

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

IMPACT OF BULLYING BEHAVIOUR AND PERSONALITY TRAITS
ON PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
STUDENTS IN THE GREATER ACCRA REGION.

TAMARA ESI DADSON

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BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology, College of
Education, University of Cape Coast, in fulfilment of the requirements for
award of Master of Philosophy degree in Clinical Health Psychology Studies

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Name.....

Signature..... Date.....

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Name.....

Signature..... Date.....

Co-Supervisor' Name:

Signature..... Date.....

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality traits on psychological health of junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The study used the descriptive survey design with quantitative approach. Multi-stage sampling procedures were used to select a sample of 390 junior high school students for the study. Three questionnaires adapted from the Olweus Bullying Questionnaires, Brief Symptoms Scale and Eysenck's Personality Inventory were used to collect data for the study. Frequencies, means, standard deviations, spearman rank correlation, Pearson product moment correlation and independent sample t-tests were used in the analysis. The study revealed that bullying is prevalent among the junior high schools students in the Greater Accra Region with emotional bullying being the most prevalent [Overall mean % of 47%]. The study also revealed that the prevalent kind of personality traits among the junior high school students is extraversion [Overall mean of 2.93]. The results of the study further show a significant moderate negative relationship between bullying behaviour and personality traits [$r_{bp} = -.501$, $p = .014$] as well as a significant strong positive relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health [$r_{bp} = .731$, $p = .006$]. In furtherance, the results show no significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health. The study also revealed a statistically significant difference in bullying with respect to gender [$t(388) = 3.367$, $p = .002$] with male students being the most perpetrators of bullying [Mean = 26.18]. Recommendation were made based on the need for policy makers and stakeholders in education to formulate policies to curb bullying in schools.

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DEDICATION

To my son,
Calvin Bryce Assem

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Bullying is a worldwide problem that can have negative consequences for the general school climate and for the right of students to learn in a safe environment without fear (Banks, 1997). Bullying is not simply a dyadic problem between a bully and a victim, but is recognised as a group phenomenon, occurring in a social context in which various factors serve to promote, maintain, or suppress such behaviours (Olweus, 2001; Rodkin & Hodges, 2003; Salmivalli, 2001). According to Olweus (1996), bullying is when “a student is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students” (p. 275). The relationship is characterised by an imbalance of power between the bully and the victim based on physical size, strength, age or social status.

Bullying is the intentional, repetitive harming or injury by one’s peers; they are occurrences in which the victim is unable to avoid or stop the victimisation (Brank, Hoetger & Hazen, 2012). Victims of bullying are more likely to report feeling unhappy and lonely at school, and having fewer good friends (Boulton & Underwood, 1992). A victim of bullying is more likely to develop new psychosomatic and psychosocial problems compared with children who were not bullied (Fekkes, Pijpers, Fredriks, Vogels & Verloove-Vanhorick, 2006), thereby an adverse effect on coping with loneliness, anxiety and depression in study and daily life. The evidence for the relationship between bullying and psychological problems has also been found in neuro-biological literature. For instance, Ouellet-Morin, Odgers, Danese, Bowes, Shakoor,

Papadopoulos & Arseneault (2011) reports that physical maltreatment has long-lasting effects on the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) reactivity that is associated with social, emotional, and behavioural problems. Hemphill, et al. (2011) found that being bullied highly correlated with binge drinking and depression.

Being bullied has been linked with poor physical health (Gini & Pozzoli, 2013; Knack, Jensen-Campbell, & Baum, 2011) and poor school adjustment, including being unhappy, feeling unsafe, being truant, performing poorly and, in some cases, dropping out of school (Card, Isaacs, & Hodges, 2007; Graham, Bellmore, & Juvonen, 2007). Researchers have long demonstrated that being involved as both a perpetrator and victim seems to compound the impact of bullying, with bully-victims experiencing worse outcomes than either bullies or victims, being at greater risk for anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, self-harm, suicidal ideation and suicidality, physical injury, substance abuse, negative attitudes toward school, absenteeism, poor perceptions of school safety, aggression, and delinquency (Berkowitz and Benbenishty, 2012; Copeland, Wolke, Angold, & Costello, 2013; Kumpulainen, Räsänen, & Puura, 2001; Srabstein & Piazza, 2008). In their trajectory analysis, Haltigan & Vaillancourt (2014) further demonstrated that, relative to low-involvement students and after controlling for initial psychopathology, stable victims showed elevated levels of depression, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, and anxiety, whereas stable bullies reported higher levels of anxiety, and those who shifted from victimisation to bullying reported more anxiety, depression, and somatisation. Such findings underscore the importance of considering a child's history of involvement in bullying over time, and to move beyond the "dyadic bias"

(Espelage & Swearer, 2003) and view bullying as a dynamic experience, influenced by the social ecology.

A number of family characteristics have been linked to bullying, including family members' involvement in gangs, poor parental supervision, negative family environment, parental conflict, domestic violence, low parental communication, lack of parent emotional support, authoritarian parenting, inappropriate discipline, and parental abuse (Baldry, 2003; Espelage & Swearer, 2010). Youth spend much of the day interacting with peers in schools, neighbourhoods, communities, and through social media, and bullying behaviours almost always occur within the peer context (Pepler, Craig, & O'Connell, 2010). Bullying and victimisation are more likely in classrooms characterised by peer norms that support bullying (Salmivalli & Voeten, 2004), and by high peer conflict (Pepler et al., 2010). Affiliation with aggressive peers is also associated with greater bullying perpetration (Espelage, Holt & Henkel, 2003; Ferguson, San Miguel & Hartley, 2009), as is peer victimisation (Barboza, Schiamberg, Oehmke, Korzeniewski, Post & Heraux, 2009), and negative relationships with classmates (Bacchini, Esposito & Affuso, 2009).

Bullying has been most studied in the school context, and the positive or negative climate of the school impacts the frequency of bullying and victimisation (Gendron, Williams, & Guerra, 2011; Wang, Berry & Swearer, 2013). Higher levels of bullying and victimisation have been linked to inappropriate teacher responses (Bauman & Del Rio, 2006), poor teacher–student relationships (Richard, Schneider & Mallet, 2009), lack of teacher support, and lack of engagement in school activities (Barboza et al., 2009).

Students are also less likely to report bullying if they see their school climate as negative (Unnever & Cornell, 2004).

Beyond families, peers, and schools, there is the influence of communities and the larger society, with higher levels of bullying linked to negative or unsafe neighbourhoods (Chaux, Molano, & Podlesky, 2009), gang affiliation (White & Mason, 2012), and poverty (Bradshaw, Sawyer & O'Brennan, 2009). Research has also linked bullying perpetration to exposure to violent television and video games (Janssen, Boyce & Pickett, 2012).

Personality factors have been associated with bullying (Slee & Rigby, 1993; Mynard & Joseph, 1997; Connolly & O'Moore, 2003). Studies found that there is a relationship between personality factors and bullying (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2011; Olweus, 1993). Connolly and O'Moore, 2003); Mynard & Joseph, 1997; Slee & Rigby, 1993) used Eysenck Personality Inventory- Junior and they reported heightened levels of psychoticism and slight increases in extraversion and neuroticism among bullies. According to Olweus (1993), the personality of bullies is characterised by tolerance of violence, impulsivity, and lack of empathy. A study of the Big Five personality traits (that is, openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) and bullying revealed the following characteristics about bullies: low friendliness (agreeableness) and higher emotional instability (neuroticism) (Menesini, Camodeca, & Nocentini, 2010). A study carried by Idemudia (2013) showed that individuals who scored high on psychoticism, neuroticism and extraversion also had high scores on bullying behaviour.

Although it is widely understood that involvement in bullying causes problems for victims, children and youth who bully are also at risk for many of

the same problems. Studies addressing issues of causality have found that bullying perpetration often leads to anxiety and depression (Baldry, 2004), social withdrawal and delinquent behaviour (Bender & Lösel, 2011), poor academic achievement (Ma, Phelps, Lerner, & Lerner, 2009), and adult diagnosis of antisocial personality disorder (Baldry, 2004). Thus, bully perpetrators experience adverse psychosocial consequences, a result that does not show much empathy, given the public's advocacy for suspension, expulsion, and incarceration for aggressive behaviour.

Accordingly, researchers have argued for the utility of a social-ecological framework in understanding bullying (Espelage, Rao, & de la Rue, 2013; Espelage & Swearer, 2010; Hong & Garbarino, 2012; Swearer & Espelage, 2004). Social ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) conceptualises human development as a bidirectional interaction between individuals and the multiple systems in which they operate home, neighbourhood, school, community, and society. Thus, bullying behaviour is not just the result of individual characteristics, but is influenced by multiple relationships with peers, families, teachers, neighbours, and interactions with societal influences (for example. media, technology). Peer witnesses to bullying are also at risk for negative outcomes (Rivers, Poterat, Noret, & Ashurst, 2009), even after controlling for involvement as bullies or victim (Bonanno & Hymel, 2006).

Complicating our understanding of the consequences of bullying and victimisation is recent research documenting the dynamic and fluid nature of children's involvement in bullying across roles and over time. Among youth who are involved in bullying, Ryoo, Wang, and Swearer (2014) found that

frequent victims and frequent perpetrators were the least stable subgroups, and that students assumed different roles in bullying across school years. Indeed, youth can observe bullying (that is, bystanders), experience bullying (that is, victims), and perpetrate bullying (that is, bullies) across different situations and/or over time. Longitudinal studies by Haltigan and Vaillancourt (2014) and Barker, Arseneault, Brendgen, Fontaine, and Maughan (2008) explored the joint trajectories of involvement in bullying and victimisation over time among 9 to 12 year old and 11 to 16 year-olds, respectively, with similar results. Most students (73% and 75%, respectively) showed low levels of bullying and victimisation over time (low/uninvolved students), and 11% (both studies) showed trajectories that would identify them as bullies. Another 10% and 3% of students, respectively, would be classified as victims and 2% as bully-victims. However, 6% and 3% of students, respectively, showed a pattern of declining victimisation and increased bullying over time (victim to bully subgroup), a trajectory that was more likely than one in which bullies are increasingly victimised. Importantly, these distinct patterns of involvement are associated with different mental health outcomes.

Therefore, bullying does not occur in isolation. Rather, bullying stems from complex interactions between individuals and the contexts in which they function, both proximal (that is, family, peers, school climate) and distal (that is, societal, cultural influences). Accordingly, multiple systems must be targeted in order for bullying prevention and intervention programmes to be effective (Swearer & Espelage, 2004). Although demonstrations of causality remain an important task for this study, the findings begin to set out a road map that guides prevention and intervention efforts, both in schools and communities.

Statement of the Problem

Bullying among school children is certainly a very old phenomenon. Despite many strategies put in places to curb it, the problem persists (Asamu, 2006). Ideally the School is perceived to be a place where students should feel safe and secure but the reality is that a significant number of students are the target of the bullying (Smith, 1991). Bullying though old is a widespread and worldwide problem, and has been recognised as a serious problem in today's schools (Rose & Monda-Amaya, 2012). Bullying has become one type of violence that threatens a young person's well-being both in schools and in the neighbourhoods, as it creates effects that are felt by individuals, families, schools, and the society as whole and may result in the young people feeling powerless, intimidated and humiliated by the aggressive deeds of fellow mates (Rigby, 2000). This vice may occur in many settings, such as schools, after-school programmes, or in a youth's neighbourhood.

According to a research by Massachusetts (2009), bullying among school-aged youth is increasingly being recognised as a noticeably huge problem affecting well-being and social functioning. While a certain amount of conflict and harassment is typical of youth peer relations, bullying presents a potentially more serious threat to healthy youth development. Research using the National Longitudinal Study for Children and Youth found that a significant proportion of school-aged children in Canada were either bullies (14%) or victims (5%). Data from the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Scandinavian countries, Ireland and England, were quite similar to those reported in Canadian studies.

Generally, the findings on bullying indicated that bullying is a physically harmful, psychologically damaging and socially isolating aspect of a large number of children's school experience. Studies had also highlighted that children who are bullied have higher levels of stress, anxiety, depression and illness, and an increased tendency to suicide. The victims of bullying are two to three times more likely to contemplate suicide than their peers (Rigby, 2000). Over the past two decades, an extensive body of research has documented that bullying is a potentially damaging form of violence among children and youth (Due, Holstein, Lynch, Diderichsen, Gabhainn, Scheidt & Curie, 2005). So, while bullying is not a new phenomenon, what is new is the growing awareness that bullying has serious damaging effects for bullies, victims, schools and communities. It is imperative that educators understand the dynamics and consequences of bullying, as well as what they can do to support students in these situations (Allen, 2010).

Asamu (2006) found that 22.5% of the students she studied in Ibadan, Nigeria were below 15 years of age; bullying behaviour was peculiar to junior secondary school (22.5%) and 21% of male students had bullied other students. Various reports and studies in Canada and abroad over the past decade have consistently established that approximately 10-15% of children attending school are either bullied regularly or were initiators of bullying behaviour (Kartal, 2009; Egbochuku, 2007; Olweus, 1993; Pepler, Craig & O'Connell, 2001).

Research shows that bullying is also a main concern in Ghanaian schools (Williams, 2013; Antwi, 2014; Acquah, Wilson & Doku, 2014; Antiri-Otopa, 2015; 2016; Abakah, 2015). According to Antiri-Otopa (2015), bullying in Ghana has been associated with school violence. Although a number of research

has been done on bullying from the Ghanaian context, the focus has mainly been on bullying prevalence and its impact (for example. Antwi, 2014; Abakah, 2015). These studies focused on the prevalence of bullying and its association with levels of violence and risk behaviour (Williams, 2013) and whether bullying predicted high school dropout (Acquah, et al., 2014). Moreover, some of the above-mentioned studies (Antwi, 2014; Antiri-Otopa, 2015; 2016; Abakah, 2015) restricted their sample to a certain grade or group of learners that is secondary school students and also to the Central, Ashanti and Northern regions of the country. The current study focuses on bullying behaviour (physical, verbal, sexual and emotional bullying) and personality factors on the psychological health of junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students in Ghana. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Explore the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students.
2. Investigate the kinds of bullying behaviours exhibited among the junior high school students.
3. Explore the kinds of personality traits prevalent among junior high school students.
4. Determine the relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students.
5. Ascertain the relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health among junior high school students.

6. Determine the relationship between personality traits and psychological health among junior high school students.
7. Ascertain the gender difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated in line with the specific objectives of the study:

1. What is the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students of Greater Accra Region?
2. What are the kinds of bullying behaviours exhibited among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region?
3. What personality traits are prevalent among the junior high school students of the Greater Region?

Hypotheses

The following hypothesis were formulated and tested in accordance with the specific objectives of the study:

- H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.
- H₁₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.
- H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

- H₁₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.
- H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.
- H₁₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.
- H₀₄: There is no statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.
- H₁₄: There is a statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.

Significance of the Study

The findings of the study would make vital contributions to knowledge and education. The findings of this study would provide reasonable information that can be applied in the field of clinical health psychology, school psychology and education to help in-school adolescent overcome their negative experience of bullying. This implies that with appropriate attention focused on developmental life span of students, parent and teachers should endeavour to develop good morals in students as this would help them express good behavioural conduct in the society.

Again, the study would provide an indication for school principals, teachers, and school psychologists to be aware of the possible impact that witnessing bullying can have upon the mental health of their students. PTA and parents to be aware of the possible impact that witnessing bullying can have upon the mental health of their students. In addition to discussing actual victimisation experiences, clinical health psychologists who find themselves in the school setting would also discuss with students and with parents the importance of monitoring television programs and the use of social media at home, and also, the emotional impact bullying can have upon those who witness it, and how it can affect the way in which they react to situations where others are victimised. Thus, interventions would be provided to engage students who are not victims themselves but who are aware of victimisation taking place, as these students can play a positive role in enhancing the school environment. Teachers can take action and help the students be successful in and outside the classroom. The study would also add to the body of knowledge by serving as a reference source for other researchers.

Delimitations of the Study

The study should have been done across the nation. However, the study focused on Junior High School Students in the Greater Accra Region due to some observations and interactions the researcher had with some JHS students who claimed to be perpetrators and victims of bullying. In particular, the scope of the study covers the Ledzokuku-Krowor District and the Ga East District of the Greater Accra Region. Again, considering the content of the study, it is evident in literature that several studies have been done on associated factors and psychological impacts of bullying in different countries. However, this

present study was restricted to finding out bullying behaviour, personality factors and psychological effects among Junior High students in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana.

Limitations of the Study

The refusal of many heads of schools approached with the fear that their various institutions will be victimised was a limitation that could possibly affect the outcome of the study, the researcher had to limit the number of schools. However, the researcher believes that the number of schools used were enough to have accounted for a reliable data. In addition, the fear of the respondents (students) that they could be disciplined in the school could have led to them giving wrong responses which could also have affected the outcome of the study.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of the study, the following terms are defined conceptually:

Bullying - The repeated use of force, threat or coercing to abuse, intimidate or aggressively dominate others.

Peer - A person who is of the same age or has the same social position or the same attributes as other people in a group.

Perpetrators – Person(s) who carries out a harmful, illegal or immoral act.

Personality factors- individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving.

Prevalence- the frequency of condition or situation existing an area or the spread of a condition in a geographical area.

Psychological health- a state of functioning at a satisfactory level of emotional and behavioural adjustment

School - Educational institution for students up to the age of 20 years of age.

School administrators - This comprises the top hierarchy of the school who assist the headmaster in the day- to- day running of the school.

Victims - Children who are bullied by others.

Violence - Acts or words intended to hurt another whether they are accompanied by physical force or not.

Organisation of the Study

The thesis was organised into five chapters. Chapter one focuses on the introductory which specifically encompasses background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions and hypothesis, significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study, and definition of terms. The second chapter reviews the related literature focussing on the theoretical background, empirical studies and also looks at the conceptual framework of the study. The third chapter outlines the methodology of the study. This section provides the details of the activities undertaken by the researcher in the conduct of the study. These include: the research design, the study area, the study population, the sampling procedures, the sources of data, data collection instruments, pre-test, the fieldwork, and data processing and analysis. The findings of the study are presented and discussed in Chapter Four, while Chapter Five provides the summary, conclusions, psychological implications, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students in Ghana. The chapter therefore reviewed relevant literature on the topic indicated. The literature review of the study presented the findings, assertions and observations of several writers or authors on the the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health. Specifically, the review covers the theoretical framework, concepts of bullying, bullying behaviour and psychological health, relationship between personality and psychological health, relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health, relationship between personality and bullying behaviour, gender difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour and conceptual framework of the study. In addition, empirical studies on the study variables were also reviewed.

Theoretical review

The study used Bandura's (1997) social learning theory, Connor's (2002) sensation seeking theory and Eysenck's (1947) personality theory to better understand the study variables.

Social Learning Theory

The Social Learning Theory of Albert Bandura (Bandura, 1977) is used as a framework to explain the reasons why learners engage in bullying behaviour. Bandura (1977) argues that most behaviours displayed by people is learned by observation through modelling (copying) others. From observing

others, a person is able to form an idea on how new behaviours are performed and on later occasions the coded information serves as a guide of action. According to Schultz and Schultz (1993), Bandura argues that people are not born with the ability to act violently; they learn aggressive behaviour through their life experiences. These experiences include personally observing others act aggressively or watching people being rewarded for violent acts. For example, the boy who sees his father repeatedly hitting his mother without being punished, because the mother did not report her abuse to the police, is more likely to copy such behaviour and become a battering father or husband.

According to Siegel (2005), social learning theory maintains that a person's violent tendencies is activated by factors in the environment, such as the specific form of aggressive behaviour, the frequency with which it is expressed and the situation in which it is displayed. Siegel (2005) and Schulz and Schultz (1993) indicates that aggressive behaviour is learned during interaction with other people and by observing others behaving in a certain manner. Oosthuizen and Roscoe (2009), indicate that teenagers are exposed to aggressive environments. According to them aggression breeds aggression. This aggression finds expression in swearing and bullying, among other behaviours. Incidents of parents swearing in public places can potentially be regarded as signs of aggression. Bandura (1977) states that as a result of repeated exposure to violent behaviour, modelling stimuli eventually produce enduring, retrievable images of modelled performance and that people can observe and learn diverse lifestyles of conduct through mass media. Bandura (1977) also said models presented in televised form are so effective in capturing attention that viewers learn much in what they see, thus, learners who watch violent movies most of

the time on television where, the heroes are never punished for their actions, are likely to engage in aggressive behaviour in the form of bullying.

Siegel (2005) as well as Schultz and Schultz (1993) state that Social Learning Theory views violence as something that is learned through a process called behaviour modelling and that aggressive behaviour in modern society is usually modelled after three principal sources:

- i. Family interactions: Siegel (2005) highlights that studies of family life revealed that aggressive children have parents who use similar tactics when dealing with others. For example, the children of wife batterers are more likely to use aggressive tactics to solve problems than are other children in the general population.
- ii. Environmental experiences: people who reside in areas where violence occurs daily are more likely to act violently than those who live in low-crime areas whose norms stress non-aggressive behaviour.
- iii. Mass media: films and television commonly show violence that is often portrayed as acceptable behaviour, especially for heroes who never have to face legal consequences for their actions. Children who watch these films are likely to act aggressively toward others as they imitate the behaviour of their heroes in these films.

Sensation Seeking Theory

Perhaps a biological and physiological basis for bullying and victimisation is provided by the sensation seeking theory (Connor, 2002). Sensation seeking is a personality trait that gives the basis for understanding the propensity to engage in bullying behaviour as satisfying a biological need. Together with traits like extraversion and impulsivity; sensation seeking has

been related to the enzyme monoamine oxidase (MAO), which points to the role of central monoamine systems in the trait. The enzyme MAO, in turn, has been related to risk-taking activities. More so, according to Healy (1997) damage to the area of the brain responsible for controlling aggressive urges, the amygdala and an imbalance of the hormone testosterone can also affect the activity of neurotransmitters in the brain, lowering serotonin levels thereby creating a neurological state which is associated with disinhibiting, acting on impulse and seeking arousal and stimulation in the environment. Another suggestion is that certain individuals, as a result of brain damage at birth, suffer from a cluster of symptoms which render them incapable of moral control, and are constantly seeking stimulation because of this cortical under-arousal.

According to the earlier optimal level theory by Carol and Zuckerman (1977), sensation seekers should be more prone to use drugs of all types; that stimulate high cortical arousal levels. Zuckerman (1984) found a positive significant relationship between drug use and sensation seeking. These findings suggest that people use drugs to stimulate and maintain arousal in the cortex (Carol and Zuckerman, 1977). Hence, sensation seeking theory (Zuckerman, 1984) provides a very comprehensible explanation for why students who bully have been found to have low arousal levels. The theory states that chronic low arousal is an aversive physiological state therefore individuals seek activities and experiences that will gratify their need for sensation. It also maintains that there are varying levels of sensation (high or low) that can be applied. For instance, a person relaxing while watching a television programme in the evening would be in a low state of arousal, whereas if the same person was waiting to be interviewed for employment during the day would be in a high

state of arousal. In effect, the level of arousal within each person varies throughout the day.

Thus, arousal levels refer to the different states of consciousness associated with different activities (Eysenck and Gudjonsson, 1989). Individuals have their own natural level, ranging from low to high (Eysenck and Gudjonsson, 1989). Individuals who are distressed from low arousal hunt for excitement, often in a manner of engaging in some sort of violent or disruptive behaviour, so as to gain arousal levels to their personal optimal (Eysenck, 1964). On the other hand, individuals with high levels of arousal tend to avoid stimulating situations, in an involuntary effort to reduce anxiety and escape potential punishment (Connor, 2002). Invariably, this results in why such persons are usually picked on by others and seen as vulnerable prey for bully victimisation.

High levels of stimulation are assumed to predispose individuals to having increased sensitivity to signals of punishment and non-reward (Knyazev et al., 2002). It can produce a number of typical behavioural problems, such as emotional maladjustments, anxiety, avoidant behaviour, reticence, nervousness, timidity and shyness (Matthews and Deary, 1998; Knyazev et al., 2002). Meanwhile, low levels of arousal have also been linked to a number of personality traits and behavioural problems (Eysenck, 1964; Matthews and Deary, 1998; Knyazev et al., 2002). Research has revealed that low aroused individuals tend to be highly socially skilled (Lieberman and Rosenthal, 2001). Under arousal is also believed to cause individuals to be less sensitive to signals of punishment in the presence of cues for reward (Knyazev et al., 2002). A high positive correlation has been found between low arousal and antisocial and

criminal behaviour in both longitudinal and cross-sectional studies (Raine, Venables and Williams, 1990b; Coren, 1999).

From the view of the above theory, it can therefore be implied that some people deliberately bully others to meet and satisfy a physiological need for arousal. Thus, bullies have been found to be high on sensation seeking because they probably derive stimulation (arousal) from the thrill of bullying others (Knyazev, Slobodskaya & Wilson, 2002).

Eysenck's Personality Theory

Eysenck's theory of personality is based on the physiological findings from Pavlov's research of classical conditioning, and on the concepts of excitation-inhibition and arousal hypotheses. According to that, he claimed that personality traits actually reflect individual differences in the ways that peoples' nervous systems operate. The greatest contribution of Eysenck's theory is in the possibility of detecting genetic factors and of determining the universality and stability of personality dimensions. Eysenck's theory is based primarily on physiology and genetics. Although he is a behaviourist who considers learned habits of great importance, he considers personality differences as growing out of our genetic inheritance. Eysenck's original research found dimensions of personality.

Neuroticism

Neuroticism is the name Eysenck gave to a dimension that ranges from normal, fairly calm and collected people to one's that tend to be quite "nervous." His research showed that these nervous people tended to suffer more frequently from a variety of "nervous disorders" we call neuroses, hence the name of the dimension; but people who score high on the neuroticism scale are necessarily

neurotics -only that they are more susceptible to neurotic problems. Eysenck was convinced that, since everyone in his data-pool fit somewhere on this dimension of normality-to-neuroticism, this was a true personality, that is. That this was a genetically-based, physiologically-supported dimension of personality.

Extraversion-Introversion

His second dimension is extraversion-introversion. By this he means something very similar to what Jung meant by the same terms, and something very similar to our common-sense understanding of them: Shy, quiet people “versus” out-going, even loud people. This dimension, too, is found in everyone, but the physiological explanation is a bit more complex.

Eysenck hypothesized that extraversion-introversion is a matter of the balance of “inhibition” and “excitation” in the brain itself. These are ideas that Pavlov came up with to explain some of the differences he found in the reactions of his various dogs to stress. Excitation is the brain waking itself up, getting into an alert, learning state. Inhibition is the brain calming itself down, either in the usual sense of relaxing and going to sleep, or in the sense of protecting itself in the case of overwhelming stimulation. Someone who is extraverted, he hypothesized, has good, strong inhibition: When confronted by traumatic stimulation -- such as a car crash -- the extravert’s brain inhibits itself, which means that it becomes “numb,” you might say, to the trauma, and therefore will remember very little of what happened. After the car crash, the extravert might feel as if he had “blanked out” during the event, and may ask others to fill them in on what happened. Because they do not feel the full mental impact of the crash, they may be ready to go back to driving the very next day.

The introvert, on the other hand, has poor or weak inhibition: When trauma, such as the car crash, hits them, their brains do not protect them fast enough, do not in any way shut down. Instead, they are highly alert and learn well, and so remember everything that happened. They might even report that they saw the whole crash “in slow motion!” They are very unlikely to want to drive anytime soon after the crash, and may even stop driving altogether.

Neuroticism and Extraversion-Introversion

Another thing Eysenck looked into was the interaction of the two dimensions and what that might mean in regard to various psychological problems. He found, for example, that people with phobias and obsessive-compulsive disorder tended to be quite introverted, whereas people with conversion disorders (for example, hysterical paralysis) or dissociative disorders (for example, amnesia) tended to be more extraverted. Eysenck stated that, highly neurotic people over-respond to fearful stimuli; if they are introverts, they will learn to avoid the situations that cause panic very quickly and very thoroughly, even to the point of becoming panicky at small symbols of those situations -they will develop phobias. Other introverts will learn (quickly and thoroughly) particular behaviours that hold off their panic -- such as checking things many times over or washing their hands again and again. According to Eysenck (1989), highly neurotic extraverts, on the other hand, are good at ignoring and forgetting the things that overwhelm them. They engage in the classic defence mechanisms, such as denial and repression. They can conveniently forget a painful weekend, for example, or even “forget” their ability to feel and use their legs.

Psychoticism

Eysenck came to recognise that, although he was using large populations for his research, there were some populations he was not tapping. He began to take his studies into the mental institutions of England. When these masses of data were factor analysed, a third significant factor began to emerge, which he labelled psychoticism. Like neuroticism, high psychoticism does not mean you are psychotic or doomed to become so -- only that you exhibit some qualities commonly found among psychotics, and that you may be more susceptible, given certain environments, to becoming psychotic. The kinds of qualities found in psychotics include a certain recklessness, a disregard for common sense or conventions, and a degree of inappropriate emotional expression.

Conceptual review

Conceptual definition of bullying

Bullying has been defined in a multitude of ways. Some of the earliest research on bullying was done by Dan Olweus, Psychology Professor at the University of Bergen, Norway, who began his research in the early 1970's working with boys in Norway. Through his research he developed a comprehensive definition of bullying that includes reference to negative peer actions, repetition of those actions, and perpetration by an individual who exercises power over the victim (Olweus, 1993). David P. Farrington of Cambridge University also explored the definition of bullying in depth and although he contested that there was no one single definition of bullying upon which all researchers agree, he did include all factors that Olweus includes plus one more, the absence of provocation by the victim (Farrington, 1993). Olweus

accounted for Farrington's addition to this definition by specifying different types of bullying that may or may not include provocation (Olweus, 1993).

American researchers, Nansel et al. (2001), in their definition of bullying, further specified the nature of the power imbalance by differentiating between physical and psychological power but including both as viable elements of bullying. Physical power may include physical size or strength, whereas psychological power may include social status or popularity. Like Farrington's (1993) inclusion of the absence of victim provocation, differentiating the nature of the power imbalance may also indicate the form bullying takes. Likewise, Griffin and Goss (2004) added that bullying takes place among individuals who are familiar with each other. This factor may be more or less related to the power factor, as there would need to be some sort of familiarity among the participants in order for a power differential to be construed.

Lee (2006) explored, in depth, the idea of a definition of bullying in his study of teacher's and how they define bullying. He examined six strands...Intent, Hurt, Repetition, Duration, Power, and Provocation and used these as a structure in which to examine perceptions about bullying among teachers (p. 65). Lee (2006) concluded that the definitions that are commonly found in the research on bullying may not be very helpful for teachers who see a wide variety of behaviours that could be construed as bullying. His research falls more in line with other researchers who define bullying less as a clearly defined concept but more of a continuum of behavioural interactions and/or relationships.

Rather than a discrete conceptual definition, this continuum allows for a range of actions and relationships to be considered bullying in nature (Espelage & Swearer, 2003). These interactions range from verbal interactions such as teasing, to relational interactions such as exclusion, to physical interactions such as hitting, but, most importantly, these actions take place within the given social or environmental context in which intentionality, power differential, and repetition can vary among participants. This means that participants in one context can be identified as a victim whereas in another context may be identified as a bully and ultimately can move from one group to the other and to areas in between depending upon the social environment that is exerting influence at any given time (Swearer & Doll, 2001). It is this fluidity that defines the nature of bullying as interactions occurring along a continuum.

According to Byrne (1994), bullying is a longstanding violence, physical or psychological, conducted by an individual or group and directed against an individual who is not able to defend himself in the actual situation. Furthermore, Henkin (2005) agrees with the given definition by defining bullying as a wilful desire to hurt another or put him/her under stress. It means that the bully knows what he/she is doing when confronting the victim. This means that bullying is seen as a long standing violence, physical or psychological, perpetrated by an individual or group directed against an individual who cannot defend himself or herself. In line with this Olweus (1993) also defines bullying, but more carefully and restrictive, as “repeated, negative actions over time, including hitting, kicking, threatening, locking inside a room, saying nasty and unpleasant things, and teasing” (p. 413).

Rigby (2008) suggests that bullying is “the systematic abuse of power in interpersonal relationship” (p.22). In other words, bullying is when a person is picked on over and over again by an individual or group with more power, either in terms of physical strength or social standing. Rigby argues that the abuse of power is not restricted only to certain managerial or “authority” positions, but that most individuals have “the opportunity to exercise power to control over someone”. Thus, there are apparently imbalances in physical and psychological strength between bully and the victim (Olweus & Solberg, 1998). Again, Futterman (2004) notes that bullying is an action that leaves the victim feeling afraid, powerless, incompetent, and ashamed.

Types of Bullying

Bullying can occur in both direct and indirect forms, a bully might say nasty things about someone, grab other learners things, tease someone or leave a learner out of a group on purpose (Lee, 2004). Understanding the various types of bullying can help prevent bullying and stop it before it occurs.

Direct Bullying

According to Lee (2004), direct bullying can be defined as a relatively open attack on a victim that is carried out face to face and may include pushing, kicking and fighting. Similarly, Woods and Wolke (2004) notes that direct bullying includes direct aggressive acts such as hitting, kicking, pinching, taking belongings or money, pushing or shoving, or direct verbal abuse. These are all ways that learners engage in direct physical bullying.

Another common type of direct bullying is verbal bullying. Verbal bullying involves teasing, mocking, name-calling, threatening, and taunting by other learners (Beane, 2000). Sharp, Thompson and Arora (2000) believe that

this type of bullying is also seen as “more hurtful in terms of the consequences, including feelings of depression, low self-worth, loneliness, anxiety and severe difficulties with social relationships in adulthood”. Bullying thus displays power relations, which may or may not be those of an older or stronger person imposing his/her will on a younger or weaker person. The potential for bullying as playfulness may occur in groups (only the friends present) through teasing. Learners who are bullying may say that they are “only teasing”, while the victim may experience it as bullying or as an unpleasant experience. There is a difference between “teasing” and bullying. Teasing occurs when friends act in a way where they have fun together without hurting each other physically. Bullying, on the other hand, occurs when children are not really friends with each other; they then act in a way where there is a desire for power and begin to hurt each other physically or emotionally.

Bullying also shows an imbalance of power of a person or group, and is repeated over and over again. Vally (2005) clarifies the difference between teasing and bullying. Vally contends the perpetrator of teasing as someone who cares, and the person is made fun of in an amusing way. According to him, the victim may enjoy the playful act and the teaser will stop if the victim is upset. In contrast to this, Vally also explains that bullying occurs when the victim does not enjoy the playful act because the teasing becomes worse and the bully does not want to stop.

Indirect Bullying

Boulton, Truman and Flemington (2002) states that indirect bullying can be defined as “being subtle and less direct and includes behaviour such as social isolation and exclusion from a group”. Emotional bullying occurs mostly as

indirect bullying and it includes spreading rumours, gossiping about a learner and social exclusion (Shangkuan, 2011). According to Butler, Kilt and Campbell (2009), cyber bullying, as a more recent form of bullying, is a type of bullying that occurs when the perpetrator intends to cause emotional or physical harm to the victim. This kind of bullying can constitute the deliberate and hurtful actions of a more powerful person or group perpetrated on a less powerful person or group, and occurs again and again. They also suggest that the bully chooses “to hide his or her identity to place the victims in a powerless position where they are unable to fight back, and unable to protect themselves as they feel hurt, vulnerable and embarrassed”.

Cyber bullying is one of the foremost social media means of bullying in which learners engage these days. In a study conducted by the National Crime Prevention Council (2009), it was stated that cyber bullying is on the rise and involves text messages or images that are hurtful, embarrassing or threatening via the use of cell phones, emails and instant messaging. They further suggest that cyber bullying can also include creating websites such as My Space or Facebook to post harmful information or images about someone that may destroy friendships. In addition, Rondganger (2012) mentions in a survey conducted by the National Crime Prevention Council on cyber bullying in 2009, that the most important reasons for cyber bullying are “the intentions of revenge, amusement, out of boredom and to get a response from their victims”.

Three characteristics of bullying

Most researchers agree that bullying has negative effects on the school climate and student population in any educational institution. However, the idea of what bullying actually is and the criteria used to define it, have been debated

by many experts in the field. According to Olweus (2003), who some consider the father of bullying research, defined bullying as when a student “is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students” (p. 12). Olweus (2003) described negative actions as aggressive behaviour in the form of “physical contact, with words, or in more indirect ways, such as making mean faces or gestures, spreading rumours, or intentionally excluding someone from a group” (p. 12). Bullying not only consists of negative actions performed by one or more students to another student, it also involves an imbalance of power. The victim, usually, does not provoke the aggressive behaviour or threaten it in anyway. They do little to resist the “attack” of a bully (Olweus, 2003).

Bully

Bullies can be found throughout our society. They come in all sizes, ages, genders, and ethnic backgrounds. In a bullying situation, the bully is the participant that exhibits negative or adverse actions toward one or more individuals. Espelage, Bosworth, and Simon (2001), studied approximately 500 middle school students from grades 6th, 7th, and 8th. Using a survey that included demographic questions, self-report, and peer-report measures of bullying and victimisation, they were studying the stability and change of bullying over a four-month time period. There was a significant increase in bullying behaviour from Time 1 to Time 2 for 6th grade students; no significant change in bullying was found among 7th or 8th graders. Higher levels of impulsivity, anger, and depression were also associated with greater levels of bullying over time.

Espelage and Swearer (2003) speculated that the sixth-graders were assimilating into the middle school, where bullying behaviour was part of the school culture. This speculation is supported by the theory that bullying is a learned behaviour, and that as they enter middle school, sixth-graders have not yet learned how to interact positively in the social culture of the school. Many sixth graders who wish to "fit in" may adopt the behaviours including teasing of those students who have been in the school longer and who have more power to dictate the social norm. Bullies seemed to be characterised as being popular and attracting many followers. They were considered confident with superb social skills, which could be used to easily manipulate their peers and adults. With such good social skills and the ability to attract positive feedback from peers through their negative behaviours, it's easy to see how bullying can become a self-reinforcing act for the bully (Espelage & Swearer, 2003).

These findings are supported through research conducted by Juvonen, Graham, and Schuster (2003) on a group of almost 2,000 6th grade students. The participants from this study were collected from a community sample of 11 urban schools in Los Angeles. Results were measured by peer reports of who bullies and who is victimised, self-reports of psychological distress, and peer and teacher reports of a range of adjustment problems. Most importantly, the study relied on classmates to report which students were involved in bullying, because they had ample opportunities to observe peers' behaviour in situations where bullying was most likely to take place. Students provided confidential reports on which classmates bully others and which are victims of bullying. Again, results showed that despite having increased conduct problems in school, bullies were psychologically stronger and had a higher social status than their

victims. Even teachers' ratings indicated that the bullies were the most popular group in school (Juvonen, Graham, & Schuster, 2003). This would lead one to believe that the idea of bully, and the behaviours associated with it, will only continue due to peer-reinforcement.

Research attempting to clearly define bullying characteristics is mostly for the purposes of prevention and identification of risk factors. There is commonality in the bullying literature with bullies characterised as aggressive, impulsive, and lacking in empathy (Farrington & Baldry, 2010; Hixon, 2009). They tend to be fairly popular among their classmates, generally confident or secure in their self-concept, have a need to control or dominate others, and will turn more quickly to aggression to achieve their goals than their non-bullying peers (Hixon, 2009). Further, one of the most extensive studies on bullying in the United States found that compared to their non-bullying peers, children who bully may be more likely to smoke and consume alcohol at an early age, have lower academic achievement and tend to be generally involved in riskier, problematic behaviours (Nansel et al., 2001).

Other factors identified in the (Nansel et al., 2001) research point to risk factors around family environment, that is., overly permissive parenting along with a high tolerance for aggression (Olweus, 1993). Additionally, research indicates that children who are identified as bullies have a tendency to grow into adults who continue to be aggressive, are more likely to engage in criminal activity as adults, and become abusive in their personal relationships (Nansel et al., 2001; Olweus, 1993).

School connectedness is another factor that is common in the research on bullying characteristics. Studies out of New Zealand and Australia found

that students who self-report bullying behaviours, tend not to feel connected to their school (Raskauskas, Gregory, Harvey, Rifshana, & Evans, 2010; Yoneyama & Rigby, 2006). This factor may be reinforced by the equally aggressive peers they tend to seek out within their schools and classrooms, and prevailing male-dominated cultural norms that favour aggression to achieve goals (Rodkin, 2004). This negativity towards school is often accompanied by conflict at home and negative influences within the neighbourhood, which may then be carried over to aggressive peer relationships (Cook, Williams, Guerra, Kim & Sadek, 2010).

Victim

According to Olweus (1993), the second participant in a bullying conflict is the victim. At times, so much attention (good or bad) is given to the bully. The victim or target in a bullying situation can be over-looked or missed by parents and other adults. Part of this could be due to the nature and make-up of the victims in these conflicts. Many of the traits exhibited by bullies are exactly opposite of those characteristics of targets. There is not one trait an individual possesses that guarantees he or she will become a victim of bullying Olweus (1993). Olweus described the target of a bullying situation as follows:

The typical victims are more anxious and insecure than students in general. Further, they are often cautious, sensitive, and quiet. When attacked by other students, they commonly react by crying (at least in the lower grades) and withdrawal. Also, victims suffer from low self-esteem, and they have a negative view of themselves and their situation. They often look upon themselves as failures and feel stupid, ashamed, and unattractive.

Many of these victims seem to be loners or students who are abandoned in some way, shape, or form at school. Most are not aggressive in nature and shy away from violence. Victims seem to have trouble asserting themselves in groups, and therefore, may lend themselves to becoming targets of bullies (Olweus, 1993).

A group of researchers were interested in studying childhood personality traits and participant roles in bullying situations. Tani, Greenman, Schneider, and Fregosoin (2003) conducted their study using approximately 200 3rd and 4th grade students from two public elementary schools in Central Italy. All students were asked similar questions about the personality traits and roles of bullying participants. The researchers used a 21-item Participant Role Scale to identify the roles played by the participants during incidents of bullying. The results showed that victims of bullying situations are perceived to have poor social skills and tend to be more emotionally unstable than other participants. Another characteristic of targets in this study was that they are loners due to their poor social skills and lack of friendliness toward their peers (Tani et al., 2003).

Like those who bully, those who are bullied are also at risk for social and emotional problems (Nansel et al., 2001). Common characteristics found in the literature for targets of bullying include their non-aggressive nature and their tendency to be rejected by their peers (Hixon, 2009; Nansel et al., 2001). In his early research, Hixon (2009) found that victims were more anxious, insecure, and unpopular than their non-bullied peers. These factors have been confirmed as correlates of victimisation along with depression, physical weakness, and low self-esteem including a tendency to blame themselves for

their victimisation (Cook et al., 2010). The low self-esteem and self-blame that characterises victims is also worsened by repeated bullying and therefore creates a cycle of victimisation that research has shown is stable over time, that is, victims of bullying tend to continue to be victims as they progress through school (Shelley & Craig, 2010).

In addition to these individual characteristics found to be typical of victims, there are environmental factors that play a role in victimisation. Cook et al. (2010), in their meta-analysis of bullying and victimisation risk factors, found that contextual factors of negative home, neighbourhood, and school environments, along with poor peer relationships are common among victims as well. Several studies have attempted to further investigate the peer relationship issues related to victimisation. These studies have found rejection by, and isolation from peers to be a significant identifying characteristic of victims (Salmivalli & Isaacs, 2005). Victims of bullying are likely to struggle with social skills and appear to peers to be socially inept or incompetent (Cook et al., 2010). This often leads to their having few, if any, friends. Research has found that having friends and positive relationships with peers is one factor that protects children from victimisation (Salmivalli & Isaacs, 2005).

In addition to the above characteristics, there appears to be support for two distinct behaviour patterns in victims. Olweus (1993) first identified this difference in his earliest research and it continues to be supported in the literature. One pattern of victim behaviour is more common and follows the general description above of a child who is non-aggressive and seemingly weaker than those who exhibit bullying behaviours. Olweus (1993) referred to those who demonstrate victim behaviour as “passive” victims because they do

not appear to invite attention from the bully. Yet, they are nevertheless targeted by a bully. The alternate behaviour pattern is less common and is characterised by a child who is quick to lose their temper, is more aggressive, and seemingly more annoying to others. This victim behaviour profile is referred to as “provocative” (Olweus, 1993). Several studies support this particular distinction in victim behaviour (Nansel et al., 2001; Unnever & Cornell, 2004).

Bystander

The third and final participant in a bullying incident is the bystander. Bystanders observe the bullying situation up close or from afar. Bystanders usually watch bullying in silence or occasionally laugh due to nervousness (Doll, Song, & Siemers, 2004; Pellegrini & Long, 2004). Many observers fear that if they do communicate with the victim, they too may fall prey to harassment and/or abuse from the bully (Davis, 2005).

Bystanders play an important role in most bullying situations. The observing peer or peers not only reinforces the problem, intentionally or unintentionally with their presence during an incident, but can also become a bully themselves. Research has shown that individuals, young and old, may act more aggressively after observing an aggressive act modelled by another individual or group (Cunningham, 2007). This is even more evident when the model appears to be rewarded through his or her “victory” over the target (Rigby & Johnson, 2006).

Rigby and Johnson (2006) conducted an international study to find out what children think when they witness bullying. The researchers made a video of cartoons showing different kinds of bullying, both physical and verbal, with bystanders’ present. The video was shown to upper elementary and middle

school children in South Australia. Most of the children were split when asked what they would personally do as a bystander in each situation. There were those that believed they would help the victim in some way and those who would ignore him. Some children and adults approve of bullying, while others found the violence or possibility of violence attractive (Rigby & Johnson, 2006).

The most effective influence on children's bystander behaviour is what they think their friends expect of them. This may be true in most cases; however, teachers and parents should continue to teach indirectly so that children can be encouraged to object to bullying when a parent or teacher is not around. In addition, bystanders who are more easily influenced by bullies tend to be the “followers” with no defined status among their social group. They would like to find a way to assert themselves and gain popularity among their peers (Olweus, 1993). Another factor that affects how observers will relate or react to a bullying incident is their definition of what bullying is. Many times, peers are not properly educated on what is and is not considered bullying. Mishna (2004) administered a survey to sixty-one students in grades four and five in four public schools to identify students who reported being victims of bullying. A prevailing pattern emerged about how difficult it was for students to identify what was and was not a bullying incident. Not only did the children lack a firm understanding of bullying, but to make matters worse, they were adamant that communicating this kind of incident to an adult would not help (Mishna, 2004). Rigby and Johnson (2006) stated that parents and teachers have little influence on the actions of their children and that, quite often the idea that bystanders of bullying incidents are only students, not educators, is considered true. But if we

forget to include teachers and other adults who work in our schools as observers, the problem of bullying will most certainly continue. Just like children, teachers may have difficulty recognizing a case of bullying from something that is not. Mishna, Scarcello, Pepler, and Wiener (2005) highlighted this problem in their study of teachers' understanding of bullying. The study included nine boys and nine girls in grades four and five who identified being frequently bullied. Each child's teacher was also selected to be a part of the interview to gain an understanding of how teachers understood bullying in general and specifically, with the respect to the self-identified students (Marriam, 2002).

Furthermore, the study conducted semi-structured interviews with 13 teachers with respect to 17 children (10 teachers had one child in their class, two teachers had two children, and one had three). Most teachers surveyed had trouble recognizing victims in their own classrooms and how to intervene when a true situation of bullying occurred. With all the pressures teachers and faculty members are under to properly educate each child in their classrooms, reporting child's misbehaviour can be an added source of unwanted stress and anxiety. This kind of attitude can foster misbehaviour and bullying in a school setting (Mishna et al., 2005).

Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, Österman and Kaukialnen (as cited in Salmivalli, 2010) classified bystanders into four categories based on the ways in which they participate in bullying episodes; assistants, reinforcers, outsiders, and defenders. Assistants help the bully, reinforcers give active support to the bully, outsiders remove themselves from the episode, and defenders help the victim (Salmivalli, 2010). These descriptions of the bystander role are widely supported in the research studies (Easton & Aberman, 2008; Gini, Pozzoli,

Borghi, & Franzoni, 2008; Karna, Voeten, Poskiparta, & Salmivalli, 2010). These role definitions are linked to the reasons why bystanders behave as they do but also serve to influence the nature and degree of bullying in varying ways.

Characteristics of Bully-Victims

More recently, the concept of “provocative” victim has been more or less replaced by the term “Bully-Victim” (Cook et al., 2010; Parault, Davis, & Pellegrini, 2007; Salmivalli, 2010; Unnever & Cornell, 2004). The profile of the bully-victim is very much a combination of the characteristics of both the bully and the victim and, as such, they are “among the most disliked members of the peer group” (Parault et al., 2007, p. 149). In Atlas and Pepler’s (2001) highly-regarded observational study of classroom bullying, sixty-eight episodes of bullying were recorded and forty-two children were identified as participating in these episodes as either a bully or a victim. Eleven of those forty-two were identified as bully-victims because they were observed as bullies in some episodes and as victims in other episodes (Atlas & Pepler, 2001). This percentage is a bit higher than is indicated in other studies but at the same time, it is likely a more reliable number due to the observational nature of the data collection as compared to most research that relies on student self-reports (Cook et al., 2010; Nansel et al., 2001; Yoneyama & Rigby, 2006).

The distinctive nature of these children combining both bully and victim characteristics, is very much in line with the social ecological framework of bullying, which views bullying behaviour as occurring over a continuum that includes all levels of participants in bullying incidents from the uninvolved to the bully themselves (Espelage and Swearer, 2003; Swearer and Doll, 2001). Children who are bully-victims, seem to move easily from one part of the

continuum to another depending upon the context of the incident, suggesting that in schools, the social climate and peer group may support the existence of bullies and victims equally.

Bullying in school

The phenomenon of bullying in schools has increasingly captured universal attention among researchers, the media, school authorities, and parents who are concerned about students' well-being and safety (Moon, Hwang, & McLuskey, 2008)). Bullying in schools is also a worldwide problem that can have negative consequences for the general school climate and for the rights of students to learn in a safe environment without fear. It is widespread, and perhaps the most underreported safety problems in schools. Until recently, most bullying researchers have been merely concerned with school bullying although other contexts of bullying have also been widely researched. The reason for this is that during school age, bullying becomes a common and daily basis activity among students. In relation to this, Sampson (2002, p. 2) argues that the “most frequently bullying happens during elementary school and slightly less during middle school and less so, but still frequently, in the high school”.

Many studies have been carried out related to the phenomenon of bullying in school. Olweus, the first Scandinavian researcher concerned with the issue, conducted his systematic study in Norwegian and Swedish schools and found that many students experienced school bullying. The findings showed that approximately 7% of Scandinavian students in the sample engaged in school bullying, and between 5% and 15% of students in various grades reported being bullied (Moon, et. al 2008, p. 3) or approximately “one in seven pupils

are involved in bullying with the degree of regularity - either as bully or victims” (Olweus, 1993, p. 13). Other studies concerning school bullying also have been conducted in various countries such as Austria, Canada, China, England, Italy, Japan, South Korea, and the United States, and found similar or even higher percentage of samples who engage in bullying (Moon, et. al 2008; Olweus & Solberg, 1998). By regarding these studies, it is possible to see a consistent indication that school bullying is becoming a global phenomenon. Although much of the formal research on bullying in school has taken place in those mentioned countries, the problems associated with bullying have been noticed and discussed wherever formal schooling environments exist.

General findings of the phenomenon of school bullying show that bullying is comprised of direct behaviours such as teasing, taunting, threatening, hitting, and stealing that are initiated by one or more students against a victim. In addition to direct attacks, bullying may also be more indirect by causing a student to be socially isolated through intentional exclusion (Olweus & Solberg, 1998). Whether the bullying is direct or indirect, the key component of bullying is that the physical or psychological intimidation occurs repeatedly over time to create an ongoing pattern of harassment and abuse (Rigby, 2008). To let bullying in schools continue without any intervention will most probably escalate the phenomenon to school violence and create a serious risk to students’ academic life and academic performance.

The types of bullying in schools

In schools, bullying happens in different ways, caused by different people and to different people. According to Frude and Gault (1984) there are different groups of people who commit bullying acts in schools and these are as

follows: teacher to pupil, teacher to teacher, pupil to teacher, and pupil to pupil. This study focuses on pupil to pupil only. The group of perpetrators, pupils, commit bullying to their victims in different ways. Although bullying may come in different forms, either visible or non-visible, all forms hurt, and some forms might be difficult to identify.

Physical bullying

Physical bullying is the most obvious form of bullying found in our schools and is more identifiable than other forms of bullying (Carrol-Lind & Keamey 2004). It occurs when a person is physically harmed through being beaten, hit, kicked, punched and scratched, or any other form of physical attack (Lund, 1996). Research has found that boys engage in more overt and physical forms of bullying than girls. Data from the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention through Youth Risk Behaviours Surveillance Survey indicated that 7.4% of the American youth are reported being treated after injuries with a weapon on school grounds, one or more times in a year, and punching is happening every day in schools (Futrell, 2003). Other incidents include; damage to property such as ripping of clothes, damaging books, and destroying property.

Emotional bullying

This type of bullying is different from physical bullying in the sense that it is invisible and it might be difficult to detect. This type of bullying can be done both by teachers and learners. According to McEachern, Aluede, and Kenny (2008) emotional bullying can be a consistent use of verbally abusive language to harshly criticize or to place excessive demands on a child's performance, or withholding warmth and affection causing emotional distress.

UNESCO (1999) who reported that some forms of violence are subtle and not easily identified because there is no physical evidence of harm, this is supported by (Newman-Carlson and Horne, 2004) who stated that in the USA, modern technology such as mobile phones and internet are used by students to bully others because it is easier to keep hidden. Emotional bullying also includes blaming, disruption, insult and name calling which make the person feel uncomfortable. Van Zyl (2009) states that emotional and verbal bullying can be just as destructive as physical bullying because it breaks down your dignity and self-confidence. This type of bullying is more dangerous than others because it affects the learners and teachers in silence and the victims seldom receive any support.

Sexual bullying

Sexual harassment is defined as unwarranted verbal or physical sexual advances, sexually explicit derogatory statements, or sexually discriminatory remarks made by someone in the education environment that are offensive or objectionable to the student, that cause the student discomfort or humiliation, or that interfere with the student's performance (Poland, 2003). Sexual bullying is when a person is singled out because of their gender and demonstrates unwarranted or unwelcome sexual behaviour, such as: sexual comments and unwanted physical contact (McCaffrey, 2004). Beaty and Alexeyer (2008) defined sexual harassment as a form of bullying in which the intent is to demean, embarrass, humiliate, or control another person on the basis of gender or sexual orientation. According to Li (2008) boys sending messages to girls from their mobile phones, pointing to porn images, or drawing these on paper and

buildings, pulling down a girl's skirt in front of other students, or calling them slags can be forms of sexual bullying.

Ethnic or tribal bullying

Ethnic bullying in schools can range from ill-considered remarks, inappropriate language use, or by the fact that victims are singled out because of the colour of their skin, the way they talk, their ethnic group, their religious or cultural practices. Students might be bullied because they look different, have different values, different languages, and customs or eat unfamiliar food (Sullivan, Cleary & Sullivan, 2005).

Cyber bullying

Cyber bullying is a form of bullying behaviour where technology is used to send insulting or threatening words to other learners. In cyber bullying, the bully can use a cell phone to send a short text message (SMS) or multimedia message services (MMS) to the victim or through internet via chat rooms and emails. These messages are sent with the aim of hurting another learner's feelings. Seabi (2009), as well as National Children's Bureau (2005) said that bullying tactics have increased with technology. Children are now even bullied by the use of insulting text messaging, and even phone calls. The bully can send a short text message to the intended victim with the aim of hurting the feelings of the victim or may say something on-line chat room such as in "MXit" (mix it) in order to embarrass the intended victim. National Children's Bureau (2005) found e-mailing to be the most common form of cyber bullying both inside and outside the school, while chat room was the least common.

Quiroz, Arnette and Stephens (2006) states that cyber bullying includes writing hurtful or threatening e-mails and posting on web sites. The postings

may be of a certain learner taken by another learner at school using a cell phone camera. The posting is sent to the web sites with the intention of hurting the feelings of the other learner. The picture may also be posted on internet chat rooms with an insulting message.

The National Children's Bureau (2005) conducted a research to investigate the nature and extent of cyber bullying among school learners in the London area using a questionnaire. The following forms of cyber-bullying were found to be prevalent in this study: text messaging, picture or video clips (via mobile phone cameras), phone calls, e-mails, on-line chat rooms, instant messaging and websites.

These forms of cyber bullying contain threatening, insulting words and pictures of sexual nature which were sent with the intention of making the recipient scared or hurt. With regard to phone calls, bullies called their intended victims with the aim of insulting them or to make them suffer emotionally. The National Children's Bureau (2005) indicate that the use of phone pictures, video clips, as well as phone calls in bullying were perceived by the researchers as having more impact on the victim than traditional forms of bullying. In the above-mentioned study, websites and short text messages (SMS) were rated as being equal in impact to the traditional method of bullying (physical bullying, verbal bullying and emotional bullying), while using chat rooms, instant messaging and sending e-mails were seen as having less impact than the traditional forms of bullying.

Other forms of bullying behaviour

De Wet (2005) and Perkins and Craig (2006), identified taking, stealing or damaging another learner's belongings, demanding a service (for example,

the bully may ask the victim to polish his/ her shoes), making rude gestures and mean faces at other learners, being pointed with a knife or any other kind of weapon, sending nasty letters, threatening or intimidating the victim and making up things to get the target into trouble as forms of bullying. An example of making things to get the target in trouble is that, while the teacher is in class, the bully may make noise. When the teacher asks about the person who was making noise, the bully will point his/her target as the one who was making noise so that the victim can be in trouble with the teacher.

Victims and perpetrators of bullying

Victims of bullying

A victim of bullying is a child who does not feel safe at school due to threats or real physical harm by someone at his/her school (Sanders & Phye, 2004). Anyone who is different is susceptible to being bullied, but lesbian, gay, bisexual, and trans gendered children are among the most frequent victims, and seven times more likely to be bullied (Henkin, 2005; Robertson, 2008). Often victims of bullying turn out to become bullies. According to Sanders and Phye (2004) victims of bullying have low self-esteem, personal characteristics which are different from the rest of the peers and their social anxiety is high. Some are those who are physically weak, disabled, overweight, and unattractive and they often exhibit behaviour that invite and reinforce bullying. Academically, victims appear to be less intelligent, have inferior social intelligence and see themselves as dull, stupid and worthless. Sanders and Phye (2004) describes victims of bullying as those who tend to have close relationship with their parents. However, Byrne (1994) disagrees by saying that victims of bullying have poor relationship with their parents.

Both girls and boys are victims of bullying but in different ways. Boys are more likely to be involved in bullying behaviour than girls and physical bullying and extortion are more common among boys than girls (Byrne, 1994). Although overt fighting among girls is increasing, this still is not the norm, because society expects girls to be nice (Wright & Keetley, 2003). Bor et al., (2002) state that the forms of bullying that are common among girls are exclusion, name calling, stories spreading and other emotional bullying. Girls tend to be bullied by either boys or girls, or both, while boys tend to be bullied by boys only.

Perpetrators of bullying

Henkin (2005) found that about 160,000 children in the USA miss school every day for fear of being bullied. But who really bully them? Sanders and Phye (2004) define a perpetrator as an individual not following rules, getting into physical fights, and picking on others because they are not liked by the majority of learners in their schools. Pieters (2008) disagrees by saying that perpetrators of bullying are the ones who are consistently among the most liked and respected children in school. They have good self-esteem and are actually privileged by the rewards that come from bullying (Kaltiala-Heino, Rimpela, Rantanen & Rimpela, 2000).

On the other hand, research found that bullies are children who are rejected by their peers; they are lonely and have poor relationships with other students (Henkin, 2005). Beaty and Alexeyer (2008) state that bullies often come from families where parents use more physical forms of discipline, which may be coupled with parents who are rejecting and hostile or overly permissive. Families of bullies tend to struggle financially, have social problems and lack

family structure including parental conflict, and have a cold emotional environment all of which distance bullies from their parents. In addition, parents of bullies are often authoritarian, hostile and rejecting (Sanders & Phye, 2004). According to Olweus (1993), youngsters who are aggressive are likely to become bullies and might be engaging in other behavioural problems such as criminal activities and alcohol abuse. Bullies tend to have personalities that are authoritarian, combined with a strong need to control or to be dominant. However, bullies can also be quiet and obedient learners, while boiling with resentment.

Philip (2009) also added that often bullies act cool to hide any problem or fear they may have. They could perhaps feel that they are not as smart as others, or there could be a problem at home and for them, the only solution is to pick on someone smaller or weaker to make themselves feel better. In schools, it is not only learners who are bullies, but teachers can be bullies too. According to Resenthal and Wilson (2008) some teachers, often unaware of the impact of their behavior on students, psychologically maltreat them and students at all grade levels experience abusive emotional assaults from teachers in the classroom. Excessive screaming at students, subtle remarks, labelling students as dumb, threatening learners and humiliating them are all forms of bullying (McEachern, et al., 2008). Teachers can therefore also be culprits when it comes to bullying in schools.

Causes of bullying in schools

Family and community influence

Many authors (Philip, 2009; Sanders & Phye, 2004; Sullivan et al., 2005; Van Zyl, 2009) believe that an individual exposed to violence at an early

age is more likely to become a bully in comparison with someone who was raised in a non-violent family. Some boys are raised in the family with the idea that violence proves you are a man, and they see their fathers beat up their mothers and think it is normal. Children learn that aggression is the way to achieve status because that has been modelled for them by the parents. These findings are in accordance with Bandura's observational learning theory and the idea that human beings observe, think about, and imitate behaviour which can lead to both acceptable and unacceptable behaviour (Lefton, 2003). The combination of lack of parental supervision with the use of power assertive methods of discipline may be especially potent in terms of its contribution to bullying behaviour. Research findings revealed that children who are victims of violence at home tend to be bullies at schools because they are acting out of frustration (Hoffman, 1996). There is less victimisation in schools where parents are involved in their children's education, and where school counsellors proactively intervene in bullying incidents, and where there are anti-bullying measures for students and teachers (Sanders & Phye, 2004).

UNICEF (2007) indicated that a lot of children in Namibia are growing up in violent environments which have implications in their livelihoods. Balter and Tamis-LeMonda (2006) stated that there is ample evidence that exposure to family or community violence can cause depression, aggression and non-compliance behaviour in children. Children exposed to violence are likely to engage in anti-social or risk behaviour at school, including bullying, (Gershoff & Aber, 2006). Community's beliefs, attitudes, and norms that are held by the majority of individuals can directly affect the child's ways of behaving. Gershoff and Aber (2006) indicated that there are some disadvantaged

neighbourhoods where children are exposed to repeated violent or even traumatic events which in the end increase the likelihood that the youth will themselves engage in violent acts. Growing up with a violent role model can make the pattern of violence hard to break, and these children can bully others at school because they think that it is cool to do it (Li Sik, 2008).

School setting, structure and values

According to Gershoff and Aber (2006) the school context such as school size, class size, teacher-learner ratio, location and academic performance can be reasons for bullying to take place. Violence and bullying are more likely to happen in schools that are large, overcrowded, poorly organized or have poor resources. Schools with 1000 or more students are more likely to experience violent problems in comparison with schools with less than 300 students (Baldry & Farrington, 1999). According to Byrne (1994) the school playground with a large number of children thrown together, usually in a small area, create an environment conducive for bullying. Some researchers have found that victimisation is more likely to happen in large city schools than in small schools (Sanders & Phye, 2004), however, Byrne (1994) indicated that large schools have fewer bullying incidents than small schools because bullying is less likely to happen in large and crowded schools. According to Balter and Tamis-LeMonda (2006), if parents' values contrast sharply with those of the schools, these children are likely to be rejected by other learners, and this can cause problems within the school.

Curriculum, lesson content and academic expectation

Schools that have challenging curricula and that have high expectations for their students and limited disruptive and maladaptive behaviour, tend to have

fewer bullying incidences than schools where quality of education is poor. Violence is found in schools with high numbers of low achieving students (Ayres & Hedeem, 2003). This is supported by Sanders and Phye (2004) who indicated that high academic expectation discourages bullies from picking on others for the reason that most students in schools with intense academic pressure are too busy academically to look around for victims. Learners who perform poorly in school tend to become bullies because of frustration caused by poor academic achievement.

Substance abuse and peer pressure

A common source of bullying in schools is peer pressure and the formation of gangs. Gangs are more commonly associated with those with lower family incomes and tend to go hand in hand with the availability of drugs in a school (Gershoff & Aber, 2006). It is estimated that 56% of violence cases reported in schools are related to alcohol (Cauaiola & Colford, 2006). According to Philip (2009) peer pressure plays an important role in antisocial behaviour among teenagers. Due to peer pressure, learners may bully others because it is expected of them to do so. They try to identify themselves with others. According to Mwamwenda (2004) one of the factors facilitating social learning is identification, whereby one person identifies with another person's behaviour, attitudes, system of values and beliefs, and as far as possible behave exactly like the person being imitated.

Reasons why students become bullies

Learners engage in bullying because they have learned that behaviour at home and as a result, they model out that behaviour. Those learners do not see a problem with regard to their behaviour because they saw their parents

practicing that behaviour. Children learn by observing their parents, they display what they have seen their parents do (Bandura, 1977).

The desire to dominate others

Students engage in bullying because they have a strong desire to dominate others. Olweus (1993) indicate that bullies are likely to be physically aggressive, with pro-violence attitudes, and are typically hot-tempered, easily angered, and impulsive, with a low tolerance for frustration. Bullies have a strong need to dominate others and usually have little sympathy for their victims. Bullies tend to be in trouble more often than learners who do not bully others. They also tend to dislike school and to perform poorly. Oregon Resilience Project (2003) points out that bullies tend to be oppositional towards others. This means that they do not follow rules that govern the school. They tend to engage in other anti-social behaviours and are likely to break school rules. For example, if they are told to come to school at 07:30am, they may come to school an hour later because they do not follow rules. Nansel et al. (2001) indicate that bullies are also more likely to drink and smoke or engage in fights than their peers.

Nansel et al. (2001) noted that bullies appear to have no difficulty in making friends. Their friends typically share their antisocial behaviours (such as drinking and smoking) and may be involved in bullying as well. Olweus (as cited in James, 2010) states that friends of the learners who engage in bullying behaviour are often followers who do not initiate bullying, but participate in it because of the influence of the bully. Nansel et al., (2001) also noted that bullies usually pick on others as a way of gaining acceptance and feel more important and in control. Bullies also usually pick on others as a way of dealing with their

own problems. In some cases, bullies pick on others because they need a victim (someone who seems emotionally or physically weaker), or because they try to gain acceptance and feel more important, popular, or in control. At times bullies think that when they bully others they will gain popularity at school and therefore be respected by all learners at school.

Dealing with difficult situations at home

Learners resort to bullying as a way of dealing with difficult situations at home. Nansel et al. (2001) state that bullies resort to the abusive behaviour of bullying as a way of dealing with difficult situations at home, such as broken homes or partial separation of parents. Bullies may regard their behaviour as normal because they grew up in families in which everyone shouts when angry.

Lack of emotional support from parents

Learners engage in bullying because they lack emotional support from parents. According to James (2010), learners who come from homes where parents provide little emotional support for their children, fail to monitor their activities, or have little involvement in their lives, they are at greater risk of engaging in bullying behaviour than those that are supervised. Brown, County and Sheriff (2008) also noted that parental disciplining styles are also related to bullying behaviour. An extremely permissive or excessively harsh approach to discipline can increase the risk of engaging in bullying.

Exposure to violence at home

Learners engage in bullying because they were exposed to violence at home. Moretti and Stewart (2006) stated that when children are exposed to parental violence and aggression, they may learn lessons about how to respond to conflicts and not learn other ways to solve relationship problems. These

experiences can ultimately leave children prone to bullying their peers and later on to aggression with their partners.

Healthwise (2008) points out that learners who bully may have witnessed physical and verbal violence or aggression at home. They have a positive view of this behaviour and act aggressively towards other people, including adults. They may hit or push other children. Farrington (cited in Smith & Ananiadou (2003), indicate that bullies are more likely to come from families that lack warmth and in which violence is common. In these families, the parents apply inconsistent discipline. Today a certain act is not allowed, tomorrow the same behaviour that was prohibited yesterday is allowed. This inconsistent discipline style leaves the child confused. They end up not knowing the correct way of behaving in the company of others.

The Social Learning Theory of Albert Bandura emphasizes that aggressive behaviour is learned through observing others behaving in a certain manner (Bandura, 1977). Children learn to act aggressively after observing parents and other adults acting aggressively towards each other. For example, there are learners who live with parents who cannot resolve inter personal conflict peacefully, but use aggression. The likelihood is that their children might engage in bullying or other antisocial behaviours. These learners will regard their behaviour as acceptable because they would have observed the most important people in their lives acting aggressively.

Oregon Resilience Project (2003) indicates that learners who come from homes where physical punishment is commonly used, where children are taught to fight back physically as a way of handling problems, and where parental involvement and nurturing are lacking, are most likely to become bullies. They

engage in this antisocial behaviour because they have learned that behaviour at home. When they are at school, they model the behaviour that they have been taught by their parents and as a result they tend to bully other learners.

De Beyer (as cited in Seabi, 2009), said that normally, children bully because they have experienced aggression either at home or in their environment. Parents who fight each other will deprive their children feelings of security. The children will feel helpless about the situation at their homes. They will then resort to bullying others at school as a way of dealing with their life experiences at home. Bullying others makes them feel powerful. Parents who coerce, shout at or hit their children, are raising future criminals. Siegel (2005) as well as Schultz and Schultz (1993) state that aggressive behaviour is learned through example. If children have seen someone behaving in an aggressive way, they imitate that behaviour.

Exposure to violence on television

Learners become bullies because they have watched violence on television. De Beyer cited by Seabi (2009) further state that research has shown that a constant watching of violence on television, films or playing computer games influences a child's tendency to bully. This may occur as a result of learning because aggressive behaviour is learned after observing others behaving in such a way. Children tend to copy what they see their heroes doing in movies and behave the same way when they are in social contacts with other children.

Bullying as a way of retaliation

Learners sometime become bullies because they were themselves victims of bullying. Nabuzoka and Smith (as cited in Smith & Ananiadou,

2003), note that learners who have distinct characteristics such as ginger hair, usually become victims of bullying. These learners may, however, not remain victims forever because, according to Douglas (2002), victims of bullying can reach the limits of endurance and as a result retaliate and become reactive bullies. The retaliation bullying will be as a result of learning. The victims will be imitating the behaviours of the bullies. From Bandura's theory we learn that people learn by observing others behaving in a certain manner, and then they repeat the behaviour that they have observed (Schultz & Schultz, 1993). Levinson (2002) says that researchers who studied the 1999 Columbine High School massacre in Littleton, Colorado (USA) concluded that the massacre could have been a case of retaliation by students who were bullied at the school.

Effects of bullying

The impact of bullying in schools is immense, and it affects all those involved in education. It is not only bullying victims who suffer the consequences, learners and teachers as well as the entire school and community suffer as a result of bullying. In an interview conducted by Li (2008), one of the learners stated that school is not always fun, and everyone has something that makes them a little nervous- a strict principal, tests, even orals in front of the class. But the thought of seeing a bully at school really makes you more nervous than a million of spiders chasing you. It affects every nerve in you and you feel bad.

According to Hoffman (1996) bullying and harassment are issues which can deeply affect the lives of pupils, families and staff which at the end of the day creates an atmosphere of intimidation. This is echoed by Sullivan et al. (2005), who describe bullying as having a negative effect on an individual's

physical and psychological wellbeing both in the short and long term. Bullying can affect learners in different ways, which can either be detected while learners are still in school or in later life.

Effects of bullying on learners and their future

According to Jones (2001) fear of bullying also affects the entire school atmosphere and as a result students' attention decreases and some students become less eager to attend school while on the other side, teachers find it difficult to put all their attention on teaching and learning processes because they are distracted by bullies. Children who are bullied at school risk continuing misery and loss of self-esteem, with possible long-term effects such as dropping out of school (Smith & Sharp, 1995). Sullivan et al. (2005) states that children who are severely bullied at school are six times more likely to drop out of school, or avoid going to school which may cause decline or failure in academic performance. Victims of bullying are more anxious, insecure and withdrawn than other students in general. Learners who are picked on, made fun of, ostracized, harassed, and generally humiliated and targeted by fellow learners over a period of years may build up anger and hatred that finally explode into physical violence (De Wet, 2005; Sanders & Phye, 2004).

There could also be a ripple effect into adulthood if the bullying problem is not dealt with early. According to Phillip (2009) there are men in their fifties who still have murderous thoughts about the kids who victimised them at school. The effects of bullying on learners mostly have long term effects if not dealt with effectively. According to a study done in South Africa, students who are involved in bullying at school, are also likely to have one or more criminal convictions by the time they reach young adulthood (Townsend, Flisher,

Chikobvu, Lombard & King, 2008). According to Futrell (2003) in five to ten years, these young men and women who are currently in schools will become part of the adult population. They are the people who will be expected to safeguard and enhance all the rights of our citizens. It is the future of this nation and the kind of society we want that is at stake if nothing is done now (Bor, Ebner-Landy, Gill & Brace, 2002).

Effects of bullying on teachers

According to Newman-Carlson and Horne (2004) bullying has a direct negative impact on students, teachers, school properties, the community and the educational process. Gershoff and Aber (2006) states that in schools where bullying exists, teachers become discouraged and lose their interest for their students. Teachers feel insecure and less likely to challenge or discipline their learners for the fear of being bullied. If teachers are not free at school, it is hard for them to work towards their goals (Sullivan et al., 2005). Cauaiola and Colford (2006) further state that when teachers get tired of bullying, they can withdraw from the situation by leaving teaching, taking sick leave or opting for early retirement. It is also recorded that schools with high records of bullying have been struggling to recruit and retain good teachers, and the teachers who remain will be less likely to confront misbehaving students out of fear of their own safety, leading to disruptive classrooms with fewer opportunities for learning (McCaffrey, 2004).

Effects of bullying on the bullies

Conviction and antisocial behaviour

It is evident that bullying can lead to arrest and conviction. Olweus (1993) found a strong relationship between being a school bully and

experiencing legal and criminal problems as an adult in Norway and Sweden. Sixty percent (60%) of those who were regarded as bullies in grades 6-9 had at least one criminal conviction by the age of 24. Literature by Olweus (1993) points out that for bullies, the act of bullying can lead to criminal behaviour and violence in adulthood. Bullying behaviour that continues into adulthood can turn into criminal activities, which may lead to a person being arrested (Quiroz, Arnette, & Stephens, 2006). It is for this reason that bullying should be studied so that effective measures to prevent it can be adopted. If bullying is not prevented earlier, communities are going to experience higher crime rates that they would have prevented earlier. This suggests that intervention should not only be for victims, but also for bullies. Dake, Price and Telljohann (2003) as well as Olweus (1993) showed a strong relationship between bullying others at school and other forms of antisocial behaviour such as cheating in tests, shoplifting, vandalism, conduct problems, fighting, the use of drugs and alcohol, having problems with the police as well as skipping and dropping out of school.

Weapon carrying

Bullying behaviour has been linked to carrying of weapons to school. Dake, et al. (2003) as well as Tanzola (2006), showed a significant relationship between learners who frequently bully others and the carrying of a weapon or bringing a weapon to school. Learners who bullied others were more likely to carry a weapon to school than other learners who did not have a history in bullying behaviour. For learners who frequently bully others, an examination is needed to check the possibility of being in possession of weapons. Bullies may

bring weapons to school to defend themselves against victims who may seek revenge by bringing weapons at school to fight the bullies.

Relationships

Bullying can negatively affect relationships. Oliver, Hoover and Hazler (1994) indicate that chronic bullies seem to maintain their behaviours into adulthood, negatively influencing their ability to develop and maintain positive relationships. Schultz and Schultz (1993) as well as Siegel (2005) noted that aggressive behaviour is learned after seeing another person behaving in that way. When bullies are not taught early that bullying others is not acceptable, they will grow up with that behaviour because they will have learned it as a manner of conducting themselves in the presence of others. Bullying behaviour that continues into adulthood can turn into child abuse, domestic violence and other criminal activities (Quiroz et al., 2006).

Aggression and psychological problems

Bullying breeds aggression and psychological problems. Moretti and Stewart (2006) state that perpetrators of bullying are at risk of carrying out other forms of aggression, such as sexual harassment, dating violence, workplace harassment, marital aggression, child abuse and abuse of the elderly people. They can also experience a number of mental health problems such as depression, insecurity, lower self-esteem, loneliness and anxiety (Moretti and Stewart, 2006). Kuther (2003) indicate that bullies fail to learn how to cope, manage their emotions and communicate effectively. They suffer stunted emotional growth and fail to develop empathy.

Quiroz, et al. (2006) indicated that learners who bully may think that they are in full control of what is happening. They may also think that the only

ones being hurt are the targets of their bullying. But the truth of the matter is that bullying does not only hurt its intended victims, it also hurts the one who perpetrates it. A bully who learns to use aggression toward others may find it difficult to break out of his/her negative behaviour. Some learners who engage in bullying behaviour are less likely to be respected or trusted by others. Bullies may be seen as manipulators or as mean and unpleasant people. Some acts of bullying can result in suspension or expulsion from school and the loss of valuable learning time (Quiroz et al., 2006).

Effects of bullying to the victims

Absenteeism from school

Bullying can lead to absenteeism in school. Field (2007) state that in American schools, an estimated 160 000 learners miss school every day due to fear of being attacked or intimidation by other learners. Dake, et al. (2003) as well as Bucqueroux (2003) indicate that bullying can lead to truancy among learners who fear being bullied by other learners.

School shootings and carrying of weapons to school

Bullying can lead to school shootings and carrying of weapons to school. Field (2007) says that bullying can lead to school shootings. Two thirds of school shootings were found to have been conducted by victims of bullying in The United States of America. Tanzola (2006) mentioned that a 2003 study showed that learners who were bullied often were more likely to carry a weapon or bring a weapon to school. Learners who are bullied on a weekly basis at school are about 50% more likely than other learners to carry a weapon or to bring a weapon to school. These learners bring weapons to school as a way to defend themselves against bullies because they know that physically they

cannot fight with the bullies because bullies choose victims that are physically weaker to them. When learners bring weapons at school, they may injure or kill other learners.

According to Brown County Sheriff (2008), Quiroz, et al. (2006) as well as Proctor (2007), as a result of bullying some learners who are bullied, they are forced to take drastic measures such as vigilante justice by carrying weapons to schools for protection and also to seek violent revenge. They usually participate in physical fights or in many dangerous ways.

Psychological problems

The negative effects of being bullied are not only experienced while the learner is still young, the problems can be carried to adulthood. Brown County Sheriff (2008) indicates that adults who were bullied while they were teenagers have higher levels of depression and poorer self-esteem when compared with other adults. Bullying can make victims to experience psychological problems. Brown County Sheriff (2008) as well as Voster (2002) noted that the victims of bullying often turn their anger inwards. As a result, they can experience a number of mental health problems including depression, anxiety, schizophrenia, attempted suicide, fear, anger, tension, low self-esteem, social isolation, maladjustment, loneliness and problems in interacting with other children and adults. They may also feel less accepted, humiliation, insecurity and unhappiness. Some victims become angry and aggressive and start bullying others. Victims may also suffer from impaired concentration at school; as a result, they perform poorly at school and experience fear when they have to go to school.

Being bullied carries long-term risks as postulated by Tanzola (2006), who found that a study of 4,811 participants in the Netherlands showed that learners who are bullied are more likely to have depression and suicidal tendencies. This association is stronger for those that are bullied indirectly such as spreading malicious gossip than those who are bullied directly (such as hitting). These learners may commit suicide because the gossip that is spread by bullies is psychologically damaging and painful. For example, if a learner is sick for a week, those who wish to put her down may say that she was sick because she is pregnant. The learner will feel very unhappy about herself because other learners will laugh at her as a result of the gossip. As a result, the learner may wish to commit suicide to escape her misery.

Field (2007) states that 40% of suicide victims had been bullied at school. Kazmierow (2003) state that sixteen children who were victims of bullying committed suicide in the United Kingdom every year out of desperation to end their torment. Brown County Sheriff (2008) again mentioned that learners who are desperate to end their misery can commit suicide.

Physical problems

Bullying can make victims to experience physical problems. Kazmierow (2003), Moretti and Stewart (2006), as well as Brown County Sheriff (2008) indicates that victims of bullying can also suffer physical consequences such as bed-wetting and loss of appetite. Victims of persistent bullying often develop somatic complaints that include headaches and stomach aches.

Feelings of rejection

Bullying can make victims feel unwanted and rejected. Quiroz, et al. (2006) said that bullying can make a learner feel unwanted and rejected at

school. Learners who are targets of bullying are fearful and spend their energy worrying about when and how they will be bullied again. This has an impact on their studies, because instead of them concentrating on their studies, they concentrate on what they can do to protect themselves against bullies and how the bullying will take place. They may suffer a direct pain and discomfort when the victimisation is physical. They may begin to withdraw from school activities and areas on campus where bullying take place. For example, if a learner plays soccer and happen to be bullied in the sport field, he may decide to stop playing soccer completely as a way of escaping his/her victimisation.

Aggressive behaviour

Bullying can breed aggressive behaviour on victims. Learners in schools where bullying problems are ignored and aggressive behaviour not addressed are likely to become more aggressive and less tolerant as well (Whitted & Dupper, 2005). The researcher postulates that these learners become aggressive towards others as a result of learning aggressive behaviour from other children. When other learners display aggressive behaviour and teachers at school say nothing about that, learners who have witnessed that aggressive behaviour will tend to see it as an acceptable behaviour. This point is confirmed by Siegel (2005) as well as Schultz and Schultz (1993), who state that aggressive behaviour is learned after seeing other people behaving in a certain manner. Therefore, when children see adults or other children behaving in an aggressive manner, they tend to copy that behaviour and display it on other people.

Effects of bullying on the observer

Bullying does not only negatively affect the perpetrators and their victims. Learners who observe bullying are also negatively affected by bullying.

The following discussion will focus on the negative effects of bullying that is experienced by witnesses of bullying.

Engaging in bullying

Some learners may engage in bullying after observing it. Quiroz, et al. (2006) says that negative effects of bullying are not only limited to the perpetrator and the target, even those who observe it are negatively affected. Observers of bullying at school may begin to see it as an acceptable behaviour. The fact that adults at their school do not care enough to stop the practise of bullying sends a message that bullying is an acceptable behaviour. Some observers may form an alliance with the bully and start bullying others. Such behaviour would be consistent with Bandura's (1977) theory that aggressive behaviour is learnt from others.

Fear of victimisation

Learners who observed others being bullied may fear that they would become the next targets, particularly if they share some characteristics with the targeted learner (Quiroz, et al., 2006). For example, if a learner who wears glasses is bullied an observer who is nearby would be unlikely to assist if he/she also wore glasses. Whereas some learners may risk their own safety by intervening when their close friends or other peers are being bullied and, in the process, become victims or injured.

School-wide approach to bullying prevention

The effects of a school-wide approach to bullying prevention are abundant in research all over the world. In the mid-1980s, Olweus conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of a bullying prevention programme he developed. One of the major components of his programme was to have

awareness and involvement of all school participants, which included 25,000 students (aged 11-14) from 42 different schools in Norway. Data were collected using a questionnaire developed in connection with the nationwide campaign against bullying. The inventory provided the students with the definition of bullying, certain time periods bullying took place, several different answer choices such as, "about once a week" and "several times a day," and included questions about the attitudes and reactions of peers, teachers, and parents. The programme showed marked reduction in bullying behaviour by more than 50%. Other anti-social behaviours, such as truancy, fighting, vandalism, and drunkenness were reduced (Olweus, 1991). Furthermore, signs of improvement regarding various aspects of the social climate of the schools were found "Improved order and discipline, more positive social relationships, and a more positive attitude to schoolwork and the school" (Olweus, 2005, p. 395).

Again, in early 2000, Olweus conducted a longitudinal study on the effects of the New National Initiative Project for the Norwegian government. This project offered Olweus's bullying prevention programme to all comprehensive schools in Norway which included 21,000 students, in grades 4 – 7. The schools were not randomized by conditions but had approximately the same levels of bully/victim problems at the start of the study. Samples were taken from each school at three different time periods: the autumn of 2001, the spring of 2002, and the autumn of 2002. Results proved to be quite similar to those found in Olweus's previous study. Statistics showed that the level of bully behaviour in the participating schools was reduced. The number of students being bullied dropped between 32% and 34%, and the number of students bullying their peers dropped between 37% and 49% (Olweus, 2005).

The Dare to Care Programme is another bullying prevention programme designed to reduce bullying behaviours and create safe and secure learning environments. The Dare to Care Programme was tested in four Calgary elementary schools. The schools were selected from the same geographic community to match general student characteristics such as socio-economic status and ethnicity across schools (Beran, Tutty, & Steinrath, 2004). The sample comprised 197 students in grades 4-6 to ensure that they could read and understand the measures. Teachers within the schools administered the questionnaires, reading from a script that explained to students that the purpose of the study was to understand children's perceptions of bullying.

The Colorado School Climate Survey was designed to measure several aspects of the school environment (Garrity, Jens, Porter, Sager & Short-Camilli, 2000). For this study, four subscales were used: bullying experienced, bullying witnessed, students' responses to witnessing bullying as well as students' perceptions of the school climate. Students rated the frequency that they were bullied on a 5-point Likert-type scale from. The programme was tested for a three-month period and a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on each dependent variable (bullying experienced, bullying witnessed, helping strategies, and victim attitudes) with school as the independent variable to determine differences between schools on baseline measures. The analysis was used to make sure the two schools were similar at pre-test. Because the schools were not equivalent at pre-test, the researchers used paired sampled t-test procedures separately with the data for each school to assess pre/post-test differences on the outcome measures (Beran et al. 2004).

The results showed a significant decrease in bullying occurrences in the pilot schools compared to the schools that had no programme in place.

Another approach called The Bully Busters programme is a group-based, teacher targeted bullying reduction programme that has been developed to help meet the educational, cultural, and fiscal needs of the school systems in the United States (Newman-Carlson & Horne, 2004). The Bully Busters programme model states that aggression and bullying are behaviours borne of social skills deficits and that the most effective means of reducing aggression and bullying behaviours in the school is through increasing the awareness, knowledge, and efficacy of teachers (Newman-Carlson & Horne, 2004). Whitted and Dupper (2005) studied several decades of bullying prevention research and indicated that the most successful primary interventions address the following: (1) the interventions are designed to positively impact school climate, (2) the interventions are designed to positively impact the teachers' ability to intervene in bully victim dyads (also known as teacher efficacy), and (3) the interventions are designed to positively impact the bullies and victims themselves. Thus, the best practices for preventing or reducing bullying behaviours in schools involve a multilevel and comprehensive approach that impacts the school and classroom climate, the teachers, and the students (Atlas and Pepler, 2001; Garrity et al., 2000). Teachers need to know how they deal with school-based aggression and bullying.

The Bully Busters programme was piloted at a public elementary school in Athens, Georgia. This programme is implemented in the form of a staff development workshop, held over the course of three weeks for two hours per meeting. Teachers share what they learned in their workshop with the students

by using this knowledge in class activities. In this study with elementary-aged children, the students reported a 40% reduction in their aggressive behaviours and a 19% reduction in their victimisation experiences over the course of the school-year. The programme was replicated at a public middle school in Athens, Georgia, and was also found to be effective. In this study the authors reported a significant increase in teachers' knowledge of specific skills for reducing bullying and aggression, a significant increase in their sense of efficacy for managing bullying and aggression problems, and a significant reduction in office referrals for behavioural problems (Newman-Carlson & Horne, 2004). The Bully Busters programme is an effective skills-based bullying prevention programme that targets teacher awareness and proactive interventions.

Conceptual framework

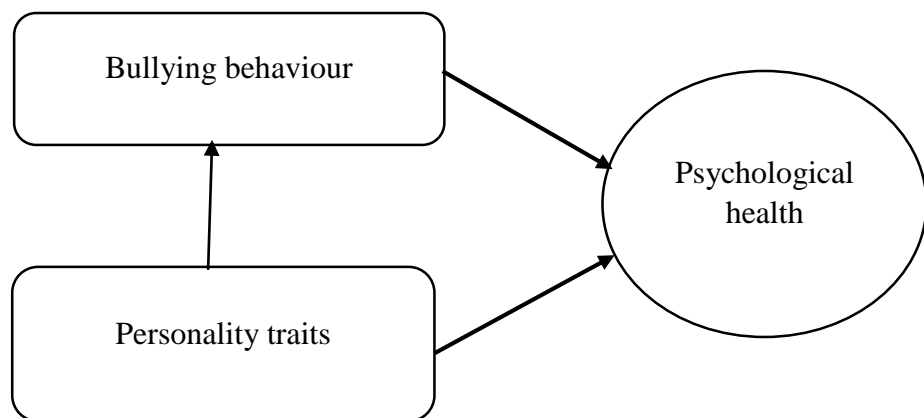


Figure 1: Shows the conceptual framework for the study.

Source: Author's own construct (2019).

Figure 1 presents an illustrative form of the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health. Personality factors as seen in the figure influences bullying which in turn have an impact on the psychological health of students. Personality factors have been associated with bullying and that the personality of bullies is characterised by tolerance of violence,

impulsivity, and lack of empathy. Thus, personality traits influences bullying and individuals who engage in various forms of bullying have the following characteristics; low friendliness (agreeableness) and higher emotional instability (neuroticism). A study carried by Idemudia (2013) showed that individuals who scored high on psychoticism, neuroticism and extraversion also had high scores on bullying behaviour.

From the diagram, there exists a relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health. Bullying has been linked with poor psychological health including being unhappy, feeling unsafe, being truant etc. Being involved in bullying as both a perpetrator and victim seem to compound the impact of bullying, with bully-victims experiencing worse outcomes, being at greater risk for anxiety, depression, low self-esteem, self-harm, suicidal ideation and suicidality, physical injury, substance abuse, aggression, and delinquency. Among other factors, victims of bullying may suffer from psychological and physiological consequences of being bullied. Victims have more anxiety, sadness, sleep difficulties, low self-esteem, headaches, stomach pain and general tension than those who do not experience bullying. Bullying can also affect the victim's school performance and attendance. Poor attendance may be due to the fear/anxiety of being bullied again.

Empirical review

Prevalence of bullying behaviour

Kartal (2009) found that in Turkish schools, 79.6% of learners had engaged in bullying. Again, 67.8% of learners indicated that other learners never told true stories about them; they told stories that made them look bad among other learners. Some learners revealed that others had said mean things

to them, teased them or called them with hurtful names (20.9%). Other learners were kicked, hit or pushed by other learners (19.1%).

Baldry and Farrington (2000) found that 50% of the total school population had bullied another learner. The study that was conducted by Nansel et al. (2001) as cited by the National Youth Prevention Resource Centre (2007) found that 30% of the total youth population had been involved in bullying as the bullies, targets or observers. Again, Nansel, et al. (2001) cited in National Youth Prevention Resource Centre (2007), found that in a national study of grade 6-10, learners in the United States, 13% reported bullying others, 11% reported being the target of bullies, and another 6% said that they had bullied others and were bullied themselves.

Kazmierow (2003) stated that a 2002 study that was undertaken in Scotland revealed that, 16% of learners are bullied through text messages (SMS) that had threatening or insulting words; 7% were bullied in internet chat rooms, where a learner can write comments that are likely to hurt the feelings of the one whom the comments were made about. 4% of learners were bullied via e-mail. The researcher asserts that electronically, a learner can send pornographic pictures in order to make another learner feel uncomfortable.

Brown County Sheriff's Department (2008) states that almost 30% or over 5.7 million learners in the United States were estimated to have been involved in bullying, either as bullies, targets of bullying, or both. Moretti and Stewart (2006) indicate that approximately 23% Canadian learners reported that they have been bullied.

Egbochuku (2007) found that 78% of learners in junior secondary school had been victims of bullying, while 71% had bullied others. Sapouna (2008)

conducted a study in Greek Primary and Secondary Schools to investigate the problem of bullying among learners by using the translated version of the Olweus Questionnaire. A total number of 1758 learners from 20 schools in the Greater Thessaloniki area participated in the research. The study revealed that 8.2% of learners were victims, 5.8% were bullies and 1.1% was either bullies or victims.

Research findings in Cape Town, Durban and Mpumalanga show a lower percentage of bullying among learners than in Gauteng province and Bloemfontein. For example, Townsend, Flisher, Chikobvu, Lombard and King (2008) found that bullying was low in Cape Town High Schools. In Durban and Cape Town, 36.6% of learners indicated that they had been involved in bullying. In rural schools in Mpumalanga, Townsend et al. (2008) found that 11.8% of respondents were involved in bullying behaviour. In comparison, Tshwane reported a higher rate of bullying as compared to Cape Town, Durban and Mpumalanga; the researchers reported that 61% of learners in Tshwane were involved in bullying (Neser, Ovens, Van der Merwe & Morodi, 2003).

Richter, Palmay and De Wet (2000) conducted a study in South Africa among grade one and two learners, they found that 38% of learners had been subjected to bullying by their peers. Most of the learners who had been bullied had suffered from verbal bullying than from other forms of bullying. In a similar study, Sathekge (2004) found that 68.9% out of the sample of 199 learners were bullied, taunted and teased in a hurtful way.

Kinds of bullying in schools

In their study of bullying among learners in New Zealand, Carrol-Lind and Keamey (2004) found few methods of physical bullying as compared to

Bidwell (1996). They found that the most prevalent forms of physical bullying among learners in New Zealand were hitting, punching, kicking, shoving and being threatened. Whereas Bidwell (1996) found vandalism and stealing of personal belongings to be prevalent.

De Wet (2005) found that in the Free State Province learners were not only victimised through the methods similar to those that Carrol-Lind and Keamey (2004) found in New Zealand, but were sometimes forced to dive into holes and/or lie on the ground and also forced to put sand in their mouths. Some victims were forced to do what they perceive to be demeaning physical labour; for example, washing the bullies' shirts and/or socks and carrying the bullies' books to and from school. Again, De Wet (2005) found that in South Africa, learners can be bullied verbally by writing graffiti on the walls of the bathroom where they write the names of other learners and also call them with nasty names. Sexual bullying was found by De Wet (2005) to be the fourth in sequence of six types of bullying among the respondents.

Bidwell (1997) and Greef (2004) undertook a study to acquire descriptive information about bullying among learners regarding the nature and prevalence of bullying in schools. The findings indicated that the most common form of bullying experienced by learners was verbal bullying where learners were teased in an unpleasant way, rumours were spread about them and they were also called by offensive names. Greef (2004) used the revised Olweus Bully/Victim questionnaire (R-OBVQ, 1996) as a self-report measure to investigate bullying across five different dimensions which were exposure to various forms of bullying/ harassment, forms of bullying behaviour, where bullying occurs, characteristics of the bullies and whether the bullying has been

reported to other people such as parents and teachers. Greef (2004) found that learners had been called with mean names, made fun of and also teased in a hurtful way.

Carrol-Lind and Keamey (2004) found that leaving some learners intentionally out of group activities was the most prevalent form of bullying in New Zealand schools. In South Africa, research by Greef (2004) showed the same results with that of New Zealand but extended further to say that other learners reported to have been ignored by some learners. Qing (2004) noted that almost 54% of the respondents had been bullied and over a quarter of them had been cyber-bullied, and almost one in three learners had bullied other learners in the traditional form (physical, verbal bullying, etc.). Almost 15.1% had bullied others using electronic communication tools.

Keith and Martin (2005) found that 57% of the learners who participated in the survey had been bullied by other learners who said nasty or hurtful words on line chat rooms. Greef (2004) found that 58.6% learners had been subjected to mean words in Bloemfontein schools. Again, Kartal (2009) found that in Turkish schools some learners revealed that others say mean things to them or called them with hurtful names (20.9%).

Relationship between bullying and psychological health

The psychological effects of being bullied are not only experienced while the learner is still young, the problems can be carried to adulthood. Brown County Sheriff (2008) indicates that adults who were bullied while they were teenagers have higher levels of depression and poorer self-esteem when compared with other adults.

Kazmierow (2003), Moretti and Stewart (2006), Baldry (2004), Kuther (2003), Proctor (2007), Ericson (2001), Brown County Sheriff (2008) as well as Voster (2002) noted that the victims of bullying often turn their anger inwards. As a result, they can experience a number of mental health problems including depression, anxiety, schizophrenia, attempted suicide, fear, anger, tension, low self-esteem, social isolation, maladjustment, loneliness and problems in interacting with other children and adults. They may also feel less accepted, humiliation, insecurity and unhappiness. Some victims become angry and aggressive and start bullying others. Victims may also suffer from impaired concentration at school; as a result, they perform poorly at school and experience fear when they have to go to school.

Being bullied carries long-term risks as postulated by Tanzola (2006), who found that a study of 4,811 participants in the Netherlands showed that learners who are bullied are more likely to have depression and suicidal tendencies. This association is stronger for those that are bullied indirectly such as spreading malicious gossip than those who are bullied directly (such as hitting). These learners may commit suicide because the gossip that is spread by bullies is psychologically damaging and painful.

Relationship between personality factors and bullying behaviour

Personality factors have been associated with bullying (Slee & Rigby, 1993; Connolly & O'Moore, 2003). Studies found that there is a relationship between personality factors and bullying (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2011; Olweus, 1993). Connolly and O'Moore (2003) and, Slee and Rigby (1993) used Eysenck Personality Inventory- Junior and they reported heightened levels of

psychoticism and slight increases in extraversion and neuroticism among bullies.

According to Olweus (1993), the personality of bullies is characterised by tolerance of violence, impulsivity, and lack of empathy. A study of the Big Five personality traits (that is., openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) and bullying revealed the following characteristics about bullies: low friendliness (agreeableness) and higher emotional instability (neuroticism) (Menesini, Camodeca, & Nocentini, 2010).

A study carried by Idemudia (2013) showed that individuals who scored high on psychoticism, neuroticism and extraversion also had high scores on bullying behaviour. Book, Volk, and Hosker (2012) found that there is a significant negative correlation between bullying behaviour, agreeableness, emotionality and conscientiousness. In support of this finding, Bollmer, Harris, and Milich (2006) found a negative correlation between bullying and agreeableness and a significant negative relationship between bullying and conscientiousness. However, Bollmer et al., (2006) did not find any relationship between bullying and neuroticism. In a study of students aged 13-17 in England, Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) found that bullying behaviour was related to high impulsivity for both males and females, while it was only related to low empathy for male victims.

Relationship between personality and psychological health

In a study by Panaghi, Pirouzi, Shrinbayan and Ahmadabadi (2011), which investigated the role of personality traits and demographic characteristics in spousal abuse, neuroticism had the most significant correlation with violence against women. Neuroticism predisposes individuals to negative emotions. In

fact, this personality trait includes sensitivity to unrealistic belief, poor impulse control, and tendency to experience psychological distress in form of anxiety, anger, depression, embarrassment, hatred and a range of negative emotions. Therefore, it is not surprising to find a significant positive correlation between neuroticism and somatic symptoms, anxiety, and depression. These results were confirmed by studies by Chalniabloo and Garousi-Farshi (2010) and Hayes and Joseph (2003).

Gender differences in bullying behaviour

Gender should not be ignored when studying bullying. There is a need to determine whether learners from different gender groups engaged in the same type of bullying, as this would assist in terms of its prevention or when developing intervention methods. It is also important to know to what extent boys and girls are involved in bullying behaviour.

Verbal bullying and gender

Verbal bullying constitutes about 70% of reported cases of bullying in schools (Rigby, 2000). Olweus (1993) suggests that girls are more subtle than boys in general, therefore, girls show their dominance and superiority by bullying others verbally and socially. However, research show that some boys also use more subtle ways to bully others in an attempt to avoid the consequences that can come with bullying others physically (Olweus, 1993; Rigby, 2000).

Physical bullying and gender

Research indicates that boys tend to use more physical and direct bullying than girls (Card, Stucky, Sawalani & Little, 2008). A study by Erdur-Baker (2010) revealed that male students were more likely to be bullies and

victims in both physical and cyberbullying than their female counterparts. Nansel et al. (2001) show that males reported being the victims of physical bullying more often than females. Earlier studies (Smith, 1991; Whitney and Smith, 1993) have also found that physical bullying is more prevalent in males than in females.

Farrington (1993) as cited in Wimmer (2009), found that males bully more than females do, with males being bullied only by males and females being bullied by both females and males. A study by Silva, Pereira, Mandonca, Nunes and de Oliveira (2013) reports that both boys and girls are victims and perpetrators of bullying with no significant differences in involvement in bullying between genders and the roles played. However, when considering different types of bullying, Silva et al., (2013) found that boys were more victims of bullying with the significant difference only in physical bullying.

Corby, cited in Roche, Tucker, Thomson, and Flynn (2004), Nansel, et al. cited in TNYVPRC (2007), Tanzola (2006) and Brown County Sheriff's Department (2008) stated that bullying take different dimension in terms of gender. Bullying methods that boys employ are not the same as those employed by girls. Boys are more likely to carry out direct or physical bullying (that include pushing, slapping, hitting, kicking, punching, spitting, or tripping), while girls are more likely to carry out indirect bullying (threats, teasing, spreading malicious gossip, verbal insults, swearing, stealing or extortion, or shunning). Girls are more likely to be the targets of spreading rumours and sexual comments.

By comparing boys and girls Naser et al. (2004), Greef (2004), De Wet (2005), Baldry and Farrington (2000), Sapouna (2008), Proctor (2007), Smit

(2003), Bidwell (1996), Moretti and Stewart (2006) found that boys tend to engage in bullying more often than girls. Both boys and girls tended to be bullied by boys; boys typically experience physical and verbal forms of bullying. The researchers also found that boys were made fun of and teased in a hurtful way and they are more likely to physically abuse other learners as compared to girls who mostly suffer from verbal bullying and sexual comments. The National Children's Bureau (2005) found that girls were significantly more likely to be cyber bullied as compared to boys; especially by text messaging and phone calls.

De Beyer cited by Seabi (2009) points out that bullying strategies that are used by boys and girls differ. Boys may be involved in physical bullying, while girls engage in verbal bullying. Girls bully in a more secretive way called relational aggression. They exclude other girls from group activities on purpose to hurt them, and they spread rumours or tease their intended target.

Researchers such as Sapouna (2008), Greef (2004), as well as Proctor (2007) indicated that the forms of bullying that may be carried out by boys and girls differ. Jay (2000) and Anon (2006) argue that boys engage mostly in bullying behaviour because the society attaches a negative connotation to girls who swears, but not to boys because they are allowed to use verbal and physical aggression.

Chapter Summary

Although bullying and related behaviours have been around for many years, it has only been recently that this phenomenon has gained world-wide exposure and attention. Research has shown over and over again the kind of impact bullying has on a school system and its participants. However, it is

evident from the foregoing that much of the studies have been conducted to the neglect of Ghana and for the score the Greater Accra Region. With reference to the reviewed literature, bullying affects the schools' climate negatively which leads to anxiety and fear among school members, resulting in a learning environment that is detrimental to academic success and social development. Although bullying presents immediate consequences, it can also have long-lasting, severe effects on the individuals involved. With the little studies that have been conducted in the case of Ghana, there have been series of reports that bullying is prevalent but none of such studies ascertained the relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of students as well as how the psychological traits of students is related to bullying behaviour or psychological health of students. To fill the research gaps and in particular the Greater Accra Region, the current study is extremely important.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Overview

This chapter presents the methods for the study. The methods include the research design, population, the sample and the sampling procedure, instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical consideration.

Research Design

Research design describes the basic structure of a study, the nature of the hypothesis and the variables involved in the study (Creswell, 2014). Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011) defines a research design as a plan or blueprint of how one intends conducting the research. It provides procedural outline for the conduct of any investigation. It thus reflects the plan that specifies how data relating to a given construct should be collected and analysed.

For the purpose of this study, the descriptive research design through the quantitative approach was used. Descriptive design involves collecting data in order to test hypothesis or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of study. According to Kulbir (2009), descriptive survey is a research design that seeks to find factors associated with certain occurrences, outcomes, condition or types of behaviours. Also, Osuola (2001) noted that descriptive survey is versatile and practical, especially to the researcher in that they identify present needs. He further notes that descriptive research is basic for all types of research in assessing the situation as a prerequisite for conclusion and generalisation. Also, it is a scientific tool where relationship between variables are being determined and follow up questions can be asked and items that are not clear can be explained, and since the population will be so large, it

enables the researcher to make generalizations based on the representative sample chosen. Not only is descriptive survey objective, it also observes, describes and documents aspect of a situation as it occurs naturally. The design is seen as appropriate for the study because:

- a) The nature of the topic require that data is collected through self-report measures and
- b) Large amounts of data can be collected within a short period of time.

This design helps to collect data by asking respondents questions about the construct under investigation. The main difficulty with the design however is demand characteristics, as respondents try to give responses in ways that reflect their idea of what responses the researcher wants from them (Creswell, 2014). Despite these inherent disadvantages, it was deemed the most appropriate design for this study. This study is descriptive in nature because it was carried out to assess the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students. It simply specifies the nature of the given phenomena with a description of the situation using a specified population.

Population

Accord Gorard (2001) explained that a population refers to a group of subjects out of which a sample is selected to generate results of a study. The target population of the study comprised all the junior high school students (from JHS 1 to 3) in the Ledzokuku-Krowor District and the Ga East Distirct. There were 15 junior high schools in the two districts with a total student junior high school students' population of 17,500 (Accra Metropolitan Education Parameter, 2019). The accessible population that was used in the study included

six junior high schools (from JHS 1 to 3) which were selected through convenience sampling. The total number of students in the accessible population stood at 5,091 (Accra Metropolitan Education Parameter, 2019). All the grade level of the schools were used because each students at any of the grade level of levels might have been exposed to any kind of bullying behaviour. Each of the grade level of each school had three classes and they combined as a class. The distribution of the accessible population is presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Distribution of Accessible Population Based junior high schools

School	Students' population
A	
JHS 1	
JHS 2	225
JHS 3	201
B	
JHS 1	
JHS 2	303
JHS 3	297
C	
JHS 1	
JHS 2	291
JHS 3	284
D	
JHS 1	
JHS 2	314
JHS 3	309
E	
JHS 1	311
JHS 2	287
JHS 3	283
F	
JHS 1	271
JHS 2	311
JHS 3	314
JHS 3	298
Total	5,091

Source: Field survey (2019).

Sample and Sampling Procedures

A sample refers to a sub-group of the population that is studied in order to make a generalization regarding the target population (Creswell, 2014). As maintained by Fowler (2009), the need for sampling in research is to select a portion of the population that is most representative of the population. According to Kothari (2004), it is from the accessible population that a sample is selected for a study and with an accessible population of 5,091 junior high school students, and with recommendation by Krejchic and Morgan (1970) who indicated that sample of 357 is appropriate for a population of 5000, the study used a sample of size 390 for an accessible population of 5, 091 for a meaning generalization. Specifically, in order to select the respondents for the study, the multi-stage sampling was used and the various stages are described below:

Stage 1

The proportionate sampling was used to know the required number of respondents that was needed in every grade level of every school. For instance, in order to know the sample that was used in JHS 1 of school A, the total sample size needed for school A was estimated by dividing the total number of students in that school (625) by the total number of students in the accessible population (5,091) and the result was multiplied by the sample size (390) which equals 45 students. Therefore, to be able know the total number of JHS 1 students to be selected, 225 (that is the total number of JHS 1 students) was used to divide by 625 (total number of students in school A) and the result was multiplied by 45 (the sample needed) which gives 16. The same method was used to select all the other students in the rest of the schools. The summary of sample for each school is presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Distribution of Accessible Population Based junior high schools

School	Students' population	Sample
A		
JHS 1	225	16
JHS 2	201	14
JHS 3	199	15
B		
JHS 1	303	23
JHS 2	297	23
JHS 3	289	22
C		
JHS 1	291	22
JHS 2	284	22
JHS 3	304	23
D		
JHS 1	314	25
JHS 2	309	24
JHS 3	311	29
E		
JHS 1	287	22
JHS 2	283	22
JHS 3	271	21
F		
JHS 1	311	24
JHS 2	314	24
JHS 3	298	23
Total	5,091	390

Source: Field survey (2019).

Stage 2

After the sample of each grade level of each school was determined, the lottery method of the simple random sampling was used to select the respondents for each grade level. The simple random sampling was used in that each of the groups were homogeneous and had an equal chance of being selected. To be able to select the 16 JHS 1 students out of the 225 JHS 1 students, the class register of the class was used as the sampling frame. The

number that corresponds to the name of the students were written on pieces of papers, folded and put into a bowl as well as stirred. With my eyes closed and not looking into the bowl, a paper is picked and number written on the paper was noticed and the corresponding name for that number is recorded. The paper was then folded and put back into the bowl again. The same process was used until all the 16 students were selected and similar processes was used in the cases of all the other schools. Thus, the study used the proportionate and simple random sampling procedures to select the 390 junior high school students.

Data Collection Instruments

The study used questionnaires to collect data for the study. Questionnaire is an effective means of measuring the behavior, attitudes, preferences, opinions and intentions of relatively large numbers of subjects more cheaply and quickly than other methods (Paralov, 2006). I used questionnaire since the focus of the study was on students' behavior, attitudes, preferences, opinions and intentions they had regarding the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students, Knowles (as cited in Asamoah, 2018) has indicated that questionnaires are easy to administer, friendly to complete and fast to score and thus, take relatively less time from responding to them. Sidelining the numerous advantages of the use of questionnaires, there are various setbacks. The use of questionnaires does not encourage probing which allows respondents to give shallow responses (Payne & Payne, 2004). In addition, respondents may not give 100 percent truthfulness to their responses due to issues of privacy and social desirability bias. This often leads to skipping of complicated questions which can affect the results of the study. This notwithstanding, respondents

were assured of their anonymity and confidentiality regarding their participation in the study.

In particular, the questionnaires were adapted and used for the study are and they are Olweus bullying questionnaire, Eysenck's personality inventory and Brief symptom inventory. The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire (OBQ) is a standardized, validated and a likert scale type questionnaire which contains 53 items. The instrument is mostly used for students in grades 3 through 12. The internal consistency of the instrument ranges 0.82 to 0.92. The instrument was adapted by changing the wording and deleting some of the items the research found not be applicable regarding the study environment.

The Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) is a likert scale type of instrument which consists of 53 items. For the purpose of this study, the inventory was adapted to a 15 item questionnaire because after the pilot testing, it was revealed that 38 items did not significantly apply to the case of students that were sampled. The original internal consistency of the instrument ranges from 0.80 to 0.87.

The Eysenck's personality inventory on the other hand has a dichotomous response format but for the purpose of the study, it was revised to be on a four point likert scale type. The traits measured are, extraversion, psychoticism and neuroticism. The Eysenck's personality inventory was also adapted to a 15 item questionnaire after the pre-test. The internal consistency of the original instrument ranges from 0.80 to 0.92.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

In order to enhance the validity of the study, the adapted questionnaires were given to my supervisors and other experts in educational measurement and evaluation in the Department of Education and Psychology in the University of Cape Coast (UCC) for their expert judgement and assessment. The assessment and judgement were done in line with the specific objectives of the study. This ensured face and content related evidence to the items and examine whether the items did relate to the research questions and also comprehensively cover the details of the study. Based on their comments and suggestions the questionnaires were fine-tuned to achieve the purpose of the study.

Pilot Testing

To achieve the reliability of the adapted instruments, they were subjected to pilot testing using 39 junior high school students from three schools in the Ashaiman Municipal District and Ga South Municipality of the Greater Accra Region. The students were randomly selected and their selection was because they demonstrated similar characteristics just like the actual study schools. During the pilot testing, the questionnaire for each of the instrument were given to the 39 students which was 10% of the actual sample size. Pallant (2010) maintains that for pilot testing, 10% or more of the total sample size adequate. Each students was given 30 minutes to respond to each of the instrument during the pilot testing. After the pilot testing, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability estimate was used. This is of the view that the items on each of the instruments were measured on a four point Likert scale. The summary of reliability estimate is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Reliability Estimates of Instruments

Instrument	Reliability	Reliability of Subscales
Olweus bullying questionnaire	.74	One who bullies others: .61 Victim: .57 Emotional Bullying: .54 Physical bullying: .59 Ethic and sexual bullying: .69
Eysenck's personality inventory	.83	Extraversion: .77 Neuroticism: .68 Psychoticism: .73 Introversion: .71
Brief symptom inventory	.72	No subscales

Source: Field survey (2019).

It is evident from Table 3 that the reliability of each of data collection instruments after they have been adapted and piloted stood at .74, .83 and .72 for Olweus bullying questionnaire, Eysenck's personality inventory and Brief symptom inventory respectively. According to Pallant (2010), a reliability of .70 or better is a good indicator that the instrument is good for data collection. In addition, all the subscales of the instruments attained a reliability more than .50.

Ethical Issues

Punch (2008) was of the opinion that researchers should be mindful of ethical issues especially in social research because it is concerned with data about people. Consideration for moral issues and respect for participants is essential in social research. Hence, in this research several ethical issues were taken into consideration. The research addressed all ethical concerns which includes informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality.

One of the issues involved in this research was informed consent. It afforded prospective participants the opportunity to accept or decline to engage in the research. It described the need for participants to understand the aims, objectives and potential harm that such involvement may have on them (Seidman, 2006). It also spells out that they have the right to withdraw even after consent has been given; this is in line with Cohen et al (2004); and Mertens (2010), who stated that informed consent arises from the participant's right to freedom. In this study, the purpose of the study was carefully reviewed with each participant and their parents before they were involved in the research.

Anonymity of study respondents was also highly taken into consideration in this study. Oliver (2010), pointed out that anonymity is a vital issue in research ethics because it gives the participants the opportunity to have their identity concealed. In this research, fictitious names were used for identification purposes which cannot be traced to the participants. Codes were also adopted where necessary to ensure anonymity of information and harm. In order not to unnecessarily invade the privacy of participants, the researcher made prior visits to schools before the data collection was commenced. Neither names nor any identifiable information from respondents were taken as a way of ensuring the ethical principle of anonymity in social research. This is to prevent possible victimisation of respondents where certain responses may be viewed as unpalatable to other stakeholders.

On the issue of confidentiality, efforts have been made to maintain confidentiality of the responses of the participants. Participants were told that their responses would be kept confidential and that no one known to them would have access to the information provided and none of the respondent's names

were recorded in the study. The respondents were assured of debriefing should any of the respondents suffer physical or psychological problems during and after the study. Most importantly on the ethical issues of the study, pieces of information that have been cited from earlier studies on teachers' conceptions and practices of assessment to support the review of related literature has been duly acknowledged through both citation and referencing in order to avoid academic dishonesty otherwise known as plagiarism.

Data Collection Procedure

The study made use of primary data. Primary data was obtained through self-administered questionnaire. To materialise this, the researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Head of Department of Education and Psychology. The letter spelled out the purpose of the study, the need for individual participation, anonymity as well as confidentiality of respondents' response. After establishing the necessary contact with the head masters of the selected schools, permission was sought from heads and teachers of the sampled school to administer the questionnaires. Again, the researcher trained some assistants for the collection of the data. The training was done in accordance with the specific objectives of the study and how to collect data for a research work. The researcher together with the assistants explained the purpose of the study and procedure for responding to the questionnaire to respondents. The data collection lasted for 45 minutes. In order to ensure clarity of how the questionnaire was completed, the researcher together with the assistants administered the questionnaire to respondents personally during regular school time. The researcher and assistants used one month to distribute and collect the questionnaire.

For the 390 questionnaires that were distributed, a 100% return rate was achieved in that all the respondents successfully filled and returned the questionnaires. For this reason, the data was analysed based on a 100% percent return rate.

Data Processing and Analysis

The data analysis phase consisted of editing, coding and statistical computation. Specifically, right after data collection, the items on each of the questionnaires were labelled serially to ensure easy identification, errors and easy coding. Frequencies were run to check for all errors such as outliers and missing values. The data gathered was then analysed with the aid of Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS, version 21) after the data had been collated and edited in order to address questions that were answered partially or not answered at all. It must be pointed out that, percentages and frequencies as well as tables were used to analyse the background information of the respondents.

For research questions one to three, the data gathered was analysed using means and standard deviations. These statistical tools were used because I wanted to explore which of variables deviates from the focal point with respect to the study variables. The data for hypothesis one to three was analysed using spearman rank correlation and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient whereas data gathered for hypothesis four was analysed using independent t-test. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used because both data were transformed to the interval data and they were continuous. The independent sample t-test was used because the focus was to find out if a difference exist in the involvement of bullying behaviours between male and female students. All the hypothesis was tested at .05 significance level.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The chapter discussed the methods and procedures that were used to accomplish the objectives of the study. A review of the research design, population and sample, data collection instruments, data collection and analysis procedures as well as validity and reliability of the instruments have been described. As indicated above, descriptive research design with quantitative approach was most appropriate for the study. The use of the design came with some limitations such as inability of the quantitative methodology to allow for follow-ups on respondents' responses and failure of the methodology to give in-depth description on respondents' experiences as well as the large sample size as required by quantitative methodology which in actual fact was limited to some respondents in this study. Amidst the pitfalls of the design, since the study focused on obtaining information on the current status of respondents on the study variables, the design was deemed appropriate.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Overview

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. For the purpose of the study, the descriptive research methodology with quantitative approach was deemed appropriate. Questionnaires for junior high school students were used to collect data for the study. Descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations; Pearson Product Moment Correlation and independent samples t-test were used to analyse the gathered data.

Results

Demographic characteristics of junior high school students

This section surveyed students' responses on their demographic characteristics including gender, age and grade level. A summary of the responses on the demographic characteristics is presented in Tables 4 to 6.

Gender of students

Junior high school students were asked to indicate their gender. A summary of students' responses is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Gender of Junior High School Students

Students	Frequency	Percentage
Male	224	57.4
Female	166	42.6
Total	390	100.0

Source: Field survey (2019)

From Table 4, 57.4% (224) of the respondents were males while 42.6% (166) of the rest of the respondents were females. This indicates that, there were more males than females regarding the responses surveyed.

Age of students

Junior high school students were asked to indicate their age. A summary of students’ responses is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Age of Junior High School Students

Age	Frequency	Percentage
12-15	265	67.9
16-18	117	30.0
Above 18	8	2.1
Total	390	100.0

Source: Field survey (2019)

From Table 5, 67.9% (265) of the respondents were between the ages of 12-15, 30.0% (117) of the respondents indicated that they were between the ages of 16-18 while 2.1% (8) indicated that they were above 18. This indicates that, majority of the students were between 12-15 years.

Grade level of students

Junior high school students were asked to indicate their grade level. A summary of students’ responses is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Grade Level of Junior High School Students

Grade level	Frequency	Percentage
JHS 1	132	33.8
JHS 2	129	33.1
JHS 3	129	33.1
Total	390	100.0

Source: Field survey (2019)

It can be inferred from Table 6 that, 33.8% (132) of the students were in JHS 1, 33.1% (129) of the students indicated that they were in JHS 2 and 33.1% (129) of the students indicated that they were in JHS 3. The results show that those students who were in JHS 1 were of the majority.

Research Question One

What is the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students of Greater Accra Region?

This research question sought to find out the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students in the study area. The responses of the students were obtained using thirty-six (36) items that were measured on four-point Likert scale; strongly everyday = 4, once a week = 3, sometimes = 2, and never = 1, where 1 indicates the least agreement to the statements and 4 indicating the strongest agreement to the statements. Means and standard deviation were used to analyse the data that were gathered. In the analysis, mean values above 2.5 which is the mid-point ($(4+3+2+1)/4 = 2.5$) showed that students engaged in bullying while a mean value below 2.5 showed that students are not engaged in bullying. An overall mean was also calculated to check the

prevalence of bullying in the study area. A summary of the responses is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Prevalence of Bullying Behaviour among Junior High School Students as Perpetrator

Statements	Mean	Std.Dev
I teased other student by saying things to them	3.86	.933
I pushed or shoved a student	1.54	.670
I made rude remarks at a student	2.92	.871
I got my friends to turn against a student	1.72	1.04
I made jokes about a student	3.12	.657
I hit a student on purpose as he/she walked by	1.66	.785
I picked on a student by insulting them	2.62	.775
I told my friends things about a student to get them into trouble	1.67	.860
I got into a fight with a student because I didn't like them	3.32	.548
I said things about their looks they didn't like	2.98	.783
I got other students to start a gossip about a student	2.77	.920
I slapped or punched a student	1.48	.701
I got other students to ignore a student	2.86	.965
I made fun of a student by calling them names	3.09	.916
I threw something to hit a student	1.66	.610
I threatened to physically hurt or harm a student	3.35	.682
I left them (student) out of activities or games on purpose	2.75	.862
I kept a student away from me by giving them mean looks	3.52	.698
Overall Mean	2.61*	

Source: Field Survey (2018), N= 390

It can be inferred from Table 7 that, majority of the students agreed to the statements “I teased other student by saying things to them” (Mean = 3.86, Std.Dev = .933), “I made rude remarks at a student” (Mean = 2.92, .871), “I

made jokes about a student” (Mean = 3.12, Std.Dev = .657), “I picked on a student by insulting them” (Mean = 2.62, Std.Dev = .775) and “I got into a fight with a student because I didn’t like them” (Mean = 3.32, Std.Dev = .548). In addition, a greater percentage of the students agreed to the statements “I said things about their looks they didn’t like” (Mean = 2.98, Std.Dev = .783), “I got other students to start a gossip about a student” (Mean = 2.77, Std.Dev = .920), “I got other students to ignore a student” (Mean = 2.86, Std.Dev = .965), “I made fun of a student by calling them names” (Mean = 3.09, Std.Dev = .916), “I threatened to physically hurt or harm a student” (Mean = 3.35, Std.Dev = .682), “I left them (student) out of activities or games on purpose” (Mean = 2.75, Std.Dev = .862) and “I kept a student away from me by giving them mean looks” (Mean = 3.52, Std.Dev = .698). It is evident from Table 7 majority of the students were of the view that bullying is prevalent in their schools. However, to get a clearer picture of the prevalence of bullying, the overall mean was used. From Table 7, it can be observed that the overall mean stood at 2.61 which is above the standard of 2.5. The result shows that bullying is prevalent among the junior high schools students in the study area.

Research Question Two

What are the kinds of bullying behaviours existing among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region?

This research question sought to find out the kind of bullying behaviour among the junior high school students in the study area. The responses of the students were obtained using seventeen (17) items which were measured on a dichotomous scale yes or no. The items were grouped under emotional bullying which contained nine items, physical bullying which contained four items and

ethnic and sexual bullying which contained four items. Frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the data was gathered. A summary of the responses is presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Kinds of Bullying Behaviour among Junior High School Students

Kinds of bullying behaviour	Freq.		Percentages	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Emotional bullying				
Called students names	300	90	77	23
Insulted other students	255	135	65	35
Excluded them from the group	279	111	72	28
Said bad things about them	201	189	52	48
Teased them about their looks	248	142	64	36
Threatened and blackmailed them	108	282	28	72
Sent them negative text messages, email, etc.	98	292	25	75
Teased them because of their disability	43	347	11	89
Insulted them because of their academic performance	101	289	26	74
Overall % mean			47%*	53%*
Physical Bullying				
Damaged or stole other students' possessions	189	201	48	52
Threatened or used weapons on them	155	235	40	60
Hit, punched or kicked them	189	201	48	52
Forced them to give their belongings	148	242	38	62
Overall % mean			44%*	56%*
Ethnic and Sexual Bullying				
Teased them because of their tribe or culture	214	176	55	45
Laughed at them because of their physical appearance	100	290	26	74
Teased them because of their language	98	292	25	75
Made unwanted sexual suggestions to them	54	336	14	86
Overall % mean			30%*	70%*

Source: Field survey (2018), N =390

From Table 8, it can be observed that emotional bullying has an overall mean of 47% for yes and 56% for no, physical bullying has overall mean of 44% for yes and 56% for no while ethnic and sexual bullying has an overall mean of 30% for yes and 70% for no. The result show that all the kinds of bullying behaviour exists among the junior high school students in the study area. However, emotional bulling as kind of bullying principally exist as compared to the other bullying behaviours.

Research Question Three

What personality traits are prevalent among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region?

The goal of this question was find out the prevalent personality trait among the students that were sampled. In order to do this, a personality questionnaire adapted from Eysenck's personality inventory was used to collect data from the study. The instrument was made of 20 items which were measured on a four point scale 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=agree and 4=strongly agree with 1 indicating the least agreement to the statements and 4 indicating the highest agreement to the statements. In the analysis, means and standard deviation were used with a cut off mean of 2.5 (i.e. $4+3+2+1 = 10/5 = 2.5$). All items with means greater the 2.5 means majority of the students agreed to that item and the vice versa. In other to best check for the prevalent personality traits among the junior high school students, an overall means of each of subscales were calculated. A summary of the responses is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: Prevalent Personality Traits among Junior High School Students

Personality traits	Mean	Std. Dev
Extraversion		
Other people think about you as being very lively	2.89	1.33
I have lots of friends	2.87	1.14
I really enjoy myself at a lively party	2.93	1.23
I like mixing with other young people	3.23	1.04
I like talking a lot	2.77	.840
Overall mean	2.93*	
Neuroticism		
I worry about things that might happen	2.20	1.31
I am easily hurt when people find things wrong with me or the work I do	2.51	1.59
My feelings are easily hurt	2.31	1.10
I sometimes feel that life does not worth it	2.40	1.10
I often feel tired for no reason	2.33	1.21
Overall mean	2.35*	
Psychoticism		
I enjoy hurting people	2.36	1.16
I get into more trouble at school than other people	2.19	1.58
I easily get into a lot of fights	2.36	1.14
I like playing pranks on others	2.27	1.16
I often bully and tease other people	2.26	1.10
Overall mean	2.28*	

Source: Field survey, (2018).

Results in Table 9 show that all the three personality traits are evident among the students that were sampled. Considering the overall means of the three personality types; extraversion = 2.93 which is greater than the standard mean of 2.5, Neuroticism recorded an overall mean of 2.35 whereas psychoticism recorded an overall mean of 2.28 which were all lesser than the standard mean of 2.5. The result show that the prevalent kind of personality traits among the junior high school students in the study area is extraversion.

Hypothesis One

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to find out if a statistically significant relationship exist between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region. In order to conduct the analysis, the point biserial correlation coefficient was used. This was of the view that one of the variables (bullying behaviour) was dichotomously scored and the other (personality traits) was transformed to be continuous and interval. The transformation was done by calculating the composite scores of the items due to the fact that they were measured on a four point Likert scale; after the items have been combined to form a category. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Point Biserial Correlation between Bullying Behaviour and Personality Traits among Junior High School Students

		Bullying behavior	Personality traits
Bullying behaviour	Point Biserial Correlation	1	-.501
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014*
	N	390	390
	Point Biserial Correlation	-.501	1
Personality traits	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014*	
	N	390	390

Source: Field survey, (2019)

The results in Table 10 show that there is a significant but moderate negative relationship or correlation between bullying behaviour of students and their personality traits ($r_{pb} = -.501$, $p = .014$). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected as the results show that a moderate negative relationship exists between bullying behaviour of students and their personality and such relationship is significant. The results show that at a relatively high bullying behaviour as demonstrated by students, their personality traits is lowered. With reference to the negative relationship between the variables, when students have good personality traits there is the likelihood that their bullying behaviour is lowered.

Hypothesis Two

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to find out if a statistically significant relationship exists between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region. In order to conduct the analysis, the point biserial correlation coefficient was used. This was of the view that one of the variables (bullying behaviour) was dichotomously scored and the other (psychological health) was transformed to be continuous and interval. The transformation was done by calculating the composite scores of the items due to the fact that they were measured on a four point Likert scale. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 11.

Table 11: Point Biserial Correlation between Bullying Behaviour and Psychological Health among Junior High School Students

		Bullying behavior	Psychological health
Bullying behaviour	Point Biserial Correlation	1	.731
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006*
	N	390	390
Psychological health	Point Biserial Correlation	.731	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006*	
	N	390	390

Source: Field survey, (2019)

The result in Table 11 show that there is a significant strong positive relationship or correlation between bullying behaviour of students and their psychological health ($r_{bp} = .731, p = .006$). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected as the result shows a strong positive relationship between bullying behaviour of students and their psychological health. The result shows that when students are highly engaged in bullying behaviour, it would strongly lead to higher psychological health issues and the vice versa and this has been justified by the significant and strong positive relationship between the two variables.

Hypothesis Three

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

The purpose of this hypothesis was to find out if a statistically significant relationship exists between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region. In order to conduct the analysis, the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient was used. This was of the view that all of the variables were transformed to be continuous and interval. The transformation was done by calculating the composite scores of the item due to the fact that they were measured on a four point Likert scale. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 12.

Table 12: Pearson Product Moment Correlations between personality traits and Psychological Health

		Personality traits	Psychological health
Personality traits	Pearson Correlation	1	.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.074*
	N	390	390
Psychological health	Pearson Correlation	.109	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.074*	
	N	390	390

Source: Field survey, (2019).

The results in Table 12 show that there is a weak positive relationship or correlation between personality traits of students and their psychological health, however, the relationship is not significant ($r = .109$, $p = .074$). The null hypothesis is therefore retained. The result shows that the personality traits of junior high school students is insignificantly related to their psychological health.

Hypothesis Four

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.

H₁₄: There is a statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.

This hypothesis sought to find out whether there is a gender difference in bullying behaviour among junior high school students in the study area. To

achieve the purpose of this hypothesis, the independent sample t-test was used to investigate the gender difference between the groups. It should be stressed that the independent variable (gender) was made up of two independent groups (male and female) as against the dependent variable (bullying behaviour). The variable gender came as a result of the background features of students whereas the scores of the bullying behaviour came as a result of calculating the composite scores of the items that measured bullying behaviour of students. Before the conduct of the analysis, assumptions such as normality and equality of variance were conducted and fulfilled (see appendix E). The hypothesis was tested at 0.05 so that the degree of error is better controlled. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 13.

Table 13: Independent Sample T-test on Gender and Bullying Behaviour

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-test value	p- value	Df
Bullying behaviour	Male	204	26.18	4.31	3.367	.002	388.031
	Female	186	24.66	3.62			

Source: Field survey (2019), N = 390

It is evident in Table 13 that there is a statistically significant difference between male (Mean = 26.18, Std. Dev. = 4.31) and female (Mean= 24.66, Std. Dev. = 3.62) with regards to their bullying behaviour [$t(388) = 3.367, p = .002$]. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected and this indicate a significant difference exists in the bullying behaviour between male and female with male (Mean = 26.18) exhibiting more bullying behavior than female (Mean = 24.66) with a mean difference of 1.52.

Discussion of Results

The discussion of the result was done in line with the specific objectives of the study.

The first objective sought to explore the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region. The findings of the study show that bullying is prevalent among the junior high schools students in the study area. This current finding confirms the positions of several authors in literature. Brank et al. (2012) assert that bullying in schools is a worldwide problem that can have negative consequences for the general school climate and for the rights of students to learn in a safe environment without fear. It is widespread, and perhaps the most underreported safety problems in schools; the reason being that during school age, bullying becomes a common and daily basis activity among students (Ouellet-Morin et al., 2011). It is therefore not surprising that the findings indicated that there was the prevalence of bullying (both as perpetrators and victims) among junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region. The finding of the study which indicates that the prevalence of bullying (perpetrators and victims) confirms position of Kartal (2009) who in his study that higher percentage (79.6%) of learners in Turkish basic schools are engaged in bullying. The finding is also in line with Egbochuku (2007) who in his study found out that 78% of learners in junior secondary school had been victims of bullying, while 71% had bullied others. The finding also supports the position of Sathekge (2004) found that 68.9% out of the sample of 199 learners were bullied, taunted and teased in a hurtful way.

The second objectives of the study sought to investigate the kinds of bullying behaviours exhibited among the junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region. The result show that all the kinds of bullying behaviour exist among the junior high school students in the study area. However, emotional bullying is the kind of bullying that principally exists, as compared to the other bullying behaviours. Making inferences with the current finding of the study and with reference to literature, it is obvious that junior high school students are involved in emotional bullying such as insults, name calling and exclusion from group activities and ethnic and sexual bullying which included teasing them about the tribes they belonged to, the differences in culture, their physical appearances and for their dialects. The findings of the study refutes that of Carrol-Lind and Keamey (2004) who found that the most prevalent forms of bullying were physical bullying among learners in New Zealand. In addition, the findings disagrees with De Wet (2005) who found in South Africa that learners can be bullied verbally by writing graffiti on the walls of the bathroom where they write the names of their peers. However, the finding is consistent with the position of Greef (2004) we found that the most common form of bullying experienced by learners was verbal bullying where learners were teased in an unpleasant way, rumours were spread about them and they were also called by offensive names which emphasises emotional bullying.

The third hypothesis sought to explore the kinds of personality traits prevalent among junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The results show that the prevalent kind of personality traits among the junior high school students in the study area is extraversion. The results suggest that junior high school students in the study area are more sociable and happy

as well as like mixing with others. This finding of the study disagrees with the positions of Panaghi et al. (2011), Chalniabloo and Garousi-Farshi (2010) and Hayes and Joseph (2003) who reported that the prevalent personality traits among students is neuroticism.

The fourth objective sought to determine the relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students. The results of the study show a significant but moderate negative relationship between bullying behaviour of students and their personality traits. It should be indicated that personality traits have been associated with bullying (Connolly & O'Moore, 2003). Studies found that there is a relationship between personality traits and bullying (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2011; Olweus, 1993). A study carried by Idemudia (2013) showed that individuals who scored high on psychoticism, neuroticism and extraversion also had high scores on bullying behaviour, however, the findings of this current study refutes this finding by Idemudia (2013). However, this finding confirms the position of Book et al. (2012) who found that there is a significant negative correlation between bullying behaviour and personality traits. This finding of the current study further collaborate with the views of Bollmer et al. (2006) who reported a negative correlation between bullying and agreeableness and a significant negative relationship between bullying and conscientiousness. This indicates that personality traits are negatively associated with bullying behaviour that have been found among the junior high school students that were sampled.

The fifth specific objectives sought to ascertain the relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health among junior high school students. The study found a significant strong positive relationship or correlation between

bullying behaviour of students and their psychological health. The psychological effects of being bullied are not only experienced while the learner is still young, the problems can be carried to adulthood. Brown County Sheriff (2008) indicates that adults who were bullied while they were teenagers have higher levels of depression and poorer self-esteem when compared with other adults. According to the Brown County Sheriff (2008), victims of bullying often turn their anger inwards. This finding of the study agrees with Tanzola (2006) who found from a study of 4,811 participants in the Netherlands that learners who are bullied are more likely to have depression and suicidal tendencies which signifies the positive relationship. This association is stronger for those that are bullied indirectly such as spreading malicious gossip than those who are bullied directly (such as hitting) and this might have happened among the junior high school students that were sampled.

The sixth specific objectives sought to determine the relationship between personality traits and psychological health among junior high school students. The result of the study shows a weak positive relationship or correlation between personality traits of students and their psychological health, however, the relationship is not significant. This means that personality traits of students are not related to their psychological health. The current therefore refutes the positions Panaghi et al. (2011) who reported that neuroticism predisposes individuals to negative emotions. The result further disapprove the positions of Chalniabloo and Garousi-Farshi (2010) and Hayes and Joseph (2003) who assert that personality traits lead to sensitivity to unrealistic belief, poor impulse control, and tendency to experience psychological distress in form

of anxiety, anger, depression, embarrassment, hatred and a range of negative emotions.

The seventh objective sought to ascertain the gender difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students. The result of the study show a statistically significant difference between male and female in their bullying behaviour with male being the most perpetrators of bullying. In particular, the finding of the study indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between male and female students regarding their bullying behaviour among the students that were sampled and that male students are more involved in bullying behaviour than female students. This finding is in line with Moretti and Stewart (2006) who found that boys tend to engage in bullying more often than girls and that both boys and girls tended to be bullied by boys more. Similarly, the finding supports Jay (2000) and Anon (2006) who found significant differences between boys and girls and their involvement in bullying. They argue that boys engage mostly in bullying behaviour because the society attaches a negative connotation to girls who swear, but not to boys because they are allowed to use verbal and physical aggression; a similar instance might have happened among the respondents that were sampled.

Chapter Summary

The chapter has presented the results and discussion of the study. The findings of the study show that bullying is prevalent among the junior high schools students in the study area. The result also show that all the kinds of bullying behaviour exist among the junior high school students in the study area. However, emotional bullying as kind of bullying, principally exist, as compared

to the other bullying behaviours. In addition, the results show that the prevalent kind of personality traits among the junior high school students in the study area is extraversion. Furthermore, the results of the study show a significant but moderate negative relationship between bullying behaviour of students and their personality traits. The study also found a significant strong positive relationship or correlation between bullying behaviour of students and their psychological health. Moreover, the result of the study shows a weak positive relationship between personality traits of students and their psychological health, however, the relationship is not significant. Lastly, the result of the study show a statistically significant difference between male and female in their bullying behaviour with male being the most perpetrators of bullying.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the key findings, the conclusions drawn as well as recommendations made in the study. The chapter also presents suggestions for further research.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to ascertain the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of junior high school students in Ghana. In pursuance of the purpose, the following research questions and hypothesis guided the study:

Research Questions

1. What is the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students of Greater Accra Region?
2. What are the kinds of bullying behaviours exhibited among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region?
3. What personality traits are prevalent among the junior high school students of the Greater Region?

Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₁: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₂: There is a statistically significant relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health of junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₁₃: There is a statistically significant relationship between personality traits and psychological health among the junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region.

H₀₄: There is no statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.

H₁₄: There is a statistically significant difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students of the Greater Accra Region with respect to gender.

The descriptive research design with quantitative approach was used. The Olweus Bullying Questionnaires, Brief Symptoms Scale and Eysenck's Personality Inventory were adapted and used to collect data from a sample of 390 junior high school students who were selected through multi-staged sampling procedures. The statistical tools that were used in the analysis included frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations, point biserial

correlation coefficient, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and independent samples t-test.

Summary of key findings

The key findings are presented in accordance with the objectives of the study as follows:

The first objective sought to explore the prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region. The findings of the study show that bullying is prevalent among the junior high schools students in the study area.

The second objectives of the study sought to investigate the kinds of bullying behaviours exhibited among the junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region. The result show that all the kinds of bullying behaviour exist among the junior high school students in the study area. However, emotional bullying as kind of bullying principally exist as compared to the other bullying behaviours.

The third hypothesis sought to explore the kinds of personality traits prevalent among junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. The results show that the prevalent kind of personality traits among the junior high school students in the study area is extraversion.

The fourth objective sought to determine the relationship between personality traits and bullying behaviour among junior high school students. The results of the study show a significant but moderate negative relationship between bullying behaviour of students and their personality traits.

The fifth specific objectives sought to ascertain the relationship between bullying behaviour and psychological health among junior high school students.

The study found a significant strong positive relationship or correlation between bullying behaviour of students and their psychological health.

The sixth specific objectives sought to determine the relationship between personality traits and psychological health among junior high school students. The result of the study shows a weak positive relationship or correlation between personality traits of students and their psychological health, however, the relationship is not significant.

The seventh objective sought to ascertain the gender difference in the level of involvement in bullying behaviour among junior high school students. The result of the study show a statistically significant difference between male and female in their bullying behaviour with male being the most perpetrators of bullying.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

First and foremost, it can be concluded from the study that junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region engage in bullying behaviours with emotional bullying being the most practiced bullying behaviour. Secondly, the study also makes a conclusion that junior high school students in the Greater Accra Region are lively, sociable and get along well with other people thereby making extraversion as a personality traits being prevalent in the study area. Thirdly, The study also concludes that bullying is associated with high related psychological health problems as the positive relationships between the two variables depicts that high bullying behaviour is associated with high psychological health problems. In furtherance, the study concludes that bullying behaviour is negatively associated with personality traits of junior high school

students as good personality traits as demonstrated by students, decreases the tendency of engaging in bullying behaviours. The study also makes a conclusion that junior high school students' personality traits is not related to their psychological health. Lastly, it is worth concluding from the findings that male are the perpetrators of bullying as compared to their female counterparts among the students that were sampled in the study area.

Recommendations

The findings from this study have the under listed recommendations:

1. It is recommended that the stakeholders in education such as the government, Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Education should formulate tougher policies on bullying in schools and vigorously enforce them to curb the practise of bullying.
2. It is also recommended that that stakeholders in education such as the government, parents, Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service and other non-governmental agencies should encourage students to exhibit personality traits such as extraversion to control and/or prevent their bullying practices.
3. In furtherance, male junior high school students should be counselled and encouraged by stakeholders in education such as teachers and parents to turn way form bullying behaviours and also demonstrate positive personality traits to control their bullying behaviours.
4. The authorities of the schools must be more observant of students who are at a higher risk of been bullied and provide psychological support for them. The authorities should refer such students to clinical

psychologist and other professionals as such counsellors for better intervention.

5. The study recommends that students should be given orientation by stakeholders in education such as the government, parents, Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service and other non-governmental agencies as well as parents so that they (students) understand the long-term psychological effects of bullying. A knowledge of this would control if not prevent the menace of bullying.

Suggestions for Further Research

With reference to the present scope of the study, it is suggested that future research work should extend beyond Greater Accra Region to involve other students throughout the country. In addition, it is suggested that a similar study be conducted using both basic and senior high school students in Ghana.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear respondent, the purpose of this study is to find out the impact of bullying behaviour and personality factors on psychological health of students in the Greater Accra Region. Kindly provide information on the prevalence and kinds of bullying as a perpetrator (one who bully others) and as a victim (one who is bullied). Please respond to the statements as truthfully and honestly as you can. Be assured that whatever information you provide will be treated as confidential. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

DIRECTIONS: Please tick [] where appropriate in the spaces provided.

Section A: Demographic Data of Respondent

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age: 12- 15yrs [] 16- 18yrs [] 19 and above []
3. Form: JHS 1 [] JHS 2 [] JHS 3 []

OLWEUS BULLYING QUESTIONNAIRE

Section B: Prevalence of bullying behaviour among junior high school students

- (i) For each of the statements, indicate by ticking (✓) your involvement in bullying as the perpetrator (one who bullies others).

1= NEVER, 2 = SOMETIMES, 3 = ONCE A WEEK, 4 = EVERYDAY

SN	Statement	1	2	3	4
1	Teased other student by saying things to them				
2	Pushed or shoved a student				
3	Made rude remarks at a student				
4	Got my friends to turn against a student				
5	Made jokes about a student				
6	Hit a student on purpose as he/she walked by				
7	Picked on a student by insulting them				
8	Told my friends things about a student to get them into trouble				
9	Got into a fight with a student because I didn't like them				
10	Said things about their looks they didn't like				
11	Got other students to start a gossip about a student				
12	I slapped or punched a student				

13	Got other students to ignore a student				
14	Made fun of a student by calling them names				
15	Threw something to hit a student				
16	Threatened to physically hurt or harm a student				
17	Left them (student) out of activities or games on purpose				
18	Kept a student away from me by giving them mean looks				

(ii) For each of the statements, indicate by ticking (√) your involvement in bullying as victim (one who is bullied)

1= NEVER, 2 = SOMETIMES, 3 = ONCE A WEEK, 4 = EVERYDAY

SN	Statement	1	2	3	4
1	I was teased by other student saying things to me				
2	I was pushed or shoved				
3	A student made rude remarks at me				
4	A student wouldn't be friends with me because other people didn't like me				
5	Jokes were made up about me				
6	I was hit or kicked hard				
7	A student ignored me when they were with their friends				

8	Students bumped into me on purpose as they walked by				
9	A student got their friends to turn against me				
10	My property was damaged on purpose				
11	Things were said about my looks I didn't like				
12	I wasn't invited to a student's place because other people didn't like me				
13	I was made fun of by students saying things to me				
14	A student got students to start a rumour about me				
15	Something was thrown at me to hit me				
16	I was threatened to be physically hurt or harmed				
17	I was left out of activities, games on purpose				
18	I was called names I didn't like				

Section C: Kinds of bullying behaviour among junior high school students

For each of the statements, indicate by ticking (√) the kinds of bullying behaviour among junior high school students.

SN	Kinds of bullying	Yes	No
	Emotional bullying		
1.	Called students names		
2.	Insulted other students		
3.	Excluded them from the group		
4.	Said bad things about them		
5.	Teased them about their looks		
6.	Threatened and blackmailed them		
7.	Sent them negative text messages, email, etc.		
8.	Teased them because of their disability		
9.	Insulted them because of their academic performance		
	Physical Bullying		
10.	Damaged or stole other students' possessions		
11.	Threatened or used weapons on them		
12.	Hit, punched or kicked them		
13.	Forced them to give their belongings		
	Ethnic and Sexual Bullying		
14.	Teased them because of their tribe or culture		
15.	Laughed at them because of their physical appearance		
16.	Teased them because of their language		
17.	Made unwanted sexual suggestions to them		

APPENDIX B

BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY (BSI)

Here, I have a list of problems people sometimes have and for each of the problems, indicate by ticking (√) how much that problem has distressed or bothered you.

1= NOT AT ALL, 2 = A LITTLE BIT, 3 = QUITE A BIT, 4 = EXTREMELY

SN	Statement	1	2	3	4
1	Feeling easily annoyed or irritated				
2	Feeling others are to blame for most of your troubles				
3	The idea that someone else can control your thoughts				
4	Feeling lonely even when you are with people				
5	Suddenly scared for no reason				
6	Feeling no interest in things				
7	Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you				
8	Feeling that you are watched or talked about by others				
9	Difficulty making decisions				
10	Feeling hopeless about the future				

11	Having to avoid certain things, places, or activities because they frighten you				
12	Thoughts of death or dying				
13	Feeling that people will take advantage of you if you let them				
14	Feeling of guilt				
15	Having urges to beat, injure, or harm someone				

APPENDIX C

EYSENCK'S PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE

For each of the statements, indicate by ticking (√) which applies to you concerning your personality. Ratings: 1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3=agree, 4=strongly agree

SN	Statement	1	2	3	4
	Extraversion				
1	Other people think of me as being very lively				
2	I have lots of friends				
3	I find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party				
4	I like mixing with other young people				
5	I like talking a lot				
	Neuroticism				
6	I worry about things that might happen				
7	I am easily hurt when people find things wrong with you or the work you do				
8	My feelings rather easily hurt				
9	I sometimes feel life is just not worth living				
10	I often feel tired for no reason				
	Psychoticism				
11	I enjoy hurting people I like				
12	I get into more trouble at school than most other pupils.				

13	I seem to get into a lot of fights				
14	I like playing pranks on others				
15.	I sometimes bully and tease other young people.				

APPENDIX D

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARD

UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref: CES-ERB/UCC.edu/12/18-29



Date: Jan 21, 2018

Your Ref:

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. J. A. Omotosho
jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh
0243784739

Vice-Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. K. Edjah
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0244742357

Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
lforde@ucc.edu.gh
0244786680

The bearer, Tamara Esi Dadson, Reg. No. ED/CHP/16/0012 is an M.Phil. /Ph.D. student in the Department of Education and Psychology in the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He/ She wishes to undertake a research study on the topic:

Bullying behaviour, personality factors and their psychological effects on junior high school students in Accra

The Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies (CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the study.

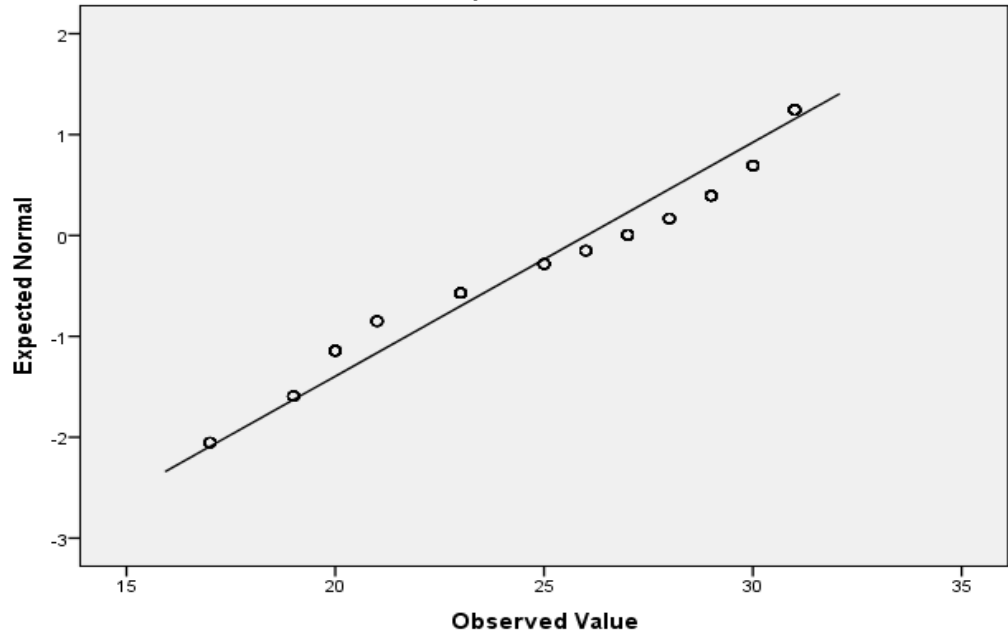
In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said research.

Thank you.
Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

APPENDICE E
NORMAL Q PLOTS

Normal Q-Q Plot of Bullying behaviour
for q89= male



Normal Q-Q Plot of Bullying behaviour
for q89= female

