

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

BULLYING OF THE MALE-CHILD IN SELECTED SENIOR HIGH  
SCHOOLS IN GHANA

CLASS NO.	
ACCESSION NO. 25 33 25	
CAT. CHECKED	FINAL CHECKED

BY

KWASI OTOPA ANTIRI

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR DEVELOPMENT  
STUDIES OF THE FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, COLLEGE OF  
HUMANITIES AND LEGAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST,  
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD  
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN DEVELOPMENT  
STUDIES

OCTOBER, 2015

## 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..... KWASI OTOPA ANTII.....

Signature..... [Handwritten Signature]..... Date..... 12/10/2015.....

### 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..... Prof. C.K. Brown.....

Signature..... [Handwritten Signature]..... Date..... 12/10/2015.....

Co-Supervisor's Name..... Prof. Mansah Prah.....

Signature..... [Handwritten Signature]..... Date..... 12/10/2015.....



## ABSTRACT

The main objective of the study was to examine the bullying of the male-child in selected senior high schools in Ghana. The descriptive and exploratory research designs were used for the study. A multi-stage sampling procedure, comprising purposive, stratified, simple random and snowball sampling technique, was used in the selection of the sample. A total of 354 respondents were drawn from six schools in Kumasi, Cape Coast and Tamale. Three interview schedules were generated for the bullies, victims and bystanders respectively. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 16.0) software was used to analyse the data. Frequency tables, percentages and t-test statistics were used to present the data.

The study revealed that physical and verbal bullying were rampant in the various schools in the country. Bullies and victims also had specific characteristics which led to bullying in the schools. Also, bullying went on as a tradition and initiation that all new students had to go through. In respect of the effect of bullying on students, it was revealed that some became dropouts, others developed low self-esteem, whereas still others put up characters which could affect them in their future lives. There was no significant difference in bullying among co-educational schools and boys-only schools.

The study recommends the need for the schools to set up a system which will stop bullying in schools. Vigorous counselling should go on among the students, especially the bullies and the victims, to overcome these difficulties. Students should be made to understand the long-term effects of bullying on the individual and society.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my profound gratitude to all who, in diverse ways, contributed to the success of this study.

My heartfelt gratitude is expressed particularly to my principal supervisor Prof. C. K. Brown and co-supervisor Prof. Mansah Prah, for their immense encouragement and support during all the phases of the research. They have had a significant impact on my way of thinking after going through this research work with them, which actually goes beyond this thesis.

I am greatly indebted to all the senior members at the Institute for Development Studies, especially the former Director Prof. J.V. Mensah and the current Director, DR. P.K. Agbesinyale for their contributions and encouragement.

My appreciation also goes to the heads, assistants, counsellors and teachers of the six high schools in Tamale, Kumasi and Cape Coast.

My final gratitude goes to Dr. Kenneth Asamoah-Gyimah, Dr. Eric Nyarko-Sampson, Mr. Kenneth Buadi, Miss Elizabeth Yankah, Mr. Edward Antwi Danso, Mr. Eric Mensah and Mr. J. K. Sackey, who encouraged me, supported me and also did the secretarial work for me.

## DEDICATION

To the Antiri Family.





## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ACRONYMS	xiii
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</b>	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	8
Objectives of the Study	10
Research Questions	11
Scope of the Study	11
Significance of the Study	12
Limitations of the Study	13
Operational Definition of Concepts	13
Organisation of the Thesis	14
<b>CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b>	
Introduction	16
Historical Aspects of Bullying	16
The Characteristics of the Senior High School Student	19

Definitions of Bullying	21
Bullying Styles	25
Types of Bullying	26
Gender Differences in Bullying	35
Age Differences	38
Masculinity associated with Bullying	39
Personalities in Bullying	42
Types of Bullies	46
Types of Victims	50
Types of Bystanders	56
Classification of Bullying Roles	59
Effects of Bullying	63
Theoretical Perspectives on Bullying	76
Conceptual Framework for Bullying	82
<b>CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY</b>	
Introduction	87
Research Design	87
Study Area	90
Study Population	92
Sampling Procedures	92
Sources of Data	98
Data Collection Instrument	98
Pre-test	99
Fieldwork	100
Data Processing and Analysis	102

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Introduction	104
Background Characteristics of Respondents	104
Types of Bullying in Schools	108
The Characteristics of Victims of Bullying	116
The Characteristics of Perpetrators of Bullying	126
Factors that Promoted Bullying in the School Environment	133
Masculinity and the Bullying of the Male Child	136
Effects of Bullying on the Male Child	142
The Roles of School Authorities in Assisting the Victims of Bullying	154

## **CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Introduction	166
Summary	166
Conclusions	171
Implications for Counselling in the Schools	172
Recommendations	173
Contribution to Knowledge	174
Areas for Further Research	175

<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>	176
---------------------	-----

### **APPENDICES**

A Interview Schedule for Bullies	209
B Interview Schedule for Victims	215
C Interview Schedule for Bystanders	221



## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Sampling Distribution of Schools by Zone, Region, Town, Type and School	95
2 Distribution of Students by School and Class	96
3 Sampling Distribution of Students by Schools and Class	97
4 Age Distribution of the Respondents	105
5 Distribution of Respondents by Form	106
6 Types of Schools of the Respondents	106
7 Distribution of Personalities in Bullying	107
8 Personalities in Bullying by Type of School	107
9 Types of Bullying in Schools	108
10 Types of Bullying in the Schools by Category of Bullying	112
11 Types of Victims in the Schools	118
12 Reasons why Respondents were Bullied in School	119
13 People to whom the Victims Reported Incidents of Bullying	121
14 Reasons for not Reporting the Bullies to the Authorities	124
15 Types of Bullies who Operated in the Schools	127
16 Styles of Bullying by the Bullies	130
17 Places where Bullies Operated From	131
18 Time of Operation of Bullies in Schools	132
19 Factors that Promoted Bullying in the School Environment	134
20 Respondents' Understanding of Masculinity	137
21 Bullying Makes Boys Strong in Life by Type of Personality	139
22 Bullying Makes Boys Strong in Life by Type of School	140

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>

23	Bullying as a Transition in Schools for the Weak by Type of Personality	141
24	Bullying as a Transition in Schools for the Weak by the Type of School	142
25	The Perception of the Bullies of the Effects of Bullying on Themselves	143
26	The Bullies' Perception of the Effects of Bullying on their Victims	144
27	Effects of Bullying on the Victims	146
28	Effects of Bullying on Bystanders	148
29	Bystanders' Perception of the Effects of Bullying on the Victims	151
30	Bystanders' Perception of the Effect of Bullying on the Bullies	153
31	Trained Personnel to give Assistance to Victims in Schools by Type of Personality	155
32	Trained Personnel to give Assistance to Victims in Schools by Type of School	156
33	Rules and Regulations on Bullying in the School by Type of Personality	157
34	Rules and Regulations on Bullying in the School by Type of School	158
35	The School's Commitment to Dealing with Bullying by Type of Personality	160
36	The School Commitment to Dealing with Bullying by Type of School	161
37	How the School Authorities Enforced the Rules and Regulations on Bullying	163
38	What the School Authorities should do to stop Bullying in Schools	164

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Bullying, school violence and more: A research model	84
2. Map of Ghana showing the Central, Ashanti and Northern Regions	93





## LIST OF ACRONYMS

DOVVSU	Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit
GES	Ghana Education Service
MOE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
SHS	Senior High School
SIP	Social Information Processing Theory
TOM	Theory of the Mind Framework;
U.K	United Kingdom
USAID	United States Agency for International Development



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background to the Study

One major phenomenon that is responsible for the setback in the development of human society is child abuse, specifically bullying. This global phenomenon, has, over the years, attracted the attention of governmental and non-governmental organisations all over the world (Farmer, 2011).

Children of today indisputably are the custodians of tomorrow's world. The continuous existence of any society depends on the ability of the society to socialize its children in the art of survival and cultural perfection. The future of any society is also determined by the quality of its children and the level of commitment towards the protection of its most vulnerable members, the young and the old (Kempe, 1962).

Gouws, Kruger and Burger (2000) describe the teenage years of children as challenging for many of the adolescents and their parents. The child is an important tool in the family, school and the society he or she lives in. The child is the future leader of the country, whether male or female.

Researchers, educators, parents, and communities are struggling to understand how adolescents, most of whom are perceived to be good and caring individuals, behave in ways that condone and maintain bullying, with a substantial number of students engaging directly in bullying behaviour or failing to do anything to stop it. The picture that has emerged is a complicated one. A growing body of research suggests that bullying and peer harassment

emerge as a result of a number of different factors (Baldry & Farrington, 2000; Espelage, Bosworth, & Simon, 2000; Pepler, Craig & O'Connell, 1999; Swearer & Doll, 2001). Such problems are not solely the result of individual characteristics of the students, poor home environments, ineffective parenting and school practices, "bad influences," peer pressure, or exposure to violent media. Rather, they reflect a complex interplay of factors such as the home environment, school environment, health and even heredity (Sagarese & Giannetti, 1999).

Bullying is as old as humanity. Almost everyone may have been bullied at one time or another. Homes, schools and workplaces are always bombarded by various incidents of physical bullying. This behaviour has affected the society as a whole to the extent that one can no longer find safe places to hide away (Olweus, 1993).

Piskin (2003) states that bullying in schools 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. Each year, tens of thousands of students are traumatised physically, sexually and emotionally, making bullying as common as it is shocking. The scars can be deep and long lasting, affecting not just the bullied child but the society (Piskin, 2003).

Horne and Staniszweski (2003) also note that almost every adult in the United States can remember a childhood experience of school aggression, and almost every child can remember being a victim, a bully or a bystander to incident(s) of bullying. Furniss (2000) mentions that bullying in schools causes widespread negative experiences, such as misery, distress, fear, anxiety, anger and helplessness. Browne and Finkelhor (1986) state that



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
depression, hostility, inappropriate sexual behaviour, poor self-esteem, the tendency towards substance abuse and difficulty with close relationships are some of the long-term effects of bullying.

Roland (2000) claims that researchers began to study bullying and victimization just over 30 years ago. Recent studies on bullying and victimisation have linked them to school-related homicidal acts on students (Smith, Cousins & Stewart, 2005).

Although youth are twice as likely to be victimised or bullied when compared to adults, a considerable gap in knowledge about violence perpetrated against youth still exists. While criminal victimisation and exposure to violence have dominated the adolescent literature for the past decade, the majority of studies, evaluating the prevalence of low level victimisation (bullying), have been conducted in European and the Western countries and not much in Third World countries. Research on school bullying has found higher prevalence rates in the United States than in any other country (Duncan, 1999; Hoover, Oliver & Hazler, 1992).

It has become apparent that much of what is understood today about bullying is a result of the pioneer work by Dan Olweus in the early 1970s. However, Olweus (1993, p. 12) defines bullying as: “deliberate hurtful behaviour, taking the form of negative actions or comments, where there is an imbalance of power, making it difficult for the subject to defend him/herself and where the behaviour is repeated”.

Victims often report intense fear of the bully because of exposure to repetitive negative actions. Individuals see bullying “as embracing any act of commission or omission, institution or society as a whole and any conditions

from such intentional acts which deprive children of equal rights and liberties or interfere with their optimal development” (Quine, 2001, p. 75). In recent years, the world over has become aware of what could be termed a new revelation but has been there for ages. This is the problem of bullying in the schools, most especially in the high schools.

Bullying has increased in an alarming proportion all over the world and has become a big challenge to school administrators, parents and stakeholders (Vossekuil, Fein, Reddy, Borum & Modzeleski, 2002). In spite of public outcry against this unhealthy habit among students, the practice still persists. However, Kaar (2009) in his study about bullying in general, has indicated that the reporting of violence in general is low in Ghana.

According to Hammond (2006), educationists are reporting that violence amongst school children is increasing. Teachers are complaining about the violent character and destructive habits of many of the children they are assigned to work with. Research has suggested that school bullying is so prevalent of late that it can be described as a normal feature of everyday life (Tyler, 2002).

Before a child starts school, the checking of abusive behaviour is largely the responsibility of parents and the immediate family members. This responsibility is transformed to the teacher and the school administration when the child gets to school. At the senior high schools, where most of the students are boarders, they are in the hands of the school administrators, house masters/mistresses, school guidance coordinators, class teachers and their seniors.



The ages of most students in the senior high schools range between 13 and 20. This is the adolescent stage of the individual. Bullying in the schools starts from the primary to the junior high schools and to senior high schools. Banks (1997) claims that the rate at which the individual is bullied reduces in the high schools as the students go higher. Boys are more often perpetrators and victims, and they are more likely to use physical abuse as a bullying technique. Girls are also strong participants but are mostly on teasing, spreading rumours and intentional isolation of victims (Davis, 2001; Epstein, 2001).

Teachers frequently do little to intercede and often completely ignore even blatant acts of bullying. Also, students report that fewer teachers seriously take active stand to prevent bullying in their schools (Atlas & Pepler, 1998).

Muro and Kottman (1995) rather suggest that school counsellors are the most qualified people who should frequently help children and their families to deal with bullying crises. The children who become victims of bullying in senior high schools need special assistance. Not only are they unhappy and troubled but they also are likely to continue feeling that way for a long time unless effective means of prevention are applied. Some even drop out of school or take up many social vices due to the extent of the abuse.

A recent survey by Osler (2006) revealed that 82 percent of children and young people in U.K., with a learning disability, had experienced bullying. This fits into other research on bullying which suggests that bullies seek to marginalise their victims and so seek out those that are already vulnerable in some way. It has been suggested that, whilst girls are often



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
subjected to bullying, overall it is less physical than bullying between boys,  
and that exclusionary practices are often more subtle, albeit their effects are  
equally damaging (Atlas & Pepler, 1998).

The bullying of younger boys and/or new boys has also been documented within the boarding school context by Poynting and Donaldson (2005) who have pointed to how new boys bore the brunt of the formal school system and endured abusive treatment at the hands of 'prefects'. Such treatment included their use as servants for older boys, often referred to as 'fagging'. Bullying has usually been cyclical as those who had been bullied would also start to bully others and, therefore, victims often become perpetrators. The understanding is that the tradition goes on, so far as you have been bullied before you also take it upon yourself to bully other people. This is seen as a practice which has become a convention for every school or student to go through.

The use of hegemonic resistance appeared to be relevant for some boys that had been bullied but had also bullied others. In other words, it appeared that once they had demonstrated an association with toughness, they were keen to maintain this standing. It did not follow, however, that these respondents did not feel empathy for other boys. Indeed, given their own experiences, they were well placed to empathise but this was over weighted by their desire for survival which appeared to be the overriding factor in their choices to engage with abuse rather than to challenge it (Poynting & Donaldson, 2005).

In the Ghanaian perspective, even though the practice has been in existence for decades, there appears to be not much statistics to support it

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
because no serious study has been done in the area. Kaar (2009) conducted a study in bullying in Ghana, and said that 10-16 percent of students were under constant fear, easily fell sick and were unable to concentrate in their studies.

Ghana Business News (2009) cited a research finding by Beat bullying (a charitable organisation) reporting that of the 59 cases of child suicides reported in Ghana between 2000 and 2008, 26 were connected to bullying citing school as the place of bullying. Also, Bosomtwi, Sabates, Owusu and Dunne (2010) gave the view that bullying was rampant in the Ghanaian schools and only that teachers in the schools in Ghana were still not considering bullying as a serious problem in relation to students well-being or academic achievement.

A study by Eyiah (2012) showed that bullying was going on in Ghana. He also reported that bullying was at its worse form in the senior high schools in Ghana and that new students who enter the boarding house suffer unnecessary harassment and intimidation from their seniors. Hammond (2013) confirms the bullying in the senior high schools and says that fresh students or juniors are subjected to all forms of inhuman treatment. He says that it has even made some victims have hatred for school, become drop outs, have low self-esteem that could lead to timidity, nervousness and lack of assertiveness. Some students even turn to have poor academic performance.

Whittal in Hammond (2013) reports of a study carried out by the Commissioner for Human Rights and Justice (CHRAJ) in 2010 which showed that bullying, corporal punishment and harassment continue to occur in Ghanaian basic schools leading to injuries to some pupils. Even though this silent epidemic is present in every school setting, it appears in Ghana, much



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
attention has not been given to it. This perhaps explains why there has not been much detailed study into the impact that bullying has on students or bullying in general. The mentality that bullying is a normal school practice or a tradition all students must pass through seems to blind people from seeing the realities of the bad effects of bullying on students.

From what has been gathered so far, it is most probable that many schools in Ghana are facing similar bullying problems as evidenced in schools where various studies were conducted. This suggests that critical studies on bullying be carried out in Ghanaian schools to help unravel the cunning nature of bullying and its impact on students. The Minister for Women and Children's Affairs has said that plans were under way to set up children's centres in all districts and communities in the country (The Daily Graphic, March 2007). Apart from supplying them with books and computers, each of the centres would have a professional counsellor trained in counselling in all sorts of abuse on children.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Abuse of human beings, in general, and bullying of students and boys, in particular, in the senior high schools in Ghana, continues and is gradually becoming a problem in alarming proportions, despite attempts by school administrators, teachers, parents and the Ghana Education Service to curb this behaviour. While some people put the blame at the doorstep of the school authorities for lack of a proper system of handling students, especially those who engage in this unacceptable behaviour, others blame parents for improper upbringing of their wards. Some even blame the Ghana Education Service for



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
the abolition of corporal punishment in schools which, they think, could have stopped bullying.

Many students have dropped out of the educational system and are now a liability to society. Of late, the spate of armed robbery and other social vices make people point fingers at the young ones who find themselves out of the confinement of the schools. Bullying in the school environment could have turned many of them from the walls of the school, making them a hindrance or enemies to the progress of the nation. Bullying is a very serious and visible problem in the schools. It becomes particularly problematic in terms of frequency and severity during the period of early adolescence. Physically, many victimised students endure repeated bodily attacks, verbal threats and torments, and also the increasing brutal nature of bullying, which has attracted media attention in recent years.

The Safe School Team of USAID, which consists of gender and education experts, visited Ghana in January, 2004, and conducted an assessment on how schools were welcoming or unwelcoming environments for students and teachers, and the kind of behaviour which made girl and boy students uncomfortable to the point that they would not want to return to school. The early results from their baseline summary on Ghana were significant. The results showed that students were bullied, and there was sexual harassment of both boys and girls by their peers, teachers, administrators and adults. The students also claimed that fighting, bullying and punishment, such as caning, weeding and sweeping, made them stay away from school. It was realised that the perpetrators were often people perceived

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
to be in positions of power, including teachers, community figures, or older  
and bigger students.

The study focused on the incidence of the bullying on the male child and how it could be managed to help the individual cope with future life. It must be understood that not much research has been done on male child bullying in Ghana. Indeed, the available evidence shows that the male child has been neglected when it comes to issues concerning the welfare of the student. It will then not be out of place in finding out what the problem is.

Even though there have been some studies on bullying or abuse in Ghana, they have mostly covered women and children below the ages of 10 years, and also on girls (Coker-Appiah & Cussak, 1999; Leach & Fiscian, 2000). This study, which is focused on the bullying of high school boys, is expected to fill an important gap in the chain of existing research and contribute to the slowly growing body of literature on the bullying of young boys in the Ghanaian society. However, in Ghanaian schools, very limited formal research of this phenomenon has been nationally and internationally documented, especially on the male child, and, of course, this leads to limited identification of cases. Hence, the research on the bullying of the male-child in selected senior high schools in Ghana.

### **Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the study was to examine bullying of the male-child in selected senior high schools in Ghana.

Specifically, the study aimed to:

1. ascertain the types of bullying that are meted out to the male-child;
2. examine the characteristics of victims of bullying;

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
3. examine the characteristics of the perpetrators of bullying;
  4. identify the factors that promote bullying in the school environment;
  5. examine whether masculinity is associated with the bullying of the male-child;
  6. determine the effects of bullying on the male-child;
  7. determine the roles school authorities play to assist victims of bullying; and
  8. make recommendations to stakeholders for effective control of bullying in schools.

### Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What types of bullying are meted out to the male-child?
2. What are the characteristics of victims of bullying?
3. What are the characteristics of perpetrators of bullying?
4. What factors promote bullying in the school environment?
5. How is masculinity associated with bullying of the male-child?
6. What are the effects of bullying on the male-child?
7. What roles do school authorities play in assisting the victims of bullying?

### Scope of the Study

The main aim of the study was to assess the bullying of the male-child in selected senior high schools in Ghana. In view of this, the study was confined to male students in co-educational and boys-only senior high schools.



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Findings from this study, therefore, could only reflect the bullying phenomenon in the six senior high schools in three cities and in three regions in Ghana.

### **Significance of the Study**

A study of this nature is important for Ghana because it creates a clear awareness of the specific impact of bullying on male school children and, thereby, helps to make the somewhat hidden or invisible aspect of the bullying of the male school child more visible.

Secondly, there are several organisations that would find the findings of this study useful. Among these are the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU) of the Police Service, various NGOs, such as Children's Rights International and World Vision International, and the Ministry of Gender and Children's Affairs. As the various organisations share a common goal of bringing violence to fellow human beings in Ghana to an end, they will find the information useful to advance this cause.

Thirdly, the findings would add to the knowledge base of school counsellors, teachers, parents and various organisations in the country that seek the total development of the individual, with regard to the nature and extent of the real hurts, pains and sufferings that school boys experience as a result of abuse or bullying.

Fourthly, the data generated from the study will be of particular interest to the Guidance and Counselling Unit of the Ghana Education Service as far as the formulation of related policy is concerned. Curriculum planners of the same institution could reflect on the findings as a prelude to the revision or the introduction of new aspects of the Social Studies and Management-in-

Finally, researchers could also take advantage of this study by using it as a reference for further investigation into other contexts of bullying.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The lack of adequate and relevant literature in the area of study posed a serious challenge to the researcher. This notwithstanding, it is the hope of the researcher that the study would provide the baseline to generate more research interest in the area.

The refusal of many students who were bullies to come out for the interview was also a limitation that could possibly affect the outcome of the study. However, the researcher believes that the number received was enough to have accounted for bullying in the schools.

The fear of the respondents (bullies, victims and bystanders) that they could be victimised or disciplined in the school was real. However, after most students realised and understood that there was an assurance of confidentiality, they were willing to participate in the study.

### **Operational Definition of Concepts**

- Bullying - The repeated harming of another person through words or physical attack in school.
- Harassment - The act or behaviour of deliberately making someone unhappy or anxious by causing them problems. Or persistent attacks and criticism causing worry and distress.

Hegemonic masculinity - The idea that a culturally normative ideal of male

behaviour exists which is calculated to guarantee the dominant position of some men over others.

Male child - A male student who is within the age group of 13- 20 and is in the senior high school.

Masculinity - The qualities which are considered to be typical of men.

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.

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 Thesis

The thesis is organised into five chapters. Chapter One gives the introductory background to what the study is all about. It covers the background to the study, the statement of the problem to be studied and the objectives of the study. It also covers the research questions of the study, the scope of the study, the significance of the study, the limitations and the operational definition of concepts.



background, empirical studies and also looks at the conceptual framework of the study. Chapter Three 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, counselling implications, recommendations and suggestions for further research.



## REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the literature related to the bullying of students in general and the male- child in particular. It explores: the historical aspects of bullying; the characteristics of senior high school students, definitions of bullying; bullying styles; types of bullying and gender differences in bullying. It also concerns itself with masculinity and personalities in bullying; the types of bullies; classification of bullying roles; consequences of bullying; effects of bullying; theories on bullying; and the conceptual framework for bullying.

### Historical Aspects of Bullying

The term 'bully' brings about an unforgettable painful memory to the mind of anyone who has ever witnessed or experienced first-hand, the violence, threats, torments of anguish, or the humiliating tones of teasing by one who is in greater power and control over that person. Five hundred years ago, the word 'bully' held an opposite meaning from what we know it to mean now. The root of the word bully stemmed from the Dutch word 'boel' meaning brother, lover, friend, family member, or sweetheart (PBS Kids, 2002). In the 21<sup>st</sup> Century, the term bullying has taken on a completely different connotation as it now brings about violence, anguish, fear and anxiety.

children in an 1897 article entitled “Teasing and Bullying” published by Burk in the Pedagogical Seminary. The article sought to expose behaviours of tormenters and victims, and provided strikingly horrific examples of victimization among children. The examples involved all of the four Ps—power, pain, persistence, and premeditation. Power was involved because all of the examples were of an older tormenter and a younger victim; both physical and psychological pain were clearly explained for the victim; persistence was evident because the bullies continued the behaviour (becoming increasingly more delighted) until their victims cried or ran away; premeditation was involved because the tormentors always had a plan and intentional targets. These were the times when the victims had no one to help them get out of such predicaments.

It is also shown in literary works that children have been singled out and harassed since the beginning of time. Written by Charles Dickens and published in 1838, *Oliver Twist* was one of the first novels in the English language to focus on the bullying and criminal mistreatment of a child protagonist. The first report of a bullying victim turning violent and shooting his tormenter was a soldier. However, now shooting has become rampant in most of the developed countries.

The story of John Flood was detailed in an article in *The Times* (London) in August of 1862. Flood had been the victim of “long, malignant and systematic bullying”. Flood was convicted and sentenced to death but because he was known to be a man of kindly disposition by everyone he came in contact with, his sentence was overturned by the Queen.



In the early 1970s, Dr. Dan Olweus initiated the world's first systematic bullying research. The results of his studies were published in a Swedish book in 1973 and in the United States in 1978 under the title *Aggression in the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys* (Olweus, 1978).

Later, many countries, such as the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, Spain, Italy and Japan, emerged with studies on bullying. These studies attracted a lot of media attention due to the levels of bullying reported, as well as high-profile suicide cases linked to bullying in several countries. Dr. Dan Olweus has long seen school safety as a fundamental human right. As early as 1981, he proposed enacting a law against bullying in schools so students could be spared the repeated humiliation implied in bullying. By the mid-1990s, these arguments led to legislation against bullying by the Swedish and Norwegian parliaments. In 1993, Olweus wrote “*Bullying at School: What We Know and What We Can Do*”, and is now widely considered to be the world's leading authority on bullying behaviour. Olweus's groundbreaking research and intervention programmes have played a significant role in increasing awareness that bullying is a growing social problem, one that must be taken seriously by researchers, educators, lawmakers, parents, students, and society in general.

Bullying among school children is widely known today, and educators have been aware of its existence for years. Hughes clearly described how a younger boy who attended an English boarding school was forced by a group of older bullies to undergo a painful and sadistic toasting in front of an open fire. People read but did not see this as something which was affecting the

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
society. The research on student bullying by Russel and Shrodes was not seen as a problem in the society until the time of Olweus (Olweus, 1978).

All these writings were taken as issues of “kids who will always be kids”. Now, there is the eye opener in many countries and these nations are making efforts to look at school bullying due to many effects it is having on the society. It is even reported that in April 20<sup>th</sup>, 1999, two teenage boys who had been relentlessly bullied brought 50 bombs to school in Colombia, and then went on a shooting spree wounding 23, fatally shooting 13, and taking their own lives. Children, parents and school officials around the country were shocked, and no one could deny the need for more pro-social and accepting school environments and a way to combat bullying among students (Ma, 2001).

### **The Characteristics of the Senior High School Student**

Before defining the word bullying, one needs to understand the culture of the senior high schools in Ghana. The senior high schools have their prime aim of providing an opportunity for further education and training and also introducing students to a variety of relevant occupational skills necessary for national human resources development (Quist, 1997).

Students at the senior high schools are between the ages of 15 and 18 and are within the middle to the late adolescent stage in life. These are adolescents who are at the crossroads of life where they find themselves in a period of turmoil as they are in a transition from childhood to adulthood with their key characteristics of identity (Erikson, 1963). At this critical period of

development, the major danger is the role of confusion. Thus, this stage is often referred to as that of identity and confusion (Zunker, 1994).

The senior high school in the Ghanaian educational system is the last three years of the adolescent in the high school. These students have concern about their career, opportunities for further education and personal social issues. According to Kaar (2009), it is during this period that the individual thinks of job entry more seriously than ever before and starts relating school work to occupational life. Kaar (2009) continues that students at the senior high schools have three broad goals relating to their lives and career choices.

These are:

1. continuing to aid the student in the development of his or her self-concept;
2. expanding opportunities for him or her to explore and learn about the world of work; and
3. classifying the relationship between the academic world and the working world.

The senior high school student is “cut off” from the rest of society and forced inwards toward his or her own group, made to carry out his or her whole social life with others of his own age. With their fellows, they come to constitute a small society, one that most of its important interactions are within itself, and maintains only a few threads of connections with the adult society.

The adults constitute the teaching staff, the non-teaching staff and their parents or guardians, who are supposed to visit them at some stipulated times. Life is more with the peers and age mates than with the adults and the outside world. This environment, with which the student most closely associates,



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
determines, to a considerable extent, the sort of individual into which he or she  
will develop (Berk, 2003).

Farmer (2011) observes that the senior high school student develops in an environment which is void of any intimidation, bullying, and scaring. Olweus (2010) also argues that whatever happens or affects the adolescent at this stage carries on with the one into the adult world. It is, therefore, important for the individual who is at the senior high school to be guided and assisted well so that he will be of benefit to the development of the country.

### **Definitions of Bullying**

Bullying is a behaviour that can only be easily recognized when individuals experience it. Bullying can happen to anyone at any age and anywhere whether at school, home, or even in a workplace. So far, it is difficult to define bullying since it relates to both a wide range behaviour that may constitute bullying, and the characteristics of bullying behaviour (Montgomery, 1994).

A qualitative study of elementary school children by Mishna (2004) found that bullying behaviour was not easily identified by the victimised student, teachers or parents. Two important aspects seemed to create the confusion. First, there was a conflict between a person's cognitive understanding of bullying and specific incidents of bullying. For instance, a student who has been bullied or a teacher or a parent, could provide a definition of bullying that would be consistent as the person refers to what has gone on, However, when it comes to giving an example of bullying, it becomes a bit difficult to identify the specific act that is referred to as bullying

that individual. Second, bullying among friends was difficult to identify, perhaps, due to an inability to identify a power imbalance between friends. Most adults can remember incidents of bullying in which they were the bullies or the intended victims.

Traditionally, bullying has been accepted as a single act of aggressive teasing or fighting. Current definitions of bullying behaviour stem from the original research conducted with Norwegian and Swedish learners by Olweus (1987). He defines bullying by stating that a learner is bullied or victimised when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other learners. These negative actions are considered to be when someone purposefully inflicts, or tries to inflict, injury or discomfort on another person.

Olweus (1993) posits that negative actions may further be defined as verbal (e.g. threatening, degrading, teasing) and non-verbal (e.g. hitting, kicking, slapping, pushing, vandalizing property, rude gestures and making faces). It should be noted that this definition requires that negative actions should be carried out repeatedly and intentionally to constitute bullying, which exclude occasional and less serious negative actions (Yates & Smith, 1989).

Rigby (2008, p. 22) suggests that bullying is “the systematic abuse of power in interpersonal relationship”. 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



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
psychological strength between bully and the victim (Olweus & Solberg, 1998).

When it comes to the identification of bullying in the society, Olweus and Solberg (1998) have suggested some typical characteristics which could help in identifying what a bullying behaviour could be. They stated that “we generally speak of bullying when one or more persons repeatedly and over a period of time say or do painful and unpleasant things to someone who has problems defending himself or herself” (p.7). To address the terms “painful” and “unpleasant” experience, Olweus and Solberg refer to them as direct bullying and indirect bullying. They argue that the pain and unpleasantness may be due to direct bullying involving hitting, kicking, insults, offensive and sneering comments or threat, while indirect bullying, which is just as painful, is the experience of being socially isolated and excluded from group membership (Olweus & Solberg, 1998). There is the implication in their statement showing a quite reasonable assumption that bullying is mostly psychological (Rigby, 2005).

According to Björkqvist, Österman and Back (1994), bullying is defined as repeated activities with the aim of bringing mental (but sometimes also physical) pain, and directed toward one or more individuals who, for one reason or another, are not able to defend themselves. To Conoley and Goldstein (2004), bullying is seen as the lower-level aggressive behaviour of the individual which is either hidden or covert. However, violence and bullying do not occur totally independently.

To O'moore and Minton (2004), when young people of the same age or peers who have the same power have occasional conflict, it does not



© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
constitute bullying. However, Hazler (1996) sees bullying as a conflict which is a normal occurrence between human beings.

Lee, as cited in Rigby (2007, p.13), defines bullying as;

repeated oppression, psychological or physical, of a less powerful person by a more powerful person or group of persons. Whilst there are various definitions, most have the following in common;... bullying is deliberate hurtful behaviour taking the form of negative actions or comments, where there is an imbalance of power making it difficult for the subject to defend him/herself and where the behaviour is repeated.

It should be noted, therefore, that the definition requires that negative actions should be carried out repeatedly and intentionally to constitute bullying which exclude occasional and serious negative actions.

These definitions show the importance of bullying as a behaviour which should not be seen as innocent teasing or harmless play as there have been serious reported consequences of exposure to this type of behaviour. Bullying behaviour is the conscious illegitimate use of power by an individual or group to hurt someone physically or psychologically (Olweus, 1997; Smith, 1991).

In the same way that it is important to be clear about the definition of bullying, it is also important to be clear about what is not bullying (Sullivan, 2000). Bullying is hidden, opportunist, mean-minded, and recurrent, and involves an imbalance of power. There are other types of behaviour that are sometimes mistaken for bullying but which occur in the open and do not involve an imbalance of power. For example, two individuals (or groups) may

get into an argument or fight (verbal or physical) as tempers flare up and things get out of hand. While such conflicts need to be dealt with in schools in a transparent and fair way, they do not constitute bullying. Rather, they are simple cases of conflict.

In some instances, however, individuals or a group may set out to create a situation where it appears that those involved have equal responsibility, but this may be part of a plan to discredit a targeted person (or group). They may blame the victim for starting the fight and may even pose as victims themselves to deflect punishment and maintain their hidden status as bullies. It is important that schools are able to distinguish between conflict and bullying, and to see through the web of deceit that typically surrounds bullying.

### **Bullying Styles**

Bullying styles are generally considered to fall under two categories: direct and indirect (Boulton, Trueman, & Flemington, 2002; Crick, 1997). The direct form of bullying is seen as open attacks on a victim where there is shove, hit, kick, trip, push and pull. Also it can involve name-calling, insults, threatening to hurt the other (Boulton et al, 2002). The indirect form of bullying is also known as social or relational aggression (Crick, 1997). This involves attacking the relationships of people and hurting their self-esteem. It is subtler and involves behaviours such as spreading nasty rumours, withholding friendships, ignoring, gossiping or excluding the individual from a small group of friends. Lee (2004) says that indirect bullying usually involves a third party.

Bullying on males has usually been direct in style, while bullying on females is more manipulative and indirect in style (Olweus, 1997; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Björkqvist, Österman, and Hjelt Bäck, (1994) claim that indirect aggression in females increases drastically at about the age of 11 years, whereas the direct aggression among boys decreases during late adolescence, to be replaced mainly by verbal, and also some aspects of indirect aggression.

### **Types of Bullying**

Bullying can involve many types of behaviours. The following are some of the types of bullying that are identified in the literature. These include physical, social, verbal, cyber and psychological bullying.

#### **Physical bullying:**

According to Lee (2004), physical bullying is more than punching or kicking which is a direct form. It can assume indirect forms, such as taking one's possessions or damaging property. Coloroso (2008) states that, although physical bullying is the most visible and, therefore, the most readily identifiable form of bullying, it accounts for less than one – third of bullying incidents reported by children.

Salivalli, Kaukiainen and Langerspertz (1998) stress that physical bullying involves behaviours whereby the perpetrator might punch, hit and/or steal money from the victim. Larsen (2005) will rather put it that the problem for a school is that physical bullying presents a challenge for that school to maintain a safe and orderly learning environment.



Physical bullying can, therefore, be seen as being very dangerous as

the child who physically harms another child is seen as the most troubled of all the bullies and is more likely to move towards more serious criminal offences as opined by Coloroso (2008). Glover, Gough, Johnson and Cartmigh (2000) state that some of the physical bullying activities are: threatening with violence, pushing, pulling by the hair, slaps, punching, kicking, tripping, stamping on and spiting on. These sometimes lead to food taken away from victims, school bags taken or properties, such as books, clothes and shoes, damaged. Sometimes, money is demanded from the victims and some are made to fight each other. Some victims are also beaten with sponges and electrical wires.

The researcher was once called to witness a male student who was asked to sleep in his trunk that he had brought to school for storage of his clothing at a school in which the researcher was teaching. Unfortunately, the time attention was drawn to the heinous crime, the boy was so weak that the authorities had to rush him to the hospital for medical care. This was just because he had a small body frame and also could not provide things requested by the bullies.

Clarke and Kiselica (1997) claim that, apart from those mentioned, physical bullying includes holding and hostile gesturing. These are all direct forms of physical bullying. The indirect forms of physical bullying are usually where there is a threat of violence or the kind of gestures and body language which is intimidating and even making faces and dirty gestures. To Limber and Small (2003), physical bullying tends to receive more attention from school personnel than other types of bullying. It is, therefore, not surprising

that Garret (2003) puts it that physical bullying is a moderate risk factor for serious violence at ages 15-25 and that bullies are four times more likely to be convicted of crimes by the age of 24 than non-bullies.

Some signs show that a student has been a victim of physical bullying include:

- Students coming home from school with bruises, cuts, or other unexplained injuries;
- Having damaged clothing, books, or possessions;
- Often "losing" things that they take to school;
- Complaining of frequently not feeling well before school or school activities;
- Skipping certain classes;
- Wanting to avoid going to school or going to school not using the usual route, such as taking strange routes home from school or not wanting to ride the bus;
- Acting sad or depressed;
- Withdrawing from others;
- Saying they feel picked on ;
- Displaying low self- esteem ;
- Mood swings, including anger or sadness;
- Wanting to run away;
- Trying to take a weapon to school; and
- Talking about suicide or violence against others (Olweus, 2010; Rigby, 2008; Garret, 2003; Colorosso, 2008).

## Social bullying:

Social bullying is also known as relational bullying (Coloroso, 2008). This involves psychological harm and manipulation of the social system. It involves situations where the perpetrator might spread rumours, back bite and/or exclude the victim from the peer group. Lee (2004) defines social bullying as one which includes deliberate exclusion from a social group or intimidation within the group. Social bullying is sometimes difficult to detect from the outside and could be direct with exclusion, ignoring, isolating or shunning experienced by the victim (Salivalli, Kankianen & Lagerspetz, 1998).

The goal of social bullying is to belittle and harm another individual or group. In senior high school, for example, bullying might take the shape of teasing unpopular children. Ridiculing another child's clothes, making fun of the way he speaks, and mocking his academic achievements or his race or culture are examples of behaviours that a bully might exhibit to gain power over another child (O'Moore & Minton, 2004).

Coloroso (2008) says that the indirect forms of this type of bullying include exclusion carried out away from the victims and is not experienced by them until they are informed of it or they attempt to join the group. Social bullying is associated with aggressive stances, rolling of eyes, sighs, frowns, sneers, snickers, hostile body language, shaking fists, looks or glances that contain nasty messages. This type of bullying carries into adulthood in some cases. Such behaviours can be found among family members, in work situations, in college social groups, and in neighbourhood activities. Socially sabotaging others by spreading rumours, constantly telling them what to do,



and any other behaviours that intentionally cause shame and humiliation and exert control over others can be considered examples.

Social bullying is generally caused by a combination of factors. In almost all cases, the bully lacks empathy for his targeted individual or group. In some cases, he has learned this behaviour from observing others, or he may have been the victim of bullying earlier in life. Jealousy is another cause, whereby an individual feels threatened by the characteristics or achievements of another individual and engages in bullying as a way to feel empowered and dominant. The negative consequences of social bullying are extensive. Victims often suffer from depression, anxiety, social isolation, and low self-esteem. Some victims turn to suicide or commit homicidal acts as a result of extreme mental and social pressures. Individuals bullied in childhood may carry the emotional wounds into adulthood, leading to depression, social isolation, and the inability to react appropriately to unjust situations.

Putting an end to social bullying generally requires a group effort. Submission on the part of the victim tends to perpetuate the injustice. Those who observe the behaviour, such as teachers, students, co-workers, teammates, and family members, need to step in to intervene on behalf of the victim. Victims should not be made to feel that it is their responsibility alone to combat the abuse. Curbing the behaviour of the bully is most effective as soon as it occurs and more difficult once the person has found supporters and gained a greater degree of social power.

Verbal bullying:

Verbal bullying is seen as one of the most common types of bullying used by both boys and girls. Verbal bullying accounts for 70 per cent of

reported cases which can have an immediate impact (Lee, 2004; Coloroso, 2008). Verbal bullying is referred to as name calling, teasing and verbal threats as stated by Olweus (1993). Words alone do have power. While the effects of physical bullying may be more obvious at first, verbal bullying is more insidious and, over long periods of time, works to destroy a child's self-image and self-esteem. This can lead to depression, anxiety and other problems. In extreme cases, several well-noted instances of teen suicide have been linked to prolonged verbal bullying of a classmate or peer. Verbal bullying should not be treated as kids simply being kids and should be dealt with seriously by parents, counsellors, teachers and school administrators (Lee, 2004).

Coloroso (2008) also says that words are such powerful tools that can break the spirit of the child who is at the receiving end of the verbal bullying. Verbal bullying is usually meted on those vulnerable groups, such as ethnic groups, people with all forms of disabilities and any other vulnerable groups. Salvalli, Kankiainen and Lagerspetz (1998) state that verbal bullying includes behaviours, such as, a perpetrator making rude remarks and /or name calling toward a victim.

Gadin and Hammarrstorm (2005) confirm that the most common form of bullying is verbal bullying. This is consistent with findings of studies conducted on students in Norway (Due, Holstein, Lynch, Diderichsen, Gabhainn, Scheidt, & Curie, 2005) and in England (Due et al, 2009). The types of verbal bullying usually found among students are name calling, threatening the victim, teasing, cruel criticism, insulting remarks, taunting,



belittling, personal defamation, sexually suggestive or sexually abusive remarks (Lee, 2004; Boulton et al, 2002; Coloroso, 2008)

Lee (2004) states that verbal bullying can also include abusive phone calls, intimidating e-mails, anonymous notes containing threats of violence, untruthful accusations, false and malicious rumours, and gossip. It is also stated that, in many cases, teachers and parents will not deal with verbal bullying and, if this behaviour is condoned, it allows the targeted child to become dehumanised (Coloroso, 2008). Some of the signs that the student might be experiencing verbal bullying include an aversion to going to school, drop in grades, sleeping problems, and complaints of stomach aches.

Many victims of verbal bullying are affected in very real ways. Verbal bullying can affect one's self image, and affect someone in emotional and psychological ways. This type of bullying can lead to low self-esteem, as well as depression and other problems. It can aggravate problems that a victim may already be experiencing at home or in other places (Cowie & Jennifer, 2008). In some cases, verbal bullying can reach a point where the victim is so depressed, and wants to escape so badly, that he or she may turn to substance abuse or, in some extreme cases, suicide. The realities of verbal bullying can have very physical consequences, even if the aggressor never lays a finger on the victim (Coloroso, 2008). Verbal bullying can be hard for teachers, counsellors and other school authorities to detect, since no physical harm takes place (Kaar, 2009).

Cyber bullying:

We live in an era characterized by readily accessible digital technology, and children of all ages spend a lot of time using cell phones and



computers. As a result, cyber bullying is gradually becoming the fastest growing type of bullying behaviour. Cyber bullying can be viewed as repetitive when a message, photograph or video-clip is taken once and sent to more than one individual who, in turn, forward this to other people, or alternatively upload the material onto a website. Every time someone accesses this site or material, it can be viewed as repetition (Juvonen & Gross, 2008).

Cyber bullying means that a child or teen is subjected to text messages, emails or online posts, such as Facebook, Twitter, blogs or other websites. These messages are sometimes cruel in nature, threatening, defamatory (saying things that are not true) and deliberately misleading (for example, claiming to be from someone other than the actual sender).

Cyber bullying is widespread partly because it seems more “stealthy” from the bully’s vantage point. It is also much easier to taunt someone from the perceived distance of sitting behind a computer or phone, compared to face-to-face. Cyber bullying can take place on multiple platforms. Some examples include: bullying by text messages, pictures, video-clips or voice recordings on mobile phones; the use of cameras or video cameras, digital voice recorders, MP3 and MP4 players, and IPod’s and IPad’s; phone calls; electronic mail (email), otherwise known as hate-mail; chat rooms; instant messaging via mobile phone or Internet sites; bash boards, (the nickname for an online bulletin board or virtual chat room); hacking into someone else’s social networking profile or stealing their passwords; interactive sites, such as Formspring on Facebook or Chat roulette; online polling or rating websites; blogging sites; virtual worlds; online social gaming and personal or public websites (Bissonette, 2009, Cowie & Jennifer, 2008; Trolley & Hanel, 2010).

Many cyber bullies take on false names to avoid detection. A cyber bully might say something mean about you, and threaten to circulate private information about you (such as telephone numbers, addresses and even e-mail passwords) to others. They do this to cause shame to the individual or even try to extract valuable information or money from individuals (Lee, 2004; Coloroso, 2008).

Even though cyber bullying seems small, the knowledge on this type of bullying is growing too fast because of the spread of technology around the world and the youth also becoming much interested in the internet where they can manipulate it any how they want it. This is likely to be a major form of bullying in the 21st Century, so we should all fight this together (Lee, 2004)

Psychological bullying:

Psychological bullying is when someone, or a group of people, repeatedly and intentionally uses words or actions which cause an individual psychological harm. The psychological bully is the one who beats a person up emotionally to try to make him or her uncomfortable, disturbed and destabilised in mind. Intimidating someone, manipulating people and stalking a person are all examples of psychological bullying. People in popular groups or cliques often bully people they categorize as different by excluding them or gossiping about them (Lee, 2004).

Boulton, et. al. (2002) state that examples of psychological bullying and social manipulation include: ostracizing or ignoring peers, not inviting them to join groups or activities, spreading lies or rumours, name calling, and teasing hurtfully. Psychological bullying can happen in the classroom or schoolyard and it can also happen at home or work. Students, dealing with



psychological bullying, view their schools as less safe, and they are less pleased with the atmosphere of the school. Boys are more likely than girls to carry weapons to school as a result of physical and psychological bullying (Coloroso, 2008).

The bullies who perfect psychological techniques of torment can inflict greater long-term harm on their victims than those who bully physically. However, this type of bullying could be overlooked by schools, counsellors, parents and teachers. School authorities and teachers worry more about physical bullying and rate psychological bullying, such as being shunned by their classmates, as less serious and upsetting to the victim. Psychological bullying is linked to the feelings of victimization, depression, anxiety, loneliness, social dissatisfaction and low self-esteem (Cowie & Jennifer, 2008; Coloroso, 2008; Boulton & Underwood, 1992).

Psychological bullying could involve social exclusion from games, parties and outings, or being sent to chop box rooms, dark rooms by classmates, and the less serious psychological subordination, such as social put-downs, teasing or name-calling. These forms of bullying, particularly social exclusion, appear to have more damaging long-term effects. Girls are more adept at psychological bullying, through social exclusion of the victim or indirect means, such as social manipulation, or talking behind someone's back, (Cowie & Jennifer, 2008; Coloroso, 2008; Boulton & Underwood, 1992).

### **Gender Differences in Bullying**

According to Garret (2003), a study conducted by Olweus and Limber in 1999 showed that males tend to bully and are also bullied more than their



female counterparts. Ma (2002) found out that boys usually bully their fellow boys and also girls, whereas the girls usually bully only their fellow girls. The males also usually take on the role of bully or encourager of the bully, whereas the females are usually bystanders or defenders. Whereas the males use more of physical and verbal bullying, the females use rumours and verbal bullying (Berg, 1994; Garret, 2003,).

Victims report that about 65 per cent of bullying is perpetrated by boys, 15 per cent by girls, and 19 per cent by boys and girls (Boulton & Underwood, 1992). In a study by Olweus (1991), more than 60 per cent of girls, bullied in grades 5-7, were bullied by boys only and an additional 15 to 20 per cent were bullied by both boys and girls. More than 80 per cent of victimized boys were bullied by boys.

The type of bullying varies according to gender as well. Boy bullies are three to four times more likely to inflict physical assaults than girl bullies (Davis, 1987; Eron, Huesmann, Dubow, Romanoff & Yamel, 1987), whereas girls use more ridicule and teasing (Hoover, Oliver & Hazler, 1992; Lash et al, 1995).

Aldair, et al, (2000) made an observation that boys who were bullied victims and reported the bullying cases were 76 percent, whereas girls of the same stature who reported their bullied cases were 65 percent. Lloyd (1994) had previously said that the bullying of girls was something which was usually hidden.

Olweus (2010) explains that bullying done by boys are usually both direct and indirect. He labelled the open attacks in bullying as direct bullying and the social isolation and exclusion from their groups as indirect bullying.

Boys are more likely to be both bullies and victims (Cohen & Canter, 2003; Nansel et al., 2001; Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2001). However, the frequency with which boys and girls are involved in bullying may have to do with how bullying is defined or identified (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2001).

Besag (2006) notes the prominent role of talk in girls' play and suggests that the cooperative nature of girls' games is related to their preferred use of indirect modes of aggression. Felix and McMahon (2006) further state that males employ physical victimisation, harming others through violence, whereas females employ relational victimisation, harming others by damaging their relationships (Arrindell, et al., 1993).

Farrington (1993) has found that, most often, males are bullied about their sexuality, while females are mostly bullied about their apparent 'loose morals'. Turkel (2007) supports this statement by indicating that children predominantly use sexual putdowns towards girls, such as 'whore' or 'slut'. Fight Crime (2003) also notes that, while males often bully strangers or acquaintances, females attack within networks of friends.

Furthermore, Farrington (1993) states that the prevalence of females who bully declines steadily with age, but the prevalence of male bullies remains roughly constant from the ages of eight to sixteen. In later adolescence, bullying becomes more relational, culminating in adulthood in forms such as racial and sexual harassment (Lash, et al, 1991; Stein, 1995).

The question then is: why is there a gender difference when dealing with bullying? Turkel (2007) states that, while boys are encouraged to kick and punch their negative feelings away, girls are taught to avoid direct



confrontation. Girls are expected to be non - aggressive and to conform to the stereotype of being the kinder, gentler sex. Parents, therefore, discourage direct physical aggression in girls. Boys, however, have more freedom to express their anger in direct physical ways.

Turkel (2007) states that because girls are not allowed to express their anger directly, it comes out in other ways. Examples of this include social ostracism, ignoring, and sabotaging another's relationship. This indirect aggression allows the bully to avoid confronting their victim. However, boys are taught to be more physically direct with their anger. This socialisation into gender roles could be an explanation for the gender differences in bullying behaviour which continues into adulthood (Thorne, 1993).

### **Age Differences**

Bullying appears less widespread amongst older students (Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Arora, 1994; Andreou, 2000), and similarly, the percentage of victims drops when age increases (Olweus, 1994; Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Fonzi, et al., 1999). The form of bullying changes as well; whereas physical bullying is predominant amongst younger pupils, verbal and psychological bullying becomes more common amongst older ones (Lösel & Bliesener, 1999; Bosworth, et al., 1999).

Bullies tend most often to victimize students who are the same age as they are, followed by younger students (Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Moran, Smith, Thompson & Whitney, 1993; Whitney & Smith, 1993). For example, Zindi (1994) and Lane (1989) noted that most bullies were in the same grade, as well as the same class as the victims, followed by the same grade and a different class, and lastly, in a higher grade. Bullies were generally peers of



the victim - they were the same age and in the same grade or class. It can be said that bullies victimize children they spend much time with and know well. More young children are bullied than older ones. Bullying generally is highest in the youngest age groups and declines with age (Rigby & Slee, 1991; Ziegler & Rosenstein-Manner, 1991; Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Hoover, Oliver & Hazler, 1992; Whitney & Smith, 1993; Zindi, 1994).

The percentage of students bullied decreases significantly with age and grade. The rate of decline is less during junior high and senior high school. Olweus (1991) reports that the average percentage of students bullied was 11.6 percent in grades 2 through 6 and 5.4 percent in grades 7 through 9. More than 50 percent of students in the lowest grades were bullied by older students, whereas older children were bullied primarily by same-age peers (Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Olweus, 1991; Hill & Drolet, 1999). However, Boulton and Underwood (1992) and Perry, Kusel and Perry (1988) argue that it is the youngest students in a particular school setting (regardless of age) who are most at risk for being bullied. This could be understood where the younger students in a building are usually physically weaker and more vulnerable than older, stronger students. There is a general decline in direct, physical bullying as age/grade increases, while the relatively high level of verbal abuse/aggression remains constant.

### **Masculinity associated with Bullying**

The academic performance and behaviour of boys is influenced by the way they construct and live out masculine expressions. Just as schools are sites for the making of masculinity, so they can be sites for the deconstruction and reconstruction of masculinities (Allard, Cooper, Hildebrand & Wealands,

1995; Davies, 1997; Gipps, 1996). Boys need to be helped to develop alternative ways of relating to themselves and to others, which are not organised around having to prove that they are masculine (Connell, 2005; Martino, 1997).

Bhasin (2004) defines masculinity as how boys and men should succeed at, and what attitudes and qualities they should have. Morell (1998) notes that it is through the investigation of masculine points of view that a platform for the deconstruction of stereotypical masculinities and the reconstruction of new norms can be formed. To Adomako-Ampofo (2001), male characteristics that are approved or encouraged include virility, strength, authority, power and leadership qualities, the ability to offer protection and sustenance, intelligence and wisdom, and the ability to bear physical and emotional pain. A boy whose lifestyle does not measure up to the prescribed expectations is branded “banyin basia” meaning “man-woman”.

Boys’ choices of how they will express themselves as men are strongly structured by relationships of power, as stated by Connell (1993) and Epstein (1998). Kenway and Fitzclarence (1997) state that, if boys cannot find their masculine expression centred within the ‘hard’, macho hegemonic expression, they will then take a complicitous, subordinate or marginal position. Subordinated masculinities are at the bottom of the gender hierarchy among men, and include expressions that are effeminate or homosexual. Marginal masculinities are masculinities that have found an alternative expression to the hegemonic pattern such as those expressions displayed by some ethnic groups of boys (Connell, 1997; Czoop, Lasane, Sweigard, Bradshaw, & Hammer, 1998).



Gilbert and Gilbert (1998) say masculinity is relational in that it is constructed within a system of gender which places dominant masculinity in hostile opposition to alternatives. Consequently, some boys then become oppressors to fellow classmates or teachers. Some, especially subordinate and marginalised groups, such as gay boys, artistic boys or intellectual boys, become the oppressed (Hetrick & Martin, 1987). Some boys are complicitous and they will support the dominant expression and, thus, share its rewards without actually fully taking on its expression. In fact, even the boys who are oppressed by the dominant masculinity will share in the long- term privilege of being men (Connell, 1996).

Sex differences in rates of violence by men and women are consistent, with men outnumbering women by a very large margin (Good & Mintz, 1990). This is so across countries, over time, at all ages, and in relation to different types of violence. This relates to all types of violent or aggressive behaviour, including bullying in schools, in sports, on the street, in the home, among hospital patients or prison populations (Correctional Service Canada, 2004; Eisler, Skidmore & Ward, 1988).

The social, cultural and psychic construction of masculinity is related to violence (Blackmore, 1999), and violence has become associated with 'normalised' forms of masculinity' (Mills, 2001, p.20) Expressions of violence, such as bullying and harassment in schools, make life difficult for some boys and girls (Huesmann et al, 1996; Martino & Pallota-Chiarolli, 2003).

It appears that there are compelling reasons for looking at the issue of school violence from a gendered perspective. In fact, one only has to look at



the high rate of victimization of male adolescents to appreciate that these males may be as oppressed as females, albeit in different ways and for different reasons (De Vos, Stone, Goetz & Dahlberg, 1996; Pollack, 1998).

Research in discourse analysis shows that not only do we create categories for people based on gender, but that gender “provides a way to decode meaning and to understand the complex connections among various forms of human interactions”, (Artz, et al., 2000; Scott cited in Kushner, 1992, p.56). Until the 1980s, the social sciences were dominated by a view of gender role identification that linked masculine gender role identity with mental health in men (Eslea, 2001; O’Neil, 1981). Traditional masculine traits, such as dominance were seen as not only innate, but necessary for healthy male development. According to this view, some mental health problems were the result of the failure of men to identify with the traditional gender role (Martin, 1993).

### **Personalities in Bullying**

The person who bullies is the individual or a group of people who take the interest in carrying out the bullying behaviour. They try to victimize their peers, friends and the vulnerable through wilful, conscious and deliberate actions intended to induce fear in them. To Garret (2003), temperament is seen as the best human factor in determining bullying behaviour. Children who are more active and impulsive may be more likely to develop into bullies.

Parsons (2005) believes that the bullying behaviour stems from personal values that have become rooted in the individual over time, and that this behaviour is consistent with how they tend to understand the world. Bullies have a wish for power that is stronger than their empathetic sense, so

they are willing to hurt others to feel powerful. Youngsters who bully deny what they have done, minimize the intent of the bullying, or blame their actions on others' behaviour (Davis, 2003).

In the life of the individual, there are some adolescents who made it as their aim to strive for leadership and status among their peers, and an important factor to motivate them do this could be aggression (Pellegrini, 2002). Children who are more active and impulsive in life may be more likely to develop into bullies. However, as stated by Garret (2003), temperament is seen as the best child factor in determining bullying behaviour.

According to Bond and Stoker (2000), there are some common traits that are identified among those who bully others. These are:

- i. Their behaviours are usually modelled by some significant role models and these could be their parents, teachers, and other role models all over;
- ii. They do not usually consider the consequences of their behaviour as they are always not having foresight and also thinking in an unrealistic manner;
- iii. They are not alone but have a group of peers who admire and often assist in the modelling of the bullying behaviour;
- iv. They usually do their bullying when they recognize that there is no adult to interfere in what they want to do;
- v. They lack guilt and really value the rewards they achieve from their behaviour which is mostly receiving attention or gaining control over somebody; and

vi. They are always concerned with their own wants and pleasures, and not concerned about the rights and/ or needs of others.

Coloroso (2008) admits that the bullies usually project their own insecurities onto the victims. It is realized that the bullies tend to have poor self- concepts and have limited success in life in their internal feelings of inferiority and unimportance.

Bullying is differentiated from aggressive behaviour as it involves the misuse of power. The negative behaviour aimed at achieving control in order to boost the self-esteem is the misuse of power. The bully is more powerful, physically and/or psychologically, than his/her victim. The behaviour is repetitive. A one - off fight with someone of equal strength and size is not bullying (Rigby & Slee, 1993; Schwartz, et al., 1997).

Research indicates that bullies can be as popular as other students (Olweus, 1978 cited in Hoover & Hazler, 1991). This is contrary to the findings regarding chronically aggressive children who tend to be less popular with their peers (Foster, deLawyer & Guevremont, 1986; Kaufmann, 1985). It is possible that bullies do not receive as much condemnation for their behaviour as do other aggressive children because they do not pick on everyone indiscriminately (Hoover & Hazler, 1991).

The reasons why children bully:

Considered from a holistic framework, the factors which contribute to the incidence of bullying are biological, sociological, psychological, mental, economic and environmental. There is no one factor that stands alone (Ahmad & Smith, 1994). The bully is part of a system, a member of a family, peer



friendship group, a school and the wider community. He/she will interrelate with all of these parts. The bully, like all individuals, has basic needs and requires a sense of order and control of his/her environment in order to develop a sense of self. Many incidents of bullying take place in the context of life changes, which may occur on several levels simultaneously, involving powerful interactive effects between biological, cognitive, emotional, motivational, social, educational, and organisational variables (Branwhite, 1994; Smith, 1991).

The environment where most of adolescent bullying occurs is in schools. Adolescents are placed together in large groups of the same age and sex. Along with the physical, psychological and social changes that the adolescent goes through, the school environment is ripe for bullying behaviour. The preferred location for bullying is the schoolyard, dormitories, dining halls, bathrooms, school fields, but rarely the classroom during classes time (Rigby, 1996). The first year in high school is particularly notable, as young people have just moved from the intimate classroom structure of the basic school to the large and diverse structure of the high school. Adolescents are now in an environment with much larger numbers and will need to re-establish their social status within the group (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1998).

Instead of gaining self-respect and social status by competence and skills, the bully seems to have learnt to boost these by harassing a suitable victim (Björkqvist et al, 1982; Björkqvist, 1994). The negative behaviour can be viewed as coming from ineffectual interactions. The bully consistently makes biased judgements through his/her lens of the world, which is not

consistent with the general view. The bully has constructed a reality, which is based on cognitive errors in certain situations. For example, bullies often misinterpret the behaviour of others and rationalise that somehow the victim 'deserves' the bullying treatment (Johnson, et al., 1992; Morrison, 2007).

Coloroso (2008) states that it is because of the genetic inborn temperaments already in some students that make them bully. Parsons (2005) puts it that some bullies are born with what is commonly called a behavioural control disorder (Ofei-Aboagye, 1992). They are seen as emotional raw nerves that misunderstand interaction with others and justify their behaviour as they react to perceived threats. They could also be influenced by finances. Those who are rich could be victims of bullying as well as those who are poor.

Coloroso (2008) discusses environmental influences as also a factor that encourages bullying behaviour. For Hoover and Olsen (2001), research has shown that certain child rearing practices and aggression may, at times, lead to bullying. These children usually have their own way in the home and these are the ones their parents did not try to correct in their childhood when they were misbehaving. Also, the more the child is exposed to incidents of bullying, the more desensitized the child becomes (Smith & Sharp, 1994). These and other factors give the children the opportunity to bully their peers, mates, the vulnerable and those they find it deem to do that to.

### **Types of Bullies**

Before bullying takes place, there are people who are involved or connected to the bullying. There is the one who bullies, the one who is bullied (victim); those who stand by to witness the bullying who are sometimes

partakers, and those who are bystanders. Bullies are not born as bullies, they are made. Physical bullies often resort to victimize others because of underlying problems as they would want to use their power to humiliate or harm their helpless victims. Understanding why a person resorted into bullying will give us better understanding why this unacceptable behaviour is on the rise today (Olweus, 2010).

Students who engage in bullying behaviours seem to have a need to feel powerful and in control. They appear to derive satisfaction from inflicting injury and suffering on others, seem to have little empathy for their victims, and often defend their actions by saying that their victims provoked them in some way (Crick & Dodge, 1999). Studies indicate that bullies often come from homes where physical punishment is used, where the children are taught to strike back physically as a way to handle problems, and where parental involvement and warmth are frequently lacking (Barone, 1997; Finnegan, et al, 1998).

Students who regularly display bullying behaviours are generally defiant or oppositional toward adults, antisocial, and apt to break school rules. In contrast to prevailing myths, bullies appear to have little anxiety and to possess strong self-esteem. There is little evidence to support the contention that they victimize others because they feel bad about themselves (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Crick & Werner, 1998).

Bullies are of many types. They include: confident; social; hyperactive; bullied bully; the gang of bullies; and fully armoured bully (Coloroso, 2008).



The confident bully:

The confident bully is the one who has a large ego and is also having an inflated sense of self and of entitlement. This person has no empathy for the one he/she is targeting to bully and is usually admired by many, including teachers because of their powerful personality as their true colours are usually not known. They usually do not have many friends (Coloroso, 2008). They are also called “clever” bullies because of their ingenious way of masking their behaviours, and people who relate with them find it difficult to believe that they could have such negative behaviours (Olweus, 2010),

The Social bully:

The social bully tries to use rumour, shunning, insults, gossip, and verbal taunts to isolate the victim from social activities. These are people who have poor sense of self and hide behind exaggerated confidence and charm as they are usually envious of the victim’s positive qualities. They are very deceptive and behave as if they are very caring, but do manipulate their victims to get whatever they want (Coloroso, 2008).

The social bullies can also be referred to as relational or relationship. These bullies try to convince their peers to exclude or reject a certain person or people and cut the victims off from their social connections. This type of bullying is linked also to verbal bullying and usually occurs when children (most often girls) spread nasty rumours about others or exclude an ex-friend from the peer group. The most devastating effect with this type of bullying is the rejection by the peer group at a time when children most need their social connections. (Coloroso, 2008).

The hyperactive bully:

The hyperactive bully is the one who is always struggling with academics and also has very poor social skills. As they are not able to read social cues, they rather tend to bully others. Coloroso (2008) agrees that such bullies usually react aggressively even to the slightest provocation and also blame others not himself for whatever has been committed. They usually have the saying; “He hit me first.” They have the trouble making friends as it is not their nature.

The bullied bully:

O’Moore and Minton (2004) point out that the bullied bully is always either a victim or a target and a bully. They are usually bullied by adults or older students. They are the people who, at a point in time, see themselves as being powerless and helpless because they are susceptible to others who would want to bully them. When they also get a little opportunity, they also try to bully others too. Their attacks are mostly on those who attack them but attack those who are vulnerable also pronounced by the others. They strike viciously at those who hurt him or are smaller or weaker. Coloroso (2008) puts it that such people either strike on those who have bullied them or they strike on others they see being weaker than the bullies. They are the ones that are a bit difficult to work with because they sometimes portray aggressiveness and negative behaviours, then, another point in time, they show extreme vulnerability. The bullied bully is the least popular of the bully types.

The gang of bullies:

Coloroso (2008) says the gang of bullies comprise a number of people who decide to come together to form a strategic alliance in pursuit of power, control and dominance. They are a group drawn together in pursuit of control, domination, subjugation or power and lack empathy and remorse.

This is usually seen as a masculine group formed to protect and fulfil their need to be respected. They become so much devoted to their group even if it is to the detriment of others. They actually have disregard for their lives and, therefore for the lives of their targets. The bullies count on bystanders becoming involved in or supporting the bullying or at least doing nothing to stop it.

The fully armoured bully:

The fully armoured bully is often cool and detached towards peers and friends but yet very charming and deceptive, especially in front of those who are adults. He always strikes when no one is seeing him or will be around to stop him. He is vindictive and also vicious in character towards his victims. Dedman (2001) says that the type of effect which is realized in such people is usually cold and unfeeling.

### **Types of Victims**

The bully does not bully himself or herself; definitely there are people who serve as victims or targets of these bullies. Anybody could become a victim or a target along the line. Someone who could be taken as a strong and confident person in an environment could fall victim to bullying in another environment. Shellard and Turner (2004) explain that a victim is the one who



shows vulnerability and does not have the support of the group. When someone is a victim, they are often on the periphery of the social group.

Students who are victims of bullying are typically anxious, insecure, cautious, and suffer from low self-esteem, rarely defending themselves or retaliating when confronted by students who bully them. They may lack social skills and friends, and they are often socially isolated. Victims tend to be close to their parents and may have parents who can be described as overprotective. The major defining physical characteristic of victims is that they tend to be physically weaker than their peers, and other physical characteristics, such as weight, dress, or wearing eye glasses, do not appear to be significant factors that can be correlated with victimization (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Olweus, 1993).

Olweus (1993) gives a list of those who are victims of bullying.

These are:

- i. The new student on the block;
- ii. The smallest and/or youngest student in the school;
- iii. The student who has been traumatized and is sensitive and avoids peers;
- iv. The student who is submissive;
- v. The student who has behaviours which annoy other people;
- vi. The student who refuses to fight;
- vii. The student who is shy, reserved and timid;
- viii. The student who comes from a rich or poor home;
- ix. The student whose ethnicity is viewed as inferior;
- x. The student whose religion is considered as inferior;

- xi. The student whose gender or sexual orientation is considered inferior;
- xii. The student who is bright, talented or gifted;
- xiii. The student who is independent or concerned about social status, doesn't conform to the norm;
- xiv. The student whose physical attributes are different from the norm;
- xv. The student with physical or mental disabilities; and
- xvi. The student in the wrong place at the wrong time (Batsche & Knoff, 1994; Olweus, 1993).

Children and adolescents who are victims of bullying suffer the sort of low-grade misery usually described as "poor psychosocial adjustment". It remains unclear if this is because they are more at risk to begin with, because of the bullying, or some combination. Often singled out for being "different," they find it hard to make friends, tend to be lonely and isolated, and suffer emotionally and socially. As a result, they may skip classes or avoid school, or use drugs or alcohol to numb themselves emotionally. Victims of chronic bullying are also at risk for longer-term problems. They are more likely to develop depression or think about suicide later on.

Victims of bullying are in a very poor situation academically, socially, and emotionally. They tend to think that they are responsible for their bullying because they are inadequate, and this is made worse because they are unable to deal with the bullying. Through the ongoing abuse, they lose their senses of worth and frequently experience depression. If they are subjected to ongoing

bullying, the depression can become worse, and the extremes of victimization and low esteem are self-harm and suicide (Sullivan, 2000).

Just as there are various types of bullies there are also various types of victims or people who are being bullied by other people. These are: the innocent; passive; provocative; and vicarious victims (Hazler, 1996).

The innocent victim:

The innocent victim is the one who has little to do with the causes of bullying but still has choices to make in how to best deal with the situation. They are mostly unaware of what is going to befall them (Crick, Casas & Ku, 1999).

The passive victim:

Bond and Stoker (2000) claim that this type seems to be the most common type of victim and is much recognizable as compared to the other victims. These victims usually try to please the bully in many ways but these ones do not usually fight back at their perpetrators (Shellard & Turner, 2004). The passive victim has few defences, is an easy target, and takes up a position at the bottom of the pecking order

The passive victims are always non- assertive and submissive, they are cautious and also quiet. They have few friends and are, however, anxious and have insecure tendencies. They also lack humour, social skills and are physically weak. The passive victims are usually boys (Craig & Pepler, 1997).

Olweus (2010) mentions the following characteristics that have been used to describe bully victims as passive victims or those who do not directly



provoke bullies. It is believed that these traits can be attributed to both the reason for their victimization as well as the result of their victimization:

- i. They have trouble adjusting to their environment;
- ii. They have greater difficulty making friends, socially isolated, have poor interpersonal skills;
- iii. They are more nervous about new situations;
- iv. They often seem anxious, experience mannerisms of depression and loneliness;
- v. They have poor self-concept and lack confidence;
- vi. They may be physically smaller, or appear weaker than their peers; and
- vii. They believe they cannot control their environment.

The provocative victim:

The provocative victims are fewer in number and are very difficult to be identified as of that of the passive. They are those who may have very specific types of actions which encourage or aggravate the bullying. Shellard and Turner (2004) have noted that the behaviours, which encourage the bullying of these victims, are occurring in ways that are annoying, immature or inappropriate.

In some cases, they do not mean to provoke but have just not figured out how to behave; in others, they deliberately set out to irritate those around them. By drawing attention to themselves, they, at least, get some attention; they may feel negative attention is better than no attention at all. The behaviour they exhibit causes their peers to react adversely toward them.

They are less likely than anyone else to be supported when they are bullied; no one is there to rescue them or be on their side. It is also the case that their peers may go out of their way to provoke them to react in an angry or irrational way as a means of ridiculing them and putting them down (Sullivan, 2000).

Charach, Pepler and Ziegler (1995) state that the provocative victim shows a combination of anxious and aggressive reaction patterns which attracts the bullies. Bond and Stoker (2000) explain that, often, this type of victim may be misidentified as a bully because this victim would want to fight back with the bully but is ineffective with bullies because of his poor social skills. These are the people who are aggressive and argumentative in style, they display disruptive and irritating behaviours and are emotionally aroused. They prolong conflict even when losing.

The aggravating behaviour showed by the provocative victims can also cause teachers to react toward them with impatience and annoyance. Teachers are likely to dismiss parental complaints as false (Sullivan, 2000; Tritt & Duncan, 1997). According to Olweus (2010), the provocative victims, who are those who behave in ways to provoke negative responses to them, may be the kids that no one wants to be around because of their ability to arouse irritation or anger in those around them. They display characteristics such as off task behaviour, hostility and a disruptive restlessness. While this is a smaller group of victims, it is necessary to be aware that these children may possess a disability of some sort and need professional intervention.

The vicarious victim:

The vicarious victims are those who are yet to be bullied, have either witnessed or heard about people bullying others and have definitely become affected by the environment of fear which the bully creates. Bond and Stoker (2000) would want to call such people surrogate victims. They are seen as those who seem vulnerable as potential targets and have a moderate to high degree of empathy and sensitivity. They do not take a stand against bullying due to fear, and experience guilt about their failure to act. These are the victims who are not easily identifiable.

Vicarious victims are affected by witnessing or having knowledge of bullying incidents. They often have feelings of fear, discomfort, guilt or helplessness, and they worry about becoming targets themselves. These victims are also called bystanders, but they are only one category of the bystander's group, which is by far the largest participant of bullying incidents. Bystanders can be vicarious victims, vicarious bullies or disengaged, depending on how they feel about the bullying-against it, for it or neutral. However, the actions or inactions of these bystanders can either help to stop bullying or perpetuate it (Olweus, 2010).

### **Types of Bystanders**

What is power without an audience? According to Twemlow, Fonagy and Sacco (2010), currently about 88 percent of bullying takes place in the presence of youth other than the bully and the victim. The term "bystander" suggests that the onlookers are neutral, uninvolved, and emotionally detached from what they are observing. But, in the case of classmate-on-classmate bullying, this couldn't be further from the truth. Bystander kids are profoundly



affected by the bully/ victim drama that can stir up feelings of confusion, uncertainty, excitement, and fear.

There are two main types of bystanders – the hurtful and the helpful (Sullivan, 2000; Sprague, et al, 1999). Hurtful bystanders are those who support the bullying by laughing, cheering, video-taping or making comments that encourage the bully. Forwarding cruel photos or texts and visiting websites that are targeting a specific youth also encourage the bully (Sullivan, 2000). They may also join in the bullying once it begins or can also be those who simply watch and say or do nothing. They give the bully the audience he or she craves, and silently allows the bully to continue with their hurtful behaviour.

Helpful bystanders are those who directly intervene by discouraging the bully, defending the victim, or redirecting the situation away from bullying. They could sometimes also rally support from their peers to stand up against bullying, or report the bullying to adults. This could be as simple as telling the bullying to "leave him alone" or "cut it out"(Sprague, et al, 1999).

One needs not to lose sight of people who take passive part in the bullying of a victim in the school. This could be a student, a teacher and even some of the non - teaching staff in the school. They usually outnumber the bullies and the victims and they either aid or abet the bully through their acts of omission and commission. To Ross (2003), these people are often not directly involved with the bullying, but they know what is going on and who specifically is involved. Coloroso (2008) says that the bystanders do one of these: they stand by idly, they look away, they prompt and encourage the bully, join with the bully, and then become part of the group of bullies.

Bullying is not isolated to the interactions between the target(s) and individual(s) engaging in bullying behaviour. It affects many, if not all, witnesses to the bullying (Twemlow, Fonagy & Sacco, 2010). When individuals participate in bullying behaviour, or take on the role of the bystander without intervening, they enable bullying to become the norm, thus creating a culture of bullying within the school (Unnever & Cornell, 2003). Although bullying affects some targets in isolation, it typically occurs within a larger social context, thereby implicating bystanders in bullying behaviours as well (Ziegler & Pepler, 1993).

Trach, Hymel, Waterhouse and Neale (2010) highlight some strategies that bystanders use when they do intervene in bullying situations: taking direct action, seeking assistance, and supporting the target. Therefore, bystanders can either reinforce or deter bullying behaviour (Twemlow, et al., 2010).

It is much devastating when the bystander who is not a student but someone who could have assisted the victim or is supposed to be protecting the student, stands by watching and doing nothing. This could even have a permanent scar in the mind of the victim. The bystanders could also be affected as they look on for others to be bullied. Sometimes, they experience fear and anxiety; some could also adopt the aggressive type of life on others for the negative effect of what they have observed. Parsons (2005) says that if a bystander encourages or tolerates the bullies' behaviour, it reinforces the strength of the bully because bullies thrive well where they have better audience.

Bystanders can effectively stop bullying within 10 seconds of an intervention. It's important to make sure youth know the important role they



can play, and realize the power they have when they stand up for what is right and stand up for each other (Kaar, 2009).

### **Classification of Bullying Roles**

According to Salin (2009), bullying has been classified into various roles. The major ones, to be discussed, are the dyadic and the group approaches. There are other minor ones which need mention, and these are: participant categories (Karatzias, et al, 2002); social phenomenon (Salmivalli, et al, 1996); participant role scale and multiple roles (Olafsen & Viemero, 2000).

To Salin (2009), bullying is considered a dyadic process involving one bully and one victim. This research perspective predominantly focuses on peer nomination and/or teacher report whereby children and/or teachers are asked to identify the bullies and the victims.

Marsh, et al. (2001) used the terms troublemaker and victim. The troublemaker was described as the individual not following rules, getting into physical fights, and picking on others. On the other hand, the victim was characterized as the child who did not feel safe at school due to receipt of threats and/or real physical harm by someone at his or her school.

According to Sutton and Smith (1999), bullying should not be viewed exclusively as a dyadic process. Instead, bullying needs to be viewed as a group phenomenon. Most children are directly or indirectly involved in the bullying that occurs in their school (Hawkins, Pepler & Craig, 2001). Pepler and Craig (1995) found that peers were present in 85 per cent of bullying situations. Thus, there is impact not only on the bully and victim but also



individuals who witness the bullying and individuals who hear about the occurrence.

Overall, the research literature indicates that bullying is being viewed more often as a group phenomenon as opposed to a dyadic interaction. Although many children and youth may not be playing the “predominant” roles of the bully and/or the victim, they do play a role in the process. Whether their role involves defending the victim, encouraging the bully, and/or remaining an outsider to the situation, they are being impacted by the bullying. They are influencing how the bullying is affecting others and whether the bullying will continue to occur (Fanderm, et al, 2009).

Salmivalli, et al. (1996) have argued that all the children in a given class or school where bullying occurs are somehow involved in the bullying process. Although they may not be actively participating in the bullying behaviour, their response to the bullying may impact whether it will be repeated.

Whether an individual cheers, laughs, or observes the bullying and does nothing, these actions or “non-actions” reinforce bullying behaviour and increase the likelihood that it will occur again. Moreover, other children may not directly observe the bullying but may hear about it from their peers. In all cases, these individuals are exposed to the bullying occurrence at some level.

There are other minor classifications of bullying roles which need mention. These are the; participant categories (Karatzias et al, 2002), social phenomenon (Salmivalli, et al, 1996), participant role scale and multiple roles (McKinnon, 2001; Olafsen & Viemero, 2000).

Many research studies have been conducted to investigate the various roles involved in bullying. Karatzias, Power and Swanson (2002) studied 425 Scottish middle school-aged students and identified the following participant categories in bullying: bully, victim, bully-victim, and uninvolved. Menesini, Fonzi, and Smith (2002) investigated 91 youth residents of Italy and divided the students into status groups of bullies, victims, outsiders, and defenders. They described outsiders as individuals who were not directly involved in the bullying episode. Defenders were students who tried to aid the victim in some way. Both studies reported significant differentiation between the various roles of bullying.

Viewing bullying as a social phenomenon was also emphasized in research conducted by Salmivalli and her colleagues (1996). They investigated almost 600 Finnish sixth grade students and had them evaluate how well each child in their class, including themselves, fit 50 behavioural descriptions involving bullying episodes. From the 50 descriptions, the researchers were able to identify the following six subscales describing various participant roles in a bullying situation: ringleader bully, assistant of the bully, reinforcer of the bully, defender of the victim, outsider, and victim.

The ringleader bully took an active role in initiating the bullying. The assistant bully was as active in the bullying process but was more of a follower to the ringleader bully. The reinforcer acted in ways to encourage the bullying behaviour. These reinforcers displayed such behaviours as laughing, coming to watch the episode, and remaining during the bullying episode to provide an “audience” for the bully. The defender of the victim engaged in behaviours to protect and help the victim as well as to discourage the bully from continuing.



The outsider did nothing and stayed away from the bullying episodes. The victim was bullied but placed into the category only if he or she were nominated by at least one-third of the same-sex classmates. Salmivalli et al. (1996) were able to assign 87 per cent of the students to one of the above-mentioned participant roles, lending support to the notion that most children are directly or indirectly involved in bullying situations occurring in their schools.

Sutton and Smith (1999) have used a shortened adaptation of the Participant Role Scale developed by Salmivalli et al. (1996) and reported similar results with children in England. Interestingly, they found that children tend to downplay their active participation in bullying and emphasize their activity in defending victims and remaining outsiders to the bullying situation.

McKinnon (2001) has argued that bullying encompasses multiple roles. After conducting extensive, structured interviews with 153 children (mean age 11 years), five specific roles were identified. She concluded that bullies, victims, guardians, henchmen, and active bystanders are all part of the bullying process. Guardians were those individuals who befriended the victim. Henchmen were the loyal followers of the bully, and active bystanders witnessed the event. Interestingly, results revealed a relationship between classroom group membership and participation in bullying episodes.

McKinnon (2001) found that children who belonged to a prominent classroom group and held prominent leadership roles were most likely to take on bully or guardian roles. Children who were members of the prominent classroom group but did not hold leadership roles were most likely to serve as active bystanders in a bullying situation. Last, children who did not belong to



a classroom social group were most likely to be victims in a bullying situation.

Thus, group dynamics appear to play a central role in bullying.

Moreover, Olafsen, and Viemero (2000) identified multiple roles in bullying. Their study involved more than 500 fifth and sixth graders from 17 elementary schools in Finland. Their results revealed five roles in the bullying process: the bully, the bully victim, the victim of direct bullying, the victim of indirect bullying, and the individuals not involved. They reported that 76 percent of the students fell into the “not involved” category, 4.1 percent were considered bullies, 2.2 percent were labelled as bully-victims, and 17 percent were victims. Victims of indirect bullying were the most common of the types of victims studied.

### **Effects of Bullying**

Bullying has existed in society since the beginning of time. According to Kaar (2009), bullying is sometimes seen as a sociological phenomenon that separates “the men from the boys” and as a necessary part of human survival. Many people in the society also argue that working to prevent bullying is a waste of time and resources because it is part of a child’s normal development (Arora, 1994). With more and more news reports on bullying-related suicides and tragedies as well as the emergence of cyber bullying, people are now becoming aware that something needs to be done to bullying in schools.

A number of studies (Rigby, 2007; Schwartz, et al., 2002; Salmon, et al., 1998) suggest that bullying affects the wider environment in which it occurs, and this then strengthens the rationale behind the research into this

problem. Therefore, it is necessary to look at the effect of bullying on the bullying victim, the one who bullies others, the bystander, the school environment and the society as a whole.

### Effects of bullying on victims

It is logical to assume that victims would be fearful and anxious in the environment in which the bullying took place. They might respond with avoidance behaviours (skipping school, avoiding certain places at school, running away and even being suicidal), more aggressive behaviours (such as bringing a weapon to school for self- defense or retaliation), and poor academic performance. Students who are chronic victims of even mild abuse are likely to view school as an unhappy setting and are likely to avoid places within the school setting or the school completely (Batsche & Knoff, 1994). For some children, bullying can affect them so much that they try to commit suicide, run away, and refuse to go to school or develop chronic illnesses (Elliot, 1997).

Hoover, Oliver and Hazler (1992) reported that 90 percent of students who were bullied stated that they experienced a drop in school grades. Olweus (1978) found that boy victims of bullying had somewhat lower grades than their peers. Victims often fear school and consider school to be an unsafe and unhappy place. As many as 7 percent of America's eighth-graders stay home at least once a month because of the fear of being bullied (Banks, 1997).

Rigby (2003, pp. 585-586) has identified and categorized the possible consequences and negative health conditions of those involved in bullying as follows:



- Low psychological well-being: This includes states of mind that are generally considered unpleasant, such as general unhappiness, low self-esteem, and feelings of anger and sadness.
- Poor social adjustment: This normally includes feeling of aversion toward one's social environment by expressing dislike, loneliness and isolation in one's environment.
- Psychological distress: This is considered to be more serious than the first two categories and includes high levels of anxiety, depression, and even suicidal thinking.
- Physical un-wellness: Children who become victims of bully are likely more than others to suffer physical illness.

Of particular concern has been the proof that frequent bullying among children has negative impact on the victim's school achievement. This issue has been examined through a large scale study of bullying in USA by Nansel et al. (2001). They found from the observation of 15,000 students in grades 6-10 that there is a significant association between bullying involvement and lower self-perceived academic achievement

Research shows that individuals who are involved in bullying can develop psychological and social difficulties, such as low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, stress, loss of confidence, insecurity, post-traumatic stress disorder (Farmer, 2011); panic attacks, mistrust of others, withdrawal, aggression, poor social adjustment, interpersonal violence (Thornberg, 2011; Totura, Green, Karver & Gesten, 2009). Other difficulties include: substance and alcohol abuse, suicidal ideation, attempted or actual suicide as well as developing feelings of worthlessness, alienation, isolation, loneliness or



helplessness. (Farmer, 2011; Konishi, Hymel, Zumbo & Li, 2010; Wei & Jonson-Reid, 2011; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004; Yoon et al., 2011). In addition, the outcomes of bullying can have negative somatic effects which include headaches, stomach aches, bodily pain, dizziness, disturbed sleep, insomnia and tiredness (Farmer, 2011). Bullying also has negative outcomes for individuals' attachment to school, their concentration and academic performance (Wei & Jonson-Reid, 2011).

Furthermore, research about peer victimisation found that learners who are targets of bullying lack friends and support networks, are often more vulnerable to being targeted by other individuals, and are often rejected and socially isolated by peers (Cheng, et al., 2010; Vanderbilt & Augustyn, 2010). In addition, individuals who are continually involved in bullying behaviour tend to have increased school absenteeism, show greater rates of school truancy and tend to avoid school more as bullying increases (Cheng, et al., 2010; Rigby, 2007).

Research shows that the accumulation of these adverse effects leads to poor academic performance and, eventually, these individuals drop out of school (Glew, Fan, Katon, Rivara & Kernic, 2005; Swearer, 2011; Swearer, et al., 2010; Tenenbaum, et al., 2011). These negative effects are not only evident during adolescence, but can last into adulthood (Vanderbilt & Augustyn, 2010; Wei & Jonson-Reid, 2011). Studies suggest that victims experience greater levels of anxiety, shame and relational difficulties as adults (Carlisle & Rofes, 2007). Furthermore, research has found that individuals who were victims of bullying during adolescence are at a higher risk of having difficulties with psychosis, depression, low self-esteem, aggression, abuse,

violence, substance and alcohol abuse, suicidal ideation, and attempted and actual suicide (Vanderbilt & Augustyn, 2010).

Victims often have difficulty concentrating on their schoolwork and may experience a decline in academic performance. They have higher than normal absenteeism and dropout rates and may show signs of loneliness. They have trouble making social and emotional adjustments, difficulty making friends, and poor relationships with classmates. Emotionally, they often suffer humiliation, insecurity, and loss of self-esteem and may develop a fear of going to school. The impact of frequent bullying can accompany victims into adulthood, where they appear to be at greater risk of depression and other mental health problems (Shellard, 2002; Office of Juvenile Justice & Delinquency Prevention, 2001).

Studies documenting the negative impact of bullying on students have found that 15 percent of victims are "severely traumatized or distressed" by their encounters with bullies (Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 2001). Twenty-two percent of grades 4-8 students and 14 percent of grades 8-12 students report having difficulties they attribute to mistreatment by their peers, and 10 percent of students who dropped out of school say they did so because of bullying (Hoover & Oliver, 1996; Weinhold & Weinhold, 1998).

Children and adolescents who are victims of bullying suffer the sort of low-grade misery usually described as "poor psychosocial adjustment" in the literature. It remains unclear if this is because they are more at risk to begin with, because of the bullying, or some combination. Often singled out for being "different," they find it hard to make friends, tend to be lonely and isolated, and suffer emotionally and socially. As a result, they may skip



classes or avoid school, or use drugs or alcohol to numb themselves emotionally.

Victims of chronic bullying are also at risk for longer-term problems. They are more likely to develop depression or think about suicide later on. A prospective study in England, based on health data and annual interviews with 6,437 children, found that those who were repeatedly bullied at ages 8 or 10 were almost twice as likely as others to experience psychotic symptoms as adolescents

Further research on the physiological effects of bullying indicates that students who are targets of bullying experience significantly more somatic complaints of headache, sleep disorders and abdominal pain than students who are not targets. A school that fails to address bullying sends a clear message of acceptance of aggressive behaviour, and it indirectly encourages its continuation. This fosters an environment where certain children are viewed as “deserving” of the aggressive treatment of their peers (Olweus & Limber, 1999).

#### Effects of bullying on bullies

Within studies of bullying, few findings have focused on the consequences for those who bully. There is no clear consensus, unlike the consequences for victims, which can enlighten us on how bullies experience the consequences of what they have been doing, upon themselves. However, there have been findings that show some possible consequences for those who bully.

The most serious bullies in grades 6-10 (those who bullied others at least once a week and continued bullying away from school) were more likely



to report that they had carried a weapon to school in the prior month (43% versus 8%). They were also more likely to have been in a fight where they sustained an injury serious enough to require treatment by a nurse or doctor (46 % versus 16 %) (Nansel et al., 2003).

Olweus (2003) has found that during his studies in Norwegian schools, those who had been identified as bullies in school were four times more likely to come before the court as a consequence of delinquency. From longer studies in the United Kingdom, it has also been shown that those who had been identified as bullies at school were more likely than others to have children who behaved aggressively (Farrington, 1993). However, there is no clear explanation of how this happened, whether by family influence or genetic transmission or both (Rigby, 2003).

Other claims in relation to the negative consequences for those who bully are that children who habitually bully significantly experience higher levels of depression (Salmon, et al, 1998) or even suicidal ideation (Rigby, 2007). However, the claim remains unclear as to whether this should be regarded as the possible consequence of bullying in relation to feelings of guilt or shame, or whether it is related to negative styles of parenting, or both (Rigby, 2003).

In addition to this, Schwartz, et al. (2002) note that those who are frequently involved in bullying show poor academic performance in school. However, studies from a large sample of students in Scandinavian countries have shown no evidence to understand aggressive behaviour as a consequence of poor grades at school. Rather, it was found that both bullies and victims had somewhat lower than average marks than children who are not involved in

bullying activities (Olweus, 1978). Bullies also experience negative consequences. They are often less popular when they get to high school, have few friends, and are more likely to engage in criminal activity.

Bullying behaviour has also been linked to other forms of antisocial behaviour, such as vandalism, shoplifting, skipping and dropping out of school, fighting, and drug and alcohol use (Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, 2001). A strong correlation has been found between bullying other students during school years and experiencing legal or criminal troubles as adults. Olweus (1993) found that 60 percent of boys characterized as bullies in grades 6-9 had at least one criminal conviction by age 24, compared to 23 percent of boys not characterized as bullies. Forty percent of boys who bully as compared to 10 percent of boys not classified as bullies, had three or more convictions by age 24 (Olweus & Limber, 1999). As adults also, bullies have increased rates of substance abuse, domestic violence, and other violent crimes (Ballard, et al., 1999).

Perpetrators of bullying behaviour also suffer in the long-term. They are more likely than other students to drink alcohol or smoke cigarettes. Chronic bullies appear to maintain their behaviours into adulthood, negatively influencing their ability to develop and maintain positive relationships (Oliver, Hoover & Hazler, 1994).

In a research conducted by Cullingford and Morrison (1995), young offenders who were incarcerated, were asked to identify situations in their childhood that contributed to their violent behaviours. Some of the most interesting responses were about teachers who failed to see the sign of a child who was susceptible to being bullied. Some of these young offenders said



things like, "they embarrass you.", "Some teachers used to make me...spell words on the board...they knew I couldn't spell...I didn't like that."(Cullingford & Morrison, 1995). Many of these prisoners felt that the teachers discriminated against them and did not take the time out to teach them proper social skills. This gave many of the bullies an opportunity to prey on these vulnerable victims.

Generally, bullies, also tend to be aggressive, tough, strong, confident, and impulsive (Farrington, 1993). On the other hand, their victims are usually peers that appear to be unpopular, lonely, rejected, anxious, depressed, unwilling to retaliate, and lacking self-esteem (Farrington, 1993). Often times, many of these bullies tend to attack when there is very minimal adult supervision and no one is around to intervene in the attack. Studies have shown that behaviours of bullies could lead them, as well as their victims, to become affiliated with violent crimes and delinquencies (Cullingford & Morrison, 1995)

#### Effects of bullying on bystanders

Bullying also has an effect on bystanders. Those who witness bullying are more likely to exhibit increased depression, anxiety, anger, posttraumatic stress, alcohol use, and low grades (Shellard, 2002). Students who regularly witness bullying at school suffer from a less secure learning environment, the fear that the bully may target them next, and the feeling that teachers and other adults are either unable or unwilling to control bullies' behaviour (Shellard & Turner, 2004).

A 2004 study on the physiological responses to bullying found that students who were witnesses or bystanders to bullying experienced a level of



intensity of trauma comparable to the “distress levels of police, fire fighters and paramedics during the 1989 San Francisco earthquake

### Effects of bullying on the school environment

Bullying can have long-term academic, emotional and social, consequences on bullies, victims and bystanders. Academically, the incidence of bullying at schools has a negative impact on students’ opportunity to learn in an environment that is safe and secure and where they are treated with respect (Shellard & Turner, 2004; Lumsden, 2002). Bullying affects school climate as it affects each student whether he or she is the bully, the bullied or the bystander.

### Effects of bullying on the home and the wider society

Bullying affects the behaviour of children even in their homes. It makes them to pick up various behaviours at home which were different from the way they were before they went to the school. Being a bully, a victim or a bystander could have effect on the life of the child at home and later in the society.

Empirical research has already shown that, many times, children's maladjustment and aggressive behaviours are due to the child being exposed to physical aggression behaviour in their homes (Onyskiw & Hayduk, 2001). In many cases, children who develop signs of aggression when they are very young tend to be at risk for long-term behavioural and emotional problems, causing them to display the same behaviours in their own families as adults (Onyskiw & Hayduk, 2001) Because children learn from observing and mimicking what they see around their environment, studies have also shown

that this has had severe effects on the child's aggressive behaviour in trying to imitate the behaviours of the people whom they are consistently around (Onyskiw & Hayduk, 2001). This may lead the child to display inappropriate social behaviours, which, in turn, can lead the child becoming a bully around their peers.

Furthermore, when a child is exposed to a household where the parent displays very minimal maternal responses to the child and has signs of depression, chances are that the child will develop weak attachment skills (Onyskiw & Hayduk, 2001). This may prompt the child to lack social skills which can later affect the way he interacts with their peers in a school setting. Onyskiw and Hayduk (2001) have suggested that children who are exposed to such households will become sadder, withdrawn, anxious, and depressed causing them to display more physical and verbal aggression could be the beginning of a bully in the making.

There are chances that many children who have aggressive backgrounds will grow up to commit crimes and become violent criminals (Cullingford & Morrison, 1995). Research from Cullingford and Morrison (1995) showed that bullying affects a large number of children who are transitioning from primary to secondary school. Much of the reason that children become bullies or are victims of bullies is due to "repetition, unequal power relationships, and intentionality." It is the intention behind the act, rather than the act itself which is important" (Cullingford & Morrison, 1995, p. 553).

Many researchers have found that bullying in schools can be underestimated because many adults do not know how to distinguish the early



signs of bullying. For this reason, many times, bullying goes unnoticed by many adults, which gives the bully more opportunity to taunt the victim. They could also treat a bully in such a way that it may cause the bully to express more signs of bullying due to lack of social skills (Onyskiw & Hayduk, 2001).

However, in many cases, because an adult does not intervene when a child is being victimized, this causes that child to feel even more helpless in facing the bully. Clarke and Kiselica go on to say that "when school adults ignore, trivialize, tolerate bullying incidents, the victims internalize the implied message that the adults have discounted their worth as individuals, and they carry this message forward into adulthood" (as cited in Mishna & Alaggia, 2005, p. 235).

The target of bullying, the individual who engages in bullying behaviour, the bystanders, parents, families, teachers, school management, school and wider community may all be affected (Horton, 2011). Furthermore, it is argued that the experience of bullying, in whatever form it may take, can have serious immediate, short- and long-term effects on the well-being of all the individuals involved (Frisén & Bjarnelind, 2010; Pugh & Chitiyo, 2011; Rigby, 2007; Tenenbaum et al., 2011; Wei & Jonson-Reid, 2011).

## Summary

Bullying can and has had long-lasting effects on children well into adulthood causing serious implications on their social development. The effects are damaging to both the bully and the victim leading to a never-ending chain of bullying. Although some may think bullying is natural and even typical, many believe it is dangerous and can cause serious health problems for children in their developmental stages (Smith, Cousins &



Stewart, 2005). Putting a stop to bullying is essential as it will help young children excel in their education and minimize violence and crime. It is important to know that the bully needs help also, as he may be a victim as well (Kaltaijala-Heino, et al, 1999).

In effect, all types of bullying may have a tremendous impact on targeted children. They may feel depressed, anxious, eat or sleep less or more, have difficulty concentrating on school work, have trouble making friends with others, lie, steal, run away from home, avoid school or even consider suicide (Besag, 2006; Yang, Kim, Kim, Shin & Yoon, 2006). Children may not want to tell anyone, even if they feel they do not deserve this type of treatment, whether they have caused it, or that telling others would make it worse.

There may also be long-term effects of bullying on bullies themselves (Smith, Cousins & Stewart, 2005). Some children who bully at a young age may continue to use aggression and control in other relationships as they grow older. For example, boys may start dating earlier than other boys and be aggressive in these relationships. Also, as adults they may be aggressive towards colleagues, use aggression with their own children, and engage in criminal acts, including sexual assault. Girls, involved in significant bullying in the early grade school years, may experience depression over a long term, attempt suicide, or develop an eating disorder (Brunstein, Marrocco, Kleinman, Schonfeld & Gould, 2007; Fosse & Holen, 2006).

## Theoretical Perspectives on Bullying

Bullying in schools is now regarded as an important social problem which schools need to address. However, recent evaluations of existing anti-bullying programmes have not indicated a high level of success in the reduction of bullying. This study seeks to critically examine the theoretical perspectives that have been adopted in explaining the prevalence of bullying and their implications for the work of schools.

Three different theoretical perspectives are identified and examined. They are: Social information processing theory; Theory of the mind framework; and Moral development theory. Each is shown to have some empirical support and to have influenced the thinking adopted by schools and actions undertaken in addressing bullying. However, none can claim to provide a complete explanation for bullying behaviour in schools, nor form the basis for a comprehensive approach to the problem. It is suggested that educators recognize both the strengths and limitations of the existing theoretical perspectives.

### Social Information Processing Theory:

The social information processing theory (SIP) was originally developed by Dodge (1986) and redefined by Crick and Dodge (1994). The theory involves six sequential stages of processing social information:

- The individual encodes sensory information being taken into the “system”;
- The individual attempts to make sense or interpret the sensory information;
- Clarification of the information and goal setting occurs;

- The individual seeks ideas for possible responses or develops unique ones on his or her own;
- A decision about which response is most appropriate occurs; and
- The individual follows through with the behavioural response.

Using this theory, Crick and Dodge (1994) claimed that bullying occurs as a result of social information processing biases or deficits at one or more of the six stages. Research findings have supported their ideas. For example, Camodeca, Goossens, Schuengel, and Terwogt (2003) reported that bully-victims exhibit deficits in the second stage of processing (clarification/interpretation) and the fifth stage of processing (response decision-making). In addition, Berkowitz (1977) found significant differences among individuals in how they interpret situational cues during conflict. Moreover, Camodeca et al. (2003) reported that bullies and victims display lower social competence than children not directly involved in the bullying episode. They concluded that the necessary social knowledge may have been available to the children but that bullies and victims did not always apply it successfully.

Randall (1997) argued that individuals who exhibit bullying are doing so because they do not process social information accurately. They exhibit, what he termed, “social blindness” in that they lack skills to understand other people’s perspectives. That is, bullies have little awareness of what others are thinking of them and display a deficient ability to empathize. Evidence suggests that these deficits result from environmental influences (McKeough, Yates & Marini, 1994). Children who are exposed to neglect or other



inadequate experiences are likely to develop internal working models of human relationships that are not healthy or normal.

### Theory of the Mind Framework

The SIP perspective on bullying has been challenged by Sutton and Smith (1999). Instead of explaining bullying behaviour as a result of social incompetence, Sutton and his colleagues claim that some bullies actually possess a “superior” theory of the mind. Sutton et al., (2001, p. 68) described the theory of the mind (TOM) framework as “the ability of individuals to attribute mental states to themselves and others in order to explain and predict behaviour.” That is, individuals who possess well-developed TOM skills will be more equipped to read and understand the feelings and emotions of other people. Thus, they do not lack social competence as implied by the SIP framework but instead have an advanced ability at “reading” other people.

Sutton and Smith (1999) argue that successful bullying may be a result of superior TOM skills. Being able to understand the mental states of others and to predict their behaviours can be utilized to manipulate the minds of others. This could be a potentially useful skill in all aspects of bullying, particularly with indirect aggression, such as spreading rumours, excluding victims from social groups, and avoiding getting caught in a bullying episode. For instance, for a bully to socially exclude his or her victim, the bully needs to understand the feelings of others in the social context to manipulate others to make the victim feel “left out.”

Children begin to exhibit more fine-tuned TOM skills as they develop beyond six years of age (Sutton & Smith, 1999). As indicated by research, older bullies are more likely to use indirect types of bullying, while younger

bullies exhibit more direct methods (Rivers & Smith, 1994). In addition, indirect bullying is more likely to occur with girls than with boys and TOM studies indicate that girls exhibit more sophisticated TOM skills than do boys (Baron-Cohen & Hammer, 1996). These findings imply that engaging in indirect methods of bullying requires a well-developed TOM framework. However, some critics of the TOM framework argue that having advanced TOM skills can not only lead to various types of bullying but can also lead to highly pro-social behaviour. Thus, “having a superior TOM says nothing about how that knowledge will be utilized” (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2001, pp.75-76).

Sutton, et al (2001) claimed that prior research provides support for the TOM perspective. When Sutton categorized students into one of the six participant roles in bullying, Sutton’s colleagues also assessed the participants’ understanding of cognitive false beliefs and emotions based on false beliefs. The researchers claimed that this research was measuring the children’s TOM skills. Results revealed that a bully’s scores were significantly higher than those of the assistants of the bully, reinforcers of the bully, defenders of the victim, outsiders, and victims. In addition, results indicated a positive correlation between bullying and social cognition. Björkqvist et al. (2000) also reported a significant positive correlation between social intelligence and indirect aggression. Hence, these findings support the notion that bullies possess more advanced TOM skills than the other “players” in the bullying episode.



## Moral Development Theory

In response to the debate between Crick and Dodge (1999) and Sutton and Smith (1999), Arsenio and Lemerise (2001) have argued that bullying cannot be fully understood without considering the moral aspects involved in the phenomenon. They claim that such issues as fairness, individuals' welfare, and sacrifice need to be addressed. It appears that the Social Information Processing (SIP) and Theory of the Mind (TOM) theoretical perspectives do not adequately include this aspect of bullying and victimization. Guerra, Nucci and Huesmann (1994) indicated that the gap between the study of bullying and the study of moral reasoning is unsettling. A common element exists within the two areas, and experts in the field of bullying would be remiss not to include this theoretical framework in the study of bullying.

The theory of moral development sometimes seems to link social cognition and bullying behaviour as shown in Rest's four-component model of morality (Rest, 1986). Using Piaget's (1932) and Kohlberg's (1969) theory of moral development, Rest proposed a four-component model of morality that involves four separate aspects of moral understanding. In this cognitive-developmental model, Rest theorized that moral development consists of: moral sensitivity (being aware that a moral problem exists); moral judgment (deciding on a moral action); moral motivation (staying committed to one's values and prioritizing a moral action); and moral character (implementing and following through on the moral action). This model supports the notion that developmental differences in moral understanding exist partially because of the strong cognitive component of moral development.



Rest's model of moral development adds an additional element to the study of morality that most other moral developmental theories leave out: a behavioural component. The first two components (moral sensitivity and moral judgment) tap into the social cognition capabilities of the individual. These components integrate ideas proposed by the SIP and TOM perspectives. That is, one's ability to identify a moral problem and consider various possible moral actions requires social information processing skills (SIP) as well as the ability to understand and predict feelings and behaviours of other people (TOM).

The other two components of the model (moral motivation and moral character), however, address the behavioural component of morality. This behavioural component can be directly related to bullying behaviour. Once an individual assesses the social situation and considers all possible responses to the situation, he or she may or may not commit to the response and may or may not make a cognitive decision to respond in an aggressive manner.

These components basically determine whether the individual will choose to exhibit actual bullying behaviour. Without considering all the four components of Rest's model, the complete bullying phenomenon is not fully explained. A person's moral developmental understanding must be taken into account. Researchers, educators, and parents need not only understand how the bully is processing the social information and how the bully is reading others' feelings and emotions, but they must also seek to explain why certain behavioural outcomes occur as a response to the social cognition.

Further research in this area is needed to reveal how moral development theories can add to the understanding of bullying behaviour.

Although Sutton, et al., (2001) argued against incorporating moral behaviour into the study of bullying, they suggested that an attempt might prove to be worthwhile. Why is it that some children choose to resort to bullying behaviour as their “moral” action, whereas other children choose not to? An individual’s sense of “right” and “wrong” certainly plays an important role in the process. Thus, more investigation into this area of human development is warranted.

### **Conceptual Framework for Bullying**

The study has adopted, for its conceptual framework, Qing Li’s (2005) research model on bullying, social violence and more. The model is focussed on related causal factors to bullying in the schools. The focus, therefore, is on the problem of bullying at school which is complex and emerges from social, physical, institutional and community contexts, as well as the individual characteristics of the students who are bullied and victimized. For the study, five major components that are related to issues surrounding bullying have been used. These components are: social; physical; affective; curricular and extracurricular involvement; and school violence. These components have causal relationship among themselves, as shown in Figure 1.

One needs to understand that the socio- economic status of students’ families and schools as well as other related factors regarding their families, schools and communities has effect on that student as an individual. The social component has variables such as socio- economic status, school, family and community. These variables influence other components, such as affective, physical, curricular and extracurricular involvement as well as students’ involvement in school violence.

Alternatively, students' risky behaviour, such as the use of drugs and alcohol, may encourage school violence, such as bullying, vandalism, sexual harassment, and school shooting. It is the society which is the ultimate and greatest victim of bullying as these school bullies may later bully their family members and the society at large. These can worsen domestic violence and affect new generations.

Children from homes where parents are authoritarian, hostile and rejecting are more likely to be bullies than bully victims, and the children who are overly protected by parents at home are more likely to be victims of bullying. It is, therefore, envisaged that, if parents and the community are actively involved in school life, bullying will be minimised, if not completely eradicated.

The physical component, which includes the students' sex, race and other physical characteristics, acts as causal agents on the other components. The students' sex and race in this component affect the various variables in their affective, curricular and extracurricular activities and their involvement in school violence, which are also components.



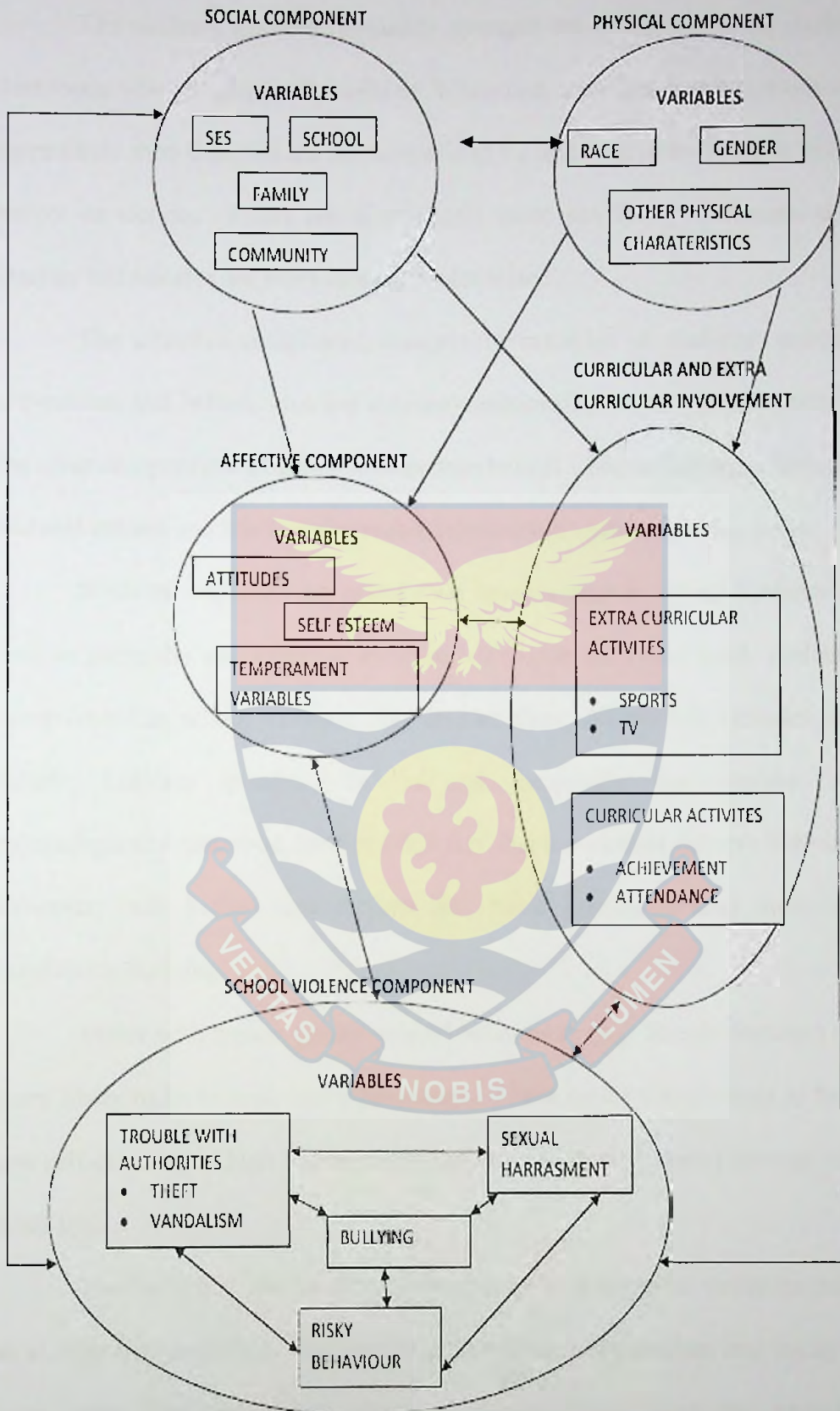


Figure 1: Bullying, school violence and more: A research model.

Source: Adopted from Qing, Li, 2005

The students who are physically stronger are less likely to be victims than those who are physically weaker. When one considers gender, males are more likely than their female counterparts to be involved in bullying as either bullies or victims. Males are significantly more physically victimised than females but females are more rationally victimised.

The affective component, comprising variables of students' attitude, self-esteem and beliefs, also has a causal relationship with other variables in the other components. Students hold certain beliefs which affect their attitudes and self-esteem and this has observable relationship with their behaviours.

Students' attitudes can affect their involvement in school violence as well as curricular and extracurricular activities. On the other hand, students' involvement in school violence may impact their self-esteem, attitudes and beliefs. Children involved in bullying, especially bully-victims, are psychologically disturbed. Bullies often feel that the victims deserve bullying. However, both bullies and victims feel more loneliness than those not involved in bullying.

Males with typical gender-related behaviours (e.g. female features) are more likely to be bullied than other males. These males usually tend to have low self-esteem and high social anxiety and this is mostly carried through into adult life.

The curricular and extracurricular component includes variables, such as student jobs, activities like watching television, volunteerism and doing of homework. This component also has causal effect from the previous components already discussed. The involvement of students in curricular and extracurricular activities could also influence school violence and other related



problems. A heavy academic workload on students may be able to either discourage or make them more aggressive in bullying. Also, students with low academic status are more likely to be bullies than victims.

The last component, which is the school violence component, includes such variables as student involvement in bullying, sexual harassment, trouble with authority, and risky behaviour. Trouble with authorities includes behaviours like vandalism and theft. There are links among bullying, sexual harassment, risky behaviour, and trouble with authority. There is also the reciprocal relationship among these and the other four components.

The model allows for the possibility that students' involvement in bullying may also connect the other school violence-related activities. There is always a strong positive correlation between mild disciplinary contact, which includes bullying and the number of crimes reported in schools. Schools definitely with a greater number of bullying cases have greater risk for violence. Also, students found to be involved in bully-victim problem at school, especially those students with relatively little social support, are more likely to have a higher degree of suicidal ideation.

In sum, the five general components in Figure 1 reflect, in large part, what goes on in the various schools. To the researcher, every activity in the school counts as it could either encourage or discourage bullying in the schools in Ghana. One can, therefore, not run away from the fact that there are many variables that can cause bullying in schools, but, at the same time, these variables have the necessary opportunity to minimise or eradicate bullying completely from the various schools as its effects could be lasting and life-long, affecting development in the society as a whole.



## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### Introduction

The chapter discusses the methodology used in the study. It covers the research design, study area, study population, sampling procedures, sources of data, data collection instruments, pre-test, fieldwork and data processing and analysis.

#### Research Design

The descriptive and exploratory research designs were used for the quantitative and the qualitative study. The descriptive survey was basically used to find out the existing situation of bullying which was a concern. It helped to analyse, interpret and report the present status of the bullying in the study area (Best & Kahn, 1995; Taylor & Buku, 2006).

The descriptive research was used because the researcher aimed at generalising from the sample to a population so that the inferences could be made about some characteristics, attitudes or behaviour of the population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). It also helped in the collection of data which was used to answer the research questions which concerned the bullying situation in the study area (Amedahe, 2002; Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996; Gay, 1992).

The exploratory research design was used to ascertain the dimensions of the bullying phenomenon, the manner in which it manifested itself and the other factors, such as school violence, with which it was related (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). The exploratory design was especially

useful, as the bullying of the male senior high school students in Ghana has not been much studied.

In spite of the advantages of the descriptive and the exploratory designs, there is the difficulty of ensuring that the questions to be answered or statements to be responded to are clear and not misleading. This is because survey results can vary significantly, depending on the exact wording of questions or statements. They may also produce untrustworthy results because they delve into personal issues that people may not be truthful about.

Two main types of research have been identified, namely: quantitative and qualitative research. Generally, quantitative research seeks to explain events through numerical comparisons. It is also about asking people for their opinions in a structured way so that you can produce hard facts and statistics to guide you (Sarantakos, 1998). Aliaga and Gunderson (2000) claim that quantitative research is the explaining phenomena by the collection of numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods. On the other hand, qualitative research usually provides descriptions and seeks to capture the context of a particular situation through the words or actions of research participants (Yegidis & Weinback, 2009). As Merriam (2009) puts it;

qualitative research is mainly on understanding how individuals make sense of their lives and describe the meaning making process. The process of meaning-making is inductive in nature and the product of the process is richly descriptive. Understanding and meaning are derived from how individuals interpret their experiences, construct their worlds and the meaning they ascribe to their experiences.



In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary instrument of data generation and analysis. Qualitative researchers emphasise that values form an important part of the nature of inquiry and, therefore, seek knowledge on how experiences are socially created and how individuals give meaning to these experiences. Qualitative research situates the observer in the world, and representations, such as field notes and interviews, are used to interpret the world around the researcher.

The study used both the quantitative and qualitative types of research. The research was partly quantitative in nature as the researcher needed to use numbers, percentages, or statistical information in the assessment of the bullying situation. This was a matter of quantifying and generalising the results from the sample to the population of interest. It was also to measure the incidence of the various views and opinions in the chosen sample. The main concerns are that the measurement should be reliable, valid and generalizable in its clear prediction of causes and effects. The quantitative aspect of the research aided the researcher to obtain a more reliable and objective which helped in reducing subjectivity.

The research was also qualitative in nature as the researcher needed to solicit information directly from those who were involved in bullying as bullies, victims and bystanders. This aspect helped the researcher in getting direct information of the experiences of the respondents through interview.

The quantitative and qualitative research representations helped the researcher to make sense of the meanings individuals brought to the research setting, which helped to describe the world of the participants through their own experiences. In sum, the study needed detailed answers to questions and,



at the same time, needed emphasis on numbers, percentages, or statistical information. Hence, the use of the qualitative and quantitative approaches.

### Study Area

The study was conducted in Cape Coast in the Central Region, Kumasi in the Ashanti Region and Tamale in the Northern Region. The Central Region shares borders with the Ashanti, Western, Eastern and Greater Accra Regions. It boasts of many tourist attractions, such as the Kakum National Park, the biggest tree in West Africa and most of the castles and forts in Ghana. Cape Coast is the capital of the Central Region and, at one time, the capital of Ghana. It is seen as the citadel of education in the country, where most people would want their children to study.

The city, which lies by the side of the Atlantic Ocean, boasts of having some of the best schools in the country. Cape Coast has 12 public senior high schools, seven of which are co-educational, two are girls- only and three are boys- only schools. Schools like Wesley Girls High School, Holy Child School, Adisadel College, Mfantipim School, Ghana National College and St. Augustine's College are in the city. The University of Cape Coast is also situated in this town. People in the Greater Accra, Western and Ashanti Regions have easy access to the Central Region and to Cape Coast in particular.

The second study area was Kumasi in the Ashanti Region. It is centrally positioned in the country. Most of the other regions usually have their route connections through it before they get to other regions. People commuting from the Greater Accra, Eastern, Central and Western Regions to the three northern regions usually have to pass through Kumasi before heading

towards their destinations. Also, because of the history of the Ashanti kingdom, there are many who owe allegiance to that city and would want their wards to study there. Kumasi has 19 public senior high schools out of which 10 are co-educational, five are girls-only schools and four are boys-only schools. Prempeh College, Yaa Asantewa Girls School, Kumasi Academy, and T.I. Ahmadiyya High School are some of the schools in Kumasi. Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi Polytechnic, Baptist University College, Christian Service University College and the University of Education, Winneba; Kumasi Campus are some of the tertiary institutions in Kumasi.

The third study area was Tamale, the capital of the Northern Region. The Northern Region commands a number of tourist attractions, such as the Mole National Park. The town is seen as the main gateway for people commuting from the southern zone to the northern zone and back. The climate and conditions there are completely different from those of the southern or the middle belts. The town is also associated with other historic towns around the area, such as Yendi and Salaga. Tamale gives opportunities to many students who are not able to travel from the northern zone to the southern zone to study because of the long distance, lack of finance and accessibility to the schools in the south.

Tamale serves as an opportunity for tourists and for those in the southern zone who would want to experience climate and cultures which are completely different from theirs. Tamale has 10 public senior high schools, out of which eight are co-educational, one girls-only school and one boys-only school. Some of the schools are; Ghana Senior High School, Tamale High



School, St Charles High School, Tamale Girls' Senior High School and the Business High School. The town also houses the University of Development Studies, Tamale campus and the Tamale Polytechnic. The study area is shown in Figure 2.

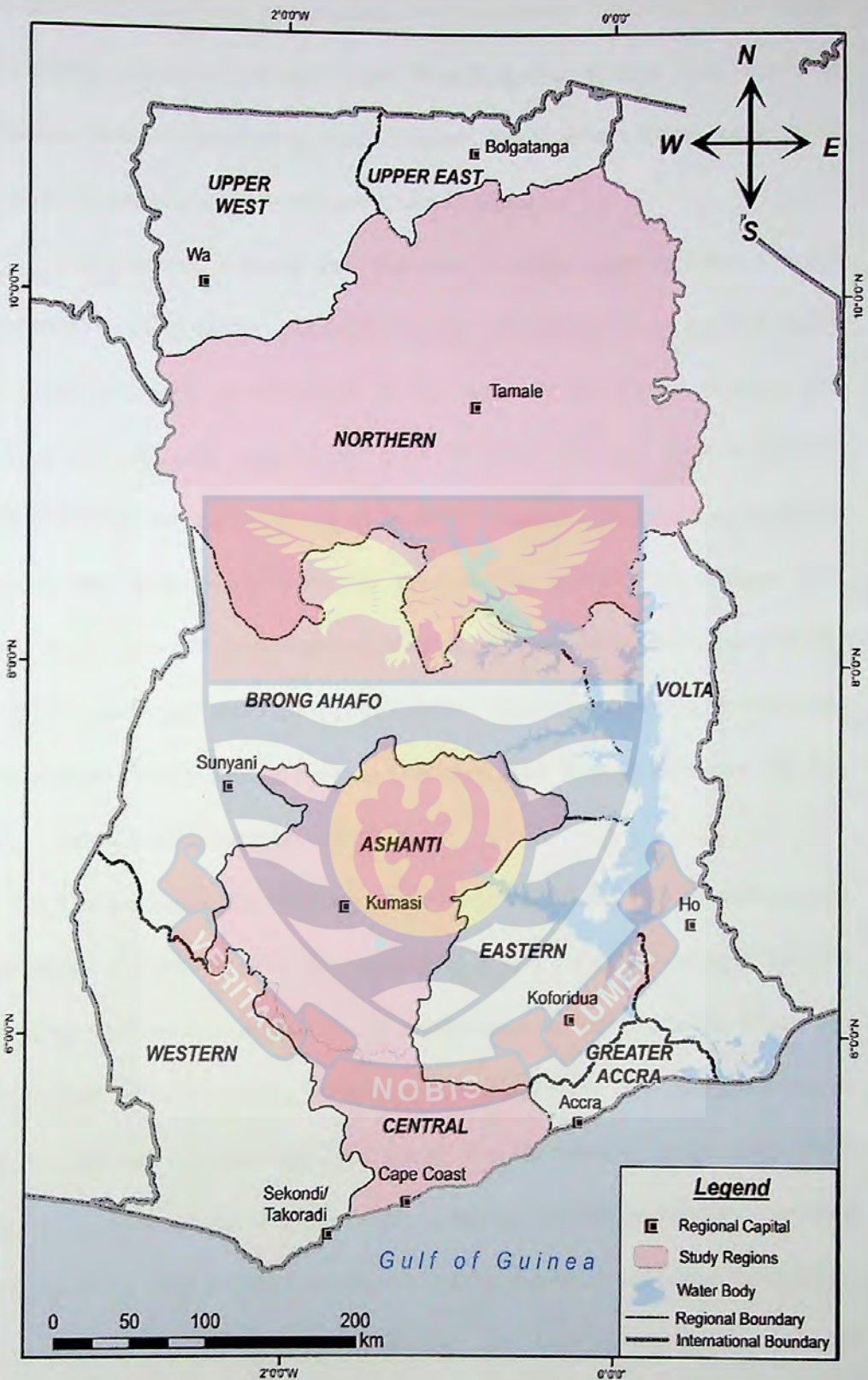
### **Study Population**

Three areas were chosen in order to obtain a reasonable number of male respondents needed for the study. The accessible population was all the male students of SHS Forms 2 and 3 of the senior high schools in Cape Coast, Kumasi and Tamale which numbered 15,245. In the Cape Coast Municipality, there were ten public schools which were specifically either co-educational or boys-only excluding the two girls-only schools. There were 5,117 male students in SHS 2 and 3 in all the 10 schools in Cape Coast apart from the two girls' schools. There are 14 public schools in Kumasi which were either co-educational or boys-only and the number of the male students in SHS 2 and 3 in these schools was 6,910. The schools in Tamale which were either co-educational or boys-only were nine and the number of male students in SHS 2 and 3 in the schools were 3,218.

### **Sampling Procedures**

Given the large size of the study population, steps were taken through appropriate sampling procedures to ensure that students from different parts of the country were fully represented. A multi-stage sampling procedure, comprising cluster, purposive, stratified, simple random and snowball sampling methods, was used in the study. Senior high schools in the country





**Figure 2: Map of Ghana showing the Central, Ashanti and Northern Regions.**

Source: G. I. S, Remote Sensing and Cartographic Laboratory. U.C.C.

were clustered into three geographical zones, namely: Northern Zone- made up of Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions; Middle Zone- made up of Eastern, Ashanti and Brong Ahafo Region; and Southern Zone- made up of Western, Central, Greater Accra and Volta Regions.

The Central, Ashanti and Northern Regions were selected through purposive sampling as the researcher saw these three regions as regions which had much influence on education in the nation. Cape Coast, Kumasi and Tamale were selected purposively from the three selected regions because these towns had adequate number of both co-educational and boys schools that could be used in the study. Secondly, the centrality and location of these three towns were taken into consideration before they were purposively sampled for the study. As Beggs and Lewis (1975) note, purposive sampling is where the researcher arbitrarily selects the cases because there is good evidence that it is a representation of the total population.

The schools in the three towns were then stratified into co- educational and boys-only schools. For the schools in Cape Coast, the simple random sampling was used to select one co-educational school from the seven co-educational schools and one boys school from the three boys schools so as to get two schools representing Cape Coast. For the schools in Kumasi, which were 11 co-educational and three boys schools, the simple random sampling technique was used to select one boys school and one co-educational school so as to get two schools for Kumasi. Tamale had eight co-educational schools and one was selected through the simple random sampling technique, while St. Charles Senior High School, which was the only boys school, was purposively

selected. This also added up to make two schools representing Tamale. Table 1 shows the distribution of the sampled schools.

**Table 1: Sampling Distribution of Schools by Zone, Region, Town, Type and School**

Zone	Region	Town	Type	School
Northern	Northern	Tamale	Boys	St. Charles SHS
Northern	Northern	Tamale	Co-edu	Tamale SHS
Middle	Ashanti	Kumasi	Boys	Prempeh College
Middle	Ashanti	Kumasi	Co-edu	T.I.Ahmadiyya
Southern	Central	Cape Coast	Boys	Adisadel Coll
Southern	Central	Cape Coast	Co-edu	Ghana Nat Col

Source: Field Data, 2012

The SHS Forms 2 and 3 students were purposively chosen for the study. The SHS Form 2 students were chosen for the fact that they had just left the first year where most students fell victims to bullying as fresh students. They had recent experiences that they could make the researcher aware. The SHS Form 3 students were also chosen because they were in the terminal year of their high school programme and had passed through the school either as victims, bullies and/or bystanders of bullying. They were at the same time about to leave the school into the wider environment and their experience in the school might come to bear in the society they were going to.

The SHS 2 and 3 enrolment figures were obtained from the class list made available to the researcher by the schools. The total number of boys in



the six selected schools was 4,469. Table 2 shows the distribution of the students by school and class.

**Table 2: Distribution of Students by School and Class**

+Schools	Class of Students					
	SHS2		SHS3		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
St. Charles SHS	252	10.7	270	12.8	522	11.7
Tamale SHS	368	15.6	355	16.8	723	16.2
Prempeh College	603	25.6	466	22.1	1069	23.9
T. I. Ahmadiyya SHS	332	14.1	402	19.0	734	16.4
Adisadel College	596	25.3	447	21.1	1043	23.3
Ghana National College	204	8.7	174	8.2	378	8.5
Total	2355	100.0	2114	100.0	4469	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012.

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the recommended sample size for a population of 4,469, at the confidence level of 95 percent, and a margin of error (degree of accuracy) of 0.05percent would be 354. Therefore, the total sample of the respondents for the study was 354.

Table 3 shows the sampling distribution of students by school and class. These were not of specific proportion but were interviewed as and when they made themselves available and indicated which category they were in. Mostly the bullies were not ready to own up but through the snowball system, most of them were identified and also after they had been assured that their authorities were not having a hand in the research, they then agreed to accept that they were bullies. Also, the guidance coordinators in the schools helped in

identifying some of the students who were either victims or bullies and even the bystanders who thought they were being considered as accomplices.

**Table 3: Sampling Distribution of Students by School and Class**

+Schools	SHS 2		SHS 3		Total	
	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%
St. Charles SHS	20	10.6	22	13.3	42	11.9
Tamale SHS	29	15.4	28	16.8	57	16.1
Prempeh College	49	26.1	36	21.7	85	24.0
T. I. Ahmadiyya SHS	27	14.4	30	18.1	57	16.1
Adisadel College	48	25.5	37	22.3	85	24.0
Ghana National College	15	8.0	13	7.8	28	7.9
Total	188	100.0	166	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012.

The exact number of individuals who had been bullied was unknown to the researcher as students would not usually report such cases. Therefore, a non-probability quantitative sampling method, the snowball sampling method, was used in selecting the respondents for the study as it was difficult to identify the respondents in any other way. The snowball sampling method is a technique used for finding research subjects where one subject gives a researcher the name of another subject who, in turn, provides the name of a third and so on. This is of great use when it comes to contacting individuals who have unusual experiences and might have information or know those who have also gone through such experiences (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009).

Since it was difficult for students to report cases of bullying, the researcher identified some victims through the school counsellors and

available members of their various disciplinary committees. He was then able to get into contact with others who had fallen victim to bullying, the bullies and some bystanders. This was done in all the schools until the required number for the study was obtained.

### **Sources of Data**

The data collected for the study were both from primary and secondary sources. Primary data were collected through fieldwork from the respondents. The secondary information, both published and unpublished, was obtained from institutions, the media, organisations, articles, journals, textbooks and archival records.

### **Data Collection Instrument**

The main data collection instrument for the research was the interview schedule. According to King and Horrocks (2010, p. 66), the goal of interviews is to “facilitate an active discussion and the sharing of understandings and views, while, at the same time, ensuring that the data generated are able to meet the aims of the research”. Consequently, the participants who are selected are crucial to meeting the aims of research and facilitating the conversation to generate relevant and valuable data.

The items in the interview schedule were open-ended and closed-ended. The open-ended items were meant to give the respondents the opportunity to express themselves freely on their feelings, concerns and challenges appropriately. No respondent was restricted to provide a standard form of answer such as ‘yes’ or ‘no’ because the individual was permitted to express his or her opinion on a given problem or issue (Best & Khan, 1995; Kerlinger, 1973).



The closed-ended items were aimed at minimising the rate of some respondents' failure to respond to some of the items for the fear that they could be victimised in their reportage. It further facilitated the recording of respondents' responses. Therefore, the closed and open-ended items in the interview schedule assisted in bringing out the degree of bullying, its comprehensiveness, effects and management.

Three sets of interview schedules were prepared for the bullies, victims and bystanders respectively. All the three schedules had two sections (Section A and Section B). Section A comprised the background characteristics of the respondents which included age, school, place of school, type and class. Section B of the interview schedule solicited the respondents' opinion on bullying, and the characteristics of the victims, bullies and bystanders. It also covered the factors that cause bullying in the schools' environment, how masculinity leads to bullying, the effects of bullying, the roles of the school authorities in assisting the victims and the management of bullying in the various schools.

### **Pre-test**

According to Frankel and Wallen (1996), the pre-test of the questionnaire or interview schedule could reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions that are not understood, and could also indicate whether the instruction to the respondents are clear. The pre-test is also used to assess the reliability and validity of the instrument. Reliability is defined as the extent to which an experiment, test, or any measuring procedure yields the same result on repeated trials. Validity refers to the degree to which a study accurately

reflects or assesses the specific concept that the researcher is attempting to measure (Dane, 1990; Trochim & Williams, 2006).

The interview schedule was pre-tested on 20 male students in Aggrey Memorial School (co-educational) and 20 male students in St Augustine's College (boys-only) both in Cape Coast. The students were selected through snowballing and were thoroughly briefed on the purpose of the study and their co-operation solicited. A date was then set for the interview which was done with success. At the end of the exercise, it became necessary to refine some of the items and also add to the list of items. Expert advice was sought from supervisors of the study and specialists in measurement and evaluation to ensure the content and face validity of the instrument.

The instrument was tested for reliability. The internal consistency reliability for all items was 0.72, using the Cronbach alpha. According to Roland and Idsøe (2001), this score is regarded as significant for a research purpose.

### **Fieldwork**

Data collection was done by the researcher together with the assistance of six field assistants, who were graduate students in the Guidance and Counselling at the University of Cape Coast. They hailed from the research areas and knew the terrain. They received orientation from the researcher on the purpose of the study and how to administer the interview schedule. The field assistants were used during the pre-test period to ensure that they could handle the administration of the instrument during the main fieldwork.

The researcher received letters of introduction from the Institute for Development Studies of the University of Cape Coast. These were hand-delivered to the key institutions that were to participate in the study. The researcher, then, met the headmasters of the selected schools. They were very glad to know that the research was being done in their schools. The headmasters, then, introduced the researcher to some teachers who were in charge of students' affairs. The headmasters and the teachers of the various schools gave their support and approval to the study. Later, the students were informed by the teachers in charge of students' affairs and the guidance coordinators about the essence of the study, and that they should give their maximum cooperation.

The students were selected through the snowball method. Identified bullies, victims and bystanders were used to select others who had gone through such experiences. The school counsellors were of immense assistance in identifying some of the respondents who were bullies, victims or bystanders of bullying before the exercise was started.

The interviews were conducted in English as all the respondents were students in the senior high school. Where it was necessary to use the local language, the researcher and the assistants did their very best to help the respondents understand whatever they were asked in order to get relevant responses from them. Each interview lasted between 20 and 30 minutes. However, some interviews went beyond the stipulated time when the respondents were overwhelmed with emotions and past experiences.

The visits to the various institutions occurred between 2nd October and 16th October, 2012, while the main interview took place in the various



institutions from 4th November to 5th December, 2012. The researcher monitored and assisted the research assistants throughout the period, as they worked together from one school to the other. At the end of the exercise, the researcher and his field assistants were able to contact all the 354 respondents.

Owing to the delicate nature of the study, ethical issues were observed. The researcher had to counsel the respondents to help alleviate them from the memories of the pains or experiences they went through during the bullying period. This was to ensure that they were not harmed, as the study could cause emotional pain through their recounting of the past memories of the bullying.

Anonymity, confidentiality and privacy were also observed as the identified victims or perpetrators were not made public. Hence, all information gathered was treated as confidential. The respondents were also assured that whatever they wrote was of purely research interest and they would not be reported to the school authorities.

### **Data Processing and Analysis**

The interview schedule was edited after all the materials had been received. This helped the researcher to note the relationship between answers to different questions and to detect inconsistencies. The purpose was to classify answers to questions into meaningful categories so as to bring out their essential patterns for analysis.

The responses to the interview schedule were then coded. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 16.0) software was used for the analysis. Frequency tables, percentages and chi-square statistics were used to present the data. In the selection of the statistical tool, the

assumptions underlying the use of the statistical test were considered. The assumptions included: having a large sample size; normally distributed scores; comparing the means of two groups; the interval level of measurement; and random sampling from the population.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

The chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study under various headings. They included: the background characteristics of the respondents; the types of bullying in schools; the characteristics of victims of bullying; the characteristics of the perpetrators of bullying; the factors that promoted bullying in the school environment; the association of masculinity and bullying of the male-child; effects of bullying on the male-child; and the roles of school authorities in assisting the victims of bullying.

#### Background Characteristics of Respondents

The study requested each respondent to indicate their background characteristics since these characteristics and attributes could influence their responses. These included: age, form/class, type of school and category of bullying.

The age distribution of the respondents is shown in Table 4. Out of the 354 respondents, 66.7 percent were within the 17-19 age- group, 22.8 percent were in the 14-16 age- group, 9.9 percent were in the 20-22 age- group, whereas only 0.6 percent were in the 23-25 age-group. The mean age of the students was 18 years, indicating that most of the students were adolescents and were very sensitive to issues that affected them and also picked up habits which could turn out to be permanent in their lives. Indeed, the adolescent would always want to learn, explore, experiment and know its effect.



**Table 4: Age Distribution of the Respondents**

Age-Group	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
14-16	14	13.3	30	21.9	37	33.0	81	22.8
17-19	71	67.6	95	69.3	70	62.5	236	66.7
20-22	20	19.1	12	8.8	3	2.7	35	9.9
23-25	-	-	-	-	2	1.8	2	0.6
Total	137	100.0	105	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012.

Rigby (1996) states that the adolescent would always want to associate himself with a particular event. The school, therefore, becomes ripe for them to practise many things, including bullying. He further states that, when adolescents are in an environment with large numbers, they tend to show their re-establishment in social status among the groups. Hence, they practise anything that could make them popular. Shamos (2009) has also indicated that it is at this age that most children are on their own for the first time in the boarding schools and some would want to practise habits picked from their former schools, their homes and their environment, if not checked.

The form or class distribution of the respondents indicated that, out of the 354 respondents in the study, 54.9 percent were in SHS 2, whilst the rest (45.1%) were in SHS3. The SHS2 students were those who had just left the first year where most of the bullying took place, and the SHS3 were also those who had now entered their final year in the school. The SHS3 students were those who were usually perceived as bullying the juniors. This is shown in Table 5.

**Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Form**

Form	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
SHS 2	36	34.3	105	76.6	50	44.6	191	54.9
SHS 3	69	65.7	32	23.4	62	55.4	163	45.1
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012

The type of school of the respondents was next investigated. The results in Table 6 show that 54.0 percent of the respondents were from the boys-only schools, whereas 46.0 percent were from co-educational schools.

**Table 6: Types of Schools of the Respondents**

School	No	Percent
Boys	191	54.0
Co-educational	163	46.0
Total	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012

Table 7 depicts the distribution of personalities in bullying. Out of the 354 participants in the study, 29.7 percent were students who had bullied others, 38.7 percent were victims or those who had been bullied, whereas 31.6 percent were witnesses or bystanders to the bullying incident(s). In the various schools, the victims were more ready to be interviewed than the bullies or the bystanders. It was also easier to identify the victims than the others, as they sometimes made some of the teachers or their colleague students aware of their predicaments.

**Table 7: Distribution of Personalities in Bullying**

Personalities	No	Percent
Bullies	105	29.7
Victims	137	38.7
Bystanders	112	31.6
Total	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012

Table 8 presents the personalities of bullying by the type of school. The results show that 54.5 percent were from boys- only schools, whereas 45.5 percent were from co-educational schools. A comparison of the results of co-educational and boys-only schools shows that the majority (54.3%) of the bullies were found in co-educational schools, whereas the boys-only schools had the majority of victims (58.4%) and bystanders (58.0%) respectively.

**Table 8: Personalities in Bullying by Type of School**

Category	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Boys	48	45.7	80	58.4	65	58.0	193	54.5
Co-educ	57	54.3	57	41.6	47	42.0	161	45.5
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=4.67; Df=2; p=0.097$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the bullies, victims and the bystanders, a Pearson chi-square test was



performed. The chi-square result of 4.67, with 2degrees of freedom at the 0.097 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys-only and co-educational institutions with regard to their bullying status.

### Types of Bullying in Schools

Respondents were asked to indicate the type of bullying which was frequently practised among the students in their schools. The results in Table 9 show that the main types of bullying were: physical (47.5%); verbal (37.2%); social (8.1%); psychological (4.1%); and cyber (3.1%).

**Table 9: Types of Bullying in Schools**

Types	Number	Percent
Physical	324	47.5
Social	55	8.1
Verbal	254	37.2
Cyber	21	3.1
Psychological	28	4.1
Total	682*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

The study next analysed the types of bullying in the schools as mentioned by the various personalities in bullying. The results are presented in Table 10.

## Physical Bullying

The results in Table 10 show that the main type of bullying going on in the schools was physical bullying. This constituted 47.5 percent of all the types of bullying. A breakdown of the results show that 47.3 percent of the bullies used physical bullying on their victims, 47.9 percent of the victims indicated that they were bullied physically and 47.6 percent of the bystanders indicated that they observed physical bullying. It can, therefore be concluded that this was a bullying style which was rampant in almost all the schools.

The study confirms the claim by Harris and Hathorn (2006) that physical bullying is the most obvious form of bullying that is used almost by all bullies. They say that this often causes visible harm in the form of cuts and bruises. Physical bullying, as opined by Coloroso (2008), can be seen as being very dangerous as the child who physically harms another child is seen as most likely to move towards more serious criminal offences in the future.

Physical punching is actually more than just punching or kicking which is a direct form, and can assume indirect forms, such as taking one's possessions or damaging one's property (Lee, 2004). Physical bullying actually presents a challenge to a school to deal with as it becomes difficult for the authorities to maintain a safe and orderly learning environment (Larsen, 2005).

One needs to understand also, as it is stressed by Olweus (1996), that physical bullying, in the long- term, affects development as the harm done to an individual could make that person become handicapped and not be able to perform an act which he could have done easily, if not harmed. Bradshaw and Waasdorp (2011) claim that the experience of bullying in childhood can have

profound effects on mental health in adulthood, particularly among youths involved in bullying as both perpetrators and victims.

In one of the interviews, a victim who had been bullied retorted:

I was told to sleep under a senior's bed on the bare floor for two hours in the night. Later, I was caned with the net sponge that is used in bathing for the mere fact that I told the senior I was not having gari and sugar in my chop box.

There were other revelations also in the interview. There was a boy who gave this account:

I was asked by a senior to iron his shirt for him. In the course of ironing, he said I had made his shirt dirty. He collected the iron from me and said I should open my palm. When I did, he placed the hot iron in my palm. I still have the scar there. Though he was dismissed, I still continue to have the effect.

A bully in one of the schools confessed:

I used to whip them with my net sponge, I will always dip it in water for it to be heavy enough for me. I once used it on a junior where the sponge hit his eye, He still has a red eye after a year now. I always regret it when I see him coming. He is now my best friend.



## Social Bullying

Respondents in the three personalities of bullying were interviewed on social bullying. Table 10 depicts the results for the respondents. The results showed that social bullying was not seriously practised in the schools. On the whole, 8.1 percent of the respondents indicated that social bullying was practised in their schools. Indeed, only 6.1 percent of the bullies declared that they used social bullying, 19.3 percent of the victims said they went through social bullying, and 8.2 percent of the bystanders claimed they witnessed social bullying in the schools.

The results of the study are contrary to what Coloroso (2008) found. According to Coloroso (2008), social bullying, which is also known as relational bullying and involves psychological harm and manipulation of the social system, is regularly used. He said that it involved situations where the bullies might spread rumours, back bite and/ or exclude the victim from the peer group. Furthermore, the results of the study do not support the assertion by Bradshaw and Waasdorp (2011) that social bullying is devastating and occurs in almost all schools in these modern times.

The results of the study are, however, similar to what was found by Sullivan, Kankianen and Lagerspetz (1998) that social bullying is sometimes difficult to detect from the outside, and is manifested in exclusion, ignoring, isolation or shunning of the victim. This type of bullying is much associated with aggressive stances, rolling of eyes, sighs, frowns, sneers, snickers, hostile body language, shaking of fists, and looks and glances that contain nasty messages (O'Moore & Minton, 2004).

**Table 10: Types of Bullying in the Schools by Category of Bullying**

Type of Bullying	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Physical	86	47.3	128	47.9	110	47.6	324	47.5
Social	11	6.1	25	19.3	19	8.2	55	8.1
Verbal	74	40.6	98	36.4	82	35.5	254	37.2
Cyber	4	2.2	6	2.2	11	4.8	21	3.1
Psychological	7	3.8	12	4.2	9	3.9	28	4.1
Total	182	100.0	269	100.0	231	100.0	682	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

It is not surprising that social bullying was not seen much among the respondents of the study. As Lee (2004) and Olweus (1993) claim, it is mostly exhibited by females. Garret (2003) also notes that males usually use physical and verbal bullying, while females use rumour (which is part of social bullying) and verbal bullying. Turkel (2007) further opines that females mostly use social bullying because parents and the society usually discourage direct physical aggression in girls, whereas the boys have more freedom to express their anger in direct physical ways. Boys are encouraged to kick and punch their negative feelings away, but girls are taught to avoid direct confrontation. Hence, they express their anger through ways, such as social ostracism, ignoring and sabotaging another's relationship.

Garret (2003) states that when social bullying becomes severe, it affects the self-esteem of the individual which is carried through adulthood. The individual then sees himself or herself as being inferior, not being able to

associate with colleagues, or carries the notion that he or she is not accepted and wanted in the society.

## Verbal Bullying

Verbal bullying is close to physical bullying. It is seen as one of the most common types of bullying used by both boys and girls. It may take the form of name calling, teasing and verbal threats (Olweus, 1994).

There is the indication in Table 10 that verbal bullying was used extensively in the schools. The results show that, in all, 37.2 percent of the respondents indicated that verbal bullying took place in their schools. For the bullies, 40.6 percent said they had used verbal bullying. For the victims, 36.4 percent said they had been bullied verbally, while 35.5 percent of the bystanders said they had witnessed verbal bullying.

A victim claimed:

I come from a very strict religious home. My parents will not sometimes allow us to watch some programmes on the television. A senior came to me with some pornographic pictures and asked me the one I liked most. I did not make a choice or comment on it. The senior and his friends claimed they found those pictures with me. I was humiliated, insulted and completely dehumanised for almost one week for something I had no knowledge of. I nearly stopped schooling and I knew that, if my parents had heard of



it, that would have been my end. I don't think I can ever forgive this wicked guy.

A young boy, who refused to give his shoes to a senior to wear when they were going for a Sunday morning service, had this to say:

It was announced in the dining hall that I should go to the hall and remove my mattress and put it in the sun because I had urinated on my bed the previous night. Something which was not true. It was a big disgrace to me and could not make friends and had to tell a lie and go home for some days. Infact, I didn't want to come back to school again. It was my mother who encouraged me to go back, and I had to go through counselling at the school for the whole term.

The results of the study confirm the assertion by Lee (2004) that verbal bullying accounts for 70.0 percent of reported cases, and that these can have an immediate as well as long- term effects on the individual. Coloroso (2008) also opines that words are such powerful tools that they can break the spirit of the child who is at the receiving end of verbal bullying, and can carry the victim through adulthood, still not recovering from what he/she received in his/her school days. He concludes that, if verbal bullying is not checked, it may dehumanise the targeted child.

### Cyber Bullying

Cyber bullying occurs when someone does something mean to another on line or on a mobile phone. The results of the study showed that cyber

bullying was not much recognised in the schools, as shown in the Table 10. Indeed, as low as 3.1 percent of the respondents stated that cyber bullying was used in the schools.

Even though cyber bullying was not much in use, a victim stated:

I received many mails in my e-mail box from a senior.

They were mostly threats of what could happen to me

if I did not stop talking to a lady he, the senior,

claimed was his girlfriend. He threatened that he

would deal with me if I came to school the next term.

Cyber bullying might have become difficult to use in most of these schools because many of them did not have consistent internet services and constant electricity power. Furthermore, the students did not have access to phones whilst they were in school, except those publicly mounted by the telecommunication companies on the respective campuses, which, however, could not send messages.

Though cyber bullying was not seen as being used extensively in the schools in the study, Lee (2004) claims that the growth of cyber bullying is becoming very fast because of the spread of technology around the world, and the youth are also becoming interested in the internet where they can manipulate it anyhow they want to their advantage. This is likely to be a major form of bullying in the 21st Century. Hence, it should be a concern to all.

According to Coloroso (2008), cyber bullying is becoming more dangerous day- in day- out because the ability to inflict pain anonymously, and with such a wide audience to reinforce the humiliation, often emboldens

the individual who engages in cyber bullying to inflict far greater damage to the target than would have been imaginable in a face-to-face encounter.

### Psychological Bullying

Psychological bullying is when someone or a group of people repeatedly and intentionally use words or actions which cause an individual psychological harm. It is a matter of beating a person up emotionally and trying to rob his/her peace of mind.

Table 10 depicts the extent of psychological bullying in the schools. It can be realised that, in all, only 4.1 percent of the respondents said psychological bullying was in use in their schools. The results came from the bullies (3.8%), the victims (4.2%) and the bystanders (3.9%), showing that this was not common in the various schools.

To Boulton et al (2002), examples of psychological bullying and social manipulation include: ostracising or ignoring peers, not inviting them to join groups or activities, spreading lies or rumours, name calling, and teasing hurtfully. According to Coloroso (2008), boys are even more likely to carry weapons to school as a result of physical and psychological bullying than their female counterparts.

### The Characteristics of Victims of Bullying

There were some characteristics which were exhibited by the victims of bullying. This section shows the class of the victims, the types of victims they were, why the victims were bullied in the schools, the people to whom the victims reported incidents of bullying, and the reasons for not reporting their bullies to the school authorities.



The bullying of first year and/or junior boys has been documented within the boarding school context by Poynting and Donaldson (2005). They affirm how new boys bear the brunt of the formal school system and endure abusive treatment at the hands of 'prefects' and seniors. In this study, the victims were asked to indicate in which class they were when they were bullied. It was realised that 93.4 percent were in the first year, whereas the remaining 6.6 percent were in the second year in their various schools.

Four main categories were used to identify the victims in the study. The types of victims were: the innocent; the passive; the provocative; and the vicarious. The victims were asked to indicate which category they belonged to. They were asked to choose as many of the characteristics that were attributed to them. The results in Table 11 depict the types of victims in the schools. As could be seen in the table, the main types of victims were to be found in the passive (40.0%) and innocent (31.9 %) categories.

Hazler (1994) claims that innocent victims are usually unaware of what is going to befall them. Bond and Stoker (2000) claim that passive victims have few defences, are an easy target and take up positions at the bottom of the pecking order in school. Shellard and Turner (2004) have noted that some victims are seen as provocative because their behaviours make them look annoying and immature to their perpetrators. The vicarious victims are also described by Bond and Stoker (2000) as those who cannot take a stand against bullying due to fear. They experience guilt about their failure to act when they are being bullied and become more vulnerable and potential targets to many bullies.

**Table 11: Types of Victims in the Schools**

Category	Number	Percent
Innocent	51	31.9
Passive	64	40.0
Provocative	26	16.2
Vicarious	19	11.9
Total	160 *	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

The victims were then asked to give reasons why they were bullied in school. Table 12 provides the various reasons which the victims thought attributed to their being bullied. The main reasons were that the victims did not give the bullies their provisions and toiletries (20.0%); they were juniors (19.0%); they did not give their clothing and footwear to the seniors to use (17.4%); they did not perform their duties (11.3%); and they were bullied for fun (10.8%).

A student said:

You will be bullied no matter what you do. So far as you are in the first year, they will “homo” you until you cry or get a senior who is sympathetic to come to your aid. We have realised here that you will not be spared in this school. The only thing that will save you is when you have a friend who is a senior and has power and authority, or is feared by the other seniors, then you are safe for sometime.

When they see that he is not around, others could bully you a bit and warn you not to tell him.

**Table 12: Reasons why Respondents were Bullied in School**

Reasons	Number	Percent
I am a junior	37	19.0
Did not give my provisions and toiletries out	39	20.0
Did not give my clothing and footwear out	34	17.4
Bullied for fun	21	10.8
Did not perform my duties	22	11.3
Was disobedient and insolent	12	6.2
Seen as timid and weak	6	3.1
Seen as having female features	8	4.1
Too masculine	16	8.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>195*</b>	<b>100.0</b>

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012.

Instantly, a student started weeping, and indicated that:

My shoes were stolen the previous day and I now have only my sandals with me. I am coming from a poor home and I do not know how to tell my parents about it. That evening, a senior came to me and wanted me to give my sandals to him to wear for prep. I had only one, and that was what I was to wear for prep that evening. When I made it clear to him that I had only that pair of sandals to wear,



he said I did not respect him. There and then, he called two friends, and they started bullying me. We came back from prep and I had to sleep under his bed on the bare floor for some time until a senior saved me.

Olweus (1993) indicates that there are some victims who show pride and become provocative and argue with their bullies. This rather puts the victims into trouble and receive more bullying. They sometimes show a combination of anxiety and aggressive reaction patterns which attract the bullies. He further says that most juniors become hardened on the way and, then, do not take up their responsibilities, which also brings more bullying on themselves than they expected.

Vanderbilt and Augustyn (2010) argue that, no matter the situation, there are some bullies who will always pounce on victims any time they see the need, so far as they see that they have the opportunity. Bond and Stoker (2000) argue that some of the students possess kinds of features that attract the bullies to pounce on them.

The victims were asked to indicate whom they reported the incidents to. The results in Table 13 show that the main people they reported the incidents to were: a friend (23.7%); counsellors (14.8%); administrators (14.3%); house staff (11.8%) and parents (9.4%). The results also indicate that the incidence of bullying was not reported to anybody (7.6%). In all, it can be realised that the victims preferred telling their friends about their challenges and plights.

**Table 13: People to whom the Victims Reported Incidents of Bullying**

Category	Number	Percent
Told Nobody	28	7.6
Counsellor	55	14.8
A Friend	88	23.7
An Older Boy	26	7.0
Parents	35	9.4
Siblings	14	3.8
Teachers	28	7.6
House staff	44	11.8
Administrators	53	14.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>371*</b>	<b>100.0</b>

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012.

A victim respondent said:

In my school, the counsellor is always around to assist us when we are bullied. If you mention the name of the bully, he will call him and counsel him. However, sometimes the friends of the bully would punish you for reporting their friend, when they get to know that you were the one who reported him.

Another victim said:

It was only my friends in the school whom I could talk to about the way I was bullied, especially those who

were my seniors that I knew. They encouraged me because they had gone through this before. It was only in one instance that I reported a senior to the school counsellor. The senior seized my only school shorts, and I had to use unprescribed shorts for classes. I was punished for that. In order not to suffer that again, I informed the school counsellor about it. I got my shorts back that very day. However, I had to receive some physical bullying first.

In a student survey, Olweus (1993) found that a low percentage (6.0%) of students believed that adults would help them when it comes to others bullying them. Students felt that adult intervention was infrequent and ineffective, and that telling adults would only bring more harassment from the bullies. Furthermore, adult supervision tended to decrease when learners moved from primary to secondary school (Swearer et al., 2010). However, most teachers underestimated the extent and the impact of bullying (Dake, Price & Telljohann, 2003).

Furthermore, the disparity between perceptions and actual occurrences of bullying incidents can be attributed to the fact that teachers may lack access to many contexts of peer interactions, and, therefore, inaccurately rate bullying behaviour (De Wet, 2005b). This may, however, explain why bullying behaviour is often viewed differently by victims and teachers and, therefore, victims having it difficult to contact teachers when they are bullied (Mauder & Tattersall, 2010). School personnel may view bullying as a harmless rite of



passage that is best ignored unless verbal and psychological intimidation crosses the line into physical assault or theft.

As part of the study, the victims were asked to tell what made them not to usually report their bullies to the appropriate authorities. The results in Table 14 show the reasons why they would not report the bullying to the appropriate authorities. The main reasons given for not reporting the bullies to the appropriate authorities were: they did not trust the school authorities could help them (13.4%); they saw the house staff as distant neighbours (12.4%); they thought it would reach their turn to bully (12.2%), they thought their siblings would not be able to do anything to help (11.7%); they thought the bullying was for a short period (11.6%); and they were afraid of further retribution and harm if they reported the bullies (10.8%).

In one of the interviews, a second year student who was bullied when he was in the first year retorted:

When we report them, the teachers do not take action. I reported to my housemaster a senior who was always making me fan him for hours in the night until midnight before I also got the chance to sleep. The housemaster rather shouted on me that I was lying and that I was a lazy person who didn't want to wake up early and work. He couldn't allow me to tell him all that happened so far as I was reporting someone about bullying. I was rather seen there by the seniors as a notorious boy.

**Table14: Reasons for not Reporting the Bullies to the Authorities**

Reasons	Number	Percent
Afraid of further retribution and harm	97	10.8
Do not trust school authorities can help	121	13.4
Afraid parents hearing will make the case worse	85	9.4
Think it is for a short period	104	11.6
Think it is to strengthen them	12	1.3
Believe counsellors will expose bullies and the case will become worse	53	5.9
See siblings are not being able to do anything	105	11.7
See house staff as distant neighbours	112	12.4
Think friends will ridicule them	59	6.6
Think teachers will rather expose their timidity	42	4.7
Think that it will also reach their turn to bully	110	12.2
Total	900*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012.

A victim stated:

The seniors have told us that it is a tradition in the school, and that it will never go, and so, it was better for us to keep quiet and endure it because very soon it will be our turn to show the juniors where power lies.

A student said:

I informed my father about how I was bullied in school when I went home on mid-term holidays. I

regretted that I did that. Unfortunately, for me, my father came to the school after the mid-term holidays very furious. He reported the case to the senior housemaster and the headmaster. He insisted that he was not ready to go back home until he saw the boy who did that to me. The headmaster pleaded with him to go back home and promised that he would take appropriate action and inform him later. My father's behaviour at the school made me a bit isolated in the school, and I was also always given work to do in my dormitory as a punishment.

Rigby and Thomas (2010) have found that the reluctance to report bullying to teachers is particularly marked among male adolescents in Australian schools. Smith and Shu (2000) suggest that students are reluctant to tell largely because adults, particularly teachers and administrators, talk about protecting those who tell, but this is actually difficult to guarantee. It is not surprising, therefore, that Nairn and Smith (2002) reported that teachers consistently underestimated the level of bullying that students identified as occurring.

Some teachers hear about bullying cases more frequently as their teaching subject lends itself better to disclosure, while other teachers are more likely to be approached after class or school. However, research findings show that victims find it difficult to disclose bullying. This view is reinforced by the literature which finds that victims may be reluctant to disclose their situations due to secrecy, fear, powerlessness, shame, self-blaming, retaliation,



uncertainty and expectations regarding the effectiveness of adult intervention (Danby, Butler & Emmison, 2011; De Wet, 2005b; Mishna & Alaggia, 2005; Rigby & Bauman, 2007; Tenenbaum, et al., 2011).

The findings of the study have confirmed those of other studies that bullying can occur in close proximity to teachers (Sahin, 2010). It is even argued that teachers have ample opportunity to observe bullying behaviour for relatively long periods of time. However, most studies show that most teachers underestimate the incident rate and the extent of bullying (Dake, Price, & Telljohann, 2003). In addition, the disparity between perceptions and actual occurrences of bullying incidents can be attributed to the fact that teachers may lack access to many contexts of peer interactions, and, therefore, inaccurately rate bullying behaviour (De Wet, 2005b). Rivers and Smith (1994) have indicated that around 30 percent of victims did not tell or inform people about what they were going through in bullying.

### **The Characteristics of the Perpetrators of Bullying**

Coloroso (2008) has identified six main types of bullies. These are: the confident bully; the social bully; the hyperactive bully; the bullied bully; the gang of bullies; and the fully armoured bully. Coloroso (2008) notes that confident bullies are also called clever bullies because of their ingenious way of masking their behaviours, and also people who relate with them find it difficult to believe that they could put up such negative behaviours. O'Moore and Minton (2004) have stated that there is the bullied bully who is always either a victim or a target and at the same time a bully.

Coloroso (2008) sees the social bullies as those who are very deceptive and behave as if they are caring, while he sees the gang of bullies as a masculine group formed to protect and fulfil their need to be respected. Also, Coloroso (2008) sees the hyperactive bullies as those who usually react aggressively even to the slightest provocation and also blame others for whatever has been committed. Finally, the fully armoured bullies are active, cold and unfeeling.

Based on this classification, the study examined the types of bullies in the schools, where they usually operated, the time for their operation, and the factors that promoted bullying in the school environment. The results in Table 15 depict the various types of bullies in the schools. In all, 34.7 percent claimed they were seen as confident bullies, 28.5 percent said they were bullied bullies, 22.6 percent saw themselves as social bullies, 11.3 percent said they belonged to the gang of bullies, 4.8 percent said they were hyperactive bullies, and 0.8 percent saw themselves as fully armoured bullies.

**Table 15: Types of Bullies who Operated in the Schools**

Types	Number	Percent
Confident	43	34.7
Social	28	22.6
Hyperactive	6	4.8
Bullied bully	32	25.8
Gang of bullies	14	11.3
Fully armoured	1	0.8
Total	124*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

We always move in groups to look for our victims.  
We operate as a group to protect ourselves from being  
attacked by the victims. You know, some are stronger  
than we are and can resist when we are individuals.

Another student claimed:

I was bullying through others, and the students never  
realised that I was a bully. I will organise some boys  
who will go and attack a student I have identified.  
Sometimes, I make them to go and seize their  
provisions. They will come and report to me then I  
will plead on their behalf and collect the things back to  
them. They will then give me some portion and I will  
then share it with my friends who went to seize the  
items. They always saw me as an innocent person and  
a friend, trying to assist them whenever they were  
bullied.

The results confirm the findings of Coloroso (2008) that the confident bullies are usually many. They usually do not have many friends, and are also called “clever” bullies because of their ingenious way of masking their behaviours, and people who relate with them find it difficult to believe that they could have such negative behaviours (Olweus, 2010).

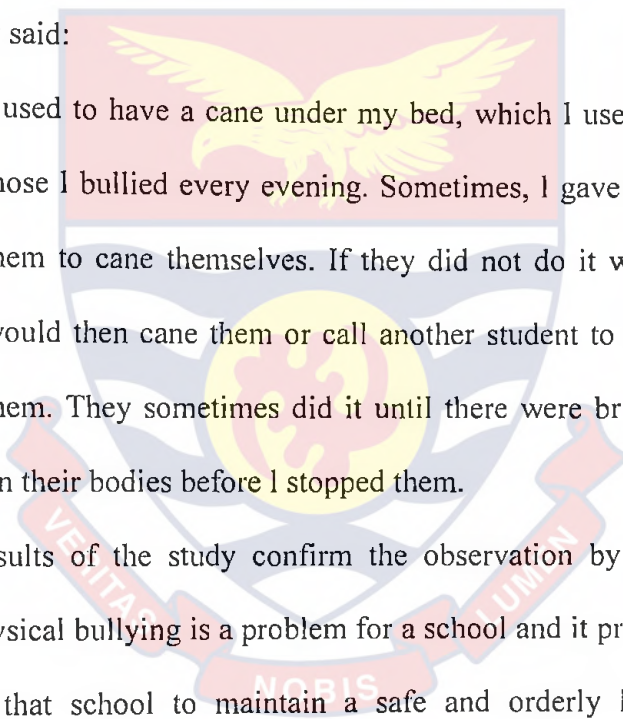
It is also not surprising to find in the study that the fully armoured bullies were the least among the bullies. Dedman (2001) notes that such



bullies are always very few, operate at places where they will not be noticed, they are very vindictive and vicious in character towards their victims.

The bullies used various styles on their victims. These were: physical, verbal, social, psychological and cyber. The extent to which these styles were used is depicted in Table 16. Physical bullying turned out to be the most used bullying style among all the schools (47.3%). This was followed by verbal bullying (40.7%), social bullying (6.0%), psychological bullying (3.8%) and cyber bullying (2.2%).

A bully said:



I used to have a cane under my bed, which I used on those I bullied every evening. Sometimes, I gave it to them to cane themselves. If they did not do it well I would then cane them or call another student to cane them. They sometimes did it until there were bruises on their bodies before I stopped them.

The results of the study confirm the observation by Larsen (2005) that physical bullying is a problem for a school and it presents a challenge for that school to maintain a safe and orderly learning environment, as it is the most widely used style. Coloroso (2008) says that physical bullying is the most dangerous of all the types as it physically harms the victim. Unfortunately, it is the most used.

Verbal bullying was the second most common type of bullying used by the bullies in the study. Lee (2004) says that verbal bullying is so common that, sometimes, school authorities do not take it serious. He says that verbal bullying should not be seen as kids simply being

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
 kids and verbally assaulting themselves. It should, rather, be dealt with seriously by parents, counsellors, teachers and school administrators when it comes to their notice.

**Table 16: Styles of Bullying by the Bullies**

Styles	Number	Percent
Physical	86	47.3
Social	11	6.0
Verbal	74	40.7
Cyber	4	2.2
Psychological	7	3.8
Total	182*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

Gadin and Hammanstrom (2005) also confirm that verbal bullying is one of the most common forms of bullying. This is consistent with findings of studies conducted on students in Norway (Due et al, 2005) and in England (Due et al, 2009). The types of verbal bullying usually found among students are name calling, threatening the victim, teasing, cruel criticism, insulting remarks, taunting, belittling, personal defamation, and sexually suggestive or sexually abusive remarks (Lee, 2004; Boulton et al, 2002; Coloroso, 2008)

The place of operations of the bullies was next investigated. A number of places were suggested to the bullies to indicate where they usually operated. The results in Table 17 show that the bullies usually operated in the dormitories (50.8 %); washrooms (36.8%); classroom (5.2%); dining hall (3.6%); the playground (2.6%); and during assembly (1.0%). The dormitories,

washrooms and classrooms, where bullying usually took place, were far from the authorities. Hence, they could not assist those who were bullied even if they shouted for help.

**Table 17: Places Where Bullies Operated From**

Place	Number	Percent
Classroom	10	5.2
Dining Hall	7	3.6
Playground	5	2.6
Dormitory	98	50.8
Washroom	71	36.8
Assembly	2	1.0
Total	193*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

A second year bully said:

The house staff usually came to the dormitory for a brief period, and then left us and the juniors behind. We could then always bully them whenever we wanted to. We were not able to bully in the classrooms because we could be spotted and punished by a teacher. The prefects were those who sometimes got the opportunity to bully in the classrooms.

Adult supervision tends to decrease when learners move from primary to senior high school (Swearer, et al., 2010). Adults who supervise learners in schools may, inadvertently, encourage bullying behaviour when they create unsupervised times and spaces, as well as being unresponsive to reports of bullying behaviour (Olweus, 1999; Stassen, 2007). Although many acts are



committed within sight of teachers, it has been found that the most violent acts are often committed in “less structured” locations where staff are rarely present (Rigby, 2007).

The results of the study confirm the findings by Rigby (1997) that the preferred location for bullying is the dormitories, dining halls, bathrooms and school fields and that bullying rarely goes on in the classroom as teachers may be around busily teaching. It is, therefore, important that knowing where and when bullying occurs is crucial for intervention and prevention efforts (Vaillancourt, et al., 2010).

The time of operations of the bullies was next investigated. Table 18 depicts the results of the study. In the operation of the bullies, it was realised that victims were bullied after classes (27.7%) while others were bullied during bed time (23.9%). The bullies sometimes operated during bathing times (22.9%), while some were bullied early in the morning (22.2%).

**Table 18: Time of Operation of Bullies in Schools**

Time	Number	Percent
Early Morning	69	22.2
Classes Hours	6	1.9
Meals Time	4	1.4
Bed Time	74	23.9
Bathing Time	71	22.9
After Classes	86	27.7
Total	310*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012.

I bullied my victims late in the night when the lights were put off for everyone to sleep. Around that time, we knew that no teacher would come around and you might not see the face of your victim for you to be sympathetic to him.

Another respondent exclaimed:

Sometimes, we were tired from our studies and the classroom activities. So, after classes, when we saw that no teacher was around, we made them to entertain us, and that took some of the pressure off us.

The results of the study confirm Rigby's (1996) findings that bullying hardly happens during the time when classes are in session. This is because, at that time, there are many people around, including adults. The results also confirm the observation made by Smith, et al (1999) that bullies are comfortable to operate on their victims in the night and early in the morning when teachers, administrators and other adults are far away from the scene.

### **Factors that Promoted Bullying in the School Environment**

Once it has been established that bullying was a problem in the schools, it was important to see which factors accounted for the bullying behaviour in the schools. All the 354 respondents were interviewed on this and they had the opportunity to mention as many factors as they could identify. The results in Table 19 show the responses given by the respondents when they were asked about the factors that promoted bullying in the school environment. The main factors were: bullying was a tradition in the school (25.0%); the desire for control and power (20.3%); the attitude of school

authorities and teachers towards bullying in the schools (18.0%); bullying was used for entertainment or for fun (15.2 %); drug abuse (8.6%); and to gain popularity and self-esteem (6.6%).

This was the comment from a respondent:

The seniors always told us that it was a tradition that everybody must go through, and that, very soon, it would be our turn to bully our juniors.

Another exclaimed:

They said my stature looked like that of Super O.D., and so anytime they felt bored or were tired from their studies, they made me to entertain them till late in the night before I was allowed to go and sleep.

**Table 19: Factors that Promoted Bullying in the School Environment**

Factor	Number	Percent
Tradition in the school	354	25.0
Desire for control and power	287	20.3
Attitude of School authorities and teachers	255	18.0
The school environment	54	3.8
Influence by the media	23	1.6
For entertainment or for fun	214	15.2
Popularity and self-esteem	94	6.6
Drug abuse	121	8.6
Cycle of abused gang members.	13	0.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>1415*</b>	<b>100.0</b>

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012.



We knew a group of students who abused drugs. Anytime they came from where they went and took their drugs, they did not allow the juniors in that dormitory to sleep that night. These boys would bully the juniors throughout the night until they were satisfied with themselves. They used belts, canes, net sponges, electric wires on their victims. Whatever they got hold of, they used it on their victims without bothering whether the victim would be hurt or not. We were sure they were using drugs to do that to us.

The desire to control and dominate others was raised by the respondents as an important factor in bullying. Pearce (1991) indicates that there are many bullies who live in undesirable family situations and find themselves in abusive situations. In an attempt to exert some kind of control over their victims, they will try to manipulate them, even if they have to use threats and taunts (Kumpulainen et al, 1999). These bullies often perceive victims who are smarter or different from them as a threat. Dominating and manipulating the perceived threat allows the bully to minimize the threat and to feel empowered (McDougall, 1999; Orpinas & Kelder, 1993). The bully's sense of satisfaction comes from provoking a reaction from the victims who are being bullied. Rigby (1999) notes that this puts them at the centre of attention by humiliating someone else.

The respondents saw the school authorities and teachers as a major cause of bullying in their various schools. Respondents claimed that culprits who were reported were usually not dealt with by the authorities. Rather, the

culprits were freed and they came back to punish them more. This gives confirmation to what Twemlow et al. (2006) posit that teachers usually do not believe that bullying is going on and, even if it does, it is not as threatening as it is being perceived. As a result, the authorities rather expose the victims to more bullying (Twemlow et al, 2006).

The respondents indicated that the influence of the media was not a strong factor in bullying in the various schools. This contradicts the claim by Trembl (2001) that television shows, video games, websites and popular music all have facets that encourage and even praise violent behaviour as a means to assert oneself. Trembl has argued that the student, who is an adolescent and wants to practise anything that comes to mind, may try bullying a fellow student he sees to be vulnerable.

### **Masculinity and the Bullying of the Male Child**

Masculinity, as explained by Adomako-Ampofo (2001), is the male characteristic that is approved or encouraged by society. It includes: virility, strength, authority, power and leadership qualities, the ability to offer protection, intelligence and wisdom, and the ability to bear physical and emotional pain

It is mostly acknowledged that the male child needs to be strong and should be matured enough to take up responsibilities in the near future. Some take it that when they are bullied enough and they are able to withstand it, then, it shows that they will be able to stand the test of time. One, therefore, is tempted to say that bullying at the school could be a factor to strengthen the male child to fulfil this aspiration.

The study wanted to ascertain whether masculinity had anything to do with the bullying of the male child in the school. The respondents were all asked how they understood masculinity. The results in Table 20 provide their understanding of masculinity. It can be seen in the table that 33.9 percent said they understood masculinity as someone who felt superior over others and could use that to intimidate them. The other results were: transition from boyhood to manhood through initiation (22.6%); having well-built male features (16.9%); when you are able to defend yourself (12.4%); someone who was strong and could bully other people (6.0%); being trained to be a man (5.1%); and doing things with force (3.1%).

**Table 20: Respondents' Understanding of Masculinity**

Responses	Number	Percent
When you are able to defend yourself	44	12.4
When you feel superior over others	120	33.9
Transition from boyhood to manhood through initiation	80	22.6
Being trained to be a man	18	5.1
Doing things with force	11	3.1
Having well- built male features	60	16.9
One who is strong and can bully	21	6.0
Total	354	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2012



A bully said:

Because I am a senior, I see myself as being superior and strong. I must make them understand that they are no more children. They need to be strong.

Another respondent said:

The bullying has made me more matured now because I have realised that I do not need to weep as I used to do in the junior high school, I will have to inform my mother. I am no more a boy.

The results of the study confirm Maphumulo's (2009) assertion that there has been a lot of debate in the media regarding initiation at schools, the various rituals and other activities to initiate a person into a group, and whether or not these can be considered to be forms of bullying. Serrao (2009) also emphasises that some of these incidents of initiation can be very serious. Initiation that involves pain or humiliation, and where there is an imbalance of power, qualifies as bullying and not just innocent rites of passage. Kenway and Fitzclarence (1997) also state that if boys cannot find their masculine expression centred within the 'hard', macho hegemonic expression, they would then take a complicitous, subordinate or marginal position.

The respondents were asked whether they saw bullying as something that would help their fellow males to be strong in life. Table 21 depicts the results. It can be seen in the table that the majority (69.2%) of the respondents did not see bullying as something that was being used to strengthen others. For the bullies, 53.3 percent said they were not using that to strengthen their opponents, 69.6 percent of the bystanders said they did not see bullying as

being used to strengthen the victims to become men, whereas 81.0 percent of the victims confirmed that bullying was not being used to strengthen them.

**Table 21: Bullying Makes Boys Strong in Life by Type of Personality**

Category	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	49	46.7	26	19.0	34	30.4	109	30.8
No	56	53.3	111	81.0	78	69.6	245	69.2
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2 = 21.399$ ; Df-2;  $p=0.000$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the three types of personalities of bullying, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 21.399, with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.000 level of significance, showed that there was significant difference among the personalities of bullying with regard to bullying helping males to be strong in life. It can, therefore, be concluded that the victims were clearly of the view that bullying in school did not make males to be strong in life.

The study then tried to find out from the respondents from the boys schools and the co-educational schools whether they saw bullying as something that would make males to be strong in life. The results in Table 22 show that 71.0 percent of the respondents from the boys schools and 67.1 percent of the respondents from the co-educational schools were of the view that bullying in schools would not make males strong in life.

**Table 22: Bullying Makes Boys Strong in Life by Type of School**

	Boys		Co- edu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	56	29.0	53	32.9	109	30.8
No	137	71.0	108	67.1	245	69.2
Total	193	100.0	161	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=0.628$ ; Df= 1;  $p=0.428$

Source: Field Data, 2012

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the boys and the co-educational schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 0.628, with 1 degree of freedom at the 0.428 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys and the co-educational schools with regard to bullying helping males to be strong in life.

A student exclaimed:

How could you tell me that you were making me strong when what you were actually doing to me was hurting me and maiming me. Is that possible?

The respondents were then asked whether they saw bullying as being a transition from one stage to another in the life of the male-child. Their responses have been stated in Table 23. It can be seen in the table that the majority (60.7%) of the respondents saw bullying as a transition in schools for the weak. For the bullies, 70.5 percent indicated that they saw bullying as a transition from one stage to another in the life of the student who was weak in



school, 56.2 percent of the victims said that bullying was a transition for those who were weak to be made strong. For the bystanders, 57.1 percent indicated that bullying was a transition for the weak to be strong in the schools.

**Table 23: Bullying as a Transition in Schools for the Weak by Type of Personality**

Category	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	74	70.5	77	56.2	64	57.1	215	60.7
No	31	29.5	60	43.8	48	42.9	139	39.3
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=5.963$ ;  $Df=2$ ;  $p=0.051$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the three types of personalities of bullying, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 5.963, with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.051 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference among the personalities of bullying with regard to bullying as a means of transition of weak students to adjust in the schools.

The study tried to find out whether the respondents from the boys schools and the co-educational schools saw bullying as a transition in the schools for the weak to adjust. The results in Table 24 show that 63.7 percent of the respondents from the boys schools and 57.1 percent from the co-educational schools were of the view that bullying was being used as a means of transition for the weak in the schools.

Table 24: Bullying as a Transition in Schools for the Weak by Type of School

	Boys		Co- edu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	123	63.7	92	57.1	215	60.7
No	70	36.3	69	42.9	139	39.3
Total	193	100.0	161	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=1.597$ ; Df= 1;  $p=0.206$

Source: Field Data, 2012

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the boys and the co-educational schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 1.597, with 1 degree of freedom at the 0.206 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys and the co-educational schools with regard to bullying as a means of transition of weak students to adjust in the schools.

### Effects of Bullying on the Male Child

The results of the effects of bullying on the male child have been put into various categories. These are: the perception of the bullies of the effects of bullying on themselves and their victims; the perception of the victims of the effects of bullying on themselves; and the perception of bystanders of the effects of bullying on themselves, on the victims and on the bullies.

The results in Table 25 show the perception of the bullies of the effects of bullying on themselves. The results indicate that the main effects were: they

felt bad (25.0%); they lost respect (24.7%); they felt sad and unhappy (20.1%); and they were disliked by others (18.1%).

**Table 25: The Perception of the Bullies of the Effects of Bullying on Themselves**

Effects	Number	Percent
Feel bad	91	25.0
Loss of respect	90	24.7
Feel sad and unhappy	73	20.1
Disliked by others	66	18.1
Bullied by others	12	3.3
Has lost friends	8	2.2
Made me strong	19	5.2
Makes me happy	5	1.4
Total	364*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

Horton (2011) postulates that bullying makes the bullies sometimes lose respect among their own friends. Some of their friends even decide not to move along with them again because they bully other people. Thornberg (2010) shows that those who bully experience short and long- term effects negatively. He claims that some of the bullies become drug addicts and drunkards, while some commit suicide as part of long- term effects. Rigby (2007) also says that some of the bullies become truants, whereas others completely dropout of school.



Table 26 depicts the effects of bullying on victims as seen by the bullies themselves. The effects identified were: had withdrawn from the society (16.5%); now masculine in nature (16.3%); now punctual at all school functions (13.9%); not interested in the school again (13.3%); felt strong and bold after they had been bullied (12.0%); and felt timid and humiliated (11.5%).

**Table 26: The Bullies' Perception of the Effects of Bullying on their Victims**

Effects	Number	Percent
Withdrawn from society	62	16.5
Feel timid and humiliated	43	11.5
Feel sad and unhappy	32	8.5
Not interested in school again	50	13.3
Some had injuries and scars	11	2.9
Some feel strong and bold now	45	12.0
Some are happy and sociable	19	5.1
Some are now punctual always	52	13.9
Some are now more masculine	61	16.3
Total	375*	100.0

\* More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012.

One of the bullies confessed:

I remember when I was in SHS 2, there was this boy who had then come to SHS1. He was with me in the

same dormitory at the school. One evening, I disciplined him for making noise. For more than one week, this boy was only found at the dining hall. He ate and went into hiding. He was completely withdrawn from the other students. I felt bad and I had to go and look for him. Later, I took him as a friend for a change.

The results of the study confirm the indications made by Shellard (2000) that these victims often suffer emotionally from humiliation, insecurity and loss of self-esteem and may develop a fear of going to school. Nansel et al (2001) confirm that some victims sustain injuries serious enough for them to require treatment by a nurse or a doctor. Wei and Jonson-Reid (2011) claim that bullying has a great effect on the victims to the extent that they are either no more interested in the school or withdraw from their mates, which, in the long run, affects their academic performance.

The victims themselves then indicated how bullying had affected them. The results in Table 27 indicate that there were various effects of bullying on the victims. They included: they felt humiliated (13.6%); they were afraid of their seniors (13.2%) they could not concentrate on their studies (11.4%); they were no more interested in the school (8.3%); they had overcome the bullying system (8.1%); they were no more sociable with their fellow students (7.3%); they had physical injuries (6.9%) and had withdrawn from the society (6.9%).

A student said:

It was announced in the dining hall that I had urinated on my mattress and that I should go and hang it in the

sun before they threw it away. It made me feel very humiliated. I am now in the second year but I cannot relate well with the other students in the school. The first years have also heard of this story.

**Table 27: Effects of Bullying on the Victims**

Effect	Number	Percent
Afraid of seniors	117	13.2
Can't concentrate on studies	101	11.4
Hate aggressive people	34	3.8
Feel humiliated	120	13.6
Not Sociable	65	7.3
Withdrawn from the society	61	6.9
Feel timid and dull	46	5.2
Have physical injuries	61	6.9
Not interested in school again	74	8.3
Have adapted to the system	27	3.0
Have now overcome the system	72	8.1
Feel strong and firm	39	4.4
Feel very masculine now	70	7.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>887*</b>	<b>100.0</b>

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012



Another student retorted:

When I came at first, I thought they hated me. But, when I realised that bullying took place every year, I have now become used to it, though it is very worrying.

The results of the present study are generally supported by existing studies. Shellard (2002), for example, noted that emotionally, victims often suffered humiliation, insecurity, and loss of self-esteem and might develop a fear of going to school. Also, Lumsden (2002) claimed that victims often had difficulty concentrating on their schoolwork and could experience a decline in academic performance.

Batsche and Knoff (1994) posited that it was logical to assume that victims would be fearful and anxious in the environment in which the bullying took place. They could respond with avoidance behaviours, such as skipping school, avoiding certain places at school, running away and even being suicidal. Elliot (1997) claims that chronic victims, who even receive mild abuse, are likely to view school as an unhappy setting and are likely to avoid places within the school setting or the school completely.

Hoover, Oliver and Hazler (1992) indicated that for some children, bullying can affect them so much that they try to commit suicide, run away, and refuse to go to school or even develop chronic illnesses. In his study on bullying in Ghana, Kaar (2009) found that 10-16 percent of students in various schools were under constant fear, they easily fell sick and were unable to concentrate on their studies

The bystanders were also asked about the effects of bullying on themselves, the victims and the bullies. Table 28 shows the effects of bullying on bystanders as reported by themselves. The results show that: they did not want to walk alone or felt uncomfortable when alone (23.0%); they were careful not to be victims after they saw how victims were bullied (12.1%); they wished they had completed school (12.0 %); they were no more interested in the school (10.8%); and they looked sober and worried (8.5%).

**Table 28: Effects of Bullying on Bystanders**

Effects	Number	Percent
Afraid of seniors	72	7.9
Not able to concentrate on studies	97	10.6
Do not want to socialise again	75	8.2
Do not want to walk alone and feel uncomfortable when alone	211	23.0
Not interested in school again	99	10.8
Wished had completed school	110	12.0
Look sober and worried	78	8.5
Has become strong and firm	63	6.9
Careful not to become victim	112	12.1
Total	917*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012

I thought the students were joking and would not put the boy in the trunk. I was on my bed and behaved as if I was sleeping and was not seeing anything that was going on. When the victim who was smallish entered the trunk the students locked him in and sat on it for some time. The boy started to struggle in the trunk. When they saw that the boy was not struggling again in the trunk, they were alarmed and opened it only to realise that he had collapsed in the trunk. They ran away from the scene only for others to come to the aid of the boy and send him to the hospital where he was revived. Though they were caught and dismissed, I am always scared and careful not to become a victim of bullying.

Another student recounted:

My friend was bullied to the extent that he ran away from school and did not want to come back because of how he was bullied. He was asked to remove his spectacles and lie down in the sun, face up facing the sun. When he got up from the sun after three hours, he was finding it difficult to open his eyes. Even when he wore his spectacles, he could not see properly. He went home without informing anybody.



likely to exhibit increased depression, anxiety, anger, posttraumatic stress, alcohol use, and low grades. Also, students who regularly witness bullying at school suffer from a less secure learning environment, the fear that they could be the next target to the bullies, and the feeling that teachers and other adults are either unable or unwilling to control the bullies' behaviour Shellard and Turner (2004; p. 97) found that students who were witnesses or bystanders to bullying experienced a level of intensity of trauma comparable to the "distress levels of police, fire fighters and paramedics during the 1989 San Francisco earthquake."

The bystanders were asked to indicate how bullying had affected the lives of victims of bullying in their schools. Table 29 indicates the responses from the bystanders. The results show that the victims were afraid that they would be bullied again (13.4%); they wanted to be transferred from their school to other schools (11.8%); they were disturbed and timid; they felt bad for coming to school (11.7%). Other effects were: the victims could not concentrate on their studies (11.1%); they felt very much disappointed in the school (10.7%); they had injuries and scars (9.5%); they had become wicked and truants (9.1%); and they had made up their mind to bully others (8.2%).

**Table 29: Bystanders' Perception of the Effects of Bullying on the Victims**

Effects	Number	Percent
Could not complete School	24	2.8
Afraid they will be bullied again	112	13.4
They are now disturbed and timid	97	11.7
They can't concentrate on their studies	92	11.1
They feel bad for coming to school	97	11.7
Have injuries and scars	79	9.5
Feel disappointed	89	10.7
Want to be transferred to other schools	98	11.8
Have made up the mind to bully others	68	8.2
Have become wicked and truants	76	9.1
Total	832*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2012

A bystander claimed:

I had a friend who was bullied many times by the seniors because he was stoutly built and also, to them, a handsome boy. They said very soon he would be throwing his weight about. They, therefore, wanted to show him that they were more powerful and could do anything they wanted to him. Later, he also decided that he would not spare his juniors and would bully them twice the number of times he was bullied.

Another respondent said:

I know of a mate who has stopped schooling because of the treatment he went through the first day he came to school. He could not get anybody to assist or help him when he was being bullied. There is another student who stopped schooling because of the humiliation he went through at the dining hall at the hands of a senior student.

The results of the study confirm findings from other authors who claim that victims of bullying tend to have lower levels of self-esteem, can be depressed, insecure, anxious, oversensitive, cautious, and quiet (Pellegrini & Bartini, 2000; Rigby & Slee, 1991). Remboldt (1994) also states that victims are usually withdrawn, worried, and fearful of new situations, showing extreme introversion. Furthermore, the results confirm those of Boulton and Underwood (1992) who indicate that some of the victims are unhappy at school, feel lonely, and have few good friends, while others are likely to drop out of school. Smith and Shu (2000) have also stated that bullying in schools in England make many adolescents in schools to commit suicide every year.

The bystanders also made comments on how they felt the bullies had been affected by their own bullying behaviours. Their responses have been expressed in Table 30. The results showed that the bullies were not able to relate well with others (11.4%); they had become school dropouts (11.4%); they had bad academic performance (11.0%); they were not able to concentrate in school (11.0%); they were afraid that they could be caught (10.9%) they had become drug addicts (10.9%); they had lost their dignity



(10.3%); they had become truants (9.1%); and they had regretted later for bullying (7.4%).

A student reported:

My class mate who used to bully students when we were in the second year could not go to the third year. He bullied a student who was seriously injured and had to be admitted at the hospital. The school authorities were informed about the incident. The bully started playing truant in order to avoid being seen by the school authorities. It became so difficult for him that finally he had to stop attending school outright.

**Table 30: Bystanders' Perception of the Effect of Bullying on the Bullies**

Effects	Number	Percent
Afraid they could be caught	96	10.9
Became truants	80	9.1
Had bad academic performance	97	11.0
Not able to concentrate in school	97	11.0
Not able to relate well with others	100	11.4
Regretted later for bullying	65	7.4
Felt proud for bullying	58	6.6
Became school dropouts	100	11.4
Lost dignity	92	10.3
Became drug addicts	96	10.9
Total	881*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple response

Source: Field Data, 2012

The results confirm what Schwartz, et al. (2002) have noted that those who are frequently involved in bullying show bad academic performance in school. Wei and Jonson-Reid (2011) also put it that some of the bullies have negative outcomes and are not able to concentrate on their studies nor have good academic performance. Furthermore, Vanderbilt and Augustyn (2010) have found that individuals who are involved in bullying behaviour during adolescence are at a high risk of having difficulties with psychosis, depression, low self-esteem, aggression, abuse, violence, substance and alcohol abuse, suicidal ideation, and attempted and actual suicide.

### **The Roles of School Authorities in Assisting the Victims of Bullying**

A school that fails to address bullying sends a clear message of acceptance of aggressive behaviour, and it indirectly encourages its continuation. This fosters an environment where certain children are viewed as “deserving” of the aggressive treatment of their peers. The education community and its partners are to provide a nurturing learning environment that specifically promotes the acquisition of social, emotional, behavioural, ethical and academic competencies. They are to provide a safe and secure learning environment that promotes health and wellness.

Furthermore, teachers play a critical role in the management of bullying and in influencing the school climate, by both modelling appropriate behaviours and dealing effectively with bullying (Swearer, 2011). When teachers and learners participate in bullying behaviour, or take on the role of the bystander, they enable bullying to become the norm, thus creating a culture of bullying within the school and exacerbating the problem of bullying.

The study attempted to find out the role the school authorities played in assisting those who had become victims to bullying in the school. All the three categories of respondents were asked whether they knew of any trained personnel in their schools to help victims at school. The results in Table 31 show that 83.6 percent of the respondents indicated that there were trained personnel to give the victims assistance. The results also reveal that 84.8 percent of the bullies claimed that there were trained personnel in the schools to assist the victims. For the victims, it was realised that 82.5 percent said there were such personnel to assist, whereas 83.9 percent of the bystanders said there were trained personnel to assist the victims.

**Table 31: Trained Personnel to give Assistance to Victims in Schools by Type of Personality**

Category	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	89	84.8	113	82.5	94	83.9	296	83.6
No	16	15.2	24	17.5	18	16.1	58	16.4
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=0.237$ ;  $Df=2$ ;  $p=0.888$ .

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the three types of personalities of bullying, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 0.237, with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.888 level of significance, showed that there was



no significant difference among the personalities of bullying with regard to trained personnel to give assistance to victims in the schools.

The study tried to find out from the respondents (the boys schools and the co-educational schools) whether there were trained personnel to give assistance to the victims. The results in Table 32 show that 85.5 percent of the respondents from the boys-only schools and 81.4 percent from the co-educational schools indicated that there were trained personnel to assist the victims.

**Table 32: Trained Personnel to give Assistance to Victims in Schools by Type of School**

	Boys-only		Co- edu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	165	85.5	131	81.4	296	83.6
No	28	14.5	30	18.6	58	16.4
Total	193	100.0	161	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=1.091$ ; Df= 1;  $p=0.296$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was any significant difference in the results of the respondents from the boys-only and the co-educational schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 1.091, with 1 degree of freedom at the 0.296 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys-only and co-educational schools with regard to whether there were trained personnel to give assistance to victims in the schools.

A respondent said:

We have heard that the new guidance coordinator has been trained to counsel students who have problems, and those who have gone to him claim that she is always ready to help.

The respondents were then asked whether there were rules and regulations in the schools on bullying. The results in Table 33 indicate that the great majority (97.7%) said they knew there were rules in the schools concerning bullying and the sanctions attached. It is again revealed in the table that 99.0 percent of the bullies said they knew there were rules and regulations concerning bullying in the school, 97.8 percent of the victims claimed they knew there were rules and regulations in the schools and 96.4 percent of the bystanders had knowledge about the school rules and regulations on bullying in the schools.

**Table 33: Rules and Regulations on Bullying in the School by Type of Personality**

Category	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No.	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Yes	104	99.0	134	97.8	108	96.4	346	97.7
No	1	1.0	3	2.2	4	3.6	8	2.3
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=1.688$ ; Df=2; p=0.430

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the three types of personalities of bullying, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 1.688, with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.430 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference among the personalities of bullying with regard to students having knowledge on rules and regulations on bullying.

The respondents from the boys-only schools and those from the co-educational schools were asked to indicate whether there were rules and regulations in the schools on bullying. The results in Table 34 indicate that 97.4 percent of the respondents from the boys-only schools and 98.1 percent of the respondents from the co-educational schools claimed that they were aware of the rules and regulations on bullying in their schools.

**Table 34: Rules and Regulations on Bullying in the School by Type of School**

	Boys		Co- edu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	188	97.4	158	98.1	346	97.7
No	5	2.6	3	1.9	8	2.3
Total	193	100.0	161	100.0	354	100.0

$$X^2=0.210; Df= 1; p=0.647$$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was any significant difference in the results of the respondents from the boys and the co-educational schools, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed.



The Chi-Square result of 0.210, with 1 degree of freedom at the 0.647 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys and co-educational schools with regard to students having knowledge on rules and regulations on bullying.

A student indicated:

We have been given students handbook which spells out all the rules and regulations in the school, and bullying is also part of it.

The results of the study agree with those of Olweus (1993) who posits that it is compulsory for schools to enforce measures that will encourage good behaviour and prevent all forms of bullying. Swearer (2011) further argues that it is not enough to have policies and rules guiding bullying but that the enforcement of the policies must be paramount in the schools.

The study tried to find out whether the various schools were committed to dealing with the issues of bullying. The results in Table 35 show that the great majority (81.4%) of the respondents declared that their schools were committed to issues concerning bullying. The results also reveal that 81.0 percent of the bullies were of the view that their schools were committed to dealing with issues of bullying; 85.4 percent of the victims indicated that their schools were committed to the rules on bullying, and 76.8 percent of the bystanders stated that their schools were serious in dealing with issues of bullying.

In order to determine whether there was a significant difference in the results of the respondents from the three types of personalities of bullying, a Pearson Chi-Square test was performed. The Chi-Square result of 3.032, with 2 degrees of freedom at the 0.220 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference among the personalities of bullying with regard to the schools' commitment to dealing with bullying in their schools.

**Table 35: The School Commitment to Dealing with Bullying by Type of Personality**

Category	Personality							
	Bullies		Victims		Bystanders		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	85	81.0	117	85.4	86	76.8	288	81.4
No	20	19.0	20	14.6	26	23.2	66	18.6
Total	105	100.0	137	100.0	112	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=3.032$ ;  $Df=2$ ;  $p=0.220$

Source: Field Data, 2012

The study then tried to find out from the respondents from the boys schools and co-educational schools whether the schools were committed to dealing with bullying. The results in Table 36 show that 80.8 percent of the respondents from the boys schools and 82.0 percent of the respondents from the co-educational schools were of the view that the schools were committed to dealing with bullying in their schools.

**Table 36: The School Commitment to Dealing with Bullying by Type of School**

	Boys-only		Co- edu		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Yes	156	80.8	132	82.0	288	81.4
No	37	19.2	29	18.0	66	18.6
Total	193	100.0	161	100.0	354	100.0

$X^2=0.078$ ; Df= 1;  $p=0.780$

Source: Field Data, 2012.

In order to determine whether there was any significant difference in the results of the respondents from the boys and the co-educational schools, a Pearson Chi- Square test was performed. The Chi- Square result of 0.078, with 1 degree of freedom at the 0.780 level of significance, showed that there was no significant difference between the boys and co-educational schools with regard to the schools' commitment to dealing with bullying in their schools.

A student said:

For me, I know the school authorities are doing their part to stop bullying. However, the bullies are always too fast for the teachers because they know when the teachers come round to our dormitories and so they are not able to get them.



A bully said:

The school administration is doing their part in dealing with bullying. But the main problem is that the teachers do not stay with us at the dormitory and also the students are afraid to report the bullies because they know they will one day be bullying others.

A bystander retorted:

I once secretly reported a bully to the Assistant Headmaster and the bully was severely punished. It is we the students who do not report those who bully us.

Respondents were, then, asked to indicate what showed that their school authorities were committed to enforcing the rules and regulations on bullying. In particular, they were asked to indicate how the school authorities enforced the rules and regulations on bullying in the schools.

The results in Table 37 revealed that the main measures used by the school authorities in enforcing the rules and regulations on bullying were: bullies were punished to weed, scrub bathhouses and even caned (21.4%); the bullies were de-boardinised or made to stay at home and commute to school as day students (18.5%); they were punished through internal suspension (16.5%); and they were dismissed from the school (15.0%).

Respondents were, finally, asked to indicate what the schools should do to stop bullying completely.

**Table 37 How the School Authorities Enforced the Rules and Regulations on Bullying**

Measures	Number	Percent
Punished through external suspension	123	7.9
Punished through internal suspension	255	16.5
Asked to bring parent to school to sign bond	76	4.9
Made to apologise at school assembly	17	1.2
Punished to weed, scrub, etc.	332	21.4
Seminars and workshop for students	64	4.1
Prefects de-robed when caught bullying	23	1.5
Dismissed from the school	233	15.0
Victims and bullies go for counselling	140	9.0
Bully is deboardinized	287	18.5
Total	1550*	100.0

\*More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012

Table 38 shows the responses given: there should be stricter rules in the schools (17.3%); there should be frequent random checks at the dormitories late in the night and very early in the morning (17.3%); and guidance and counselling should be more effective in the schools (17.3%). It was also recommended that there should be outright dismissal of bullies from the schools when they are caught (15.8%); the juniors should respect the seniors and not provoke them to bully anybody (14.7%); victims should be

encouraged to report the culprits (12.5%), and parents and PTA should be involved in handling bullying cases (5.1%).

**Table 38: What the School Authorities should do to stop Bullying in Schools**

Responses	Number	Percent
There should be stricter rules in schools	354	17.3
Victims should be encouraged to report bullies	256	12.5
Frequent random checks at dormitories in the night and early morning	354	17.3
There should be outright dismissal of bullies	321	15.8
Juniors should respect their seniors	300	14.7
Guidance and counselling should be more effective	354	17.3
Parents and PTA should be involved in handling bullying cases	103	5.1
Total	2042*	100.0

\* More than the number of respondents because of multiple responses.

Source: Field Data, 2012

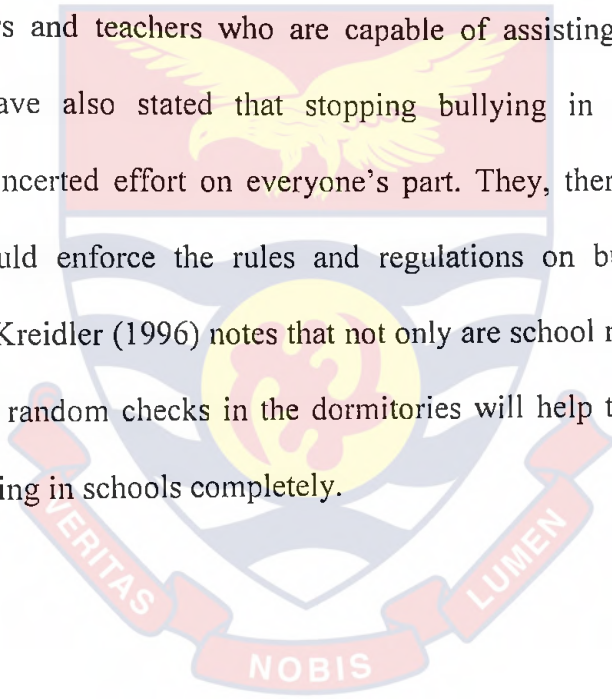
A victim said:

I do not understand why these bullies are not given stronger punishment, something that will deter the others from doing that again. We are very much worried about what the authorities do with these bullies.



For me, I think there should be guidance and counselling meetings with us the very moment we get to the school, so that we will be able to go through this bullying without much pain and worry,

The results of the study confirm what Tamanini (2009) has suggested that the best and most obvious way to stop bullying in schools is for the school authorities to introduce guidance and counselling, involving peer counselling, school counsellors and teachers who are capable of assisting. Hoover and Oliver (1996) have also stated that stopping bullying in schools takes teamwork and concerted effort on everyone's part. They, therefore, suggest that schools should enforce the rules and regulations on bullying in the schools. Finally, Kreidler (1996) notes that not only are school rules important but also frequent random checks in the dormitories will help to minimize, if not abolish, bullying in schools completely.



## SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### Introduction

In this chapter, the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study are highlighted. The summary highlights the main objective of the study, aspects of the methodology and the main findings of the study. The conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and the counselling implications in schools are also presented in the chapter. Finally, recommendations, contribution to knowledge and areas for further research are suggested in the chapter.

### Summary

The main objective of the study was to examine the causes and effects of bullying of the male-child in selected senior high schools in Ghana. Specifically, the study ascertained the types of bullying that were meted out to the male-child, identify the factors that promoted bullying in the school environment and assess the effects of the bullying on the male-child.

The descriptive and explanatory research designs were used for the study. In all, 354 male students were selected from six senior high schools from three towns in three regions in Ghana.

An interview schedule, made up of both open and close-ended items, was constructed to elicit responses from the respondents. There was a one-to-one or face-to-face interaction with all the respondents in their various schools. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) (Version 16.0) software was used to analyse the field data. The results were presented using frequency tables, percentages, and the Chi-Square test.

1. The main types of bullying were: physical bullying (47.5%); verbal bullying (37.2%) and social bullying (8.1%), psychological bullying (4.1%) and cyber bullying (3.1%).
2. First year students made up the majority (93.4%) of the victims of bullying.
3. The main types of victims in the schools were: passive (40.0%); innocent (31.9%); provocative (16.2%) and vicarious (11.9%).
4. Victims reported cases of bullying to their own friends (23.7%); counsellors (14.8%); school administrators (14.3%); house staff (11.8%); parents (9.4%); teachers (7.6%) and nobody (7.6%).
5. The types of bullies in the schools were categorised as: confident (34.7%); bullied bully (25.8%); social (22.6%); gang of bullies (11.3%); hyperactive (4.8%) and fully armoured (0.8%).
6. The places the bullies operated from in the schools were: dormitories (50.8%); washroom (36.8%); classroom (5.2%); dining hall (3.6%); playground (2.6%) and assembly (1.0%).
7. The times of operation of the bullies in the schools were: after classes (27.7%); bed time (22.9%); bathing time (22.9%); early morning (22.2%); classes hours (1.9%) and meals time (1.4%).
8. The factors that promoted bullying in the school environment were: tradition in the school (25.0%); desire for control and power (20.3%); attitude of school authorities and teachers (18.0%); for entertainment and fun (15.2%); under the influence of drugs (8.6%); popularity and



self-esteem (6.6%), the school environment (3.8%), influence by the media (1.6%) and cycle of abused gang members (0.9%).

9. Bullying of the male-child was seen by the majority (69.2%) of the respondents as not making boys strong in life. There was no significant difference between the boys-only and co-educational schools in this regard ( $X^2=0.628$ ; Df=1;  $p=0.428$ ). However, among the personalities of bullying, the victims clearly indicated that bullying in the schools did not make the male-child strong in life. ( $X^2=21.399$ ; Df=2;  $p=0.000$ ).
10. Bullying of the male-child was seen as a transition in the schools for the weak (60.7%). However, the results showed that there was no significant difference among the personalities with regard to transition of for the weak students to adjust in the schools, ( $X^2=5.963$ ; Df=2;  $p=0.051$ ). Also, among the boys-only and the co-educational schools, there was no significant difference with regard to bullying as a transition for weak students to adjust in the schools ( $X^2=1.597$ ; Df=1;  $p=0.206$ ).
11. The effects of bullying on the bullies in the schools were: felt bad (25.0%); lost respect (24.7%); felt sad and unhappy (20.1%); disliked by others (18.1%); made them strong (5.2%); bullied by others (3.3%); had lost friends (2.2%) and made them happy (1.4%).
12. The effects of bullying on the victims as perceived by the bullies were: withdraw from society (16.5%); made the victims more masculine (16.3%), punctual always (13.9%); not interested in school (13.3%) felt strong and bold now (12.0%); felt timid and humiliated (11.5%);

University of the Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
felt sad and unhappy (8.5%), now happy and sociable (5.1%) and had injuries and scars (2.9%).

13. The effects of bullying on the victims as reported by themselves were: felt humiliated (13.6%); afraid of seniors (13.2%); could not concentrate on studies (11.4%); not interested in school (8.3%); had overcome the system (8.1%); felt masculine now (7.9%); not sociable (7.3%); withdrawn from the society (6.9%); had physical injuries (6.9%) and felt timid and dull (5.2%).
14. The effects of bullying on bystanders were: did not want to walk alone and felt uncomfortable when alone (23.0%); were careful not to become victims (12.1%); wished they had completed school (12.0%); not interested in school (10.8%); not able to concentrate on studies (10.6%); looked sober and worried (8.5%); did not want to socialise again (8.2%); afraid of seniors (7.9%) and had become strong and firm (6.9%).
15. The effects of bullying on victims as reported by bystanders were: were afraid they would be bullied again (13.4%); wanted to be transferred to other schools (11.8%); had become disturbed and timid (11.7%); felt bad for coming to school (11.7%); could not concentrate on their studies (11.1%); felt disappointed (10.7%); had injuries and scars (9.5%); had become wicked and truant (9.1%); had made up their mind to bully others (8.2%) and could not complete school (2.8%).
16. The effects of bullying on the bullies as reported by the bystanders were: not able to relate well with others (11.4%); had become dropouts

(11.4%); had bad academic performance (11.0%), not able to concentrate in school (11.0%); had become drug addicts (10.9%); afraid to be caught (10.9%); lost dignity (10.3%); had become truants (9.1%); regretted later for bullying (7.4%) and felt proud for bullying (6.6%).

17. The majority (83.6%) of the respondents indicated that the schools had trained personnel to assist the victims. There was no significant difference between the boys-only and co-educational schools with regard to the trained personnel who were to assist the victims ( $X^2 = 1.091$ ;  $Df=1$ ;  $p= 0.296$ ).
18. The majority (97.7%) of the respondents indicated that the school authorities were committed to dealing with bullying in their schools. There was no significant difference between the boys-only and coeducational schools with regard to the school's commitment to dealing with bullying their schools ( $X^2 = 0.078$ ;  $Df = 1$ ;  $p= 0.780$ ).
19. The measures the schools were using to deal with bullying were: culprits were punished to weed and scrub (21.4%); the bullies were deboardinized (18.5%); punished through internal suspension (16.5%); dismissed from the school (15.0%); victims and bullies went for counselling (9.0%); punished through external suspension (7.9%); asked to bring parents to school to sign a bond of good behaviour (4.9%); seminars and workshops were organised for students on bullying (4.1%); and prefects were de-robed when caught bullying (1.5%).



From the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

The main types of bullying mostly used in the schools were physical, verbal and social. The first year students made up the majority of the victims of bullying. The main types of victims in the schools were: passive, innocent, provocative, and vicarious. The victims reported cases to their own friends, counsellors, administrators, house staff, parents, teachers, while others told nobody about the bullying.

The types of bullies in the schools were: the confident, bullied bully, social, gang of bullies, hyperactive, and the fully armoured. The styles of bullying in the schools were physical bullying, verbal bullying, social bullying, psychological bullying, and cyber bullying. Also, the places the bullies operated from in the schools were the dormitories, washroom, classroom, dining hall, playground, and the assembly. The times of operation of the bullies were after classes, bed time, bathing time, early morning, classes hours, and meals times.

The factors that promoted bullying in the school environment were: the tradition in the school, the desire for control and power, the attitude of school authorities and teachers. Others were: for entertainment and fun, drug abuse, popularity and self-esteem, the school environment, influence by the media, and the cycle of abused gang members.

Bullying of the male child in schools was not seen as making boys strong in life. It was, however, clear in the study that bullying was a transition in the schools for the weak to cope with life in the schools.

The effects of bullying on the victims of bullying were: they were withdrawn from the society, not interested in school, felt timid and humiliated, felt sad and unhappy, had injuries and scars on their bodies. Others were afraid of seniors, could not concentrate on studies, did not want to walk alone, and felt uncomfortable when alone, had become wicked and truant and had made up their minds to bully others too.

The school authorities were committed to dealing with bullying in their schools. The victims were counselled, and seminars and workshops were organised for them to be able to cope and adjust to the environment. The culprits were punished through internal suspension, some were dismissed from the school, others went on external suspension and still others brought their parents to school to sign a bond. Prefects who were caught bullying were de-robed.

### **Implications for Counselling in the Schools**

The findings of the study have underlined some implications for counselling in senior high schools in Ghana. They include:

1. School counsellors should intervene effectively to reduce bullying by developing a safe and supportive school climate. An important starting point for counsellors is to realise that much bullying occurs without the

University of Cape Coast, <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
knowledge of teachers and parents, and that many victims are very reluctant to tell adults of their problems with bullying. The counsellor, therefore, needs to be very vigilant to assist such victims.

2. Counsellors should collaborate with school health personnel to identify victims of bullying for the necessary support, especially when students continuously present symptoms, such as headache, abdominal pain, disturbed sleep, bed wetting, and emotional disturbances at the clinics.
3. It is important for counsellors to realize that in the bullying situation, there is always a power imbalance of some kind in which the victim always gets the worst of the interaction. Intervention strategies, such as assertiveness, relaxation, problem-solving and decision-making, should be put in place to assist both the bully and the victim in order to stop the bullying pattern.
4. Counsellors should encourage the establishment of good communication between the counsellor, teachers and parents to be able to identify students who are being bullied, or those who are bullies so as to provide them with the necessary assistance.
5. School authorities should be able to provide students with opportunities to develop good interpersonal skills, and create a social context, which is supportive and inclusive, and in which aggressive bullying behaviour is not tolerated by the majority of students.

## Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are made:



1. School authorities, teachers and counsellors should sensitize the students through workshops, seminars, talks and symposia on the adverse effects of bullying on victims, bullies and bystanders. This is to prevent a situation where the country could lose most of its manpower in the near future, as bullying compels some of the students to become dropouts and drug addicts.
2. Victims of bullying should be encouraged to report incidents of bullying to school authorities, teachers and counsellors. School teachers should be on the alert at the dormitories after classes and during bed time, checking the activities of students.
3. The behaviour of students in the classroom, such as dullness, sleeping in class, having problems sitting comfortably in class among others, should send a signal to the authorities that the student needs attention and could be referred to the school counsellor for assistance.
4. The Ghana Education Service and the Ministry of Education should formulate policies on bullying in schools to make bullying unattractive to students.
5. Parents and Parent/Teacher Associations should be brought into the mainstream of bullying issues as parents could best handle their own children, and teachers are usually aware of what goes on in the schools.

### **Contribution to Knowledge**

The study has enriched the literature on bullying of the male-child in Senior High Schools in Ghana. In particular, it has shown the types and styles

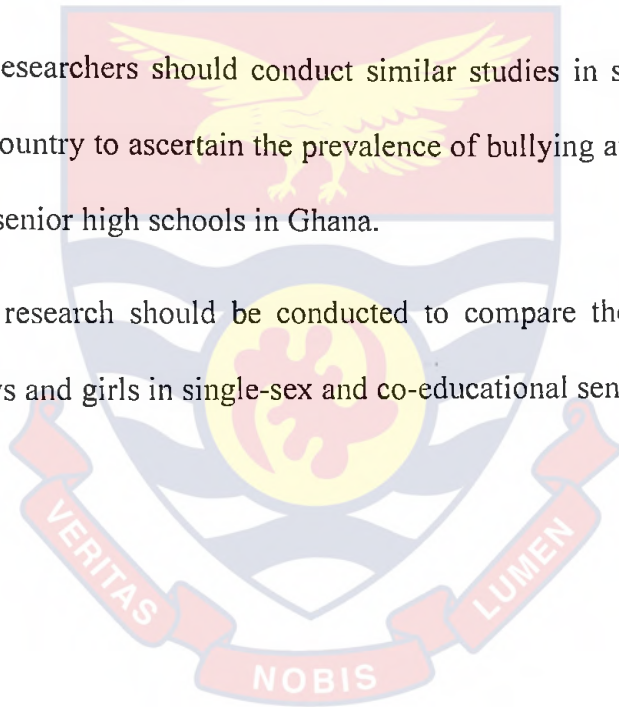
of bullying; the characteristics of perpetrators, victims and bystanders of bullying; the modus operandi of the perpetrators; and the effects of bullying on the male-child.

Furthermore, the study has given an in-depth understanding of how counselling could be used to assist in ameliorating incidents of bullying in the schools so that students can study in a peaceful environment.

### **Areas for Further Research**

Future researchers should conduct similar studies in schools in other regions of the country to ascertain the prevalence of bullying and its effects on students in the senior high schools in Ghana.

Further research should be conducted to compare the prevalence of bullying on boys and girls in single-sex and co-educational senior high schools in Ghana.



## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aldair, V. A., Dixon, R. S., Moore, D. W., & Sutherland, C. M. (2000). Ask your mother not to make yummy sandwiches: Bullying in New Zealand secondary schools. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, 35(2), 207-21.
- Adomako-Ampofo, A. (2001). When men speak, women listen: Gender socialization and adolescents' attitudes to sexual and reproductive issues. *African Journal of Reproductive Health*, 5(3) 196-212.
- Ahmad, Y., & Smith, P. (1994). Behavioural measures: Bullying in schools. *Newsletter for Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 12, 26-27.
- Allard, A., Cooper, M., Hildebrand, G., & Wealands, E. (1995). *Stages: Steps towards addressing gender in educational settings*. Carlton, VIC. Curriculum Corporation.
- Aliaga, M., & Gunderson, B. (2000). *Interactive statistics*. Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. 4.
- Amedahe, F. K. (2002) *Educational research*, Accra, Point Blank Production.
- Andreou, E. (2000). Bully/victim problems and their association with psychological constructs in 8 to 12 year-old Greek school children. *Aggressive Behaviour*, 26, 49- 56.
- Arora, C. M. (1994). Is there any point in trying to reduce bullying in secondary schools? *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 10, 155- 162.
- Arrindell, W. A., Kolk, A. M., Pickersgill, M. J., & Hageman, W. J. (1993). Biological sex, sex role orientation, masculine sex role stress, dissimulation and self-reported fears. *Advances in Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 42, 155-162.



- Arsenio, W. U. F., & Lemerise, E. A. (2001). Varieties of childhood bullying: Values, emotions processes and social competence. *Social Development, 10*(1), 59-73.
- Artz, S., Riecken, T., MacIntyre, B., Lam, E., & Maczewski, M. (2000). Theorizing gender differences in receptivity to violence prevention programs in schools. *BC Counsellor, 22*(1), 7-36.
- Ashiagbor, C. P. (2007, March, 1). Checking indiscipline and non-performance in schools. *The Daily Graphic*. Accra.
- Atlas, R. S., & Pepler, D.J. (1998). Observations of bullying in the classroom. *Journal of Educational Research, 92*, 86-100.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Baldry, A. C., & Farrington, D. P. (2000). Bullies and delinquents: Personal characteristics and parental styles. *Journal of Community and Applied Social Psychology, 10*, 17-31.
- Ballard, M., Argus, T., & Remley, T. P. (1999). Bullying and school violence: A proposed prevention program. *NASSP Bulletin, 39*-47.
- Banks, R. (1997, March). *Bullying in schools*. ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED407154.
- Baron-Cohen, S., & Hammer, J. (1996). Is autism an extreme form of the male brain? *Cognition, 21*, 37-46.
- Barone, F. (1997). Bullying in school. *Phi Delta Kappan, 79*, 80-82.
- Batsche, G. M., & Knoff, H. M. (1994). Bullies and their victims: Understanding a pervasive problem in the schools. *School Psychology Review, 23*. 165-174.

Beggs, D. L. & Lewis, E. L. (1975). *Measurement and evaluation in schools*.  
Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Berg, E. Z. (1994). Gendering conflict resolution. *Peace and Change*, 19(4), 325-359.

Berk, L. E. (2003). *Child development*. Toronto: Pearson Education.

Berkowitz, L. (1977). Situational and personal conditions governing reaction to aggressive cues. In D. Magnusson & N.S. Endler (Eds). *Personality at the crossroads: Current issues in interactional psychology* (pp. 165-171). New York: Wiley.

Besag, V. E. (2006). *Understanding girls' friendships, fights and feuds: Practical approach to girls' bullying*. Maidenhead, Berkshire: Open University Press.

Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (1995). *Research education*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.

Bhasin, K. (2004). *Exploring masculinity*. New Delhi: Women Unlimited.

Bissonette, A. M. (2009). *Cyber law: Maximizing safety and minimizing risk in classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Björkqvist, K. (1994). *Cyber law: Maximizing safety and minimizing risk in classroom*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Björkqvist, K. (1994). Sex differences in physical, verbal, and indirect aggression. A review of recent research. *Sex Roles*, 30 (3/4) 177- 188.

Björkqvist, K., Ekman, K., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1982). Bullies and victims: The ego picture, ideal ego picture and normative ego picture. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 23,307-313.

Björkqvist, K., Österman, K. & Hjelt Bäck, M. (1994). Aggression among university employees. *Aggressive Behavior*, 20(3), 173-184.

- Björkqvist, K., Östern, K., & Kaukiainen, K. (2000). Social intelligence empathy aggression? *Aggression and Violence Behavior, 5*(2), 191-200
- Blackmore, J. (1999). *Framing the issues for educational re-design, leaning networks and professional activism*. Hawthorn, VIC: Australian Council for Educational Administration.
- Bond, M., & Stoker, S. (2000). *Bully proofing your school. A comprehensive approach for middle schools*. Colorado: Sopris West.
- Bosomtvi, S., Sabates, R., Owusu, A., & Dunne, M. (2010). *Bullying and school attendance*. Consortium for research on educational access, transitions and equity. University of Sussex. Research Monograph No. 41.
- Bosworth, K., Espelage, D. L., & Simon, T. (1999). Factors associated with bullying behavior in middle school students. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 19*, 341-362.
- Boulton, M. J., Trueman, M., & Flemington, I. (2002). Associations between secondary school pupils' definitions of bullying, attitudes towards bullying, and tendencies to engage in bullying: Age and sex differences. *Educational Studies, 28*(4), 353-370.
- Boulton, M., & Underwood, K. (1992). Bully/victim problems among middle school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 62*, 73-87.
- Bradshaw, C. P., & Waasdorp, T. E. (2011). *Effective strategies in combating strategies*. The White House conference on bullying prevention manual (pp. 43-49). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from [http:// www.stopbullying.gov/references/white\\_house\\_conference/white\\_house\\_conference\\_materials.pdf](http://www.stopbullying.gov/references/white_house_conference/white_house_conference_materials.pdf)



- Branwhite, T. (1994). Bullying and student distress: Beneath the tip of the iceberg. *Educational Psychology, 14*(1) 59-71.
- Browne, A., & Finkelhor, D. (1986). Impact of child abuse: A review of the research. *Psychology Bulletin, 99*, 66-77.
- Brunstein, K. A., Marrocco, F., Kleinman, M., Schonfeld, I. S. & Gould, M. S. (2007). Bullying, depression, and suicidality in adolescents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 46*, 40-49.
- Camodeca, M., Goossens, F. A., Schuengel, C., & Terwogt, M. M. (2003). Links between social information processing in middle childhood and involvement in bullying. *Aggressive Behaviour, 29*, 116-127.
- Carlisle, N., & Rofes, E. (2007). School bullying: Do adult survivors perceive long-term effects? *Traumatology, 13*(1), 16-26.
- Charach, A., Pepler, D., & Ziegler, S. (1995). Bullying at school: A Canadian perspective. *Education Canada, 35*, 12-18.
- Cheng, Y., Newman, I. M., Qu, M., Mbulo, L., Chai, Y., Chen, Y., & Shell, D. F. (2010). Being bullied and psychosocial adjustment among middle school students in China. *Journal of School Health, 80*(4), 193-199.
- Clarke, E. A. & Kiselica, M. S. (1997). A systemic counseling approach to the problem of bullying. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 31*, 310-315.
- Cohen, A., & Canter, A. (2003). *Bullying: Facts for parents and teachers*. National Association of School Psychologists. Retrieved February 10, 2006 from NASP website [http://www.naspcenter.org/factsheets/bullying\\_fs.html](http://www.naspcenter.org/factsheets/bullying_fs.html).

- Coker-Appiah, D., & Cusack, K. (1999). *Breaking the silence and challenging the myths of violence against women and children in Ghana*. Report of a national study on violence. Accra, Ghana: Gender Studies and Human Rights Documentation Centre.
- Coloroso, B. (2008). *The bully, the bullied, and the bystander* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Connell, R. W. (1993). Cool guys, swots and wimps: The interplay of masculinity and education. In L. Angus (Ed.), *Education, inequality and social identity* (pp. 91-103). Washington, DC: Falmer Press.
- Connell, R. W. (1996). Teaching the boys: new research on masculinity, and gender strategies for schools. *Teachers College Record*, 98(2), 206-235.
- Connell, R. W. (1997). Gender politics for men. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 17(1/2), 62-77.
- Connell, R. W. (2005). *Masculinities*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Conoley, J. C., & Goldstein, A.P. (2004). Student aggression: Current status. In J. C. Conoley & A. P. Goldstein, (Eds.), *School violence intervention: A practical handbook* (pp. 46-73) (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Correctional Service Canada. (2004). *Patterns of violent crime by women*. Retrieved March 5, 2004, from <[http://www.cscscc.gc.ca/text/prgrm/fsw/fsw23/fsw23e01\\_e.shtml](http://www.cscscc.gc.ca/text/prgrm/fsw/fsw23/fsw23e01_e.shtml)>.
- Cowie, H., & Jennifer, D. (2008). *New perspectives on bullying*. Berkshire: Open University Press.

- Craig, W., & Pepler, D. J. (1997). Observations of bullying and victimization in the school yard. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 13*, 41-60.
- Crick, N. R. (1997). Engagement in gender normative versus non-normative forms of aggression: Links to social-psychological adjustment. *Developmental Psychology, 33*(4), 610 – 617.
- Crick, N., Casas, J., & Ku, H. (1999). Relational and physical forms of peer victimization in preschool. *Developmental Psychology, 35*(2), 376-385.
- Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin 115*, 74–101.
- Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. (1999). "Superiority" is in the eye of the beholder: A comment on Sutton, Smith and Swettenham. *Social Development, 8*, 128–131.
- Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social - psychological adjustment. *Child Development, 66*, 710 - 722.
- Crick, N. R., & Werner, N. E. (1998). Response decision processes in relational and overt aggression. *Child Development, 69*(6), 1630-1639.
- Cullingford, C., & Morrison, J. (1995). Bullying as a formative influence: The relationship between the experience of school and criminality. *British Educational Research Journal, 21*, 547-560.
- Czooop, A. M., Lasane, T. P., Sweigard, P. N., Bradshaw, S. D., & Hammer, E.D. (1998). Masculine styles of self-presentation in the classroom: Perceptions of Joe Cool. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 13*(2), 281–295.



- Dake, J. A., Price, J. H., & Telljohann, S. K. (2003). The nature and extent of bullying at school. *Journal of School Health*, 73 (5), 173-179.
- Danby, S., Butler, C. W., & Emmison, M. (2011). Have you talked with a teacher yet? How helpline counselors support young callers being bullied at school. *Children & Society*, 25(1), 328-339.
- Dane, F. C. (1990). *Research methods*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Inc.
- Davies, B. (1997). Constructing and deconstructing masculinities through critical literacy. *Gender and Education*, 9(1), 9-22.
- Davis, F. (1987). Antecedents and consequents of gender role conflict: An empirical test of sex role strain analysis. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 48(11), 3443.
- Davis, J. E. (2001). Transgressing the masculine: African American boys at the failure of schools. In W. Martino & B. Meyenn (Eds.), *What about the boys? Issues of masculinity in schools* (pp. 140-153). Buckingham, England: Open University Press.
- Davis, S. (2003). *Schools where everyone belongs: Practical strategies for reducing bullying*. Stop Bullying Now. Wayne, ME: Youth Voice Research Project.
- Dedman, B. (2001). *Schools may miss mark on preventing violence*. Retrieved October 16, 2008, from <http://www.suntimes.com/shoot/shoot16.html>
- De Wet, N. C. (2005b). The nature and extent of bullying in Free State secondary schools. *South African Journal of Education*, 25(2), 82-88.
- Dodge, K. A. (1986). A social information processing model of social competence in children. In M, Perlmutter (Ed), *The Minnesota*

*symposium on child psychology* (pp 77–125). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Due, P., Holstein, B. E., Lynch, J., Diderichsen, F., Gabhain, S. N., Scheidt, P., & Curie, C. (2005). Bullying and symptoms among school- aged children: International comparative cross-sectional study in 28 countries. *European Journal of Public Health, 15*, 128-132.
- Due, P., Merlo, J., Harel-Fisch, Y., Damsgaard, M. T., Socs, M. S., Holstein, B.E., Hetland, J. Curie, C., Gabhain, S. N., de Matos, M. G., & Lynch, J. (2009). Socioeconomic inequality in exposure to bullying during adolescence: A comparative cross-sectional, multilevel study in 35 countries. *American Journal of Public Health, 99*, 907-914.
- Duncan, N. (1999). *Sexual bullying: Gender conflict and pupils' culture in secondary schools*, London, Routledge.
- Eisler, R. M., Skidmore, J. R., & Ward, C. H. (1988). Masculine gender-role stress: Predictor of anger, anxiety, and health-risk behaviours. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 52*(1), 133–141.
- Elliott, M. (1997). *Bullying: A practical guide to coping for schools*. London: Pitman.
- Epstein, D. (1998). Real boys don't work: 'Underachievement', masculinity and the harassment of 'sissies'. In D. Epstein, J. Elwood, V. Hey & J. Maw (Eds.), *Failing boys? Issues in gender and achievement* (pp.1-18). Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Epstein, J. (2001). *School, family, and community partnerships: Preparing educators and improving schools*. Colorado: Westview Press.
- Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: Norton.

- Eron, L. D., Huesmann, L. R., Dubow, E., Romanoff, R., & Yarmel, P. W. (1987). Childhood aggression and its correlates over 22 years. In D. H. Cromwell & I. M. Evans (Eds). *Childhood aggression and violence: Sources of influence, prevention, and control* (pp.249-262). New York: Plenum.
- Eslea, M. (2001). *School bullying: Severity, distress and coping*. British Psychological Society Centenary Annual Conference, Glasgow.
- Espelage, D., Bosworth, K., & Simon, T. (2000). Examining the social context of bullying behaviors in early adolescence. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 78(3), 326-333.
- Eyiah, J. K. (2012). *Let's help stop bullying in schools* (Electronic form) retrieved on 15<sup>th</sup> October 2013 from [www.ghana.com/GhanaHomePage/NewsAchieve/artikel.php?ID=278371](http://www.ghana.com/GhanaHomePage/NewsAchieve/artikel.php?ID=278371).
- Fandrem, H., Strohmeier, D., & Roland, E. (2009). Bullying and victimization among native and immigrant adolescents in Norway: The role of proactive and reactive aggressiveness. *Journal of Early Adolescence*. 29, 898-923
- Farmer, D. (2011). Workplace bullying: An increasing epidemic creating traumatic experiences for targets of workplace bullying. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 1(7), 196-203.
- Farrington, D. P. (1993). Understanding and preventing bullying. In M. Tonny & N. Morris (Eds.), *Crime and justice*, 17, (pp. 381-458). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.



- Felix, E. D., & McMahon, S. D. (2006). Gender and multiple forms of peer victimization: How do they influence adolescent psychosocial adjustment? *Violence and Victims, 21*, 707–724.
- Finnegan, R. A., Hodges, E.V. E., & Perry, D. G. (1998). Victimization by peers: Associations with children's reports of mother-child interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 1076–1086.
- Fight Crime: Invest in Kids. (2003). *Bullying prevention is crime prevention*. Retrieved from <http://www.fightcrime.org>.
- Fonzi, A., Genta, M., Menesini, E., Bacchini, D., Bonino, S., & Costabile, A. (1999). In P. K. Smith, K. Morita, J. Junger-Tas, D. Olweus, R. Catalano & P. Slee (Eds.), *The nature of school bullying* (pp.140-156). London: Routledge.
- Fosse, G. K., & Holen, A. (2006). Childhood maltreatment in adult female psychiatric outpatients with eating disorders. *Eating Behaviours, 7*, 404-409.
- Foster, J., de-Lawyer, D. D., & Guevremont, G. (1986). Bullies and victims. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 25*(3), 212-219.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (1996). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.
- Frisén, A. & Bjarnelind, S. (2010). Health-related quality of life and bullying in adolescence. *Acta Paediatrica, 99*(4), 597-603.
- Funk, J. B., & Elliott, R. (1999). The attitudes towards violence scale. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 14*(11), 1123–1137.

- Furniss, C. (2000). Bullying in schools: It's not a crime- is it? *Education and the Law*, 12(1), 9-29.
- Gadin, K. G., & Hammarrstrom, A. (2005). A possible contributor to the higher degree of girls reporting psychological symptoms compared with boys in grade nine. *European Journal of Public Health*, 15, 380-385.
- Garret, A. G. (2003). *Bullying in American schools*. Jefferson: McFarland & Company Inc. Publishers.
- Gay, L. R. (1992). *Educational research competencies for analysis and application*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Ghana Business News (2009). *Bullying linked to child suicide* (Electronic Form). Retrieved on 16<sup>th</sup> October, 2013 from [www.GhanaBusinessNews.com/Bullying linked with child suicide.html](http://www.GhanaBusinessNews.com/Bullying%20linked%20with%20child%20suicide.html)
- Gilbert, R., & Gilbert, P. (1998). *Masculinity goes to school*. Sydney: Allen and Unwin.
- Gipps, C. V. (1996). Introduction. In P.F. Murphy & C. V. Gipps (Eds.), *Equity in the classroom: Towards effective pedagogy for girls and boys* (pp. 1-6). London: Falmer Press.
- Glew, G. M., Fan, M., Katon, W., Rivara, F. P., & Kernic, M. A. (2005). Bullying, psychosocial adjustment, and academic performance in elementary school. *Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine*, 159(11), 1026-1031.
- Glover, D., Gough, G., Johnson, M., & Cartmigh, N. (2000). Bullying in 25 secondary schools: Incidence, impact and intervention. *Educational Research*, 42(2), 141-156.

- Good, G. E., & Mintz, L. B. (1990). Gender role conflict and depression in college men: Evidence for compounded risk. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 69*, 17–21.
- Gouws, E., Kruger, N., & Burger, S. (2000). *The adolescent* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Sandown: Heinemann Publishers (Pty) Ltd.
- Guerra, N., Nucci, L., & Huesmann, L. (1994). Moral cognition and childhood aggression. In L. R. Huesmann (Ed.), *Aggressive behavior: Current perspectives* (pp. 13-33). New York: Plenum Press.
- Hammond, D. (2013). *Bullying: The fresher's nightmare*. (Electronic form). Retrieved on 14<sup>th</sup> October, 2013. From [www.bullying-freshers-nightmare.html](http://www.bullying-freshers-nightmare.html)
- Hammond, P. (2006). Bullying: A biblical perspective. *Joy Magazine, 15*(4), 14-16.
- Harris, S., & Hathorn, C. (2006). Texas middle school principals' perceptions of bullying on campus. *NASSP Bulletin, 90*(1), 49-69.
- Hawkins, D. L., Pepler D. J., & Craig. W. M. (2001). Naturalistic observations of peer interventions in bullying. *Social Development, 10*(4), 512-527.
- Hazler, R. (1994). Bullying breeds violence. You can stop it! *Learning, 22*(60), 38-41.
- Hazler, R. J. (1996). *Breaking the cycle of violence: Interventions for bullying and victimization*. Washington: Accelerated Development.
- Hetrick, E., & Martin, A. (1987). *Developmental issues and their resolution for gay and lesbian adolescents*. New York: Haworth Press.



- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
- Hill, S. C., & Drolet, J. C. (1999). School-related violence among high school students in the United States, 1993-1995. *Journal of School Health*, 69, 264-272.
- Horne, A. M., & Staniszewski, D. (2003). School bullying: Changing the problem by changing the school. *School Psychology Review*, 32(3), 431-444.
- Horton, P. (2011). School bullying in social and moral orders. *Children & Society*, 25(1), 268- 277.
- Hoover, J., & Hazler, R. (1991). Bullies and victims. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, 25(3), 212-219.
- Hoover, J. H., & Oliver, R. O. (1996). *The bullying prevention handbook: A guide for principals, teachers, and counsellors*. Bloomington, Indiana: National Educational Service.
- Hoover, J. H., Oliver, R., & Hazler, R.J. (1992). Bullying: Perceptions of adolescent victims in the Midwestern USA. *School Psychology International*, 13(1), 5-16.
- Hoover, J., & Olsen, G. (2001). *Teasing and harassment: The frames and scripts approach for teachers and parents*. Bloomington: National Educational Service.
- Huesmann, L. R., Maxwell, C. D., Eron, L., Dahlberg, L. L., Guerra, N. G. Tolan, P. H., et al. (1996). Evaluating a cognitive/ecological program for the prevention of aggression among urban children. *American Journal of Preventative Medicine*, 12(5), 120-128.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Johnson, M., Munn, P., & Edwards, L. (1992). *Action against bullying: A support pack for schools*. Edinburgh: The Scottish Council for Research and Education.
- Juvonen, J., & Gross, E. F. (2008). Extending the school grounds? Bullying experiences in cyberspace. *Journal of School Health*, 78(9), 496 –505.
- Kaar, T. F. (2009). *The incidence and impact of bullying on students in second cycle schools in Ghana: A case study of selected schools in the Bawku Municipality*. Unpublished thesis, Cape Coast.
- Kaltiala-Heino, R., Rimpela, M., Marttunen, M., Rimpela, A., & Rantanen, P. (1999) Bullying, depression, and suicidal ideation in Finnish adolescents: School survey. *British Medical Journal*, 319, 348-351.
- Karatzias, A., Power, K. G., & Swanson, V. (2002). Bullying and victimization in Scottish secondary schools: Same or separate entities? *Aggressive Behaviour*, 28(1), 45-61.
- Kaufmann, K. (1985). Bullies and victims. *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling*, 25(3), 212-219.
- Kempe, H. C. (1962). The battered child syndrome. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 181, 17-24.
- Kenway, J., & Fitzclarence, L. (1997). Masculinity, violence and schooling: Challenging 'poisonous pedagogies'. *Gender and Education* 9(1), 117-133.
- Kerlinger, F. N. (1973). *Foundation of behavioural research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- King, N., & Horrocks, C. (2010). *Interviews in qualitative research*. London: Sage.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). *Stage and sequence: The cognitive-development for socialization theory and research*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Konishi, C., Hymel, S., Zumbo, B. D., & Li, Z. (2010). Do school bullying and student-teacher relationships matter for academic achievement? A multilevel analysis. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 25*(1), 19-39.
- Kreidler, W. J. (1996). Smart ways to handle kids who pick on others. *Instructor, 105*(2), 70-74.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D.W. (1970) Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurements, 30*, 607-610.
- Kumar, R. (2005). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. California: SAGE Publications.
- Kumpulainen, K., Rasanen, E., & Henttonen, I. (1999). Children involved in bullying: Psychological disturbance and the persistence of the involvement. *Child Abuse and Neglect: The International Journal, 23*(12), 1253-62.
- Kushner, H. I. (1992). The persistence of the “frontier thesis” in America: Gender, myth, and self-destruction. *Canadian Review of American Studies, Special Issue 1*, 53–83.
- Lane, D. (1989). Bullying in school: The need for an integrated approach. *School Psychology International, 10*, 211- 215.
- Larsen, J. (2005). *Think first. Addressing aggressive behaviour in secondary schools*. New York: The Guilford Press.

- Lash, S. J., Eisler, R. M., & Schulman, R. S. (1990). Cardiovascular reactivity to stress in men: Effects of masculine gender role stress appraisal and masculine performance challenge. *Behavior Modification, 14*, 3–20.
- Lash, S. J., Eisler, R. M., & Southard, D. R. (1995). Sex differences in cardiovascular reactivity as a function of the appraised gender relevance of the stressor. *Behavioral Medicine, 21*, 86–94.
- Lash, S. J., Gillespie, B. L., Eisler, R. M., & Southard, D. R. (1991). Sex differences in cardiovascular reactivity: Effects of the gender relevance of the stressor. *Health Psychology, 10*(6), 392–398.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Leach, F., & Fiscian, V. (2000). *An investigation in the abuse of girls in Ghanaian and Zimbabwean junior secondary schools*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.
- Lee, C. (2004). *Preventing bullying in schools: A guide for teachers and other professionals*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. E. (2001). *Practical research: Planning and design* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- Limber, S. P., & Small, M. A. (2003). State laws and policies to address bullying in schools. *School Psychology Review, 32*(3), 445-455.
- Lloyd, N. (1994) Girls 'hidden bullies' in schools, *Advertiser, 137*(4283): 3.
- Losel, F., & Bliesener, T. (1999). Germany, In P. K. Smith, Y. Morita, J. Junger-Tas, D. Olweus, R. Catalano & P. T. Slee (Eds.), *The nature of school bullying: A cross-national perspective* (pp. 224–49). London: Routledge,



Ma, X. (2002). Bullying in middle school: Individual and school characteristics of victims and offenders. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 13(1), 63-89.

Maphumulo, S. (2009, February 23). Support for brutal initiations in South

Marsh, H. W., Parada, R. H., Yeung, A. S., & Healey, J. (2001). Aggressive school troublemakers and victims: A longitudinal model examining the pivotal role of self-concept. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 93(2), 411-419.

Martin, C. L. (1993). New directions of investigating children's gender knowledge. *Developmental Review*, 13, 184-204.

Martino, W. (1997, November). *Boys in schools: Addressing the politics of hegemonic masculinities*. Paper presented at Australian Association for Research in Education (AARE) Annual Conference, Brisbane, Australia.

Martino, W., & Pallota-Chiarolli, M. (2003). *So what's a boy? Addressing issues of masculinity and schooling*. Philadelphia, PA: Open University Press.

Maunder, R. E., & Tattersall, A. J. (2010). Staff experiences of managing bullying in secondary schools: The importance of internal and external relationships in facilitating intervention. *Educational & Child Psychology*, 27(1), 116-128.

McDougall, J. (1999). *Violence in the schools: Programs and policies for prevention*. Toronto: Canadian Education Association.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
McKeough, A., Yates, T. & Marini, A. (1994). Intentional reasoning: A developmental study of behaviourally aggressive and normal boys. *Development and Psychopathology*, 6, 285-304.
- McKinnon, J. E. (2001). *An examination of bullying from a group-dynamic perspective: The third-party role of peers in bullying incidents*. Dissertation Abstracts International. 62 (6-B). University Microfilms No. 2991.
- Menesini, E., Fonzi, A., & Smith, P.K. (2002). Attribution of meanings to terms related to bullying: A comparison between educator's and learner's perspectives in Italy. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 17 (4), 393-406.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Mills, M. (2001). *Challenging violence in schools: An issue of masculinities*. Buckingham; Open University Press.
- Mishna, F. (2004). A qualitative study of bullying from multiple perspectives. *Children and Schools*, 26(4), 234-247.
- Mishna, F., & Alaggia, R. (2005). Weighing the risks: A child's decision to disclose peer victimization, *Children and Schools*, 27(4), 217-226.
- Montgomery, R. P.G. (1994). *Coping strategies of children who are victimized by bullying*. A dissertation. University of Houston, USA.
- Moran, S, Smith, P. K., Thompson, D., & Whitney, I. (1993). Ethnic differences in experiences of bullying: Asian and white children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 63, 431- 440.

- Morell, R. (1998). Of boys and men: Masculinity and gender in Southern African Studies. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 24(4), 605-630.
- Morrison, B. (2007). *Restoring safe school communities: A whole school response to bullying, violence and alienation*. Sydney: The Federation Press.
- Muro, J. J., & Kottman, T. (1995). *Guidance and counselling in the elementary and middle schools*. Dubuque I A: Wm. C. Brown Communications, Inc.
- Nairn, K., & Smith, A. B. (2002). Secondary school students' experiences of bullying at school-and their suggestions for dealing with it. *Children Issues*, 6(1), 16-22.
- Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, J., Simons-Morton, B., & Scheidt, P. (2001). Bullying behaviors among U.S. youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 285(16), 2094-2100.
- National Center for Educational Statistics. (1998). *Violence and discipline problems in US public schools: 1996-1997*. Executive summary. [<http://nces.ed.gov/pubs98/violence/98030001.html>]
- Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory (2001). *School wide prevention of bullying*. Retrieved from <http://www.nwrel.org>.
- Ofei-Aboagye, R. O. (1992). Domestic violence in Ghana: Some preliminary issues. In M. Fineman (Ed). *Workshop on domestic violence* (pp. 26-54) New York: Columbia University Law School.

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (2001). *Addressing the problem of juvenile bullying*. OJJDP Fact Sheet (June 2001). #27. Retrieved from <http://www.ojjdp.ncjrs.org>.

Olafsen, R. N., & Vimerö, V. (2000). Bully/victim problems and coping with stress among 10- to 12 year old pupils in Åland, Finland. *Aggressive Behaviour*, 26, 56-65.

Oliver, R., Hoover, J. H., & Hazler, R. (1994). The perceived roles of bullying in small-town Midwestern schools. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 72(4), 416-419.

Olweus, D. (2010). Understanding and researching bullying: Some critical issues. In S. R. Jimerson, S. M. Swearer, & D. L. Espelage (Eds.), *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 9-33). New York, NY: Routledge.

Olweus, D. (1999). *The nature of school bullying: A cross-national perspective*. London and New York: Routledge.

Olweus, D. (1997). Bully / victim problems in school: Facts and intervention. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, XII (4) 495 - 510.

Olweus, D. (1996). *The revised Olweus bully/victim questionnaire*. Mimeo Bergen, Norway: Research Center for Health Promotion (HEMIL), University of Bergen.

Olweus, D. (1994). Bullying at school: Long-term outcomes for the victims and effective school-based intervention program. In L. Huesmann (Ed.), *Aggressive behavior: Current perspectives* (pp. 97-130). NY: Wiley.



- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at school. What we know and what we can do.*  
Oxford. UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Olweus, D. (1991a). Bully/victim problems among school children: Basic facts and effects of a school based intervention program. In D. Pepler & K. Rubin (Eds.). *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp. 411-447). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Olweus, D. (1991b). Victimization among school children. In R. Baenninger (Ed.), *Targets of violence and aggression* (pp. 45-102). Holland: Elsevier Science Publishers.
- Olweus, D. (1989). The silent nightmare: Bullying and victimisation in school peer groups. *The Psychologist*; 4, 243-248.
- Olweus, D. (1987). Schoolyard bullying-grounds for intervention. *School Safety* (Fall), 4-11.
- Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the schools: Bullies and whipping boys*. NY: Wiley.
- Olweus, D., & Limber, S. (1999). Bullying prevention program. In D. S. Elliot (Ed.), *Blueprints for violence prevention*. (pp 47-56) Denver: C&M Press.
- Olweus, D., & Solberg, C. (1998). *Bullying among children and young people. Information and guidance for parents*. [translation to English: Caroline Bond] Oslo: Pedagogisk forum.
- O'Moore, M., & Minton, S. J. (2004). *Dealing with bullying in schools. A training manual for teachers, parents and other professionals*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

- O'Neil, J. M. (1981), Patterns of gender role conflict and strain: Sexism and fear of femininity in men's lives. *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 60, 203-210
- Onyskiw, J. E. & Hayduk, L. A. (2001). Processes underlying children's adjustment in families characterized by physical aggression. *Family Relations*, 50, 376-385.
- Orpinas, P., & Kelder, S. (1995). *Students for peace project*. Second student evaluation. Houston, TX: University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, School of Public Health.
- Osler, A. (2006), Excluded girls: Interpersonal, institutional and structural violence in schooling, *Gender and Education*, 18(6), 571-89.
- Parsons, L. (2005). *Bullied teacher, bullied student. How to recognize the bullying culture in your school and what to do about it*. Canada; Pembroke Publishers.
- PBS Kids (2002). *Bullies: What is bullying? In it's my life*. Retrieved April 2, 2003 from [http://pbskids.org/itsmylife/friends/bullies/print\\_article1.html](http://pbskids.org/itsmylife/friends/bullies/print_article1.html).
- Pearce, J. (1991). What can be done about the bully? In: M. Elliot (Ed). *Bullying*, (pp. 70-89). Essex: Longman.
- Pellegrini, A. D. (2002). Bullying, victimization and sexual harassment during the transition to middle school. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(3), 151-163.
- Pellegrini, A. D.. & Bartini, M. (2000). A longitudinal study of bullying, victimization, and peer affiliation during the transition from primary school to middle school. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37, 699-725.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
- Pepler, D. J., & Craig, W. M. (1995). A peek behind the fence. Naturalistic observations of aggressive children with remote audiovisual recording. *Developmental Psychology, 31*, 548-553.
- Pepler, D., Craig, W. M., & O'Connell, P. (1999). Understanding bullying from a dynamic systems perspective, In A. Slater & D. Muir (Eds.), *The blackwell reader in developmental psychology* (pp. 440-451) Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishers.
- Perry, D., Kusel, D., & Perry, L. (1988). Victims of peer aggression. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 807-814.
- Piaget, J. (1965). *The moral judgement of the child*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner & Co.
- Piaget, J. (1932). *The moral judgement of the child*. London: Free Press.
- Piskin, M. (2003). School bullying: Definition, types, related factors, and strategies to prevent bullying problems. *Educational Sciences Theory and Practice, 2*, 555-562.
- Pollack, W. S. (1998). *Real boys: Rescuing our sons from the myths of boyhood*. New York: Henry Holt.
- Population Reference Bureau (2009). *Population Data Sheet, 2009*. World Data Sheet (PRB, 2009)
- Poynting, S., & Donaldson, M. (2005). Snakes and leaders: Hegemonic masculinity in ruling-class boys' boarding school. *Men and Masculinities, 7*(4), 325-346.
- Pugh, R., & Chitiyo, M. (2011). The problem of bullying in schools and the promise of positive behaviour supports. *Journal of Research in*

- Qing, Li (2005). Bullying, school violence and more: A research model. Model for the study of bullying and other school violence. *Journal of School Violence*, 6, 89–112.
- Quine, L. (2001). Workplace bullying in nurses. *Journal of Health Psychology*, 6(1), 73-84.
- Quist, H. O. (1997) Secondary education in Ghana at dawn of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. *Profile, Problems, Prospects*.XXXIX,427.
- Randall, P. (1997). *Adult bullying, perpetrators and victims*. London: Routledge.
- Remboldt, C. (1994). *Solving violence problems in your school: Why a systematic approach is necessary*. Minneapolis, MN: Johnson Institute.
- Rest, J. R. (1986). *Moral development: Advances in research and theory*. New York: Praeger.
- Rigby, K. (1996). *Bullying in schools and what we can do about it*. London: Jessica Kingsley Publishers
- Rigby, K. (1997). What children tell us about bullying in schools. *Child Australia*,22, 28-34.
- Rigby, K. (1999). Peer victimisation at school and the health of secondary school students. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 22(2), 28–34.
- Rigby, K. (2003). Consequences of bullying in schools. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*, 48(9), 583-590.



- Rigby, K. (2005). Why do some children bully at school? The contributions of negative attitudes towards victims and the perceived expectations of friends, parents and teachers, *School Psychology International*, 26, 147–161.
- Rigby, K. (2007). *Bullying in schools and what to do about it*. Melbourne: ACER Press.
- Rigby, K. (2008). *Children and bullying. How parents and educators can reduce bullying at school*. Oxford. Blackwell Publishing.
- Rigby, K., & Bauman, S. (2007). What teachers think should be done about cases of bullying. *Professional Educator*, 6(4), 4-8.
- Rigby, K., & Slee, P. (1991). Bullying among Australian school children: Reporting behaviour and attitudes to victims. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 131(5), 615-627.
- Rigby, K., & Slee, P. T. (1993). Dimensions of interpersonal relating among Australian school children and their implications for psychological well-being. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 133(1), 33- 42.
- Rigby, K., & Thomas, E. B. (2010). *How schools counter bullying policies and procedures in selected Australian schools*. Melbourne: ACER Press.
- Rivers, I., & Smith, P. K. (1994). Types of bullying behaviour and their correlates. *Aggressive Behaviour* 20, 359–368.
- Roland, E. (2000). Bullying in school: Three national innovations in Norwegian schools in 15 years. *Aggressive Behavior*, 26, 135–143.
- Roland, E., & Isdøe, T. (2001). Aggression and bullying. *Aggressive Behavior*, 27, 446-462

- Ross, D. M. (2003). *Childhood bullying and teasing: What school personnel, other professionals and parents can do*. Alexandria, VA: American Counselling Association.
- Sagarese, M., & Giannetti, C. C. (1999). Getting to the heart of safety. *Schools in the Middle*, 9, 7-10.
- Sahin, M. (2010). Teachers' perceptions of bullying in high schools: A Turkish study. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 38(1), 127-142.
- Salin, D. (2009). Organisational responses to workplace harassment: An exploratory study. *Personnel Review*, 38(1), 26-44.
- Salivalli, C., Kaukiainen, A., & Lagerspetz, K. M. J. (1998). Aggression in the social relations of school-aged girls and boys. In P. T. Slee K. Rigby (Eds), *Children's Peer Relations* (pp. 231-247). London: Routledge.
- Salmivalli, C., Lagerspetz, K., Björkqvist, K., Österman, K., & Kaukiainen, A. (1996). Bullying as a group process: Participant roles and their relations to social status within the group. *Aggressive Behavior*, 22, 1-15.
- Salmon, G., Jones, A. & Smith D. M. (1998). Bullying in school: Self-reported anxiety and self-esteem in secondary school children. *British Medical Journal*, 317, 924-925.
- Sarantakos, S. (1998). *Social research*. Houndmills, London: Macmillan Press.
- Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. E. (1997). The early socialization of aggressive victims of bullying. *Child Development*, 68, 665-675.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>
- Schwartz, D., Farver, J.M., Chang, L., & Lee-Shin, Y (2002). Victimization in South Korean children's peer groups. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 30, 112-125.
- Serrao, A. (2009, February 20). Brutal hazing includes allegations of sodomy, sexual abuse. *The Star*, p. 3.
- Shamos, J. (2009). But it makes you tough...doesn't it? Everyone goes, through it...right? The myths and truths behind bullying and self-esteem. *African Journal of Psychiatry*, 12(4), 319-320.
- Shellard, E. (2002). *Recognizing and preventing bullying: The informed educator series*. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.
- Shellard, E., & Turner, J.R. (2004). *Safe and secure schools*. ERS Focus on. Arlington, VA: Educational Research Service.
- Smith, P. K. (1991). The silent nightmare: Bullying and victimization in school peer groups. *The Psychologist: Bulletin of the British Psychological Society*, 4, 243-248.
- Smith, J. D., Cousins, J. B., & Stewart, R. (2005). Anti-bullying interventions in schools: Ingredients of effective programs. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 28, 739-762
- Smith, P. K., Morita, Y., Junger-Tas, J., Olweus, D., Catalano, R., & Slee, P. (1999). *The nature of school bullying: A cross-national perspective*. London: Routledge.
- Smith, P. K., & Sharp, S. (1994). *School bullying: Insights and perspectives*. London: Routledge.
- Smith, P., & Shu, S. (2000). What good schools can do about bullying: Findings from a survey in English schools after a decade of research

Sprague, J., Sugai, G., Horner, R., & Walker, H. (1999). Using office discipline referral data to evaluate school-wide discipline and violence prevention interventions. *Oregon Center for the Study of Conflict Bulletin*, 42(2), 5-18.

Stassen, B. K. (2007). Update on bullying at school: Science forgotten? *Developmental Review*, 27(1), 90-126.

Stein, N. (1995). Sexual harassment at school: The public performance of gendered violence. *Harvard Education Review*, 65, 145-162.

Sullivan, K. (2000). *The anti-bullying handbook*. Auckland, Melbourne, Oxford and New York: Oxford University Press.

Sutton, J., & Smith, P. K. (1999). Bullying as a group process: An adaptation of the participant role approach. *Aggressive Behaviour*, 25, 97-111.

Sutton, J., Smith, P. K., & Swettenham, J. (2001). It's easy, it works, and it makes me feel good – A response to Arsenio and Lemerise. *Social Development*, 10, 74-78.

Swearer, S. M. (2011). *Risk factors for and outcomes of bullying and victimization. The White House conference on bullying prevention* (pp.3-10). Retrieved July 20, 2011, from [http://www.stopbullying.gov/references/white\\_house\\_conference/white\\_house\\_conference\\_materials.pdf](http://www.stopbullying.gov/references/white_house_conference/white_house_conference_materials.pdf)

Swearer, S. M., & Doll, B. (2001). Bullying in schools: An ecological framework. *Journal of Emotional Abuse*, 2, 7-23.



- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Swearer, S. M., Espelage, D. L., Vaillancourt, T., & Hymel, S. (2010). What can be done about school bullying? Linking research to educational practice. *Educational Researcher*, 39(1), 38-47.
- Tamanini, K. (2009). *How do we stop bullying in schools?* Psych Central. Retrieved on April 7, 2014, from <http://psychcentral.com/lib/how-do-we-stop-bullying-in-schools/0002371>
- Taylor, A. I., & Buku, D. K. (2006) *Basics in guidance and counselling* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Winneba: University of Education.
- Tenenbaum, L. S., Varjas, K., Meyers, J., & Parris, L. (2011). Coping strategies and perceived effectiveness in fourth through eighth grade victims of bullying. *School Psychology International*, 32(3), 263-287.
- Thornberg, R. (2011). She's weird! – The social construction of bullying in school: A review of qualitative research. *Children and Society*, 25(1), 258-267
- Thorne, B. (1993). *Gender play: Boys and girls in school*. New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press.
- Totura, C. M., Green, A. E., Karver, M. S., & Gesten, E. L. (2009). Multiple informants in the assessment of psychological, behavioural and academic correlates of bullying and victimization in middle school. *Journal of Adolescence*, 32(2), 193-211.
- Trach, J., Hymel, S., Waterhouse, T., & Neale, K. (2010). Bystander responses to school bullying: A cross-sectional investigation of grade and sex differences. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology*, 25(1), 114-130.
- Trembl, J. N. (2001). Bullying as a social malady in contemporary Japan. *International Social Work*, 44,107-117.

- Tritt, C., & Duncan, R. (1997). <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>. The relationship between childhood bullying and young adult self-esteem and loneliness. *Journal of Humanistic Education and Development*, 36(1), 35-44.
- Trochim, M. K., & Williams, K. (2006) *The research methods knowledge base*, (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Cincinnati OH, Atomic Dog Publishing.
- Trolley, B. C., & Hanel, C. (2010). *Cyber kids, cyber bullying, cyber balance*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Turkel, A. R. (2007). Sugar and spice and puppy dog's tails: The psychodynamics of bullying. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysts and Dynamic Psychiatry*, 35(2), 243-258.
- Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P., Sacco, F. C., & Brethour, J. R. (2006). Teachers who bully students: A hidden trauma. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 52(3), 187-198.
- Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P., & Sacco, F. C. (2010). The etiological cast to the role of the bystander in the social architecture of bullying and violence in schools and communities. In S. R. Jimerson, S. M. Swearer, D. L. Espelage (Eds.), *Handbook of bullying in schools: An international perspective* (pp. 73-86). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Tyler, K. (2002). A comparison of the no blame approach to bullying and the ecosystem approach to changing problematic behaviour in schools. *The Journal for Pastoral Care and Personal-Social Education*, 16(1), 26-32.
- Unnever, J. D., & Cornell, D. G. (2003). The culture of bullying in middle schools. *Journal of School Violence*, 2(2), 5-27.

- © University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
Vaillancourt, T., Britain, H., Bennett, L., Arnocky, S., McDougall, P., Hymel, S., Cunningham, L. (2010). Places to avoid: Populational-based study of students' reports of unsafe and high bullying areas at school. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 25*(1), 40-54.
- Vanderbilt, D., & Augustyn, M. (2010). The effects of bullying. *Paediatrics and Child Health, 20*(7), 315-320.
- Vossekuil, B., Fein, R., Reddy, M., Borum, R., & Modzeleski, W. (2002). *The final report and findings of the safe school initiative: Implications for the prevention of school attacks in the United States*. Washington, DC: United States Secret Service and United States Department of Education.
- Wei, H., & Jonson-Reid, M. (2011). Friends can hurt you: Examining the coexistence of friendship and bullying among early adolescents. *School Psychology International, 32*(3), 244-262.
- Weinhold, B. K., & Weinhold, J. B. (1998). Conflict resolution: The partnership way in schools. *Counseling and Human Development, 30* (7), 1-2.
- Whitney, I., & Smith, P. (1993). A survey of the nature and extent of bullying in junior/middle and secondary schools. *Educational Research, 35*, 3-25.
- Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2009). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Yang, S., Kim, J., Kim, S., Shin, I., & Yoon, J. (2006). Bullying and victimization behaviors in boys and girls at South Korea primary

- Yates, C., & Smith, P.K. (1989). Bullying in two English comprehensive schools. In: E. Munthe, & E. Roland, (Eds.), *Bullying- An international perspective* (pp.22-34). London: David Fulton Publishers.
- Ybarra, M. L., & Mitchell, K. J. (2004). Online aggressor/targets, aggressors and targets: A comparison of associated youth characteristics. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 45(7), 1308-1316.
- Yegeedis, B. L., & Weinback, R. W. (2009). *Research methods for social workers*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Yoon, J., Bauman, S., Choi, T., & Hutchinson, A. S. (2011). How South Korean teachers handle an incident of school bullying. *School Psychology International*, 32(3), 312-329.
- Ziegler, S., & Pepler, D. (1993). Bullying at school: Pervasive and persistent. *Orbit*, 24(1), 29-31.
- Ziegler, S., & Rosenstein-Manner, M. (1991). *Bullying at school: Toronto in an international context*. Toronto: Toronto Board of Education, Research Services.
- Zindi, F. (1994). Bullying at boarding school: A Zimbabwe study. *Research in Education*, 51, 23-32.
- Zunker, V. G. (1994) *Career counselling applied concepts of life planning*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Co.



**APPENDIX A**

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR BULLIES**

**SECTION A**

1. School.....
2. Location/Town.....
3. Type.....
4. Class  
SHS2 ( )  
SHS3 ( )
5. Age.....

**SECTION B**

6. Have you been bullied in the school before?  
Yes ( )  
No ( )
7. Have you taken part in bullying at the school before?  
Yes ( )  
No ( )
8. If Yes, why do you take part in bullying? .....
9. How often have you bullied students?  
It has happened once or twice ( )  
2 -3 times a month ( )  
Once a week ( )  
Several times a week ( )  
Many times ( )

10. What type of bullying was it? (As many as applicable)

- Physical ( )
- Social ( )
- Verbal ( )
- Cyber ( )
- Psychological ( )

11. What time of the day do you usually bullied? (As many as applicable)

- Early morning ( )
- Classes hours ( )
- Meals time ( )
- Bed time ( )
- Bathing time ( )
- After classes ( )

12. Where do you usually bully? (As many as applicable)

- Classroom ( )
- Dining Hall ( )
- Playground ( )
- Dormitory ( )
- Washroom ( )
- Assembly ( )
- Others .....

13. How are you seen as a bully? (As many as applicable)

- Confident bully ( )
- Social bully ( )
- Hyperactive bully ( )

Bullied bully ( )

Gang of bullies ( )

Fully armed bully ( )

14. Within the school, do you hear people speaking against bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

15. Have you ever been reported to the school authorities?

Yes ( )

No ( )

16. If Yes, What happened then? (As many as applicable)

Something was done to stop me from bullying ( )

Something was done but it didn't stop me from bullying ( )

Something was done but it made me bully more ( )

Nothing was done but I stopped bullying anyway ( )

Nothing was done to me and I also carried on ( )

17. Who do the victims report bullies to? (As many as applicable).

Tell no one ( )

Counsellor ( )

A friend ( )

An older boy ( )

Parent(s) ( )

Siblings ( )

Teacher(s) ( )

House staff ( )

School Authorities ( )

18. Are there rules in the school to stop bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

19. What are the factors that promote bullying in your school? (As many as you can name).....

20. Within the school do you speak about bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

21. In which class(es) are the students you bully? (As many as applicable)

In my class ( )

In a different class but the same year ( )

Upper class ( )

Lower class ( )

22. What do you understand by masculinity?

.....  
.....

23. What are the desirable masculine qualities for you to take on as a male?

.....  
.....

24. Do you see bullying as something helping males to be strong in life?

Yes ( )

No ( )

25. Do you see bullying as a transition from one stage to another in school?



Yes ( )

No ( )

26. How do you see those you bully? ( As many as applicable)

As a man ( )

As a woman ( )

As a man-woman ( )

Too timid ( )

Too strong ( )

Too proud ( )

Others.....

27. Has your bullying affected anybody?

Yes ( )

No ( )

28. If Yes, Then in what way?

.....  
.....

29. Has your bullying affected your life in anyway?

Yes ( )

No ( )

30. If Yes, how has it affected you? .....

.....  
.....

31. Has anybody in the school talked to you about your bullying behaviour?

Yes ( )

No ( )

32. Do you think your school is serious about stopping bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

33. Would you want to stop bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

34. Is there any trained personnel to help both bullies and victims at school?

Yes ( )

No ( )

35. If Yes who are they? .....

.....

36. What do you think your school can do to stop bullying?

.....

.....

37. Is there anything else you want to tell me about bullying?

.....

.....



Verbal ( ) <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>

Cyber ( )

Psychological ( )

9. What time were you usually bullied? (As many as applicable)

Early morning ( )

Classes hours ( )

Meals time ( )

Bed time ( )

Bathing time ( )

After classes ( )

Others ( )

10. Where did the bullying happen? (As many as applicable)

Classroom ( )

Dining Hall ( )

Playground ( )

Dormitory ( )

Washroom ( )

Assembly ( )

Others .....

11. How are you seen as a victim? (As many as applicable)

Innocent victim ( )

Passive victim ( )

Provocative victim ( )

Vicarious victim ( )

12. Who did you tell that you have been bullied? (As many as applicable).



- Told no one ( )
- Counsellor ( )
- A friend ( )
- An older boy ( )
- My parent(s) ( )
- My siblings ( )
- My teachers ( )
- House staff ( )
- Administration ( )

Others .....

13. What happened then? (you can tick more than one box)
- Something was done that stopped the bullying ( )
  - Something was done but it didn't stop the bullying ( )
  - Something was done but it made the bullying worse ( )
  - Nothing was done but the bullying stopped anyway ( )
  - Nothing was done and the bullying carried on ( )

14. Are there rules in the school against bullying?
- Yes ( )
  - No ( )

15. If Yes, why does bullying still go on? .....

16. What are the factors that promote bullying in your school? (As many as you can list.) .....

17. Within the school do you speak about bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

18. Why were you bullied? .....

.....

19. In which class(es) is the student or students who bully you? ( As many as applicable)

In my class ( )

In a different class but the same year ( )

A higher class ( )

A junior class ( )

20. What is your understanding of masculinity? .....

.....

21. What are the desirable masculine qualities for you to take on as a male?

.....

.....

22. Are you bullied because they want you to behave as a man?

Yes ( )

No ( )

Don't know ( )

23. Has anybody complained about your features as a male?

Yes ( )

No ( )

24. How do people see you? ( As many as applicable)

As a male ( )

As a female ( )

Too timid ( )

Too proud ( )

Others.....

25. How did you feel when you were bullied? ( As many as applicable)

Sad ( )

Lonely ( )

Angry ( )

Afraid ( )

Humiliated ( )

26. Do you know what you are to do when you are bullied?

Yes ( )

No ( )

27. How has the bullying affected you in the school?

.....  
.....

28. Looking at the future what do you think? ( As many as applicable)

I would like to stop schooling ( )

Sooner or later I will be able to defend myself ( )

May be someone will try to help me ( )

I would like to become the strongest ( )

I will also bully one day ( )

29. Do you think your school is serious about bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

30. Is there any trained personnel to help both bullies and victims at school?

Yes ( )

No ( )

31. What do you think your school can do to stop bullying?

.....  
.....

32. Please mention three adjectives to describe the student who acts as a bully.

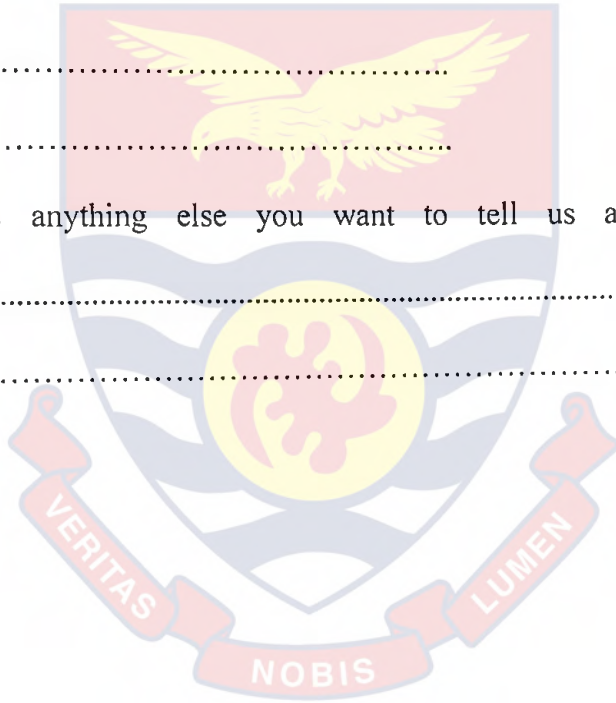
a).....

b).....

c).....

33. Is there anything else you want to tell us about bullying?

.....  
.....





## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR BYSTANDERS

### SECTION A

1. School.....
2. Location/Town.....
3. Type.....
4. Class  
SHS2 ( )  
SHS3 ( )
5. Age.....

### SECTION B

6. Have you observed any bullying in the school before ?  
Yes ( )  
No ( )
7. If No, when was the last time you observed bullying in the school?  
.....  
.....
8. If Yes, how many times did you observe the bullying?  
.....  
.....
9. What type of bullying did you observe? (As many as applicable)  
Physical ( )  
Social ( )  
Verbal ( )

Cyber ( )

Psychological ( )

10. What time of the day does bullying normally occur? (As many as applicable)

Early morning ( )

Classes hours ( )

Meals time ( )

Bed time ( )

Bathing time ( )

After classes ( )

Other ( )

11. Where does the bullying usually take place? (As many as applicable)

Classroom ( )

Dining Hall ( )

Playground ( )

Dormitory ( )

Washroom ( )

Assembly ( )

Others .....

12. Who did you tell when you saw students being bullied? (As many as applicable)

Counsellor ( )

A friend ( )

An older boy ( )

Parent(s) ( )

Siblings

Teachers

( )

House staff

( )

School Authority

( )

Others .....

13. What happened then? (You can tick more than one box)

Something was done that stopped the bullying ( )

Something was done but it didn't stop the bullying ( )

Something was done but it made the bullying worse ( )

Nothing was done but the bullying stopped anyway ( )

Nothing was done and the bullying carried on ( )

14. In which class(es) are the students who bully? (As many as applicable)

The bully's class ( )

In a different class but the same year ( )

Upper class ( )

Lower class ( )

15. In which class(es) are the students who are bullied? (As many as applicable)

The bully's class ( )

In a different class but the same year ( )

Upper class ( )

Lower class ( )

16. What brings about bullying in the school?

.....  
.....

17. Within the school, do you hear people speaking against bullying?  
© University of Cape Coast <https://ucc.edu.gh/rml/ji>

Yes ( )

No ( )

18. What do you understand by masculinity? .....

.....

19. Do you see bullying as something helping people to be strong in life?

Yes ( )

No ( )

20. Do you see bullying as a transition from one stage to another in school?

Yes ( )

No ( )

21. How do you see the victims?

As a man ( )

As a woman ( )

As a man-woman ( )

Too timid ( )

Too arrogant ( )

Too troublesome ( )

22. Do victims usually report their cases?

Yes ( )

No ( )

23. If Yes, who do they report to? (As many as applicable)

Counsellor ( )

A friend ( )

An older boy ( )



Parent(s) ( )

Siblings ( )

Teachers ( )

House staff ( )

Administration ( )

Others .....

24. If No, why do victims not report these cases? .....

.....

25. How do you usually react if you see that a student is being bullied? (As many as applicable)

I take part in the bullying ( )

I do not do anything, I think it is okay ( )

I just watch what goes on ( )

I do not do anything but not happy ( )

I try to assist the victim ( )

26. How do you feel when someone is being bullied? (As many as applicable)

Sad ( )

Lonely ( )

Angry ( )

Afraid ( )

Humiliated ( )

Others.....

27. How has bullying affected your life in school? .....

.....

28. How has bullying affected the life of those who are bullied?

.....  
.....

29. How has bullying affected the life of bullies? .....

.....

30. What are the factors that promote bullying in your school? (As many as you can name) .....

.....

31. Are there rules in the school against bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

32. If Yes, why does bullying still go on? .....

.....

33. Do you think your school is serious about bullying?

Yes ( )

No ( )

34. Do you want bullying to be stopped in your school?

Yes ( )

No ( )

35. Is there any trained personnel to help both bullies and victims in your

school?

Yes ( )

No ( )

© University of Cape Coast <https://ir.ucc.edu.gh/xmlui>  
36. What do you think your school can do to stop bullying? .....

.....

37. Is there anything else you want to tell me about bullying? .....

.....

.....

