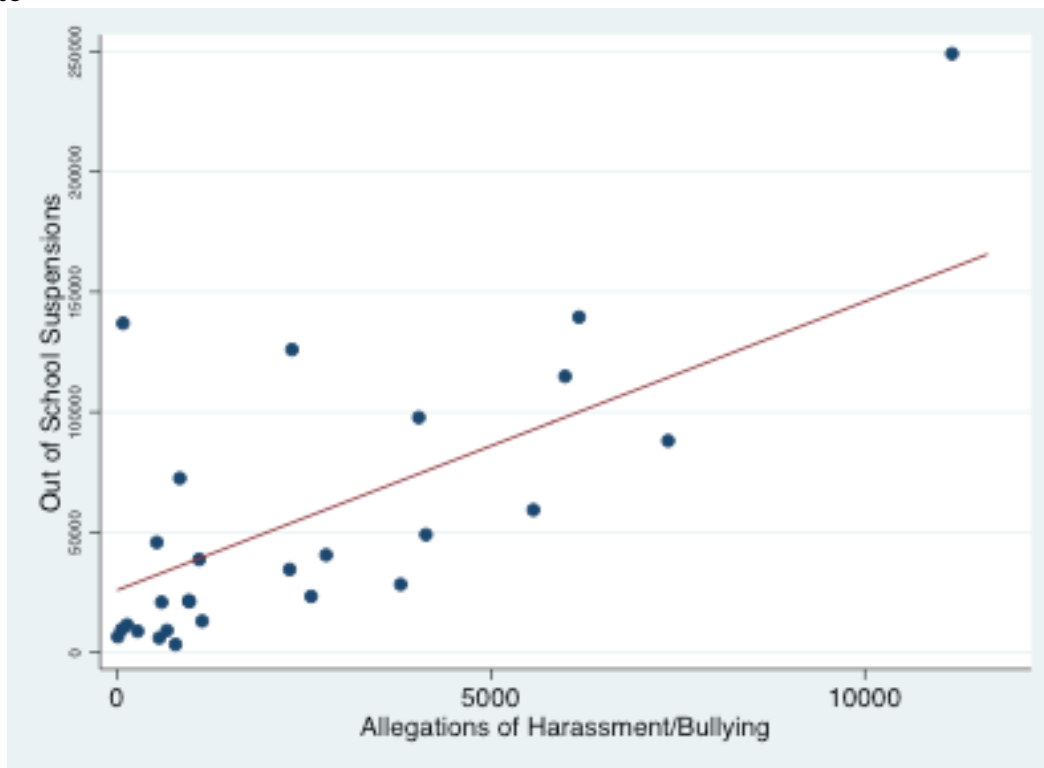
* *per 100,000 people*, Adapted from Walsmley (2016)

Strategies central to the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (such as ‘working with parents’) become particularly problematic when many children have imprisoned family members. The retributive methods for dealing with conflict in the US (such as three strikes laws, the death penalty, and zero tolerance) steer policy makers away from implementing restorative practices. For example, Simson (2014: 506) analyzes the overall context of violence and bullying within US schools, “Punitive school discipline procedures have increasingly taken hold in America's schools. While they are detrimental to the wellbeing and to the academic success of all students, they have proven to disproportionately punish minority students, especially African American youth.” Yet, the question becomes why is there a rising level of school discipline – especially suspension? What distinguishes the US from England in how policies are set?

The roots of zero tolerance emerged fifty years ago from a commission on crime drafted by the Johnson Administration, which eventually published a document that highlighted how young men from the ages of 16-24 were responsible for a great portion of crime in America (“The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society” 1967). Most of the policy responses at the time were rehabilitative, yet a Supreme Court case shaped the way in which schools and local jurisdictions could deal with bullying. Whilst English schools progressively developed a system of greater local autonomy (as seen within the ‘Youth Justice and Criminal Evidence Act’), school disciplinary processes centralized into the US court systems ever since the 1970s. In particular, the Supreme Court ruled that students must be granted due process before they could be expelled from school (*Goss v. Lopez*); what began as a case originally protecting a student’s right to a fair trial eventually undermined school autonomy -- as school disciplinary measures depended more upon juvenile courts to divvy out punishments after harsher sentencing (Simson 2014: 508). After a series of school-based shootings within the 1990s, Clinton signed the ‘Gun-Free School Act’, which required the “mandatory one-year expulsion of a student

who committed specified fire arms offenses” (Simson 2012: 509). Unfortunately, this same set of laws set a legal precedent for zero tolerance, later applied to other infractions having nothing to do with gun possession (Ibid). In addition to the harsher penalties of the 1990’s, victims of bullying started prosecuting school boards for not intervening in cases of extreme victimization, thereby leading to an incentive for US schools to adopt more aggressive policies to end bullying through expulsion (Davis v. Monroe County Board of Education 1999). The figure below highlights the correlation between allegations of harassment/bullying by state with the number of out of school suspensions.

Figure 2: Allegations of Harassment/Bullying and Out of School Suspensions by State



Source: Calculated using data from U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, 2013-14.

At first glance, this hyper punitive approach would suggest that such policies would support victims (by removing supposed bullies from the school context). However, Olweus and Limber (2010) highlight how zero tolerance policies prevent successful bullying interventions, citing the American Psychological Association, which states,

“Zero tolerance policies may negatively affect the relationship of education with juvenile justice and appear to conflict to some degree with current best knowledge concerning adolescent development” (APA Zero Tolerance Task Force 2008: 852). This overemphasis on punishment instead of prevention increases the rates of expulsions from schools, and local law enforcement agencies have been called to monitor school campuses. Simson (2014: 518) highlights how police often patrol hallways, “resulting in increasingly large numbers of school-based arrests.” As a result, the very presence of law enforcement officers suggests that the idea or notion of justice does not belong to members of the school community (as suggested by the UK policy). Democracy and community decision making for dealing with problems of violence means potential liability for school boards, instead of an opportunity for growth. However, the increased importance of punitive measures springs from an underlying logic of the American educational system as a whole. Ever since No Child Left Behind (NCLB), educational funding springs from “... complying with stringent, and numbers-driven requirements” (Simson 2014: 520). The school as an organization has no incentive to spend time and resources addressing a problem, which inherently does not lead to greater ‘numbers-driven’ results. Hence, expulsion lends itself as a quick and simple decision, providing a very cost-effective strategy for removing ‘troublemakers.’

Appendix 11 Assumptions of the Multilevel Regression Models

In order to proceed with the previously stated regression models, it is important to first review the different assumptions from the models:

- **Continuous Dependent Variable:** For the purposes of the research, the dependent variable used is the 'likelihood of response.' The analysis will assume that likelihood of response marks a continuous variable because there are five equal scale steps.
- **Two or more Independent Variables:** There are multiple independent variables. Country, gender, and type of scenario were categorical variables. However, there were five continuous variables: valence, instrumentality for perpetrator, instrumentality for victim, expectancy for perpetrator, and expectancy for victim.
- **Independence of Observations:** It is assumed that there is independence of observations. One of the reasons for the preference of the multilevel models over a regular multiple regression or a correlation analysis is to preserve independence of the variables. Nesting the scenarios within individuals is a way of taking into consideration the fact that a survey participant may answer questions similarly across questions. Another way of exploring this is through the Durbin Watson test. Durbin-Watson d-statistic (9, 595) = 1.48.
- **Assumption of Linearity:** The models assume that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables. The regression models will clarify the statistical significance of this relation.
- **Homoscedasticity:** The next assumption is one of equal variance of the residuals. This means that each level of the scale steps for the predictor, there should be equal variance for the residual. However, this assumption is not met, as can be seen with the Breusch-Pagan / Cook-Weisberg test for heteroskedasticity: $\chi^2(1) = 41.62, p < .05$. What this means is that the Null Value of constant variance is not met. This is why the multiple regression implemented robust models, with responses in the sample clustered by teacher. Additionally, the fixed effects, between effects, and random effects models also have standard errors that are clustered by teacher.

- **Multicollinearity:** This tries to determine whether or not there is a linear association within the predictor variable. The way to do this is through finding the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for each of the predictor variables. Since the largest VIF is smaller than 10, the analysis can continue. Below is a Table 3.15 lists all of the VIF statistics.

Table 1: VIF Statistics

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Valence	2.21	0.45
V. Exp.	2.13	0.47
V. Inst.	1.98	0.50
P. Exp.	1.88	0.53
P. Inst.	1.09	0.92
Country	1.07	0.93
Gender	1.07	0.94
Scenario	1.01	0.99
Mean VIF	1.55	

- **No Significant Outliers:** After a brief review from Appendix 22, it appears that there are no outliers that should be removed from the dataset before the analysis.
- **Residuals are Normally Distributed:** In order to test this assumption, a graph of the residuals and the kernel density plot can be shown. From the graph shown below in Figure 3.3, it appears that the residuals are normally distributed, although there is a slight negative skew. Additionally, it is important to note that the analysis is also using robust standard error that are clustered by teacher in order to make the results more relevant to the distribution of the data.

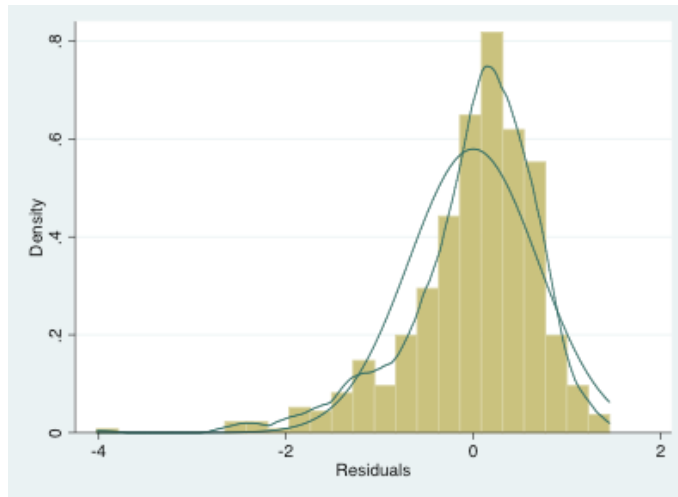


Figure 1: Exploring Residuals and Kernel Density Plot

Appendix 12 Multiple Regression Models Using Multiple Imputation

	Multiple Regression		Random Effects		Between Effects		Fixed Effects (Within)	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
Fixed Part								
β_1 [Constant]	1.66**	.32	1.79**	.31	1.23	.33	1.89**	.43
β_2 [Valence]	.40**	.06	.35**	.05	0.47**	.07	0.26**	.07
β_3 [V. Exp.]	.01	.05	.02	.04	-.03	.08	.03	.06
β_4 [V. Inst.]	.10*	.05	.07	.05	.19	.08	.03	.06
β_5 [P. Exp.]	.25**	.05	.25**	.05	0.28**	.09	0.23**	.08
β_6 [P. Inst.]	.02	.05	.06	.05	-.08	.08	.13	.07
β_7 [Country]	-.14	.08	-.13	.08	-.15	.08		
β_8 [Gender]	-.14	.07	-.14*	.07	-.12	.07		
Scenarios								
β_9 [Home]	-0.49**	.05	-.48**	.05			-.47**	.05
β_{10} [Group]	-.11*	.05	-.11*	.05			-.11*	.05
Random Part								
$\psi^{1/2}$.38				.52 ^a	
$\theta^{1/2}$.55				.55 ^b	
ρ (teacher)			.32				.47	
ρ (scenario)			.68				.53	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, $n=610$, ^a SD for estimated of Level 2 residuals, α_j , ^b SD for estimated Level 1 residuals, ε_j

Appendix 13 Random Effects MLE for Responses

	Null Model		Expectancy Variables		Full Model	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
Fixed Part						
β_1 [Constant]	4.39**	(.04)	1.35**	(.25)	1.77**	(.26)
β_2 [Valence]			.36**	(.05)	.36**	(.05)
β_3 [V. Exp.]			.04	(.05)	.01	(.04)
β_4 [V. Inst.]			.04	(.04)	.07	(.04)
β_5 [P. Exp.]			.26**	(.05)	.25**	(.05)
β_6 [P. Inst.]			.06	(.05)	.05	(.05)
β_7 [Country]					-.12	(.08)
β_8 [Gender]					-.13	(.07)
<i>Scenarios</i>						
β_9 [Home]					-.46**	(.05)
β_{10} [Group]					-.09	(.05)
Random Part						
$(\psi)^.5$.51		.38		.39	
$(\theta)^.5$.64		.58		.53	
$\rho(\text{teacher})$.39		.30		.35	
$\rho(\text{scenarios})$.61		.70		.65	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, n=595

Appendix 14 Bullying Research Themes

A Needed Focus of Bullying Research

As can be seen from the previous analysis, bullying continues to manifest and adapt to different contexts. It would seem that responses to bullying seem quite pressing, yet a methodology would need to emerge that could connect with this specific need. Here are three potential designs:

1. **Meta-Analytic Studies for Bullying Interventions:** Working on another meta-analytic study would afford teachers generalizable findings across different cultures. Merrell et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis combining 16 studies from different countries for 15,386 students over a 25-year period. The project yielded helpful findings, such as only about a third of the outcomes after the intervention were impactful, leading to the statement, “The majority of outcomes evidenced no meaningful change, positive or negative.” (Merrell et al. 2008: 26). However, there are some challenges, because there is no common agreement internationally over whether interventions in fact have little to no effect. For example, Jiménez-Barbero et al. (2016) claimed the exact opposite after their meta-analytic study; they claimed that there were changes as a result of bullying interventions. One of the reasons for the differing answers came down to disparate methodologies. For example, the latter strategy started with 12,262 studies eventually whittled down to 12 studies (which had Randomized Control Trials, post test data, and relevant titles). The process of choosing 1 study from 1000 original studies does present some methodological challenges, especially since comparing the results between different types of interventions within the same study remains quite difficult. Additionally, the multiple studies already conducted reveal that many educational researchers are currently focusing on the effect sizes of bullying interventions.
2. **Assess a Bullying Intervention:** This is an advantageous design because it ensures that the results can be tested within a specific context. The researcher could also test counterfactuals, thereby making claims of causal inference; the

study could also confirm findings already made in the field. However, the problem remains that these studies already exist (Cowie et al. 2003: 268-269) and the findings are not necessarily generalizable to other contexts outside of England, unless they become a part of a larger meta-analytic study (as mentioned in the previous point). It seems as if according to the literature, many of these interventions are quite effective (Axford, Hutchings, Bjornstad, Clarkson and Hunt 2014; Nocentini and Menesini 2016). Yet Hawley and Williford (2014:3) point out that “ineffective” and “reactive” responses lead to different results. Hence, it would seem that the educational researchers should take a broader perspective, focusing on teacher perceptions and motivation at an individual response level within specific contexts, in order to ensure that efforts become relevant and credible to the particular setting. Studies have shown that traditional bullying prevention programs can reduce cyberbullying as well (Gradinger, Yanagida, Strohmeier, and Spiel 2015). Yet it is still unclear whether teachers have adequate preparation to deal with cyberbullying once they do hear of its existence. A research project on teacher perceptions that directly deals with cyberbullying addresses a gap in the field, that could help to understand what type of educational program would be needed based upon the expressed interests of educators.

- 3. Teacher Perceptions of Bullying in Schools:** Whilst the previous two strategies focused on seeking the effectiveness of interventions, this research design differs in that it does not focus on a particular intervention. Teachers are critical for responses to bullying, as they serve as authority figures within the school community that can often initiate the response to bullying. As mentioned in the literature review, Olweus (1993) framed effective strategies at the school, classroom, and individual levels and researched the effectiveness of these strategies within Norway. Olweus and Limber (2010) directly connect the mixed results of the OBPP implementation to a lack of motivation by individuals within the schools, suggesting that an understanding of motivational perspectives would be helpful. As bullying responses often expand to all levels of the school, this research design would posit that the *willingness* and the *ability* of teachers to act

for a sustained period of time supports sustained action. Hence, instead of asking about the most effective strategy, the more appropriate question would become, ‘Why would teachers get involved?’ As can be seen from the previous analysis, teachers within England and the United States could possibly perceive bullying differently, due to the surrounding conditions. Hence, the exploratory design of the research could provide a powerful framework that could interpret the ways in which personal factors of the teachers related to their environments (Bandura 1989: 1177). It is important to understand teachers before an implementation and to interpret the different factors that could potentially lead to a response. Previous research already suggests that teachers may have low confidence when encountering cyberbullying, and these responses could drastically differ within cyberbullying situations (Macaulay, Betts, Stiller, and Kellezi 2018: 10). Overall, this option presents an important contribution, because it seeks to understand why teachers respond with a motivational model within samples of teachers from England and the US.

Appendix 15 The Framing of Youth Justice between England and US

Differences emerge from the identification of what constitutes an appropriate response to youth violence across England and the United States. Political speeches particularly reflect the sentiments of a larger public -- fulfilling the simultaneous roles of *framing* the political discourse as well as *representing* the ideologies of a mobilized constituency. The youth justice system and responses to bullying in schools thereby becomes a part of a much larger political discourse, defining and reevaluating the powers vested within schools to seek restitution, retribution, or resolution among students.

The greatest shifts in the youth justice systems appear within America and England during the political leadership of Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher. Both took very harsh stances against crime within their political speeches, yet these words led to radically different policies. This period of ‘neoliberal overhaul’ created vast changes to the youth justice system, drastically shifting the ways in which solutions to violence in schools could be framed and structured. However, Reagan and Thatcher obviously held profoundly different interpretations of the same Neoliberal principles advanced by Friedrich Hayek. Reagan supported harsher sentencing, thereby creating more privatized prisons -- increasing the US prison population drastically amongst youth. Thatcher, on the other hand, supported less funding for youth justice systems, attempting to reduce public expenditures. One way to explore the framing of these distinctions emerges from their speeches.

Speeches of Reagan addressing Crime: “Radio Address to the Nation on Crime and Criminal Justice Reform” September 11, 1982

Reagan oversaw a rapid increase of privatized prisons and incarceration rates, heralding an entrenched political system of harsher sentencing and zero tolerance that would still impact the United States today. Statistics depict a rapid increase in terms of youth incarceration as well as US prison population as a whole. Upon a review of the speeches of Ronald Reagan, it becomes obvious that he frames crime as a disease, “We live in the midst of a crime epidemic that took the lives of more than 22,000 people last year and has touched nearly one-third of American households, costing them about \$8.8

billion per year in financial losses” (Reagan 1982). Instead of highlighting the criminal justice system’s ability to improve, he frames the American judicial landscape as a ‘sick’ system that has caught an ‘epidemic.’ He frames this disease in terms of *physical* and *economic* harms, equating the loss of money with the loss of life. There is no real explanation of crime, other than a repeated term ‘the hardened criminal’. He writes, “It’s time to get these hardened criminals off the street and into jail. The primary responsibility for dealing with these career criminals must, of course, rest with local and State authorities” (Reagan 1982). Such solutions he chooses (such as mass incarceration and zero tolerance policies) operate under a set of specific premises, because the framing suggests that criminals need to be stored instead of restored. He blames the courts for this ineffective system, “Nine out of ten Americans believe that the courts in their home areas aren’t tough enough on criminals. Another eight out of ten Americans believe that our criminal justice system does not deter crime. And these figures have gone up drastically in the last ten or fifteen years” (Reagan 1982). The fascinating point about his arguments regarding the legal system has nothing to do with whether the courts are effective or ineffective, but rather whether people perceive them to be useful. This populist sentiment privileges the opinion of the masses as opposed to a set of logical guidelines that could deem the worthiness of interventions deemed necessary at the time. However, Reagan does not link crime to other common trends during the 1970s (such as rapid increase to gun accessibility). As a matter of fact, he makes no reference to the word ‘gun’ once in his speech about crime (instead emphasizing the word criminal nearly a dozen times). Reagan’s solution rests in harsher sentencing: “The day after tomorrow, Monday, I will send to the Congress another package of major anticrime measures. These will include suggested revisions of the exclusionary rule. Now, this is the rule that can force a judge to throw out of court on the basis of a small technicality an entire case, no matter how guilty the defendant or how heinous the crime” (Reagan 1982). He references the ‘exclusionary rule’ as a small detail without emphasizing its connection to constitutional right within the fourth and fifth amendments. Reagan then promptly ends the speech, without fully clarifying how the privatization of the prison system will reduce crime, “I wish there was more time to talk with you about these steps and many others we’re taking, such as our national strategy for fighting drug abuse. I’ll have to save that

for some of our future get-togethers” (Reagan 1982). Similar to George Bush’s speech, which suggested that civil society should ‘go shopping’ before implementation of the Patriot Act, Reagan’s speech suggests that the issues are much too complicated, and the criminals are too advanced, requiring a very complicated approach that only he can enact, regardless of whether it dismantles certain constitutional rights. Hence, Reagan reflects a clear attitude of Zero Tolerance policies, emphasizing the fear of the masses and the corruptness of certain criminals – then presenting a strategy of harsher sentencing.

1987 Oct 9: Margaret Thatcher, Speech to Conservative Party Conference

Margaret Thatcher’s approach towards crime differs greatly from Reagan’s strategy. Instead of emphasizing the corruptness of the system, she emphasizes that there is already enough being spent on public services that prove effectual, “We are steadily strengthening our capacity to meet this challenge. We already have a larger police service, and better trained. We have increased the maximum sentences for violent criminals and drug peddlers” (Thatcher 1987). Reagan sets up a bleak portrait of American streets, whilst Thatcher suggests that the populace remains safe. This in turn leads to a different framing -- suggesting that a certain level of security needs to be *maintained*. She then suggests that it becomes the listener’s responsibility to preserve such security, “But the police and the courts can't do it all by themselves. Our crime prevention campaign is designed to show how we can all help to crack crime” (Thatcher 1987). In line with the assumptions of neoliberalism, she emphasizes the necessity of private, personalized action in promoting collective good, “We must also restore a clear ethic of personal responsibility. We need to establish that the main person to blame for each crime is the criminal himself. But if anyone else is to blame, it is the professional progressives among broadcasters, social workers, and politicians who have created a fog of excuses in which the mugger and the burglar operate” (Thatcher 1987). Unlike Reagan who blames ‘lax judges’ and ‘hardened criminals’, Thatcher places the responsibility on a much broader populace: anyone who excuses the actions of a criminal. Hence, she blames crime on a collective understanding of how individuals internalize notions of what constitutes appropriate laws: “The threat of crime will only recede when

we re-establish a code of conduct that condemns crime plainly and without exception” (Thatcher 1987). The solution to the problem becomes a collective understanding of what constitutes appropriate action through a ‘code of conduct.’ It is interesting to see how these laws could later translate themselves ten years later into creating greater autonomy for school systems. Hence, different from Reagan, Thatcher emphasizes the strengths of the police force, claiming that the continued success of crime reduction rests in the hands of civil society. Instead of suggesting a vast overhaul of the courts, she claims that a collective understanding of the importance of crime reduction will be important for the continued success of the legal system (hence her solution rests within creating a code of conduct that continues to chastise crime, as opposed to drastically increasing funding for penitentiary facilities).

Appendix 16 Review of Motivational Theories

- 1. Theory of Planned Behavior:** Adapted from the original 'Theory of Reasoned Action,' Ajzen (2011) added "Perceived Behavioral Context" to the previous factors. He added this construct to "one's personal attitude toward the behavior" and "subjective norms" in an attempt to ensure that framework became more adaptable (Richardson et al. 2012: 174). This research design is very helpful for connecting to different scenarios. However, as the name entails, there is a certain level of 'planning' and 'deliberation' before the actual decision, which does not always coincide with instinctive responses prompted by a bullying scenario. Additionally, other social theorists like Vroom (1964, 2007) use very similar factors within the framework -- such as 'personal attitude towards a behavior' (instrumentality) and 'subjective norms' (valence). However, it would be important to add additional factors in a simple manner in order to compare the findings across the US and English samples -- such as one's belief in one's ability, which Vroom (1964, 2007) and Bandura (1986) utilize.
- 2. The Ecological Model:** Bronfenbrenner (1989) suggests that the nuanced interplay of varying levels of experience could provide a relevant understanding of behavior. Namely, the Ecological model would suggest that perhaps understanding the culture, community, school, classroom, and family of the teacher could convey a more in depth understanding of their perspectives. Although this design would provide meaningful findings, this would focus on the rich interplay between micro and macro systems as opposed to an exploratory focus on the teachers themselves. The aims of research focuses on the perceptions of teachers within given scenarios, and personal factors are measured so that the research can understand the nature of the perceptions across samples in the US and England. Additionally, the Ecological model would be challenging to implement because the focus on the big picture could undermine the individual teacher perceptions, which remain a key focus of the study. Individual level factors remain an important element to comprehend the nature of the motivation before an action. It is also suggested the social cognitive theory's emphasis on

environmental factors could present a simpler alternative that could measure the different factors that would comprehend teacher perspectives.

3. **Attribution Theory:** Fritz Heider (1958) developed Attribution theory, suggesting that the explanations for the actions of others could shape behavior and responses. In relation to this research project, the theory suggests that a teacher could interpret the actions of a cyberbully differently based upon the meanings that teachers associate with the actions within each scenario. For example, if a student bullies other students regularly, posting offensive comments online could be considered an extension of an uncontrollable behavior. However, if the teacher connects the actions to the student's poverty and a challenging family situation, the teacher may feel greater sympathy while dealing with the situation. Although this creates an interesting framework, the research methods try to understand reactions to specific types of scenarios as opposed to the nuanced understandings of the actors behind the situations. This is done in an effort to adapt the research design to samples sets across disparate contexts. Adding too much nuance and complexity to the scenario could potentially undermine the construct validity. Additionally, this research focuses on exploring a model of human behavior as opposed to understanding the roles of the victims and the bullies themselves.
4. **Expectancy Theory and Social Cognitive Theory:** Bandura's original studies focused on social learning. The model seemed advantageous because it presented a model of motivation that could potentially frame actions outside of the strict behaviorist model. His original claim that children will repeat observed actions becomes much more complex and nuanced whilst exploring the components of human agency (Bandura 2001). He writes, "Human agency is characterized by a number of core features that operate through phenomenal and functional consciousness. These include the temporal extension of agency through intentionality and forethought, self-regulation by self-reactive influence, and self-reflectiveness about one's capabilities, quality of functioning, and the meaning and purpose of one's life pursuits" (Bandura 2001: 1). Although it is difficult to include all aspects of this complicated design, reciprocal causation (between the triadic personal factors, environmental factors, and behavior) provides a relevant

idea that complements Vroom's Expectancy Theory. Similar to Expectancy Theory, Social Cognitive Theory posits that an individual must consider and assess similar constructs of self-perception before a response. Bandura's concepts overlap well with expectancy theory factors ('efficacy expectations' correspond with 'expectancy'; 'outcome expectations' relate to 'instrumentality') (Bandura 1977). Vroom (1964, 2007) presents a simplified model that could combine elements from different social theories. This approach helps to focus the project on situational responses to bullying scenarios across the US and England.

Limitations of Motivational Model:

Since its original development, Expectancy Theory contributed in several ways to the organizational behaviour literature. Namely Van Eerde and Henk (1996) highlight three research areas that developed from its advancement: 1) training and motivation; 2) explorations of diminished performance within groups; 3) commitment to group goals. These three ideas dovetail quite well with the anti-bullying literature, for it introduces a model of human behaviour that relates to broader institutional goals such as reducing bullying in schools. Vroom's original theory dovetailed quite well with Bandura (1986, 1989) and his Social Cognitive Theory. Bandura (1986:230-232) highlights the important contributions of Vroom -- particularly focusing on how 'anticipatory thoughts' advanced by Vroom's model challenged many of the behaviorist approaches operating off of a strict system of rewards and punishment. Bandura (1989: 1175-1176) also expands upon the model by situating many of these 'anticipatory thoughts' into a larger context, further clarifying 'beliefs about capabilities' (also termed 'self-efficacy'); he also further specifies the interconnection between personal, behavioral, and environmental factors (known as 'reciprocal determinism').

However, there are several criticisms that emerge from motivational models that focus primarily on anticipatory beliefs. One criticism could claim that human motivation is far too complex to represent within such a simplified model across different cultures. This is a very important criticism, because many of the key ideas that are fundamental to the research design could be shaped by cultural factors rather than anticipatory thoughts.

Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) point out that many of the major points of comparison (such as individualism/collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance) could fundamentally influence how an individual conceives of their roles and actions, thereby skewing anticipatory thoughts. However, a review of these different factor scores suggest that the US and UK have very similar scores for these factors when compared to other countries in the world, thereby making the comparison quite relevant (Hofstede and Hofstede 2005: 86, 243). This would suggest that similar societies with slight differences could decrease the level of distortion in terms of the influence of fundamental beliefs leading to action.

Additionally, the reasons for why individuals respond could differ according to subjective factors that are not easily compared across people. Bandura (1989:1176) anticipates such ideas while writing: “They (people) usually make choices on outcomes considerations arrived at informally through cognitive biases, rather than by methodical calculation of the costs and benefits of alternative actions.” This of course points to a much larger question: what are the biases between people? If biases differ, would there ever be a way of comparing motivations across different individuals that fundamentally conceive of ideas so differently? The vicarious experiences that would influence human perception could differ quite drastically. For example, some teachers could be deeply moved by the vicarious experiences influenced by principal leadership (Mehdinezhad and Mansouri 2016). Others might be more influenced by the responses they observe from the their students, especially since subjective factors such as how well students can deal with anger often influence the perpetuation of ideas such as cyberbullying (Hamer den and Konijn 2016). Hence, teacher perceptions are often influenced by many different factors that are hard to encapsulate within a single model.

However, just because there is an inability to take into consideration the cognitive bias of each individual does not preclude the use of general motivational models exploring anticipatory beliefs. The use of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) could help to verify whether the constructs actually exist within the sample populations. Yet, even after conducting these tests, it would be helpful to understand the environmental factors that could shape such ideas by further exploring perspectives during the qualitative interviews. By asking about experiences

shaping responses to hypothetical scenarios, the mixed methods design enables the researcher to engage in a deeper discussion that acknowledges a motivational model that can still explore the biased reasons for an action. The semi-structured interviews provide an opportunity to understand that although people may act similarly, the reasons and the meanings of these actions could still differ between individuals.

Additionally, a model built off anticipatory thoughts might not take into consideration the much more structuralized factors that could lead to bullying. For example, Bandura (1995: 20) acknowledges, “Many of the adverse conditions with which schools have to cope reflect the broader social and economic ills of the society that affect student educability and impair the school environment.” Levels of bullying and violence at the school level could correspond with factors such as socioeconomic status. This is a very important critique; however, it remains outside the scope of this research project, as the motivational model attempts to understand which expectancy factors correspond with a response. The mixed methods design enables the researcher to explore more environmental factors within the qualitative methods, driven mostly by the experiences of the teachers themselves.

Furthermore, an overemphasis on the personal level perceptions distracts from the more collective approaches to dealing with bullying. As can be seen from the strategies like KiVa and the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP), bullying reduction deals with multiple levels of the school and community (Axford, Hutchings, Bjornstad, Clarkson, and Hunt 2014; Olweus 1993). Even Ofsted (2018) assesses schools in terms of their bullying at a school level. Bandura (1995: 35) writes, “Many of the challenges of life center on common problems that require people working together to change their lives for the better.” However, this research explores teacher perceptions in order to understand individual motivation, because this was deemed important for the reduction of bullying in differing contexts (Olweus and Limber 2010). As the survey focuses on individual level perspectives by scenario, the research attempts to assess which individual factors correspond with a response. At the same time, the survey does inherently involve other levels of the school and community, by asking how teachers could perceive parental involvement and working with other members of staff on a task force within the final portion of the survey. The use of semi-structured interviews enables the research to

explore more environmental factors that could also affect teacher perceptions. The research in the field highlights the need for projects that are not strictly concerned with self-perceptions. Often, environmental factors such as the student social status can influence the willingness to respond, therefore making the qualitative interviews all the more important for following up with the reasons for broader trends (Longobardi, Iotti, Jungert, and Settanni 2018). The research findings suggest that they consider that working with parents is ranked quite highly across both of the samples in the US and England.

Studies often explore the use of social cognitive theory in terms of understanding the reasons for the factors that could reinforce bullying behaviour (Swearer, Wang, Berry, and Myers 2014). Such analyses emphasize the importance of cognitive-behavioral interventions to break the cycle of aggression (Swearer, Wang, Berry, and Myers 2014: 273-274). However, studies are beginning to emerge that try to explore the perceptions of bystanders with social cognitive theory. This research suggests that many variables emerge that would lead to a contextually framed response (Allison and Bussey 2016: 191-192). Social cognitive theory goes beyond merely looking at personal level beliefs, Kimberly Allison and Kay Bussey (2016:182) write, “Bandura's social cognitive framework emphasises the need to consider contextual influences on individuals' behaviour; this is especially the case for cyberbullying, which is grounded in both the social context of the peer group and the technological context of mediated communication.” Hence, more complex frameworks that can understand the complex interplay between the personal, behavioral, and environmental factors using mixed methods could create more insights. This particular research project is unique in that it applies some of these same motivational ideas to teachers. The mixed methods explore individual level factors corresponding with a response, thereby framing the relationship between the action and the more environmental factors that could influence cyberbullying.

Appendix 17 Pragmatism and ‘Transformative Research’

This section seeks to explain the process of the Sequential Explanatory Strategy as well as outline its effectiveness as a technique for expressing this mixed methods study. The research findings will help inform a teacher-training program, directed at ending bullying. In this sense, there is a *transformative dimension* to the research design. However, whilst subscribing to the pragmatist theory, this research project intends to define and to create methods depending on the research questions. The question then becomes how does the mixed methodology still work under the auspices of a *transformative framework*. One of the important questions posed by Mertens (2012: 805) was, “How can I incorporate the voices of members of communities that have not traditionally had a seat at the table when decisions about what is ethical or not ethical were made?” What is being discussed is how does methodology *enable* different stakeholders to *participate* within an emerging discourse. Interestingly enough, when research subjects become *thinkers* and *reflectors* on the nature of a perceived injustice, an inherent sense of agency *emerges* and *strengthens* its resolve as a result of the awareness of how their realities can potentially be oriented and expressed through a nuanced and novel question.

In order to accomplish this, there needs to be an understanding of the social context: the world in which the teachers inhabit. Mertens (2012: 805) unpacks this idea in the form of a “critical disposition” labeled as “cultural competency.” In order to form a relevant survey, the researcher needs a series of piloted surveys with teachers in order to understand the different perspectives of the phenomena seen at the class level. Without a clear notion of the social reality, the researcher cannot understand or access the educators’ belief systems. If the survey asks relevant questions, the teachers will provide relevant answers, because the participants view the process as “legitimate” (Mertens 2012: 806). The idea of *legitimacy* only emerges when the individual has the ability to speak the *same language* in a way that grants credibility to the questioner. Whether it is an interview or a survey, the researcher must unlock the gates of *trust* with a research participant in order to access *what is known*. The piloting of the surveys is very important aspect for this mixed methodology because everything depends on the

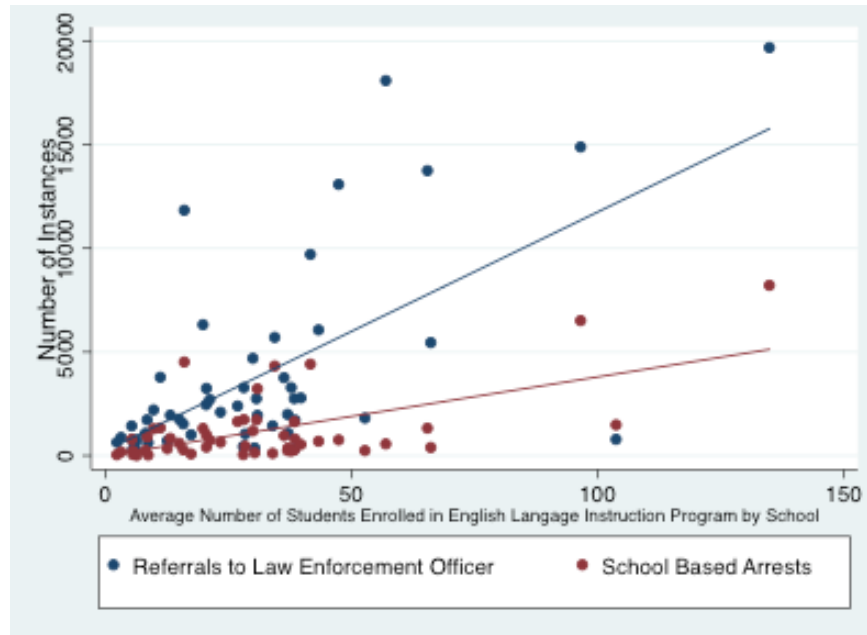
researcher's ability to utilize and to represent a *reasonable* reality with scenarios within the questionnaires. This idea of piloting has an underlying qualitative set of assumptions. It assumes that the quantitative methods and criteria are selected according to certain constructs *emerging* from a discourse within a subsample of potential participants. This falls in line perfectly with Mertens's analysis that "... transformative methodological assumptions suggest that researchers start with qualitative data collection moments to learn about the community and begin to establish trusting relationships" (Mertens 2012: 809). Mertens (Ibid) suggests that secondary quantitative data analysis seems like a logical next step. Instead, this research project utilizes quantitative surveys to inform qualitative data. Yet, a researcher must understand how the result connects to the research aims and questions. Mertens (2012: 809) describes this phenomenon in terms of "... cyclical collection of data that feeds into subsequent decisions about how to use the information to move the research to the next level or to make changes in the community." This ongoing process is important for shaping the *conception* of the issue; however, a researcher must collect ample data before training educators or implementing any set of changes on that local context.

In particular, the sequential explanatory strategy presents a compelling research framework, because the design specifically allows the quantitative data to inform the qualitative methods. In another mixed methods study, Ivankova and Sheldon (2007: 97) state, "... the quantitative data and results provided a general picture of the research problem, while the qualitative data and its analysis refine and explain those statistical results by exploring the participants' views regarding their persistence in more depth." Hence, quantitative data can generate general trends that can be further clarified during the qualitative interviews. The interviews become a process of 'elaboration', in order to ensure that the different elements of the research process remain consistent and portray a complete picture of the collected data (ibid). The underlying assumption generated within this argument is that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods remain complete in and of themselves (ibid). Hence, the sequential explanatory strategy provides a *progressive* framework, by building off former elements and providing a more complete perspective by utilizing different lenses.

Some may question whether or not the ordering of the research methods privileges the qualitative over the quantitative, because interviews have the last “analytical perspective” in the data collection process. However, according to Hong (2012: 117) qualitative methods often present the situation in which individuals can explain themselves in their own words. Hence, this may grant the research participant a chance to *clarify* their answers to survey questions. For instance, the individual might share a complicated response, difficult to cover purely through a survey, especially when clarifying a thought process before a decision. Hence, the qualitative methods provide a chance for *further clarification*.

Appendix 18 Trends in US

Figure 1: Average Number of Instances Involving Law Enforcement based upon average number of English Language Learners in Schools by State (indicates that there is variance within the US on how law enforcement can deal with schools differently in the US)



Source: Calculated using data from U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, 2013-14.

Appendix 19 Additional Survey Design Assumptions

In addition to the previously stated reasons for the survey design (such as relatability of the scenarios based within the survey design), there is also an assumption that the survey participants can conceive of the long-term strategies. Indeed, there is an assumption that the long-term strategies provided are indeed relevant to the different contexts of the teachers. In addition to asking feedback regarding the willingness to respond in the varied scenarios of cyberbullying, Stauffer et al. (2012) provides a comprehensive list of eleven responses that teachers could implement. After cyberbullying has occurred, it is often too late for a response since social networks can disseminate this information rapidly. Hence, educators must consider *preventative* strategies whilst addressing cyberbullying. The options that Stauffer et al. (2012) provide compose a solid foundation for assessing different alternatives. However, there are some limitations to this approach, because the relevance of a strategy depends on a very specific awareness of the given scenario. The effectiveness of a strategy often depends on the context. The nature of the cyber aggression will inevitably shape the response based upon the *seriousness of the wording* of the post or text. Additionally, peer mediation might work more easily in situations such as cyberbullying between two friends, whereas that same situation might be more challenging if the two have a problematic history.

Although this criticism does offer a very relevant critique, it is also important to recognize that it would be literally impossible within a survey of this kind to track all of the different types of cyberbullying that could potentially occur. Instead, the inclusion of the scenarios in the first part of the survey allows the teachers to share perspectives about alternative scenarios, taking place at home and school. Adding the third scenario from Boulton et al. (2013) allows for there to be a scenario for cyberbullying using a cell phone. Yoon et al. (2016) highlight the importance of providing this distinction between cyberbullying on cell phones and computers to determine if there is a difference in the level of perceived seriousness. Hence, the scenarios provided earlier can relay more context dependent research, whereas the eleven strategies offered in the second half of the survey provide a more “general idea” of what would be an appropriate response to cyberbullying overall. Even though the wording may not be *specific* within this prompt,

maintaining this broadness enables teachers to share their perspectives of appropriate scenarios based on cyberbullying that they have perceived in their particular communities. With this information, the teacher can provide more relevant feedback regarding the effectiveness of different strategies based on the cyberbullying situations that they have witnessed. Hence, the general nature of the prompt in this particular situation could potentially lend more credibility to the *comparability* between cultural contexts.

The survey also assumes that the methodology does not prompt the survey respondent to consider alternatives that they would not have carried out in real life. In terms of trying to find possible strategies to address or mitigate bullying, Stauffer et al. (2012) provide a very interesting method: listing multiple strategies and asking the effectiveness of each alternative. Although this provides a comprehensive strategy for engaging the educator, such a structure within the survey inevitably prompts the teacher to think about alternatives that they might not have originally considered. For example, imagine a teacher reading about the scenario of cyberbullying taking place at home and responding with peer mediation after school. Yet, during the survey, Stauffer et al. (2012) provides alternatives such as “parental involvement.” The teacher may write that this is an effective strategy, although they would not have acted in this manner. Instead, I used an approach similar to Bauman and Del Rio (2006), which directly asks for a response without providing any further details and before presenting a complete list. The assumption is therefore that the listing of potential responses would not influence the strategies that a teacher would choose. The methodology places these alternatives only at the end of the survey, to ensure that the information does not influence the teacher’s consideration before sharing a response.

Some may criticize the Bauman and Del Rio (2006) approach of simply asking for the responses because the answers may be mistaken. There is an assumption that teachers will indeed perform the same actions they list on paper. For instance, a teacher in real life may act differently from what they would say within the prompt. The teacher might look at the prompt and share the first three ideas that come to mind, while they might not perform the same actions in reality. However, this critique does not consider that the research participant has nothing to lose by sharing an honest opinion. The

anonymous nature of the responses and the small marginal cost of writing down an accurate response grants the educator a more solid foundation by which they can offer opinions regarding the scenario. Hence, the chosen approach of asking teachers their responses was judged to provide a viable way for garnering trustworthy information from research participants.

Appendix 20 Additional Assumptions of Qualitative Methods

In addition to questioning the legitimacy of the information emerging from the interview, some critics may also question the socially constructed nature of the interview setting. For example, Walford (2001: 90) continues, “We know that interviewers and interviewees co-construct the interview and the replies to questions are produced for that particular occasion and circumstance.” The very nature of the interview depends upon the context and the background of the respondents. For example, a new teacher may support a particular response, which may differ from a more experienced educator. The hope of the project is that by interviewing experienced and new teachers, the overall findings can overcome this critique. The challenge is that new teachers may need to mediate new types of bullying that they currently do not understand. For instance, ten years ago, it would be difficult to expect that cyberbullying could take place on computers and cell phones. Although this is a very reasonable critique, it is important to remember the restrictions of the time frame of the DPhil itself. Additionally, the time constraint of the DPhil provides a very challenging situation in which the researcher is not able to track the changes that may occur over a teacher’s career. In order to counter this relevant critique, the researcher ensured that interviews take place within different contexts and experience levels.

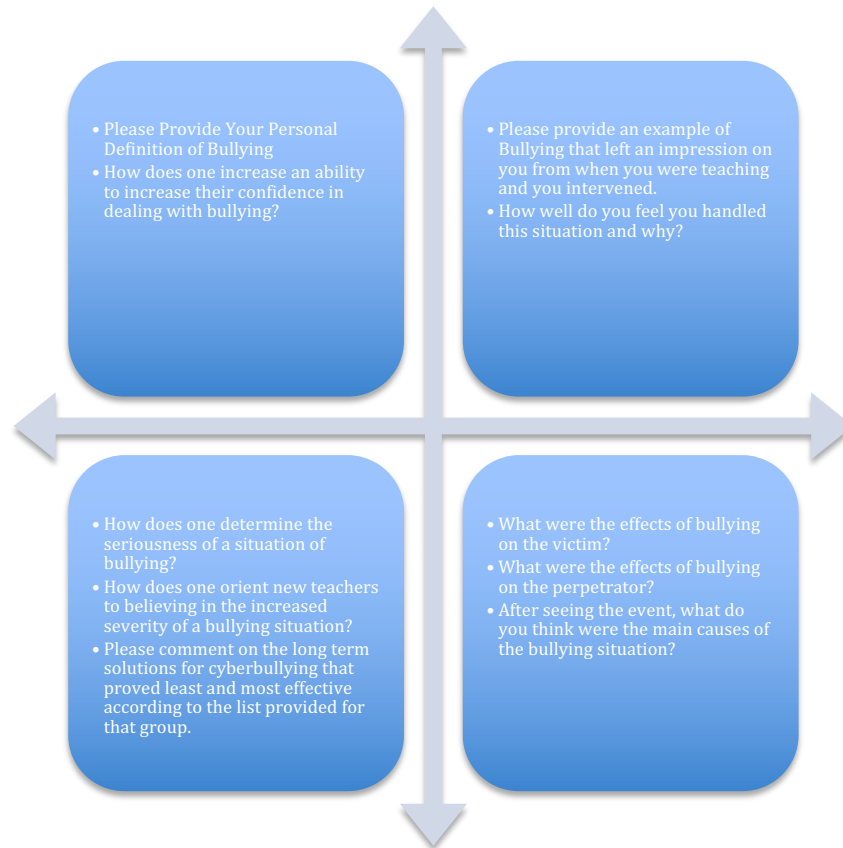
Beyond merely questioning the setting of the interview, others may query whether or not the research participant has the ability to convey helpful information (even if the teacher is fully willing to participate in the project). For instance, Walford (2001: 96) also reflects, “We need to recognize that what is said will be co-constructed in that interview, and will be limited by perception, memory, evasions, self-deception ...”. Walford suggests that even if the teacher is willing to share his or her honest perspective, there are many inevitable roadblocks (such as perception and memory) that could hamper the validity of the data. Although this may sound plausible, this is an issue for all social science research, including the use of surveys which all involve perception and memory. It is important to admit such limitations and to find ways to compare evidence *between* different research participants. Discovering these shared findings between separate interviews affords the methods greater credibility, especially if the results affirm the findings from the quantitative methods. However, if there are discrepancies between the

findings between the surveys and interviews, a willingness to acknowledge and to engage with these differences paves the road to further questions that highlight the emerging complexity of the social reality, which may lead to even more interesting research projects and questions.

The final critique of this interview process connects to the assumption that the interview represents a discourse that reflects an original set of beliefs of the research participant. For example, the process of creating and translating perceptions of bullying could potentially and unconsciously alter the perspective of the research participant. This critique remains pertinent, because a mixed method such as the sequential explanatory strategy faces the challenge of whether the framing of the questions (driven by the quantitative findings) can potentially shape the context and lens through which the research participant answers the interview question. This inability to distinguish between what is originally felt by the research participant and what is conveyed through the dialogue remains a challenge. Walford (2001: 92) writes, "It can be argued that identity is created rather than revealed through narrative." The process of reflecting on a given situation often presents the first opportunity for a research participant to evaluate critically their perceptions about a certain reality. The only situation leading up to this interview question was a form requesting participation in the study. This thought process leads the researcher to recognize the legitimacy of the second critique: narratives change. The reason for this change often links to an opportunity to reflect on previously held beliefs. However, although this critique does pose very relevant questions, it is impossible to determine exactly whether or not the process of the interview changes the reality, because it presents the concept of a counterfactual reality. The research would need to assess a world in which the interviewee did not participate in the interview and a world in which they did, holding both realities side by side to determine if there are any differences between the presentations of the information. Instead, the way of reducing the potential error is to present the major trends from the data and to ask if these findings pertain to what they have experienced and why. The answers to such statements can then be compared to those given in particular surveys that they filled out. In this way, the general findings garnered from the study do not completely shape the perspective through which the interviewee responds. Additionally, the semi-structured nature of the interview

allows the researcher to follow up on any questions or points that might have emerged as a result of the interview. This flexibility affords the interviewee the ability to elaborate on the meanings behind the terms that they have learned, formed, and shared as a result of the discourse.

Appendix 21 Example of Potently Coding Strategy for Interviews



What is your definition for bullying?

Making someone else feel bad about themselves physically or mentally, in order to bolster your own self-esteem or other benefits for yourself.

← SB.D

How would you determine the seriousness of the bullying?

Um, whether it is repetitive for the bully and specifically whether it is to the same person that is the victim as well, that would be more, that would be more concerning because it is the same person that is being bullied again and again. But if it is just a bully in general I would be less concerned because their maliciousness would be spread across multiple people, which would be more bearable. So seriousness, the effect that the victim is made to feel worse. So if the victims is made to feel small the bully calls someone a loser that might not be a might be a one off and might want to be cool, but if he calls this person a loser every day that is going to affect his self esteem. So from that a frequency would be the main think.

← CB.Sev

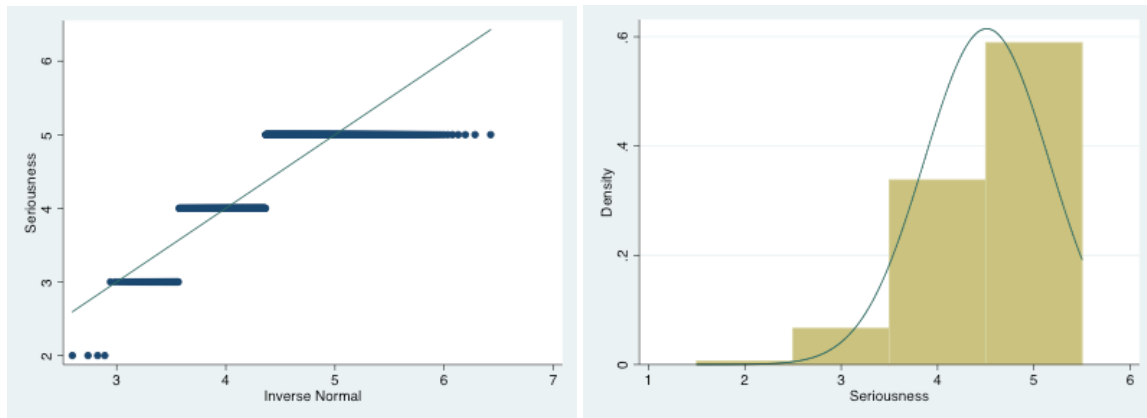
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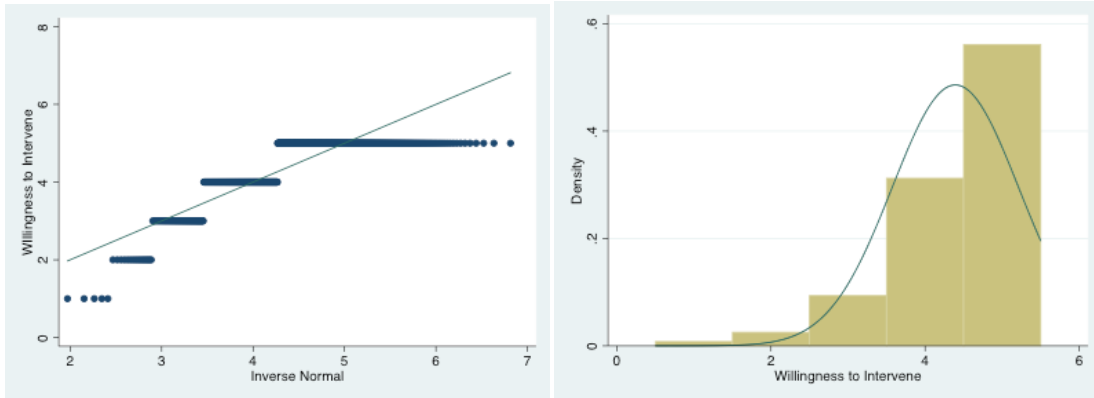
Appendix 22 Detailed Descriptive Statistics for Expectancy Factors

Figure i: Distribution for Valence



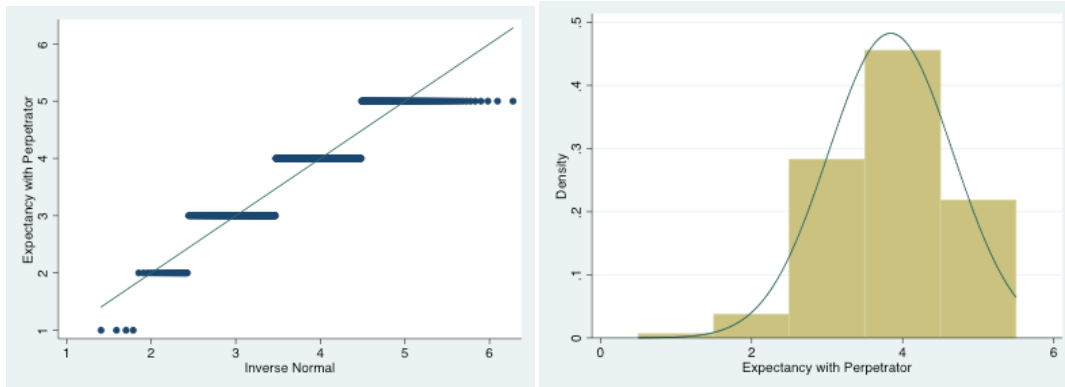
	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Valence	4.51	0.65	0.42	-1.11	3.69
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	4.39	0.71	0.51	-0.96	3.44
Female	4.61	0.58	0.33	-1.14	3.31
<i>By Country</i>					
England	4.46	0.66	0.43	-1.03	3.68
US	4.63	0.61	0.37	-1.39	3.82
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	4.43	0.70	0.49	-0.99	3.3
Home	4.55	0.57	0.32	-0.82	2.66
Group	4.55	0.66	0.44	-1.36	4.36

Figure ii: Distribution for Willingness to Respond



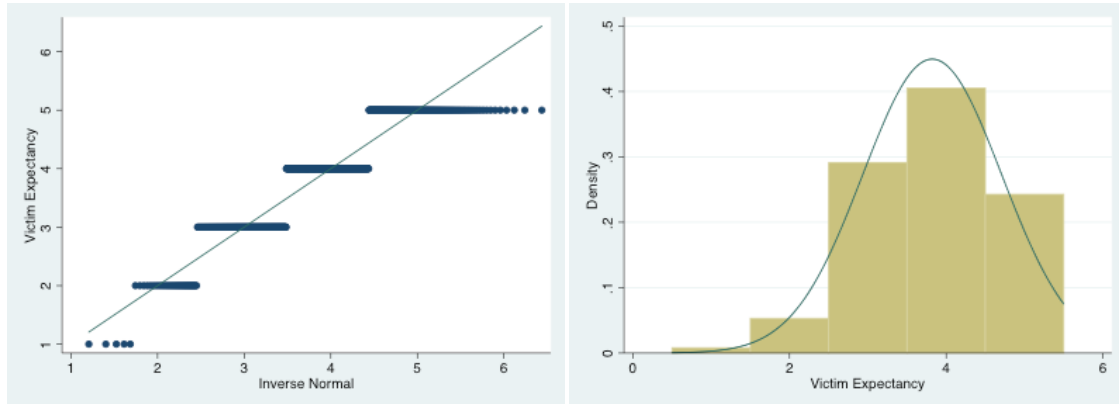
	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Response	4.39	0.82	0.68	-1.44	5.10
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	4.25	0.86	0.74	-1.11	3.99
Female	4.50	0.75	0.56	-1.69	6.27
<i>By Country</i>					
England	4.40	0.79	0.63	-1.37	4.80
US	4.37	0.89	0.80	-1.56	5.37
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	4.57	0.62	0.38	-1.35	4.81
Home	4.09	0.95	0.91	-1.01	3.73
Group	4.51	0.77	0.60	-1.74	6.00

Figure iii: Distribution for Expectancy with Perpetrator



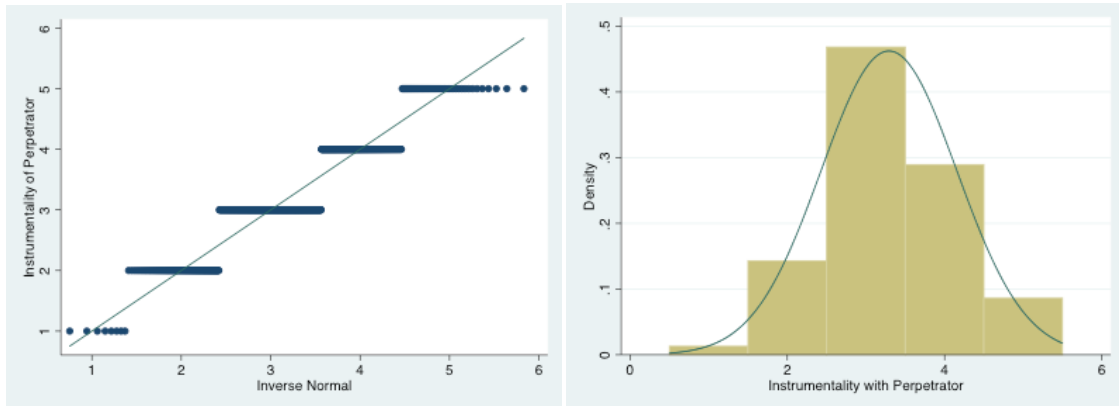
	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perp Exp	3.84	0.83	0.68	-0.37	2.98
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	3.85	0.82	0.67	-0.39	3.09
Female	3.84	0.80	0.64	-0.24	2.70
<i>By Country</i>					
England	3.79	0.80	0.64	-0.28	3.07
US	3.97	0.88	0.77	-0.61	2.98
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	3.85	0.80	0.63	-0.11	2.33
Home	3.76	0.88	0.78	-0.57	3.49
Group	3.91	0.79	0.62	-0.26	2.51

Figure iv: Distribution for Expectancy with Victim



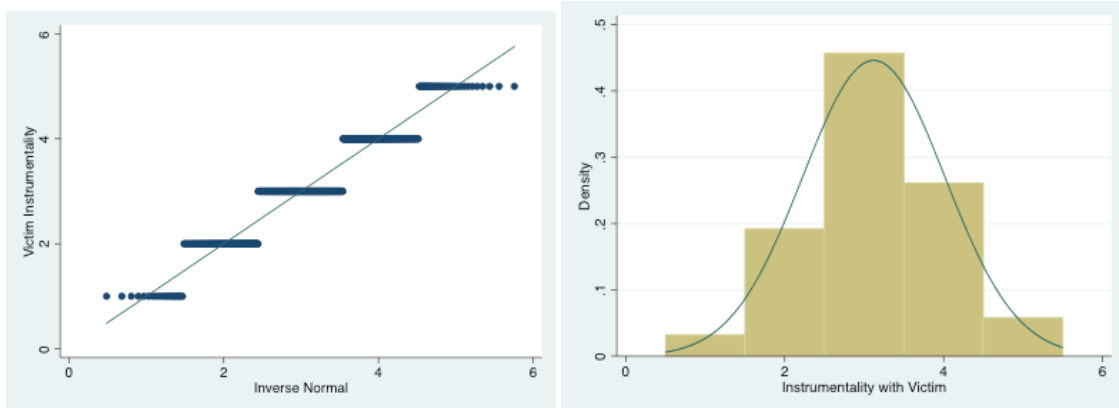
	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Victim Exp	3.82	0.89	0.79	-0.37	2.74
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	3.76	0.91	0.83	-0.33	2.71
Female	3.86	0.85	0.71	-0.33	2.61
<i>By Country</i>					
England	3.75	0.87	0.75	-0.24	2.68
US	3.98	0.93	0.86	-0.73	3.13
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	3.78	0.87	0.76	-0.21	2.49
Home	3.77	0.90	0.82	-0.47	3.05
Group	3.90	0.89	0.79	-0.44	2.62

Figure v: Distribution for Instrumentality with Perpetrator



	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perp Inst	3.29	0.86	0.74	0.08	2.83
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	3.25	0.82	0.68	0.004	3.2
Female	3.36	0.88	0.77	0.15	2.58
<i>By Country</i>					
England	3.24	0.86	0.73	0.08	2.93
US	3.42	0.87	0.76	0.11	2.58
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	3.27	0.83	0.69	0.13	2.87
Home	3.25	0.90	0.81	0.04	2.78
Group	3.36	0.86	0.73	0.13	2.82

Figure vi: Distribution for Instrumentality with Victim



	Mean	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
Victim Inst	3.12	0.90	0.80	-0.02	2.86
<i>By Gender</i>					
Male	3.09	0.87	0.75	-0.15	3.11
Female	3.17	0.89	0.79	0.12	2.65
<i>By Country</i>					
England	3.04	0.89	0.79	0.01	2.93
US	3.30	0.88	0.78	-0.07	2.75
<i>By Scenario</i>					
School	3.11	0.81	0.65	0.08	2.89
Home	3.15	0.91	0.84	-0.05	2.86
Group	3.09	0.96	0.92	-0.04	2.72

Appendix 23 Surveys

Questionnaire for Teachers' Perspectives of Conflict Resolution in Schools (Focus on Cyberbullying)

Number of Years Teaching:

Gender: Male: _____. Female: _____.

If interested in doing a possible interview please fill out your e-mail address:

The following questions are situational. Please answer the questions regarding the next vignettes to the best of your ability:

1) "Imagine that you are aware of a case of cyberbullying taking place in your school's computer lab."

In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

I would be upset by the perpetrator's behavior and feel sympathy for the child who was bullied.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

2) "You learn that a student is cyberbullying another student from home."

In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

I would be upset by the perpetrator's behavior and feel sympathy for the child who was bullied.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

3) "A cyberbully situation is taking place on a cell phone. A group of students is huddled around the phone, mocking and laughing at an unflattering image of another student at school."

In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

I would be upset by the perpetrator's behavior and feel sympathy for the child who was bullied.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

How likely do you feel that this response will resolve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

How helpful would these programs be for reducing cyberbullying at your school?

"Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Develop more specific school policies focused on addressing cyberbullying"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Encourage students to report bullying"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Establish a task force to develop anti-bullying policies"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Encourage student bystanders to stand up against cyberbullies"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Adopt anti-bullying lessons"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Provide professional development for classroom management strategies"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Increase consequences for cyberbullying"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Warn about consequences for cyberbullying"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely
"Increase parental involvement"				
0	1	2	3	4
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

Questionnaire for Teachers' Perspective of Conflict Resolution (MSc Dissertation Survey)

Program Name: PGCE: _____, MLT: _____.

Gender: Male: _____. Female: _____.

If interested in doing a possible interview please fill out your e-mail address:

The following questions are situational. Please answer the questions regarding the next six vignettes to the best of your ability:

1. You hear a student chant to another child "Teachers pet, you are an idiot and really stupid to suck up." The student tries to ignore the remarks but sulks at his desk. You saw this same thing happen the other day.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

2. Your class is getting ready to go to lunch and the students are in line at the door. You hear a student say to another student, "Hey, get out of my way or I'll hit you." The student complies at once. This is not the first time this has happened.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

3. A student brought a mobile phone to school. He boasts that it was a gift from someone. Another child goes over and smacks his head, demanding the mobile phone. The child refuses at first, but eventually gives in.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. You see a student kick another child without provocation. Bruising is evident. This student has been known to engage in this type of behavior before.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

5. During project time you overhear a student say to another student, "If you don't give me your notes from class, I won't invite you to my birthday party." This is not the first time you have heard this child say this type of thing.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

6. You have allowed the students in your class to have a little free time because they've worked so hard today. You witness a kid say to another student, "No, absolutely not. I already told you that you can't be with us." The student is isolated and stands alone for the remaining time with tears in her eyes. This is not the first time this child has isolated someone.

1. In your opinion, how serious is this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all serious	not very serious	moderately serious	serious	very serious

2. I would be upset by the student's behavior and feel sympathetic to the child.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neither disagree nor agree	agree	strongly agree

3. How likely are you to intervene in this situation?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

4. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the perpetrator?

5. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

6. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

7. If you would respond to this situation, what would you do with the victim?

8. How well do you think that you can perform this response?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all well	not very well	somewhat well	well	very well

9. How likely do you feel that this response will solve the problem?

1	2	3	4	5
not at all likely	not very likely	somewhat likely	likely	very likely

Appendix 24 Sample Semi Structured Interview Questions

1. What would you consider a good definition for bullying?
2. What determines the seriousness of the bullying?
3. I found that teachers did not consider relational bullying as serious as physical bullying. Why do you think that could be?
4. Please describe a situation in which you observed bullying taking place.
5. What do you think were the main causes of the incident?
6. What were the effects on the victim?
7. What were the effects on the perpetrator?
8. What determines an effective response after the bullying?
9. What determines an effective long-term, preventative response?
10. Highlight the top three most effective responses for cyberbullying for that particular group (English or US Teachers). Ask the teacher if they agree with the overall finding suggesting that these are the most effective responses. Why or why not?
11. Highlight the three least effective responses for cyberbullying for that particular group (English or US Teachers). Ask the teacher if they agree with the overall finding that these are the least effective responses. Why or why not?
12. Perceived Confidence in one's ability proved to be highly correlated with a willingness to respond. What do you think are strategies for fostering one's confidence in one's ability across different bullying situations?
13. Perceived seriousness also correlated highly with a willingness to intervene. How do you think we can promote the idea that bullying is indeed a serious issue?
14. For situations of home cyberbullying, confidence in one's ability and perceived effectiveness of the task highly correlated with a willingness to intervene. However that was not the case of cyberbullying at school, why do you think this might be happening?

Appendix 25 Descriptive Statistics for Strategies by Gender

Descriptive Statistics for all Teachers

All	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Increase parental involvement	3.17	0.90	-1.02	3.86
Increase consequences	3.14	0.94	-1.04	3.57
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	3.02	0.94	-0.74	2.98
Encourage students to report bullying	2.88	0.95	-0.61	2.83
Provide professional development	2.81	0.92	-0.47	2.64
Develop more specific school policies	2.74	0.95	-0.55	2.86
Encourage student bystanders	2.73	1.11	-0.52	2.41
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.68	0.95	-0.34	2.78
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.67	0.98	-0.20	2.15
Establish a task force	2.54	0.97	-0.40	2.76
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.05	1.11	0.07	2.14

Descriptive Statistics for Female Teachers

Female	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Increase consequences	3.32	0.77	-1.22	5.21
Increase parental involvement	3.20	0.87	-1.07	4.41
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	3.13	0.92	-1.06	4.06
Encourage students to report bullying	2.98	0.88	-0.55	2.59
Provide professional development	2.92	0.91	-0.58	2.93
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.81	0.95	-0.28	2.36
Encourage student bystanders	2.78	1.10	-0.57	2.48
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.76	0.99	-0.26	2.02
Establish a task force	2.72	0.86	-0.24	2.44
Develop more specific school policies	2.69	1.02	-0.58	2.82
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.17	1.08	0.16	2.08

Descriptive Statistics for Male Teachers

Male	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Increase parental involvement	3.16	0.92	-0.99	3.54
Increase consequences for cyberbullying	2.90	1.08	-0.68	2.39
Warn about consequences for cyberbullying	2.89	0.96	-0.45	2.22
Develop more specific school policies	2.78	0.87	-0.46	2.62
Encourage students to report bullying	2.77	1.00	-0.60	2.85
Encourage student bystanders	2.70	1.09	-0.44	2.28
Provide professional development	2.67	0.92	-0.35	2.36
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.56	0.89	-0.41	3.21
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.55	0.96	-0.12	2.38
Establish a task force	2.37	1.02	-0.34	2.63
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	1.90	1.12	0.01	2.09

Appendix 26 Additional Descriptive Statistics for Survey Items

Variable	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	n
Response at School	4.57	0.62	-1.38	4.80	211
School Seriousness	4.43	0.70	-0.99	3.30	211
School Anger	4.45	0.70	-1.29	5.18	212
School Perpetrator Expectancy	3.85	0.80	-0.11	2.33	211
School Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.27	0.83	0.13	2.87	208
School Victim Expectancy	3.78	0.87	-0.21	2.49	211
School Victim Instrumentality	3.11	0.81	0.08	2.89	210
Response at Home	4.09	0.95	-1.01	3.73	212
Home Seriousness	4.55	0.60	-0.82	2.66	212
Home Anger	4.43	0.73	-1.51	0.73	212
Home Perpetrator Expectancy	3.76	0.88	-0.57	3.49	206
Home Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.25	0.90	0.04	2.78	206
Home Victim Expectancy	3.77	0.90	-0.47	3.05	208
Home Victim Instrumentality	3.15	0.90	-0.05	2.86	209
Response in Group	4.51	0.77	-1.74	6.00	210
Group Seriousness	4.55	0.66	-1.36	4.36	210
Group Anger	4.48	0.75	-1.64	6.56	210
Group Perpetrator Expectancy	3.91	0.79	-0.26	2.51	208
Group Perpetrator Instrumentality	3.36	0.86	0.13	2.82	208
Group Victim Expectancy	3.90	0.89	-0.44	2.62	206
Group Victim Instrumentality	3.09	0.96	-0.04	2.72	207
Increase supervision in certain areas of the campus	2.05	1.11	-1.02	3.86	206
Develop more specific school policies	2.74	0.95	-1.04	3.57	205
Plan school-wide anti-bullying assemblies	2.67	0.98	-0.74	2.98	205
Encourage students to report bullying	2.88	0.95	-0.61	2.83	205
Establish a task force	2.54	0.97	-0.47	2.64	204
Encourage student bystanders	2.73	1.11	-0.55	2.86	206
Adopt anti-bullying lessons	2.68	0.95	-0.52	2.41	206
Provide professional development	2.81	0.92	-0.34	2.78	205
Increase consequences	3.14	0.94	-0.20	2.15	206
Warn about consequences	3.02	0.94	-0.40	2.76	206
Increase parental involvement	3.17	0.90	0.07	2.14	206

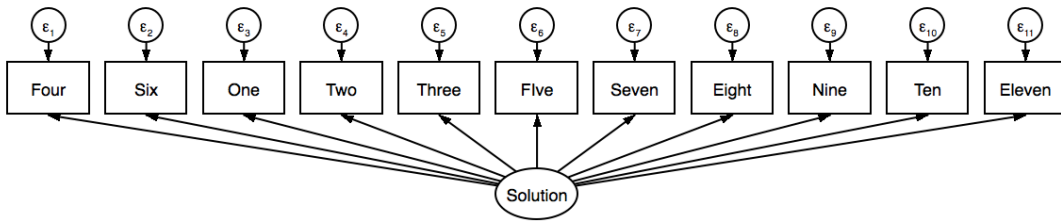
Appendix 27 Model Fit for SEM

Phase and Model	χ^2	df	p	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Undimensional (Model 1)	181.490	44	p <.001	0.124	0.776	0.720	0.076
Three Latent Variables (Model 2)	95.522	41	p <.001	0.081	0.911	0.881	0.064
Model Fit Index (Model 2b)	54.153	38	p <.05	0.046	0.974	0.962	0.047
Factor Loadings and Item Intercepts Constrained to Equality Across Countries							
Undimensional (Model 1)	292.649	108	p <.001	0.130	0.710	0.705	0.128
Three Latent Variables (Model 2)	182.391	98	p <.001	0.092	0.867	0.851	0.103
Model Fit Index (Model 2b)	130.811	92	p <.01	0.065	0.939	0.927	0.087
Phase and Model	χ^2	df	p	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Unidimensional (Model 3)	1098.170	135	p <.001	0.190	0.540	0.479	0.130
Four Latent Variables Correlated (Model 4)	454.848	129	p <.001	0.113	0.844	0.816	0.062
Instrumentality and Expectancy Correlations (Model 4b)	226.005	105	p <.001	0.076	0.942	0.916	0.055
Model Fit Index (Model 4c)	184.250	104	p <.001	0.062	0.962	0.944	0.049
Factor Loadings and Item Intercepts Constrained to Equality Across Countries							
Unidimensional (Model 3)	1399.411	304	p <.001	0.191	0.502	0.499	0.157
Four Latent Variables Correlated (Model 4)	718.959	286	p <.001	0.124	0.803	0.790	0.095
Instrumentality and Expectancy Correlations (Model 4b)	430.090	238	p <.001	0.090	0.913	0.888	0.092
Model Fit Index (Model 4c)	379.853	236	p <.001	0.078	0.932	0.915	0.086

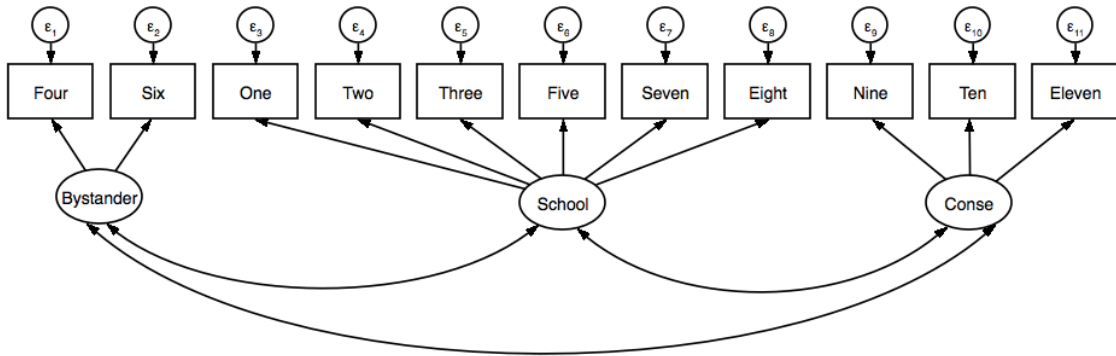
The baseline model (Model 1) presents one latent construct named strategies with no correlations. The next model applies three latent constructs recommended from the exploratory factor analysis (Model 2): “Bystander Strategies”, “School Culture Strategies”, and “Consequence Strategies”. These latent constructs are also correlated. The last strategies model (Model 2b) presents three additional correlations recommended from the “Modification Index Approved Model Fit”.

In terms of Expectancy Factors, a series of models explored the validity of constructs as well. The baseline model for expectancy factors (Model 3) present a unidimensional model with all of the survey items connected to a single construct. The next model (Model 4) presents four correlated latent constructs: expectancy, instrumentality, valence, and likelihood to respond. Model 4b presents four correlated latent constructs with additional correlations between similar expectancy and instrumentality scenario questions. Model 4c presents the model adapted to include the one additional correlation recommended from the “Modification Index Approved Model Fit.” Good model fit was deemed worthy of Comparative Fit Index (CFI) values greater than .90 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values less than .08 (Acock 2013: 23-24). These criteria suggest Model 2b (covering teacher strategies) was appropriate for the general model, as well as when factor loadings and item intercepts were constrained across country. Additionally, the criteria also suggest that model 4c (covering the expectancy factors) was appropriate for the general model, as well as when factor loadings and item intercepts were constrained across country. Models 1, 2, 3, 4, and 4b provide problematic assessments (RMSEA values all over .08 when having factor loadings and item intercepts are constrained across country), thereby making model 2b and 4c the most appropriate structural equation models.

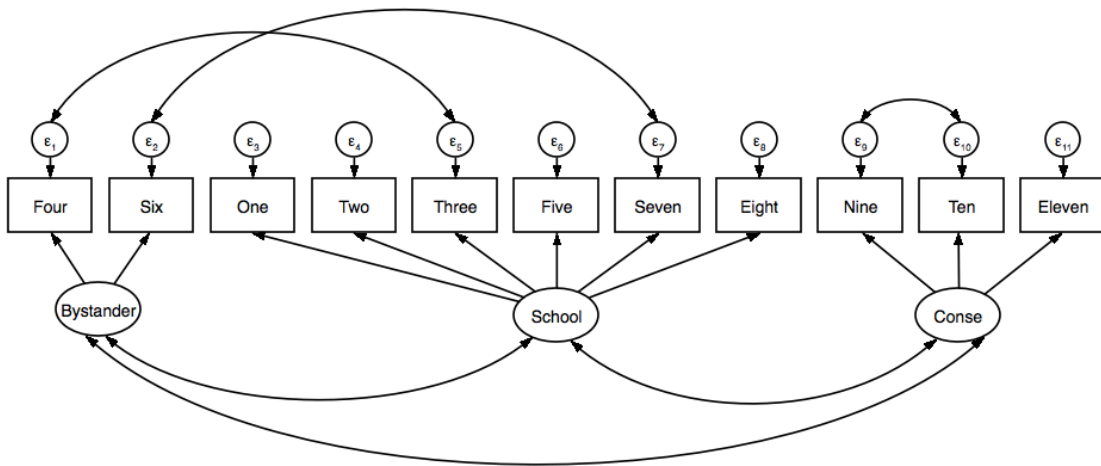
Model 1:



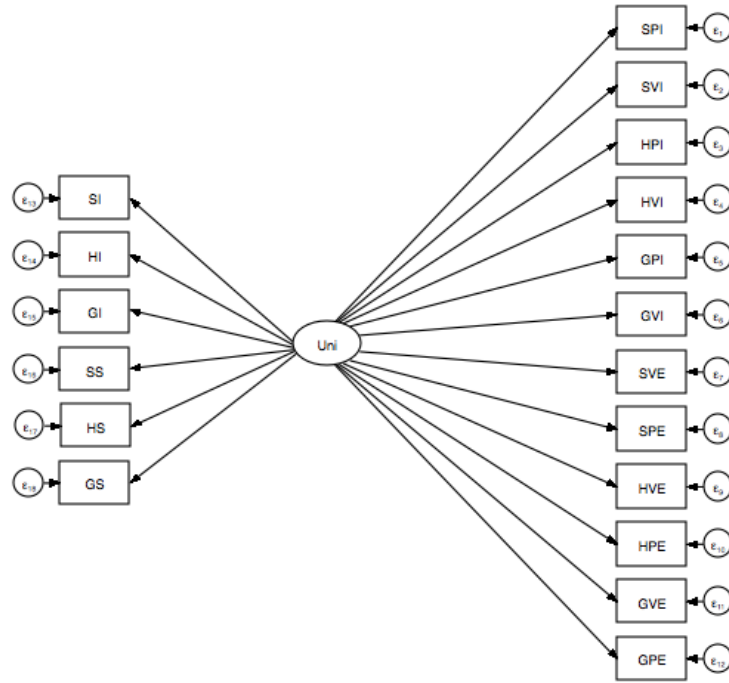
Model 2



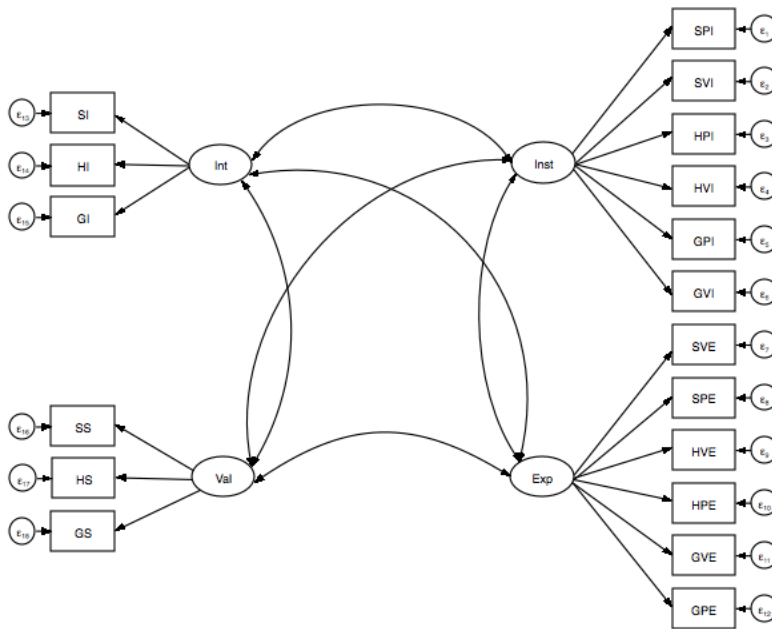
Model 2b



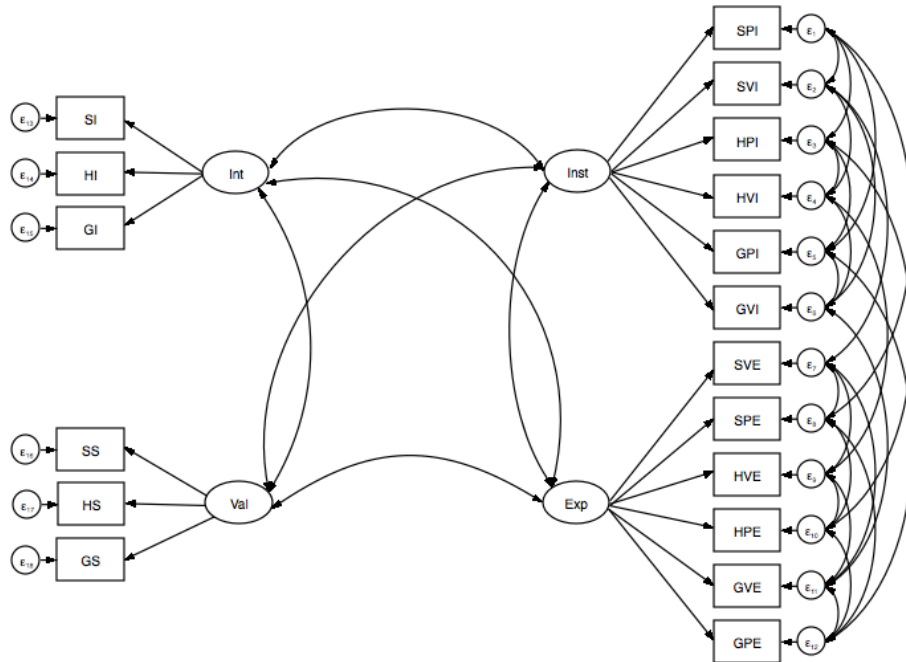
Model 3



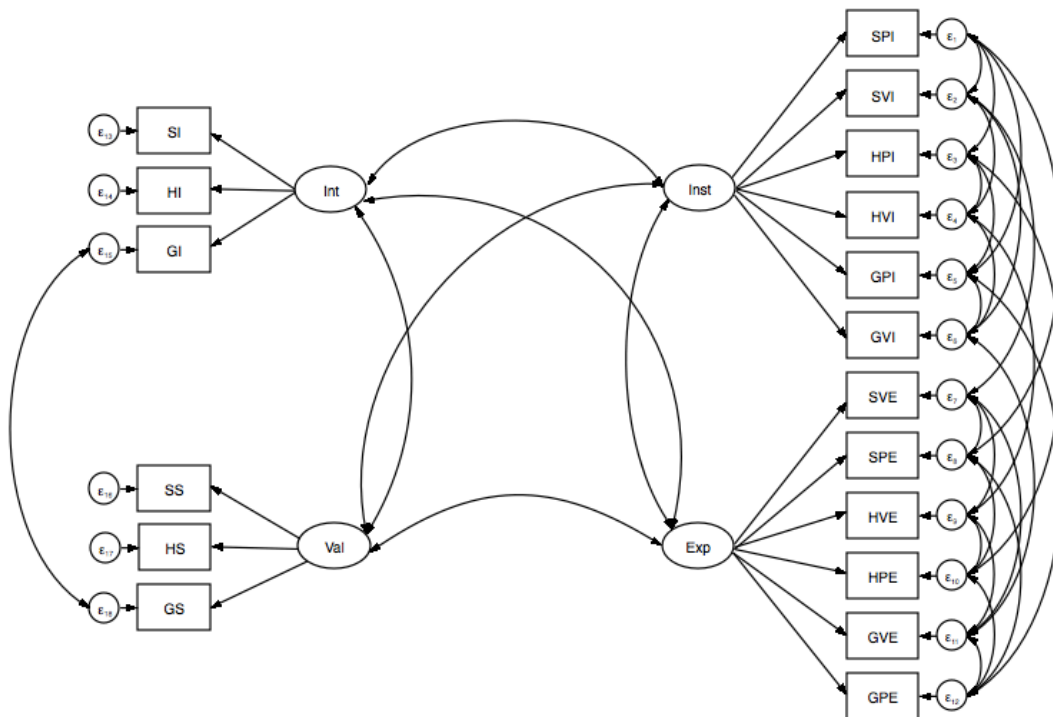
Model 4



Model 4b



Model 4c



Appendix 28 Additional Random Effects Regression Models for Likelihood of Response

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)	Est	(SE)
Fixed Part						
β_1 [Constant]	1.35**	(.32)	4.64**	(.13)	1.77**	(.32)
β_2 [Valence]	.36**	(.06)			.37**	(.06)
β_4 [V. Exp.]	.04	(.05)			.01	(.05)
β_5 [V. Inst.]	.04	(.05)			.07	(.05)
β_6 [P. Exp.]	.26**	(.06)			.25**	(.05)
β_7 [P. Inst.]	.06	(.05)			.05	(.05)
β_8 [Country]			.02	(.10)	-.12	(.09)
β_9 [Gender]			-.25**	(.09)	-.13	(.07)
Situations						
β_{10} [Home]			-.46**	(.05)	-.47**	(.05)
β_{11} [Group]			-.04	(.05)	-.09	(.05)
R-squared						
<i>Within</i>	.13		.16		.26	
<i>Between</i>	.33		.04		.36	
<i>Overall</i>	.25		.09		.33	
Random Part						
$(\psi)^5$.39		.51		.39	
$(\theta)^5$.58		.58		.53	
ρ^a (teacher)	.43		.31		.35	
ρ^b (scenario)	.57		.69		.65	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, $n=614$ for model 1, $n=610$ for model 2, $n=595$ for model 3.

^a $\rho = \psi / (\psi + \theta)$; assuming $\psi = \text{Var}(\zeta_j)$ [variance of random intercept] and $\theta = \text{Var}(\varepsilon_{ij})$ [variance of situation specific error component].

^b $\rho = \theta / (\psi + \theta)$

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