CHILDREN'S SOCIAL REASONING IN THE CONTEXT OF BULLY VICTIMIZATION

by

MALVIN PORTER, JR.

A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
Department of Educational Studies in Psychology,
Research Methodology, and Counseling
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2010

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to evaluate a new measure of children's social reasoning about bully victimization, the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)*. The *CBVS* attempts to assess what children think are appropriate behavioral responses to hypothetical scenarios about being victimized by bullies and about witnessing bully victimization. The study also examined how children explain or justify their actions. Participants in the study included children enrolled in the 5th grade and their teachers from schools in the southeast.

This study examined how the quality of children's Action Choices in hypothetical stories about bully victimization relates to their Justification Choices. This study includes the influence of demographic variables such as gender, intellectual ability, bully/victim group membership, story character role, and story form of victimization on children's Action and Justification Choices. Teacher reports of children's behavior were compared with children's self-reports of Action and Justification choices.

Significant relationships were found between children's Actions Choices and Justification Choices. However, teacher reports of children's social behavior with peers did not significantly relate to children's self reports of how they would respond to hypothetical bully victimization scenarios. Additionally, child demographic variables did not reflect significant variation between teacher groupings for children's intellectual ability and bully/victim group membership. However, there were significant differences in children's Action Choices and Justification Choices based on gender, story character role and story form of victimization.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

CBVS	Children's Bully/Victim Survey
CBS	Child Behavior Scale
CSBS	Children's Social Behavior Scale
CSEQ	Children's Social Experience Questionnaire
CI	Confidence Interval
NEA	National Education Association
M	Mean (arithmetic average)
SD	Standard Deviation
f	Frequency
N	Total Number in Population Sample
n	Number of Sample Subset
p	Probability (Significance Value)
α	Chronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient
X^2	Pearson Chi-Square
#	Number

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation would not have been possible without the guidance of and expertise of many others. I would like to thank Mary Elizabeth Curtner-Smith, as committee chairperson, for affirming so many positive parenting and family values. I would also like to express my gratitude to my fellow doctoral colleagues, Patricia Lloyd and Ingie Givens, for your perpetual encouragement and support. Special thanks to my friend, Jimmy Mixson, for your genuine support and kindness, and for life conversations beyond the dissertation. To Carmen Hudson, for courage to "be" and endure with dignity. I would be remiss if I did not thank Barbara Rountree, who encouraged me to continue my education at The University of Alabama and for your tireless encouragement and life-long friendship.

And to the committee, your input, creativity, and honesty are truly appreciated. I thank you all for being able to speak as professor, colleague, and friend simultaneously. I am indebted to Steve Thoma, whose door was always open and who felt that this work had something "good" to offer beyond completing the degree. It was a privilege working with each of you.

I am especially grateful for the heart-felt support of my children, Brinkley, Lars and Wesley. Without their love, patience, and encouragement this would not have been possible. I am indebted to my "sister under the skin," Lynn Lindsay, for her generosity of spirit and kindness during good times as well as difficulty times. I am truly blessed with an amazing family.

CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

Bully victimization is one of the most common forms of youth violence. In recent years, bully victimization has received widespread attention from researchers interested in how bully victimization affects children (Conners-Burrow, Johnson, Whiteside-Mansell, McKelvey, & Gargus, 2009; Flashpohler, Elfstrom, Vanderzee, Sink, & Birchmeier, 2009). Research has shown that bullying is a major social problem for school-aged children (Olweus, 2003). Bully victimization is a repeated behavior (e.g., physical or relational) that occurs over time in a relationship characterized by an imbalance of power (Huitsing, Veenstra, & Wallien, 2007; Monks & Smith, 2006; Olweus, 1994; Veenstra et al., 2007). Less is known about children's bullying and victimization that takes place in the United States than in other countries because much of the existing research has been conducted in Europe, Australia, and Canada (Espelage & Swearer, 2004). However, we know that bully/victim problems are prevalent in the United States. A study of 15,686 students in grades 6 through 10 in public and private schools throughout the United States estimated that 30 percent of American students are involved in bully/victim problems as either a bully, a victim, or both (T. Nansel et al., 2001a).

The National Education Association (NEA) (2008) argues that in order to provide quality education for America's children, bullying and victimization can no longer be treated lightly or regarded as a normal growing-up experience. Bullying has only harmful effects for the victim, the bully, and the bystander who witnesses others being victimized by bullies. The NEA (2008)

claims that many children are robbed of daily learning opportunities because they are bullied and victimized.

Effects of Bullying

Bully victimization has been linked to many negative consequences for children's physical health and mental health (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009). Engagement in bullying has been shown to have adverse effects on perpetrators and victims of bullying such as diminished well-being (e.g., quality of life/life satisfaction) in a sample of elementary and middle school children (Flashpohler et al., 2009). Students who bully and/or who are victimized by bullies were found to experience reduced life satisfaction and support from peers and teachers compared to bystanders (that is, children who are neither victims nor perpetrators of bullying). It is important to explore the psychosocial functioning of children involved in bully/victim problems, and the factors that protect children from negative outcomes (Flashpohler et al., 2009).

Children who are victimized by peers have been shown to exhibit more internalizing behaviors, such as being quiet or withdrawn, depressed, and anxious (Craig, 1998; Schwartz et al., 1998). Victims are less socially accepted by their peers than children in the other bully groups and are more isolated than other children (Rigby, 2003; Veenstra et al., 2005). In particular, victims are rejected by peers (Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Kaukiainen, 1996), have few friends, and are lonely and unhappy at school (T. Nansel et al., 2001a).

Several studies have documented the relationship between involvement in bullying and mental health problems, specifically depression (Austin & Joseph, 1996; Craig, 1998; Espelage & Swearer, 2003). A meta-analysis of twenty years of cross-sectional studies demonstrates an association between peer victimization and psychosocial maladjustment, including depression,

anxiety, loneliness, and self-worth (Hawker & Boulton, 2000). The largest effect sizes were for depression among victims of bullying. Results also suggest, however, that bullies may have elevated rates of depression compared to children who are not involved in bully/victim problems.

Children who are both a bully and a victim may constitute the most at-risk group for depressive symptoms with female bully-victims reporting the most symptoms (Andreou, 2001; Schwartz, 2000). Bully-victims, also known as aggressive victims, are more impulsive and reactive in their dominant and aggressive actions. They are more frequently physically aggressive with peers and tend to be more reactive rather than goal-oriented in their aggression than children in the pure bully group (Schwartz, Farver, Chang, & Lee-Shin, 2002; Unnever, 2005). Bully-victims are reported to be more disliked by their peers (Veenstra et al., 2005) and report having fewer friends than children in the pure bully group (Unnever, 2005). Bully-victims also differ from pure victims in that they are more likely to be physically victimized (Unnever, 2005). Olweus (2001) reported that some teachers and children believe that bully-victims deserve the bullying that they receive from their peers. Some studies have even demonstrated that teachers are less likely to intervene when bully-victims are being victimized (Kochenderfer Ladd & Pelletier, 2008; Unnever & Cornell, 2003).

One important way that bullies and victims may differ from children not involved in bullying is in the amount of social support they seek and receive (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009). Studies have found that victims and bully-victims generally report less social support than bullies or comparison youth (Demaray & Malecki, 2003; Malecki & Demaray, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

Victims often are at a loss for what to do in response to being victimized by bullies. The advice literature suggests that victimized children can address bullies assertively to stop the

unwanted aggression, refrain from retaliating against bullies, seek peer support, and inform adults who can intervene when necessary (Rigby, 2002a). Bystanders who witness bullying are advised to weigh their personal responsibility and safety when deciding to intervene on behalf of the victim (Latane` & Darley, 1970). When personal safety is not a consideration, bystanders are advised to provide peer social support by directly confronting the bullies. When personal safety is a consideration, bystanders are advised to assist victims indirectly by telling an authority figure (Harris, 2003). Although children receive this advice about how to respond to bully victimization, little is known about how children reason about the best action to take when being victimized or when witnessing bully victimization. Some studies examine what children think about doing harm, but few examine how children justify their prosocial or aggressive behavioral response when confronted personally with bully victimization.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate a new measure of children's social reasoning about bully victimization, the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)*. The *CBVS* attempts to assess what children think is an appropriate behavioral response or Action Choice to hypothetical scenarios about being victimized by bullies and about witnessing bully victimization, as well as how children attempt to explain or justify their Action Choices. The *CBVS* assesses behavioral responses by having children choose an action such as an aggressive or a prosocial behavior in response to victimization. Next, children choose a justification that explains their Action Choices. Findings from this study have implications for developing effective interventions aimed at reducing rates of bully victimization among children in elementary schools.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided this study.

1. What are the psychometric properties of the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)*?
2. Does children's Intellectual Ability relate to the frequency of children's *CBVS* Justification Choices (e.g., Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution) and the frequency of their *CBVS* Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive)?
    a. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no dependency between intellectual ability and Justification Choices. (In other words, varying the level of intellectual ability won't have an effect on the action choice).
    b. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no dependency between intellectual ability and Justification Choices.
3. Are there significant differences in the proportion of children's responses on the *CBVS* Justification Choice subscales (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair) and *CBVS* Action Choice subscales (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive)?
    a. *Null Hypotheses:* Of the children who make Prosocial/Care Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportion of those who make Prosocial Action Choices and those who make Aggressive Action Choices.
    b. *Null Hypotheses:* Of the children who make Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportion of those who make Aggressive Action Choices and those who make Prosocial Action Choices.

c. *Null Hypotheses:* Of the children who make Justice/Fair Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportion of those who make Prosocial Action Choices and those who make Aggressive Action Choices.

4. Does the difference in proportions of teacher reports of children's social behavior with peers as assessed by the Prosocial with Peers subscale and the Aggressive Behavior with Peers subscale of the *Child Behavior Scale* (*CBS*, Ladd & Profilet, 1996) relate children's *CBVS* Action Choices that are coded as either Prosocial or Aggressive?

   a. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Prosocial with Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive).

   b. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Aggressive with Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive).

5. Does the difference in proportions of teacher reports of children's social behavior with peers as assessed by the Prosocial with Peers subscale and the Aggressive Behavior with Peers subscale of the *Child Behavior Scale* (*CBS*, Ladd & Profilet, 1996) relate children's *CBVS* Justification Choices that are coded as either Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution?

   a. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Prosocial with Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair).

b. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Aggressive With Peers subscale of the *CBS and* children's Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair).

6. Does children's Gender, Story Character Role (e.g., Bystander, Victim), Story Bully Form (e.g., Physical, Relational), and Bully/Victim Group Membership (e.g., Nonbully/Nonvictim, Victim, Bully, Bully/Victim,) relate to the frequency of children's *CBVS* Justification Choices (e.g., Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution) and the frequency of their *CBVS* Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive)?

   a. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of males and females who choose Prosocial/Care Justifications, who choose Aggression/Noncare Justifications, and who choose Justice/Fair Justifications.

   b. *Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of males and females who choose Prosocial Actions and who choose Aggressive Actions.

   c. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of Prosocial/Care Justification Choices, Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices, and Justice/Fair Justification Choices among children across different Victim and Bystander Story Character Roles.

d. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of Prosocial Action Choices and Aggressive Action Choices among children across different Bystander and Victim Story Character Roles.

e. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of Prosocial/Care Justification Choices, Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices, and Justice/Fair Justification Choices among children across different Physical and Relational Story Forms of Bullying.

f. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no difference between the proportions of Prosocial Action Choices and Aggressive Action Choices among children across different Physical and Relational Story Forms of Bullying.

g. *Null Hypotheses:* There is no dependency between Bully/Victim group membership and children's Action Choices or Justification Choices. (In other words, varying the category of group membership won't have an effect on the action choice or justification choice).

Significance of the Study

We know little about what children think is the best way to respond to being victimized or to witnessing a peer being victimized. In addition, we know nothing about why children behave in inconsistent ways as a response to being victimized by bullies. Thus, this study is important because it examines the relationship between children's social reasoning and what they say they might do when they are victimized by bullies or when they witness others being victimized by bullies. This study provides evidence that the *CBVS* measure has content and predictive validity, and that it is able to assess the justifications children give for their preferred actions taken in response to bully victimization or to witnessing victimization of a peer. This

information will be helpful to practitioners who develop and implement effective bully prevention and intervention programs in elementary schools because children's reasoning informs intervention practitioners about how children are processing information about peer victimization and provide a basis for effective bully prevention.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations associated with this study including the following:

1. The sample in this study was a convenience sample of 158 children and 16 teachers who were recruited through public and private elementary schools in a metropolitan area in the Southern region of the United States;

2. The sample was limited to children who were enrolled in the fifth grade and resided in a rural and metropolitan area in the southern region of the United States; and

3. Fifth-grade children do not always reason or behave consistently with social norms and values in the context of stress associated with victimization.

Definitions of Terms

Action Choices. Behavior that a child says that he or she would do if he or she experienced bullying as a victim or as a bystander who witnessed an act of bullying. Action Choices are classified as either Prosocial or Aggressive.

Prosocial Action Choices. Prosocial behavior in response to either being victimized or to witnessing another person being victimized by bullies. It includes any behavior that represents helpful, empathic, or caring concern for another person.

Aggressive Action Choices. Aggressive behavior in response to either being victimized or to witnessing another person being victimized by bullies. It includes include any behavior that causes either physical, emotional, or relational harm to another person.

Physical Aggression. Aggression that includes hitting, pushing, or threatening physical harm toward others.

Physical Victimization. Being the recipient of physical aggression such as hitting, pushing, and verbal threats of physical harm (Berkowitz, 1993a; Block, 1983; Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005a; Parke & Slaby, 1983).

Relational Aggression. Harming others by causing damage to peer relationships or damage to social status within the peer group, such as social humiliation or social exclusion (Crick, Bigbee, & Howes, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995).

Relational Victimization. Being directly or indirectly excluded from a group or group activity, or being the target of another person's behavior whose intent is to damage one's peer relationships or social status within the peer group (e.g., being ignored or excluded from play groups; being told "I don't like you" (because the victim does not comply with the bully's commands); being told, "You won't be my friend anymore if you don't (comply with the bully's commands) (Crick et al., 2001b; Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005a).

Justification Choices. Reasons or explanations that children use to justify Action Choices.

Prosocial/Care Justifications. An explanation for Action Choices based on empathy or caring for the welfare of others.

Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. An explanation that satisfies the desire to impose commensurate suffering and punishment on offenders and individual perpetrators to restore a moral balance (just desert) (David & Choi, 2009; Gromet & Darley, 2009; Percival & Haviland, 1978; Wenzel & Thielmann, 2006).

Justice/Fair Justifications. An explanation for Action Choices based on fairness or concern for rules and social norms.

Bully. A child who engages in dominant, deliberate and either goal-oriented aggression or reactive aggression, or both (Schwartz et al., 2002; Unnever, 2005).

Victim. A child who is repeatedly targeted for bully victimization. This child is the recipient of a bully's dominant, deliberate goal-oriented aggression and/or a bully/victim's reactive aggression.

Bully/Victim. Children who are both a bully and a victim. Bully/Victims tend to be impulsive and reactive in their aggression rather than goal-oriented (Schwartz et al., 2002; Unnever, 2005).

Nonbully/Nonvictim. Children who are neither a bully nor a victim. Nonbully/Nonvictims are often, but not always, bystanders who witness acts of bully victimization, but are not involved as active participants (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009).

Organization of the Study

This manuscript is organized as a dissertation document with five chapters. Chapter I introduces the research problem, poses the research questions and hypotheses, and lists the assumptions, limitations, and definitions of terms for the study. Chapter II reviews and synthesizes the relevant literature, first with an overview of the research findings on bully victimization as a social problem. Next, social cognitive theory, social information processing theory, and social and moral domain theory are reviewed as a broad foundation for understanding children's social reasoning about behavior as it relates to their acquisition of social knowledge, development of social skills, interpretation of social information, and the application of social knowledge to contextualized social situations such as bully victimization.

Chapter III describes the research methods and procedures used in the study and a detailed description on the development of the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey* (*CBVS*). Chapter IV reports the results of data analyses aimed at demonstrating the psychometric properties and the predictive validity of the *CBVS*. Chapter V is an interpretation of the results and a discussion of the findings in light of existing research. In addition, Chapter V includes recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II:

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter II overviews two separate bodies of research literature: research on children's bullying and victimization (also called peer aggression) and research on children's social reasoning that link children' peer aggression to social reasoning. This literature review begins by with an overview of peer aggression and antisocial behavior within a broad array of social antecedents and functions, which includes behavior that harms or injures another person or is intended to inflict physical or mental harm on another person. Next, social theories are examined as a broad foundation for understanding children's actions and justifications about bullying and victimization as they relate to children's social knowledge, reasoning, and behavior. It is important to consider the ways in which children acquire social knowledge, how they develop social skills, how they reason about and interpret social information, and how they apply social knowledge to specific social situations such as bullying and victimization.

Research on Children's Bullying and Victimization

Within the United States, the National Education Association's (NEA) National Bullying Awareness Campaign asserts that bullying is a frightening daily experience for many American school children (NEA, 2008).

What is Bullying?

There is wide agreement among investigators for characterizing bullying or victimizing as behavior (a) in which one or more children are engaged with the intention of inflicting

physical hurt and/or psychological distress on one or more other children; (b) that is systematically repeated over time; and (c) that occurs within a relationship or a network of relationships in which there is a physical or psychological imbalance of power that favors the bully and makes it difficult for the victim to defend himself or herself (Administration, 2004a; Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Goodman, 2000; Johnston, 2003; Olweus, 1978, 1993, 2003; Rigby, 2002; Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, Kaistaniemi, & Lagerspetz, 1999; Slee, 1995; Telcom & Police, 2004).

Overt bullying behavior may be verbal (e.g., name-calling, hurtful words, making mean faces or gestures, and threats) or physical (e.g., hitting, kicking). Covert bullying may be relational humiliation (e.g., spreading rumors, gossip) or social exclusion (e.g., shunning or excluding someone from a group). Olweus (2003) found that much bullying is proactive aggression (i.e., aggressive behavior that usually occurs without apparent provocation or threat from the victim), which may stem from the bully's desire for social dominance.

Bullying differs from typical peer conflict in that typical peer conflict does not insist on getting a particular way. In typical peer conflict, children give reasons for disagreeing, offer apologies when appropriate, and seek win-win solutions to conflict. Additionally, peers bargain and negotiate in order to meet each child's needs, avoid or redirect emotionally charged topics of discussion, and walk away from a dispute without continued conflict.

Bullying is further defined as a social process that rarely involves a simple dyadic interaction between a child who is bullying and a child who is being bullied (Flashpohler et al., 2009; Veenstra et al., 2007). Olweus (2001) argues that children perform various roles associated with bullying behaviors. In addition to the roles of bully and victim, children act as followers of the bully by joining in on the bullying, supporters or onlookers of the bullying who are not

actively involved, or as defenders of the victims who actively try to stop the bullying or help the victim (Salmivalli et al., 1996). Recent research has focused on the roles that children play in bully victimization (Salmivalli et al., 1996; Sutton & Smith, 1999).

Observational research supports the notion that bullying functions as a group process. Some studies show that peers are present in up to 88 percent of bullying incidents on school playgrounds (Hawkins, Pepler, & Craig, 2001) and that children spend on average about 54 percent of their time reinforcing bullies by watching passively as bully victimization occurs (O'Connell, Pepler, & Craig, 1999). Additionally, when children who stand by passively watching peers actively engaged in bully victimization, they contribute to the increase sense of humiliation and social isolation experienced by victims (Hazler & Denham, 2002).

Prevalence of Bullying and Victimization

In the 1980s, approximately 15 percent of European international children ages 8-16 were involved in bully/victim problems with some regularity—as either bullies, victims, or both bully and victim (Olweus, 1993). Approximately 9 percent of all children were victims, and 6-7 percent bullied other children regularly. In 2001, researchers found that the percentage of victimized European children had increased from 9 percent in 1983 to approximately 14 percent in 2001, and the number of European children who were involved (as bullies, victims, or bully/victims) in frequent and serious bullying problems (e.g., occurring at least once a week) had increased from 15 percent in 1983 to approximately 25 percent in 2001 (Olweus, 2002).

In the United States, researchers report that bullying is a serious, pervasive problem for school children. In 2003, the National Educational Association (NEA) identified bullying as a major concern in U.S. schools, with incidence rates of 80 percent or more ranging from kindergarten through high school (NEA, 2003). Bullying appears to be a persistent problem in

schools. In particular, surveys of children enrolled in the 3rd through 8th grades in 14 Massachusetts schools found that nearly half who had been frequently bullied reported that the bullying had lasted six months or longer (Mullin-Rindler, 2003). Other studies found that some groups of children are at greater risk for being bullied than other groups (Garrett, 2003; Harris, 2003). Specifically, 33 percent of mainstreamed children with special needs were targets of bullying.

A nationwide study conducted in the United States found that approximately 24 percent of middle school children surveyed reported bullying others at least once during a school term (T. Nansel et al., 2001a). Similar studies by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (Administration, 2004b) found that between 15 and 25 percent of U.S. students are bullied with some frequency and that 15-20 percent report that they bully others with some frequency (Melton et al., 1998; T. Nansel et al., 2001b). While the overall incident of school violence has declined during the past several years, the NEA (2003) data found an overall 5 percent increase in incidents of bullying between 1999 and 2001 among U.S. children.

Bullying appears to be frequent and pervasive among young school-age children (Snyder et al., 2003). One study found that aggressive bullying (e.g., physical aggression or verbal harassment) was frequent (e.g., once every 3 to 6 minutes) among 4-year-old children who were observed on the playground (Culp et al., 2003). Another study reported that between 80 and 90 percent of children on the playground were the victims of some form of peer aggression (Snyder et al., 2003).

Bully Classifications

Research literature has defined four common classifications of children based on their involvement in bullying: bullies, victims, bully-victims (e.g., children who both bully others and

who are victimized themselves), and nonbully/nonvictims or bystanders (e.g., children who are not directly involved) (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009; Olweus, 2001a). Children who are identified as members of these four classifications exhibit general but distinct differences.

Bully (Also known as Proactive Aggressors)

Children identified as bullies demonstrate aggressive behavior that is dominant and deliberate (also termed proactive) (K. A. Dodge, Lochman, Harnish, Bates, & Petitit, 1997; Schwartz et al., 2002; Unnever, 2005). The aggression displayed by bullies reflects a controlled behavior that is oriented toward achieving instrumental outcomes (Crick & Dodge, 1996). Bullies are rarely targeted by peers (Olweus, 1978). Bullies who are proactive are not characterized by impulsive and emotionally-charged behavior of aggressive victims, but rather, use aggression as an efficacious strategy for achieving social goals and instrumental objectives (Perry, Perry, & Kennedy, 1992). Unlike children who are victimized, bullies are typically accepted by peers (Demaray & Malecki, 2003; T. Nansel et al., 2001a). Cross-national data show that bullies report having positive relationships with classmates similar to children who are not involved in bullying (T. Nansel, W., Overpeck, Saluja, & Ruan, 2004).

Victim

In this study, the term "victim" refers to children who are the targets of bully behaviors. Children who are victimized by peers exhibit more internalizing behaviors, such as being quiet or withdrawn, depressed, and anxious (Craig, 1998; Schwartz et al., 1998). Victims are less socially accepted by their peers than children in the other bully groups and are more isolated than other children (Veenstra et al., 2005). In particular, victims tend to be rejected by peers (Salmivalli et al., 1996), have few friends, and are lonely and unhappy at school (T. Nansel et al., 2001a).

Bully/Victim (Also known as Aggressive Victims or Reactive Aggressors)

While the majority of children who are chronically targeted for peer abuse (Olweus, 1978; Perry, Kusel, & Perry, 1988) inhibit passive or submissive social behavior (Schwartz, Dodge, & Coie, 1993), a proportion of children who are frequently bullied exhibit a more aggressive behavioral style (Perry et al., 1992). These children pick on others in response to being picked on themselves and are often more aggressive than bullies who are not also victims (Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Crump et al., 2001; Pellegrini, 1998; Perren & Alasker, 2006).

Bully/victims show the least positive psychosocial outcomes (T. Nansel et al., 2001a) reflecting poorly modulated anger and irritability rather than a goal-oriented social strategy (Schwartz, Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1997). Bully/victims are behaviorally distinct from children who are bullies (Toblin, Schwartza, Gorman, & Abou-ezzeddinea, 2005). Bully/victims display an impaired self-regulation and social difficulties. Toblin et al. (2005) argue that bullies exhibit aggression-related biases in social-cognitive processing, but do not suffer from other adjustment problems; whereas, passive victims display nonassertive behaviors and reduced social competence. Other studies found that bully/victims exhibit hyperactivity, anger dysregulation, and a tendency to attribute hostile intent to peers in ambiguous social situations (Camodeca, Goossens, Schuengel, & Meerum Terwogt, 2003; Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Davis Crump et al., 2001; Schwartz, 2000). Bully/victims differ from bullies in that they react more frequently with physical aggression toward peers (Schwartz et al., 2002; Unnever, 2005).

Nonbully/Nonvictim (Also known as Bystanders)

Nonbully/nonvictims are children who are neither bullied by peers nor do they bully their peers. Nonbully/nonvictims are typically bystanders who witness acts of bully victimization, but are not involved as active participants in bully victimization (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009).

Bullying often occurs within the context of an audience. Bullies may be attempting to try to impress peers into becoming friends with the bully, to demonstrate power or camaraderie, or to merely show off (Bare, 2006). Nonbully/nonvictim bystanders have a choice of how to respond to bullying. They can take the side of the bully, side with the victim, or do nothing. Other possibilities include attempting to diffuse or mediate the situation. Fights among children are often mediated by a third child, who stops the fight (Ginsburg, 1977).

Some intervention efforts have included nonbully/nonvictim bystanders because of their potential for changing the impact of the victimizing situation (Twemlow et al., 2001). One study found mixed results in that having other people around when a child is being victimized sometimes lessens the impact of bullying through mediation, other times increases its severity, or may have little consequence (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). Tedeschi and Felson (1994) found that a third party may curtail the use of threats, lies, insults, and other negative actions by a bully. Interestingly, Menesini et al. (1997) found that younger children were more likely to intervene in a bullying situation than adolescents.

Peer Victimization (Also known as Peer Aggression)

Peer victimization is an act of aggression in which children are frequently targeted for verbal and/or physical aggression, or other forms of abuse (Ladd, Kochenderfer, & Coleman, 1997). Research has found that peer victimization has negative outcomes on children's development over time (Kochenderfer Ladd & Ladd, 2001; Troup-Gordon & Ladd, 2005). Children who are regularly victimized experience higher levels of mistrust toward peers, undermined feelings of security and personal safety, peer rejection, depression, delinquency, school avoidance, and dissatisfaction with school than their nonvictimized peers (Khatri, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 2000; Kochenderfer Ladd & Ladd, 1996; Ladd et al., 1997; Neary &

Joseph, 1994; Pellegrini, Bartini, & Brooks, 1999; Perry et al., 1988). Studies have found that chronic peer exclusion and chronic peer abuse mediated the link between children's early peer rejection, later classroom engagement, and achievement (Buhs, Ladd, & Herald, 2006).

Types of Victimization

Cullertson-Sen and Crick (2005) noted that much of the work on peer victimization has focused on overt and instrumental aggression such as physical or verbal aggression that involves hitting, pushing, teasing, and being called mean names. The more prevalent types of bullying among young school-aged children appear to be overt, which includes physical, verbal and nonverbal behaviors (Putallaz et al., 2007; Slavens, 2004). *Physical bullying* involves doing physical harm to another person. Examples include hitting, biting, kicking, pushing, bumping, intimidating, threatening, throwing things, removing and hiding belongings, and damaging property (Administration, 2004a; Jackson, 2002; Rigby, 2002a; Slavens, 2004). *Verbal bullying* includes verbal abuse designed to generate strong emotional responses from victims and to diminish their self-esteem. Examples include name-calling, teasing and taunting beyond playful limits, insulting, criticizing, engaging in sarcasm, persuading another person to criticize or insult, spreading rumors, and making anonymous phone calls or sending e-mail or notes that convey a hurtful message (Rigby, 2002a; Slavens, 2004). *Nonverbal bullying* includes gesturing and exhibiting expressions intended to threaten or intimidate the victim. Examples include obscene gestures, menacing stares, deliberately turning away, and averting gazes designed to intentionally ignore and/or exclude the victim (Rigby, 2002a).

While much research has concentrated on overt physical bullying, many recent studies have focused on relational forms of aggression (Putallaz et al., 2007; Slavens, 2004). Cullerton-Sen et al. (2008) describe relational victimization as overt and covert behaviors that intentionally

manipulate social relationships to harm other children (Archer & Coyne, 2005; Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz, & Kaukiainen, 1992; Crick, 1995; Galen & Underwood, 1997).

Relational humiliation uses relationships within tight social networks to hurt others. This results in lowering the victim's status within the peer group. Examples include making up unflattering stories about the victim, joking at the victim's expense, spreading rumors and gossiping about the victim, sending anonymous notes to the victim that convey a hurtful message, alienating and ostracizing the victim, seeking revenge against the victim in play, not acknowledging knowing a victim, and pretending to be another peer's friend (Crick et al., 2001a; Ludwig, 2003; Rigby, 2002a, 2002b). *Social exclusion* includes deliberately forming coalitions against the victim and persuading others to exclude the victim from social interactions (Rigby, 2002). Relational bullying may be facilitated and intensified by the use of current technology that may conceal the bully's identity or expand the social audience (Gradinger, Strohmeier, & Spiel, 2009; Mishna, Sainia, & Solomona, 2009). Examples of technology that is used in relational bullying include Internet postings, electronic mail, cellular phone calls, and text messaging (Foundation, 2004b; Tokunaga, 2010). There is usually a physical distance between the bully and victim in instances of electronic or "cyber" bullying. Therefore, the emotional impact of the bullying on the victim is not as obvious to the bully and, thus, makes it easier for the bully to be callous toward the victim's feelings or emotions (Mishna et al., 2009).

Other types of bullying include sexual and racial harassment (Slavens, 2004). Sexual harassment involves persistent unwanted attention, innuendo, and undesirable name-calling or labeling of a victim by a bully. Racial harassment includes persistent unwanted attention toward a victim coupled with ethnic slurs and offensive name-calling. Because of their sensitive and

complex nature, sexual and racial harassment are not the focus of this study; however, these variables have implications for future studies.

Age and Gender

Age and gender differences might seem logically distinctive with regard to bullying and victimization. Research evidence suggests fewer age-related differences in children's aggressive behavior and more gender-related differences (Crick, 1997; Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005a). While there are relatively few gender differences in infancy and toddlerhood (Hay & Ross, 1982; Loeber & Hay, 1993), preschoolers demonstrate striking differences (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980) in that boys tend to engage in more conflict and forceful acts (e.g., physical, verbal, and instrumental) (Hartup, 1974; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1980; Smith & Green, 1984). Girls use more verbal objection and negotiation during conflict than boys, thereby preventing conflict escalation (Eisenberg, Fabes, Nyman, Bernzweig, & Pinuelas, 1994). One study found no differences in the percentage of young (age 4) boys and the percentage of young (age 4) girls who bully others (Curtner-Smith et al., 2006). However, gender differences in bullying among boys and girls are consistently found in studies of older children. Findings from longitudinal and cross-sectional studies of children who range in age from 8 to 15 years indicated that boys, age 8 years, tended to engage in overt aggressive behaviors such as kicking, hitting, pushing, shoving, threatening, exclaiming profanity, and name-calling (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, & Kaukiainen, 1992; Galen & Underwood, 1997; Olweus, 2003; Rigby, 2002b). Girls, age 8, engage in both physical and relational aggression. However, by age 15, girls develop a preferred pattern of relational aggression such as manipulating friendship patterns, ostracizing, humiliating, and excluding certain peers from social activities.

Longitudinal studies of children enrolled in the 2nd through the 9th grades found that boys continued to engage in physical aggression over time, whereas girls dramatically increased over time in the use of direct ostracism as well as the use of subtle and indirect means of harassment, such as intentionally excluding someone from the group, spreading rumors, and manipulating friendship relations, which can be as psychologically harmful and distressing as more direct and open forms of harassment (Cairns, Cairns, Neckerman, Ferguson, & Gariepy, 1989; Foster, DeLawyer, & Guevremont, 1986; T. Nansel et al., 2001a; Olweus, 2003).

Gender differences widen as girls outgrow the tendency toward oppositional behavior at earlier ages than boys (Richman, Stevenson, & Graham, 1982). Gender differences may be mediated by differential biological development and corresponding social experiences (Hay, Nash, & Pedersen, 1983) and awareness of social rules for possession and resolving conflict. Cullerton-Sen et al. (2008) argue that a gender-informed approach to aggressive behavior in children should include both physical and relational aggression. However, gender difference is not always consistent (Crick & Grotpeter, 1996). Even in studies in which boys and girls do not differ in their self-reported relational victimization, girls are significantly more likely to be the target of relational aggression than physical aggression (Phelps, 2001). Girls also report higher levels of negative affect than boys in response to relational victimization (Crick, 1995; Crick, Grotpeter, & Bigbee, 2002; Paquette & Underwood, 1999).

Although both boys and girls use physical and relational aggression, evidence suggests that girls attend more to and are affected more by relational conflicts than boys. In contrast to boys, girls are more likely to perceive relationally aggressive acts as mean and hurtful and to experience heightened emotional and physiological distress in response to such behaviors (Coyne, Archer, & Elsea, 2006; Galen & Underwood, 1997; Giles & Heyman, 2005).

Additionally, girls are more likely than boys to view relationally aggressive acts as wrong, whereas boys are more likely than girls to view physically aggressive acts as wrong (Goldstein, Tisak, & Boxer, 2002; Murray-Close, Crick, & Galotti, 2006).

Effects of Bully Victimization

Bully victimization has a detrimental effect for each of the at-risk groups (Bare, 2006; Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Crump et al., 2001). Bullying is one of the most common forms of youth violence; it has been linked to many negative consequences for children's health and mental health (Flashpohler et al., 2009). Previous studies have found negative impacts on children's well-being for both children who engage in bullying and for children who are the targets of bullying (Wilkins-Shurmer et al., 2003).

Victim

The NEA (2008) asserts that physical and psychological scars left on children who are victimized can last a lifetime. Peer victimization is associated with many adjustment difficulties that include physical, emotional, academic, and social maladjustment (Nylund, Bellmore, Nishina, & Graham, 2007). Children who are the targets of repeated bullying behavior often experience extreme fear and stress. They may exhibit physical symptoms of illness, lack of concentration, increased absent from school, frequent nurse visits, and show poor academic performance (Glew, Fan, Katon, Rivara, & Kernic, 2005; Juvonen & Graham, 2001; Tom, Schwartz, Chang, Farver, & Xu, 2010). The psychological impact of bullying on the victim can be devastating. Victims may experience a lack of social support from peers and lasting damage to the victim's self-esteem (Garrett, 2003).

Bully

Bullying also damages the bully perpetrator. A US survey conducted by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development and the World Health Organization found that children who bully at high rates over long periods of time have more serious psychosocial adjustment, such as drinking and smoking (T. Nansel et al., 2001a). In 2008, the National Education Association's (NEA) National Bullying Awareness Campaign reported that children with records of long-term bully aggression may engage in sexual harassment or criminal activity during adolescence and adulthood. Bullies were found to have increased risk of perpetuating family violence. The 2008 NEA report also found that males with a persistent record of bullying in grades six through nine had at least one criminal conviction by the time they were 24 years old and 40 percent of those who had a criminal conviction by age 24 years had three or more arrests by the time they were 30 years old.

Bully/Victim

There is mounting research on the adjustment problems experienced by reactive bully/victims of bullying (Schwartz, Proctor, & Chien, 2001). Bully/victims are reported to be more disliked by their peers (Kupersmidt, Patterson, & Eickholt, 1989; Perry et al., 1988; Veenstra et al., 2005) and report having fewer friends than children in the proactive bully group (Unnever, 2005). Bully/victims differ from victims in that they are more likely to be physically victimized (Unnever, 2005). Bully/victims are prone to serious externalizing behavior problems (Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Crump et al., 2001; Kumpulainen et al., 1998) and experience more extreme and persistent forms of peer maltreatment than other victims of bullying (Salmivall & Nieminen, 2002). Bully-victims have the highest risk for negative psychosocial and behavioral outcomes, including tobacco use, depression, low self-control, poor social competence, poor

relationships with classmates, loneliness, poor school functioning, low academic achievement and suicide (Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Crump et al., 2001; T. Nansel et al., 2001a; T. Nansel et al., 2004; T. R. Nansel, Overpeck, Haynie, Ruan, & Scheidt, 2003; Tom et al., 2010).

Bully/victims exhibit symptoms of depression, anxiety, and other forms of internalized distress (Haynie, Nansel, Eitel, Crump et al., 2001; Schwartz, 2000). Olweus (2001) reported that some teachers and children believe that bully/victims deserve the bullying that they receive from their peers. Some studies have even demonstrated that teachers are less likely to intervene when bully/victims are being victimized (Unnever & Cornell, 2003). Thus, the experiences of bullying and being bullied have been linked to later development of negative consequences.

Nonbully/nonvictim

Nonbully/nonvictims are forced to decide whether or not to get involved when they witness acts of bullying (Latane' & Darley, 1970). Latane' and Darley (1970) found that nonbully/nonvictims must make a series of decisions, beginning with noticing that an unusual event has occurred, followed by interpreting the unusual event as an emergency. Nonbully/nonvictims must then decide that it is his or her personal responsibility to intervene. Factors that influence nonbully/nonvictim decisions include nonbully/nonvictim characteristics (e.g., age, gender, social role), victim characteristics (e.g., age, gender, helplessness), situational factors (e.g., number of other nonbully/nonvictims present), and characteristics of the relationship between the nonbully/nonvictim and the victim (e.g., friend, nonfriend) (Bare, 2006; Killen & Turiel, 1998; Latane' & Darley, 1970). When the nonbully/nonvictim decides to help, he or she must decide the form of the intervention, such as directly confronting the bullies or indirectly telling an authority figure. Lastly, the nonbully/nonvictim must implement the intervention, unless the stress generated by the situation makes the decision to act too difficult

for the nonbully/nonvictim. From compiled research, the NEA (2008) asserted that nonbully/nonvictims who witness bullying may feel angry and helpless because they do not know what to do, may be concerned about becoming a target themselves, or may feel guilty for not taking action.

One study found that nonbully/nonvictims are influenced by personal perception of the incident, by their age and by their gender (Hoefnagels & Zwikker, 2001). They found that the less ambiguity there is in a given situation, the more likely a witness is to act or intervene. Another study examined the nonbully/nonvictim effect in adults and found that highly competent individuals were more likely to try to help an individual in need when necessary (Cramer, McMaster, Bartell, & Dragna, 1988). Given that children and adolescents are continuing to learn social skills, their competence in standing up for themselves and for others appears limited.

Quality of Life and Life Satisfaction in the Context of Bully Victimization

Quality of Life/Life Satisfaction

The relationship between subjective well-being, quality of life and life satisfaction is not well defined in the literature (Flashpohler et al., 2009). Subjective well-being consists of three separate, yet interrelated, parts in children and adolescents: positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction (E. S. Huebner, Suldo, Smith, & McKnight, 2004). Huebner et al. (2004) defines life satisfaction as one's positive cognitive appraisal of the entirety of one's life. Life satisfaction has been described as an aspect of quality of life (Valois, Zullig, Drane, & Huebner, 2001). For this discussion, quality of life (QOL) and life satisfaction (LS) are considered to be synonymous and to encompass the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being.

In adults, QOL/LS have been shown to predict psychological disorders, physical health, and interpersonal problems, among others (Frisch, 2000). Although extensively studied in the

adult literature, QOL/LS research in children is limited (E. S. Huebner, 2004). Existing research has mainly focused on life satisfaction as an outcome variable. Adolescent studies have shown that age, gender, and socioeconomic status moderately contribute to subjective well-being, whereas self-concept, extraversion, internal locus of control contribute significantly to children's social-emotional well-being (E. S. Huebner, 1997). Daily life events have been shown to be the most powerful contributor of QOL/LS (McCullough, Huebner, & Laughlin, 2000).

QOL/LS relates to a variety of health and risky behaviors in children and adolescents (Flashpohler et al., 2009) and is negatively related to depression, anxiety, and social stress (Gilman & Huebner, 2006b). Lower QOL/LS is associated with substance use, and aggressive behaviors such as physical fighting, weapon carrying, and being injured or threatened with a weapon (Valois et al., 2001; Zullig, Valois, Huebner, Oeltmann, & Drane, 2001).

Consideration of QOL/LS is important because children who report high levels of QOL/LS tend to report positive school experiences, higher grade point averages, better peer relationships, lower levels of anxiety and depression, higher levels of hope and personal control than children who report low QOL/LS (Gilman & Huebner, 2006a). Research suggests that QOL/LS may mediate the relationship between stressful life events and internalizing behaviors, and moderate the relationship between stressful life events and externalizing behaviors (McKnight, Huebner, & Suldo, 2002; Suldo & Huebner, 2004). Thus, a distinguishing the relationship between QOL/LS and aggressive acts may suggest interventions that improve children's academic, psychological and social adjustment.

QOL/LS and Bullying

Bullying is a common and potentially serious form of school violence and is associated with serious negative social and emotional consequences (Elinoff, Chafouleas, & Sassu, 2004).

Being victimized has been correlated with low self esteem, depression, and increased anxiety (Wolke, Woods, Bloomfield, & Karstadt, 2000). Victims of bullying are more likely to report physical and mental health problems and to contemplate suicide than nonvictims (K. Rigby, 2001).

Social Support in the Context of Bullying

Social support is described as general or specific support from people in the social network, which enhances an individual's functioning and/or buffers them from adverse outcomes (Malecki & Demaray, 2004). In the context of schools, peers and teachers are the core part of a child's social support network providing social support in its multiple forms, including emotional, motivational, instrumental, and informational support (Tardy, 1985).

Peer Social Support

In contrast to supporting or reinforcing bullying, peers may also play an important role in discouraging bullying or minimizing the negative effects of being victimized by bullies. Interventions that target the whole peer group, not only the direct bullies and victims, may be effective because peers who defend against bullying may be instrumental in promoting antibullying behaviors (Sutton & Smith, 1999). Studies have shown that when peers intervene in bullying incidents, they were successful at stopping the bullying more times than not (Hawkins et al., 2001). The objective of the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) is to encourage children to shift their roles from supporting bullying to defending against bullying by creating an atmosphere where bullying is not acceptable, rather than trying to change the behavior of the bullies (Salmivalli et al., 1996). While formal forms of peer support, such as programs that engage student in peer counseling or conflict resolution, have failed to reduce rates of bullying, peer support programs are perceived as helpful by the bully victims because they show that

someone cares (Naylor & Cowie, 1999). These findings suggest the importance of understanding the role of informal forms of peer social support in buffering the negative consequences associated with bullying.

Teacher Social Support

Research finds that teachers play an important role in preventing and modeling appropriate behavior in dealing with victimization (James et al., 2008). One study found that nonbully/nonvictims are nearly twice as likely as victims of bullying to report that there is a teacher with whom they can talk about their problems (Furlong & Chung, 1995). Thus, teacher social support is important for maintaining optimal daily functioning for victims of bullying and for decreasing the stress of being victimized by bullies (Cobb, 1976; S. Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Social support from teachers is a valuable resource that contributes to students' academic and social success by promoting academic achievement, school engagement, and well-being in the classroom (Brewster & Bowen, 2004; Chen, 2005; Vedder, Boekaerts, & Seegers, 2005). Emotional support from teachers, in particular, has been linked both to students' academic competence and school adjustment (Malecki & Demaray, 2003; Smokowski, Reynolds, & Bezruczko, 1999). Teacher social support contributes to a child's mental health. Studies show that teacher social support is correlated negatively with depression, and positively with self-esteem and social skills (Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Malecki & Demaray, 2003). When children perceive that their teacher is fair and cares about them, they are less likely to engage in health compromising behaviors such as alcohol, tobacco, and other drug use; violence; sexual activity; and suicide (McNeely & Falci, 2004).

Linking Social Support and Bullying

Several studies have linked social support and bullying. One study found that children who are not involved in bullying perceive greater social support from teachers than do bullies and that both nonbully/nonvictims and bullies report significantly higher frequencies of peer social support than victims and bully-victims (Malecki & Demaray, 2003). Other studies found that children who are victimized exhibited low peer acceptance, support, reciprocity, and friendship (Perren & Alasker, 2006; Perren & Hornung, 2005; Rigby, 2000). These children are nearly twice as likely as nonvictims to report that they do not have teacher with whom they can discuss their problems (Furlong & Chung, 1995).

An important way that bullies and victims may differ from children not involved in bullying is in the amount of social support they seek and receive (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009). Two broad theories help explain the relationship between social support and children's functioning have emerged (S. Cohen, Gottlieb, & Underwood, 2000). The *main effect model* asserts that social support has a positive benefit for improving overall psychological well-being of all children. The *stress buffering theory* asserts that social support benefits children who are at risk or under stress by buffering them from negative internalizing problems associated with bullying. These models can be used to explain the role of social support in improving QOL/LS in the lives of children who are victimized by bullies (Malecki & Demaray, 2004). Studies have found that victims and bully/victims generally reported less social support than bullies or comparison youth (Demaray & Malecki, 2003; Malecki & Demaray, 2004). Conners-Burrow and colleagues (2009) found that children who were not involved in bullying reported less depression and more social support than children involved in bullying, and bully/victims were the most at-risk group. Results indicated that in all four bully status groups, children reported fewer

symptoms of depression and other clinical symptoms when support from peers and teachers was high compared to when it was low (Conners-Burrow et al., 2009; Flashpohler et al., 2009).

In contrast, Cullerston-Sen and Crick (2005) found that teachers were less likely to intervene in covert relational victimization than in cases of overt physical victimization; in part, because teachers were generally unaware of such experiences among their students. Studies have shown that teachers often identified girls who were the targets of vicious rumors, but teachers were not aware of peers exclusionary behaviors until severe experiences of exclusion caused the girls to contemplate suicide (Craig, Henderson, & Murphy, 2000; Owens, Slee, & Shute, 2000). Owens et al. (2000) suggest several reasons for why teachers may not be aware of children's relational victimization. First, victimization becomes more complex and differentiated as children age and aggression becomes more covert, which makes it difficult to observe by the time students become teenagers (e.g., via instant messaging, stealing boyfriends).

In summary, children who are victims of bullies and children who bully are associated with negative consequences (T. Nansel et al., 2001a; Rigby, 2001; Rigby, 2003), whereas social support has a positive influence on the behaviors and social-emotional health of children (Colarossi & Eccles, 2003; Demaray & Malecki, 2002; Gilman & Huebner, 2006a).

Research on Children's Social Reasoning

Social-Cognitive Learning Theory

Social-cognitive learning theory explains how children learn new behaviors and under what conditions they will exhibit the newly learned behavior. Social-cognitive learning theory is widely used to explain how children learn both desirable prosocial behaviors and undesirable antisocial aggressive behaviors (M. S. Tisak, Tisak, & Goldstein, 2006). Albert Bandura theorized that children base their behavioral judgments on the resultant outcomes they expect

(Bandura, 1986, 1991). Bandura (1986) defined *social thinking* as a process of considering and applying external social rules and normative standards to determine acceptable and unacceptable social behavior. Bandura (1991) further defined *moral thinking* as an important component of social thinking in which universal rules or standards that pertain to moral concepts are used to evaluate and guide social behavior. Examples of these moral concepts include judicial issues of right and wrong, fair treatment for all humankind, personal integrity, honesty, trust, empathy toward and caring for the welfare of others, harm to others/self, loyalty in relationships, and commitment to social norms. Further, social and moral knowledge becomes a self-regulating mechanism of social reasoning that is an integral component of social behavior (Bandura, 1991).

Bandura (1986, 1991) posited that children initially learn a new behavior by observing other individuals engaging in the behavior within a specific social context. Children then construct rules for when and where that particular social behavior is appropriate. Bandura (1991) goes on to state that children become socialized by parents who provide tangible consequences for violating rules for appropriate social behavior until the child has the necessary experience and ability to think in more conceptualized abstract terms.

Next, children begin to form *personal beliefs* (e.g., self efficacies) about their social competency and ability. As social and moral rules for behavior concepts are gradually internalized, they begin to serve as mental guides for socially competent conduct and as deterrents to socially incompetent conduct by the self-approving and self-reprimanding consequences that children produce for themselves. These personal beliefs arise from children's self-perceived success or failure in social interactions. Once formed, children begin to consider how those self-efficacies generalize to other social situations (Bandura, 1997).

Children engage in social reasoning about their behaviors when they consider the outcomes of those behaviors (M. S. Tisak et al., 2006). For example, children may reason, "Will I get the toy if I hit that kid?" or "If I hit the kid, will I hurt him?" or "Am I a mean person if I hit the kid?" These examples reflect beliefs about personal abilities to obtain objects of desire, inflict harm, or recognize a moral theme. Bandura and colleagues (Bandura, 1999; Bandura, Capra, Barbaranelli, Pastorelli, & Regalia, 2001) proposed the process of *moral agency*, which has two parts—*inhibitive agency* and *proactive agency*. *Inhibitive agency* refers to the cognitions that prevent the child from acting in an aggressive manner toward others (e.g., "If I hit that kid, I will hurt him" or "If I hit that kid, others will see me as a really mean person"). *Proactive agency* refers to cognitions that encourage the child to behave prosocially toward others with expectations for similar future behavior (e.g., "If I am fair to others, then they were fair with me" or "If I help my friends to succeed, then I was a leader").

Bandura (1991, 1999) also proposed that *moral disengagement* occurs when an individual suspends or disengages from moral behavior that inhibits inappropriate, aggressive, or reprehensible conduct in order to justify or make those behaviors rationally acceptable (Bandura, 1991, 1999). Individuals do this by comparing different forms of aggressive behaviors and rating the morality of those behaviors. Examples include thinking that name-calling is acceptable because it is not as bad as hitting or threatening somebody with a knife, or that fighting back is acceptable if someone else starts it, or that treating another person badly is acceptable if he or she deserves it, or that making fun of a person is acceptable because the person isn't really popular or because it doesn't really bother the target of teasing. Social-cognitive learning theory suggests that bullying behavior will continue as long as children justify or minimize the harmful effects of their aggressive behavior on the victim.

Social-cognitive learning theory has framed many studies that focus on aggressive and nonaggressive children's reasoning about their values and beliefs concerning their own behavior (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004; K. A. Dodge et al., 1997; Huesmann & Guerra, 1997). These studies found that children who endorse unprovoked aggressive behavior as an acceptable way to achieve a goal have higher scores on teacher reports of children's physical aggression (Archer & Haigh, 1997 as cited in Tisak, Tisak, & Goldstein, 2004). Aggressive children also are more confident that their aggressive behavior will result in tangible rewards (i.e., they will get what they want) (Crane-Ross, Tisak, & Tisak, 1998; Perry, Perry, & Rasmussen, 1986; M. S. Tisak et al., 2006), and they are more likely to believe that aggressive behavior is acceptable (Guerra & Slaby, 1990; Perry & Bussey, 1977; Slaby & Guerra, 1988).

Adolescents who engage in higher rates of relational aggression expect positive outcomes from their behavior, such as being able to manipulate friendships or being able to control the membership of social groups (Goldstein, Tisak, Persson, & Boxer, 2004). Additionally, adolescents who endorse relational aggression as acceptable are more likely to use relational aggression themselves than adolescents who do not endorse the use of relational aggression as acceptable (Musher-Eizeman et al., 2004). In general, children and adolescents who tend to be the most socially competent at resolving aggressive conflict also hold clear social goals for maintaining positive relationships and avoiding trouble with peers (Delveaux & Daniels, 2000). In contrast, children and adolescents who demonstrate low social competence for resolving aggressive conflict tend to be unconcerned about maintaining positive relationships and avoiding trouble with peers.

Social Information Processing Theory

Social information processing theory asserts that children's understanding of social situations influences their subsequent behavior. Social information processing theory emphasizes decision-making in the context of differing social situations (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004). Children enter into social situations with different social and biological abilities and diverse past experiences. Social information processing theory posits that past experiences and knowledge make up *latent mental structures* that represent past events which are stored in long-term memory. These latent mental structures interact with and influence mental processing (Crick & Dodge, 1994) and are incorporated, in turn, with other memories into a general mental or knowledge structure that directs the processing of future social cues.

Crick and Dodge (1994) theorized that children's cognitive information processing occurs in distinct sequential steps. Children receive an assortment of social cues as input. Resulting behavioral responses are a function of how children process social cues. Social information processing steps include (1) encoding of social cues, (2) interpretation and mental representation of those cues, (3) clarification or selection of a goal, (4) response access or construction, (5) response decision, and (6) behavioral enactment.

Crick and Dodge (1994) argued that children encode and interpret social cues by selectively attending to a contextualized external situation and to perceived internal cues. Children must attempt to understand the objective nature of what happened in a specific situation and attempt to understand why the event occurred. For example, a child who trips on a classmate's foot must first figure out what happened ("I tripped on his feet") and why it might have happened ("he tripped me" or ". It was an accident"). The interpretation of events is

influenced and guided by information stored in memory (e.g., social experiences, scripts, and knowledge).

Interpretation consists of (a) filtering and personalizing mental representations of the situational cues that are stored into long-term memory; (b) analyzing why the events that occurred in the situation (including an assessment of why the intended goal was or was not achieved); (c) making inferences about the perspectives of others in the situation (including attributions of intent); (d) assessing whether the goal for any previous social exchange had been obtained; (e) evaluating the accuracy of the outcome expectations and self-efficacy predictions that were made during the previous exchange with the peer (evaluation of past performance); and (f) inferences regarding the meaning of the prior and present exchange for the self (self-evaluations) and the peers (evaluations of others).

Crick and Dodge (1994) proposed that after interpreting social events, children select goals or desired outcomes for the situation (e.g., staying out of trouble, getting work done, getting even with a transgressor, making a friend, or obtaining a desired toy) or continue with a preexisting goal. Additionally, children may make changes or revisions to their memory system during the interpretation process and revise their goals or construct new goals in response to presenting social stimuli.

Aggressive retaliations are often prompted by an interpretation that another person has provoked the subject with hostile intent (K. A. Dodge & Coie, 1987). Thus, *reactive aggression* or retaliatory aggressive behavior is defined as an emotionally charged defensive reaction to a perceived threat. However, some peer conflicts involve antisocial behavior that is more proactive and lacking in empathy for victims of bully aggression (D. Cohen & Strayer, 1996; K. A. Dodge & Coie, 1987; Roberts & Strayer, 1996; Strayer & Roberts, 2004). *Proactive aggression* is

behavior that is defined as an unprovoked premeditated act of aggression for the purpose of achieving an internally generated goal. Thus, the positive appraisal of obtaining an object of desire or achieving some specific and desirable social outcome is central to motivating proactive aggression rather than the interpretation of threat.

Other factors that influence children's interpretation include age, social position among peers (e.g., acceptance or rejection), emotions (e.g., anger, social satisfaction, empathy, etc.), gender (e.g., males tend to engage in more physical reactive aggression; females tend to engage in more reactive aggression), education (e.g., social maturity, intellectual ability, mental access to potential responses), unspoken social influences, immediacy (e.g., reflection and recovery reaction time), mediating social buffers (e.g., peers, cohorts, family, mentors), attributional biases, self-efficacy (e.g., high or low confidence in social and cognitive abilities), social preferences, and stressful life experiences (Dodge, Lansford, Burks, Bates, Pettit, Fontaine, Price, 2003). Therefore, errors and biases in interpreting threats may account for the inappropriate display of aggression.

Crick and Dodge (1994) hypothesized that children generate possible responses to immediate social cues derived from memory or construct new behaviors in response to novel social events. Upon reviewing or generating possible responses, children then evaluate the possibilities and pick the most positively evaluated response for enactment based on a number of factors in their evaluations of possible responses, including (a) what they expect to gain or lose after using each response (e.g., outcome expectations), (b) the degree of confidence in their ability to achieve a desired outcome, and (c) their assessment of the consequences of performing each response (e.g., response evaluation). For example, a child may want to punch a bully but decides against it because he or she believes that the bully is too strong and that it is best to

ignore him or her, or that it is better not to get into trouble as a result. Then the child may act upon his or her assessment. Crick and Dodge (1994) suggest that social interaction and mental processing continue as subsequent social events unfold.

Researchers have found that bullies and their victims often have different intentions and subjective perceptions of experiences with bullying and being victimized by bullies (Kowalski, 2000; Shapiro, Baumeister, & Kessler, 1991). Bullies and their victims form dyadic relationships based on an asymmetrical distribution of power whereby bullies exert greater coercive power over their victims (Lindenberg et al., 2007; Olweus, 1993; Salmivalli, 2001). Lindenberg and colleagues (2006) used a *goal-framing* approach — which is defined as a person's sensitivity to opportunities for realizing the conceptual goal — to assess activated goal motivations. The stronger the goal motivation, the more sensitive the bully is to opportunities for goal attainment. For example, children who bully weaker children do so to establish domination over the victims and thereby gain higher status or popularity with peers through social approval from bystanders. Both domination and social status are key aspects of bullying (Vaillancourt, Hymel, & McDougall, 2003).

From the view of the victim, children who feel vulnerable (e.g., easily hurt by others, cannot make others listen to them, isolated) are more likely to have the goal of avoiding harm than children who feel less vulnerable (Juvonen & Graham, 2001; Olweus, 1978). Children who are victimized are aware that more aggressive and less vulnerable children may be a potential threat; therefore, avoid threatening children who may evoke fear, stress, anxiety, or wariness of potential threat of harm (Burgess, Wojslawowicz, Rubin, Rose-Krasnor, & Booth-Laforce, 2006). This, in turn, may signal their vulnerability to those who are interested in domination and trigger dominant behavior in peers who would otherwise not show it (Salmivalli & Isaacs, 2005).

Lindenberg and colleagues (2007) suggest that goal framing leads to both rational and irrational expectations of children who are perceived as either bullies or victims.

Social Information Processing Factors that Influence the Generation of Solutions in Response to Bullying

Several individual and contextual factors influence children's ability to generate prosocial responses to being victimized or bullied. These include the child's history of aggression and victimization, the reality of the bully/victim episode (i.e., actual versus perceived), the nature of the victim's relationship with the bully, and the form of bully victimization (M. S. Tisak et al., 2006). Many studies have been conducted in which children who vary in aggressiveness were asked to generate solutions to hypothetical situations in which they imagine themselves as the victims of bullying.

Level of Aggressiveness. A consistent finding among these studies is that the child's level of aggressiveness is related to both the quality and the quantity of responses. In particular, aggressive children often select responses with unwarranted aggression in ambiguous situations (i.e., situations in which the intent of the provocateur is unknown). Moreover, aggressive children tend to be limited in the number of effective solutions that they produce. In contrast, nonaggressive children tend to produce many more nonaggressive prosocial solutions to hypothetical situations involving peer conflict or bullying (Dodge, 1980a, 1987; Richard & Dodge, 1982).

History of Aggression. The bully's history of aggression is also an individual child factor that influences how victimized children respond to bullying. Victimized children consider the bully's past behavior when inferring the intent that motivates the bully's behavior. Hostile intent is more likely perceived when the bully has a reputation for engaging in physical aggression

(Dodge, 1980a; Dodge & Frame, 1982). or relational aggression (Boxer & Tisak, 2005; Goldstein et al., 2004)

Heightened Emotional Distress. Children are socialized by their parents and teachers to know which actions are socially acceptable responses to being victimized, such as telling an authority figure. Yet when children encounter the heightened emotional distress of being victimized, they sometimes generate inconsistent and ineffective response solutions (Rogers & Tisak, 1996; Tisak & Tisak, 1996; Tisak & Turiel, 1988).

Nature of Relationship. The nature of the relationship between children (e.g., friendships versus acquaintance) influences how they perceive the behaviors of their peers (Dodge & Coie, 1987; Rogers & Tisak, 1996; Tisak, Maynard, & Tisak, 2002; Tisak & Jankowski, 1996; Tisak et al., 2006). For example, nonaggressive children who are only an acquaintance with an aggressive peer tend to favor aggressive retaliation as an appropriate response to having been bullied. Alternatively, when the aggressive peer is perceived as a friend, nonaggressive children favor talking about the transgression with the aggressive peer or walking away in order to avoid conflict. This finding suggests that what children actually do in bully/victim situations may inconsistent with what they reason to be the "right thing to do." When these adolescents respond to other types of deviant behavior committed by a friend, such as stealing, they say they are more likely to confront the aggressive peer and demand restitution. In contrast, when the aggressive peer is a distant acquaintance, children say they would be more likely to defer to an authority figure such as a teacher for resolution of the conflict (M. S. Tisak & Tisak, 1996). Thus, a number of individual and contextual factors influence children's responses to social conflict involving peers.

Social Domain Theory

Social domain theory begins with the premise that children's understanding of social situations has a strong influence on their subsequent behavior (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004). A key element is the understanding of *social conventions*, which are defined as contextually relative, shared uniformities and norms. Social conventions serve as rules and guidelines that promote and coordinate smooth social interactions in social systems. Social conventions provide contextual expectations for appropriate social behavior. Social conventions are contingent on specific rules and authority, which are agreed upon and alterable by social consensus (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004).

Children's social conventions for aggressive and prosocial behavior are derived from their attempts to understand social interactions involving deliberate physical and psychological harm (Turiel, 1998). Social domain research has shown that aggressive children focus on the consequences of conventional rule violations (e.g., acts that lead to punishment or that have explicit rules against aggressive behavior) instead of the negative implications of the aggressive acts toward their victims (Nucci & Herman, 1982). Conversely, children with prosocial behavioral tendencies consider both the positive aspects of social norms and the positive implications of prosocial acts toward peers.

Social knowledge is defined as social orientations (e.g., social conventions, justice, authority) that include personal issues (e.g., privacy, bodily integrity, control, and preferences), motivations (e.g., aggressive vs. prosocial), and goals (e.g., obtaining desired objects vs. attaining social dominance) (Smetana, 2006). According to social domain theory, children's social orientations constitute an organized system of social knowledge that is derived from their social experiences (Turiel, 1983, 1998). Children's social knowledge becomes differentiated

during a child's early years and follow different developmental trajectories (Tremblay, 1999; Troup-Gordon & Ladd, 2005). Thus, children's social knowledge reflects children's social experiences that may lead to consistencies and variations in social judgments.

Social knowledge can be further defined as memory structures characterized by social orientations, motivations, and goals (Smetana, 2006). Social information processing research defines *personal knowledge* constructs as memories of past experiences, which influence mental processing (Crick & Dodge, 1994). These definitions embrace the notion that experiential knowledge is a well-organized body of information stored within our memory systems and that influences social thought, reasoning, motivation, and behavior.

Behavior and Reasoning

For some time, developmental psychologists have sought to understand the link between children's reasoning and their behavior with respect to acts of overt aggression and victimization (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004). Arsenio and Lemerise (2004) assert that many aggressive acts are both social and moral transgressions. *Social aggression* is defined as behavior that violates social conventions, while *Moral aggression* is defined as social behavior that violates the moral "ideal" of respect for the positive well-being of another (Coie & Dodge, 1998; Turiel, 1998, 2002, 2006).

Tisak, Tisak, and Goldstein (2006) linked prosocial behavior with reasoning that benefits others (e.g., sharing, helping, comforting), and aggressive behavior with reasoning that causes harm to others or that violate the rights and welfare of others (Turiel, 1978, 1983). Tisak and colleagues (2006) suggest that aggressive behavior is a manifestation of aggressive social and negative moral reasoning and that prosocial behavior is a manifestation of prosocial and positive moral reasoning.

Two theoretical approaches supported by empirical models share a common concern with harm and victimization. The social information processing model of social adjustment focuses on the way in which children's processing of social information is related to their level of aggression with peers (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge, 1986). The moral domain model focuses on children's ability to make moral judgments about the appropriateness of social behavior (Nucci, 2001; Smetana, 1995; Turiel, 1983). The ways that children interpret and understand (or misinterpret and misunderstand) social behaviors and peer motives influences children's behaviors (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004). Thus, the social information processing model provides a systematic way of clarifying the extent to which basic moral concepts are applied to behavior (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004).

In summary, similar language within social-learning theory, social information processing and moral domain theory is used to describe the concept that mental representations integrate memories of past events with other memories into a general mental structure (e.g., social knowledge, latent mental structures, and moral schemas) that guides the processing of social cues. Thus, social and moral knowledge influences the way social information is organized and processed in the context of bullying and victimization. During a bully victimization episode, children must decide how to respond to aggressive peers among multiple options, their underlying moral and social mental structures provide selective influence in favor of some choices over others (Arsenio & Lemerise, 2004; Dodge & Rabiner, 2004). Dodge and Rabiner (2004) argue that it is easy to imagine how a child's own beliefs about what constitutes appropriate versus inappropriate behavior can influence the selecting or discarding of certain responses, even when the child is otherwise motivated to act on those responses.

The reader is reminded that the purpose of the present study is to develop a measure of children's social reasoning regarding victimization. While this study is not a measure of children's moral reasoning, it is will examine some of the ways in which children use moral justifications to explain prosocial and aggressive actions from the perspective of a victim or a nonbully/nonvictim bystander. To achieve this purpose, the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* was developed. The format and structure of the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* was based on the Intermediate Concepts Measure (ICM), a common measure of adolescents' and adults' moral reasoning.

Intermediate Concepts Measure (ICM)

The *Intermediate Concepts Measure (ICM)* is the model on which the *CBVS* is patterned. The *ICM* consists of hypothetical stories that focus the participant's attention on a moral dilemma that occurs within a specific context (Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999; Thoma, Crowson, Hestevold, & Sargent, 2005). The *ICM* provides respondents with a set of action choice items from which to resolve the dilemma. Additionally, the *ICM* asks participants to identify the moral justification for the action they selected in order to resolve the dilemma. The *ICM* provides action and justification choices identified by experts as appropriate or inappropriate based on the assumption that expert choices represent the application of moral schemas to the defining moral issues identified in each story. Therefore, action and justification choices represent expert ethical concepts, an understanding of the hypothetical situation, precedents that may apply, and a general social viewpoint (Thoma et al., 2005). The *ICM* assumes that highly contextualized decisions represent real-life decision-making choices.

ICM participants are assessed on behavioral choices and justifications using four main scores: (a) the percentage of choices that were identified as acceptable action choices by

professionals and experts in moral psychology, (b) the percentage of choices that were identified as unacceptable for action choices, (c) the percentage of responses identified as acceptable justification choices, (d) the percentage of responses identified as unacceptable justification choices. These scores were then combined to form a total "good" (identifying choices and justifications that were acceptable) and "bad" (identifying choices and justifications that were unacceptable) (Thoma et al., 2005). Findings from ICM studies revealed the proportion of times that participants were able to discern actions and justifications that were acceptable by professionals and experts from actions and justifications identified as unacceptable choices by professionals and experts. These studies revealed scores that indicated the level of moral reasoning at which participants were engaging as they evaluated hypothetical scenarios within the a specific context of professional values (Rest et al., 2000; Thoma et al., 2005; Thoma & Rest, 1999).

Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)

The *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)*, which is structurally modeled on the *ICM*, consists of hypothetical stories that focus children's attention on a social dilemma within the specific context of bully victimization. The *CBVS* provide children with a set of action choice items from which to resolve a hypothetical bully victimization dilemma. Additionally, the *CBVS* asks children to identify the social justification for the action they selected in order to resolve the dilemma. The *CBVS* provides action and justification choices identified by experts as appropriate or inappropriate based on the assumption that expert choices represent the application of social knowledge for defining prosocial actions and justifications for each story. Therefore, prosocial and aggressive action and justification choices represent an understanding of the hypothetical situation, precedents that may apply, and a general view of prosocial and antisocial norms. The

CBVS is scored by comparing the differences in proportion of children's selecting Action Choices (e.g., prosocial, aggressive) with Justification Choices (e.g., prosocial/care, aggressive/noncore, justice/fair). The premise is that most children will justify prosocial actions with prosocial justifications and that children who choose aggressive actions with justify those choices with aggressive reasons. It is assumed that some children who choose prosocial or aggressive actions will justify their actions on the basis of justice and fairness and that some children will inconsistently justify their aggressive actions with prosocial justifications. In each these scenarios, it will be incumbent on the intervention facilitator to consider a number of possible social and moral frameworks to determine the factors that influence each reasoning response.

Although the proposed *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* instrument does not purport to measure moral reasoning, the *CBVS* does assess the likelihood that children will justify actions from the moral perspective of justice or fairness toward the bully and the victim. The *CBVS* model assumes that moral justifications represent generalizable moral norms based on *schemas* about the welfare, fairness, and rights of others that regulate social relationships (Helwig & Turiel, 2003; Turiel, 1983, 1998). While beyond the scope of this study, future studies may further the research on the extent to which empathy may mediate the selection of prosocial actions and justifications based on concern for victim and bystander well-being.

Summary and Implications

The probability that children will experience peer abuse or become targets of peers' aggressive behaviors increases as they enter school and progress through the primary grades (Ladd & Kochenderfer Ladd, 2002). The exposure to peer abuse during early and middle childhood appears to increase children's risk for adjustment difficulties (Kochenderfer Ladd &

Wardrop, 2001). It is important to identify children who are victims of peer aggression and those who engage in bully behavior in order to understand how they reason about this form of aggression. Social learning research shows that development can be altered by early exposure to aggression, thus, increasing the likelihood that child will have greater access to aggressive behavioral responses. Previous studies found that children acquire knowledge of novel aggressive behavior by observing aggressive models and emulating effective strategies with positive consequences for aggressing (Bandura, 1973, 1977, 1983; Melzoff & Moore, 1977). Aggressive models teach general constructs (e.g., scripts, schemas, strategies, likely consequences) for aggressing (Collins, 1982; Huesmann, 1988; Rule & Ferguson, 1986; Shank & Ableson, 1977). Aggressors learn to consider positive cost/benefit ratios of aggression (e.g., peer approval, goal attainment, gain dominance; legal punishment, parental disapproval) that generate positive thinking about aggressive acts (Becker, 1974; Clarke & Cornish, 1983; Crick & Dodge, 1994). One implication is that by teaching children prosocial social skills and coping strategies they will learn to more frequently engage prosocial assessments of behavior in the context of bully victimization.

Research has found that assisting children who are victims of aggression to develop coping strategies had a positive effect on social adjustment (Kochenderfer Ladd & Skinner, 2002). For example, girls benefit from garnering appropriate social support. Boys benefit from enhancing appropriate problem-solving and conflict resolution skills. Boys benefit by ways to enhance their social support skills in severe situations that are outside their control, such as peer abuse. Additionally, children benefit by developing coping strategies that moderate their emotional responses to peer aggression, such as fear, embarrassment and anger (Kochenderfer-Ladd, 2004; Kochenderfer Ladd & Pelletier, 2008).

Other research suggests that children who receive adult support are better able to cope with bullying. Conners-Burrow and colleagues (2009) found that support from parents and teachers buffers the level of depression for four groups of children involved in bullying (victim, bully, bully/victims, or not involved children). Children who were not involved in bullying reported less depression and more social support than children involved in bullying. Bully/victims were the most at-risk group. For all groups except victims, when parental support was low, support from teachers was associated with fewer symptoms of depression. Flashpohler and colleagues (2009) found that peer and teacher support might mitigate the impact of bullying on the quality of life of victims. These studies support the value of promoting social support from parents, peers and teachers in bullying prevention programs and school climate initiatives. These results further highlight the positive contributions of bystanders in support of school-wide bullying prevention/school climate strategies.

Other research has found that effective educational interventions teach children to enhance cognitive and social performance by understanding others' perspectives, which can be correlated with their social adjustment (Rubin, Provenzano, & Luria, 1974). It is argued that developing the ability to understand reciprocal perspective-taking skills are related to the development of conventional moral thought (Selman, 1971). Social perspective-taking of aggressive children has been found to be lower than that of more socially competent peers (Chandler, 1973). Perspective taking can be viewed in terms of empathy, which has been related to both altruistic and antisocial behavior (Marcus, 1980). Empathic children identify with the distress of another person, while sympathetic children can accurately read another's distress without being emotionally overwhelmed with the pain of the other (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1990).

Social information processing models of aggressive behavior can be used by educators and parents to teach aggressive children how to think about and emotionally process aggressive behavior (Dodge, 1986; Huesmann, 1988; Rubin & Krasnor, 1986). Specific education interventions can help children reframe mental representations of social experiences and generate new social cues that require new behavioral responses hypothesized from assessments of re-encoded (e.g., trained) memories representing perceived social cues (Rabiner, Lenhart, & Lochman, 1990). Social information process education provides opportunities to re-code memory cues (e.g., scripts, schemas) and to access and evaluate subjective attributions (Dodge, 1980b; Nasby, Hayden, & DePaulo, 1979). Perceived expectations and beliefs that bias hostile attributions can be reframed in order to generate new assessments and choices for behavior that leads to subsequent peer acceptance (Ableson, 1981; Bowlby, 1980; Dodge, Pettit, & Bates, 1994; Rabiner & Coie, 1989).

Currently, there is debate about the nature and extent to which multiple mental constructs (personal beliefs, self-efficacies, latent mental structures, schemas) and online processing influence child behavior in situations of harm and victimization. Interestingly, in spite of formal rules about specific social behavior or moral rules about being just and fair, children often act in their own personal interests (i.e., matters that primarily affect the self, choice of friendships, personal activities, private communications). However, children are capable of making distinctions between social or moral motivations, such as hitting another child versus putting oneself in harm's way. Thus, an intervening act of aggression committed by a bystander toward a peer that results in harm may be considered wrong, but may also be considered right when it is committed in order to protect a victim from aggression by a bully (Killen & Turiel, 1998). Social cognitive learning theory posits that children base their judgment on outcome expectancies from

their behaviors, which may explain why children do not always behave in predictable ways when faced the moral conflict of doing harm to a bully or preventing harm to a victim.

In the future, the *CBVS* might be used in an education intervention as a initial assessment of how children they might respond to hypothetical bully victimization scenarios and as the basis for facilitating positive coping skills strategies in the event of an actual bully victimization episode. Because we know little about how children process their thoughts about the best way to respond to bully victimization or to witnessing a peer being victimized, assessing children's social reasoning about victimization will help researchers and intervention facilitators to better understand why some children demonstrate consistent patterns of response to being victimized by bullies and other children exhibit inconsistent response patterns. Knowing children's reasoning patterns will help strengthen prevention/intervention programs by targeting factors that influence their behavior (e.g., history of aggression, relationships, social orientations (e.g., motivations and goals), quality of life, emotional states, social support, and moral values. Knowledge of these critical areas will help provide profiles for at-risk children who can then be assisted in making appropriate choices for resolving social conflict, which focuses on the well-being of bullies, victims, and bystanders; thus, enhancing positive social adjustments.

CHAPTER III:

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to develop an instrument entitled *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* that asks children to read four hypothetical stories about children who are either victimized by bullies or who witness another child being bullied. The structure of the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* is modeled after the *Intermediate Concepts Measure (ICM)* of moral reasoning for adolescents and was developed by Bebeau and Thoma (Bebeau & Thoma, 1999; Thoma et al., 2005). The *CBVS* includes four hypothetical vignettes about children who are either victims of bullying or who witness bullying. The *CBVS* is intended to engage children's mental constructs (schemas) embedded in social and moral reasoning about bullying and victimization. These schemas reflect the way that children perceive the bully/victim scenario through the lens of social norms, personal interests, or moral reflection about the welfare of self and others. When a child reads a hypothetical scenario followed by a list of action choices and justification statements, social and moral schemas are activated to the extent that a child has developed them.

Development of the *CVBS*

Story Development

Stories for the *CBVS* measure were based on information found in popular and scholarly literature about bullying and victimization. Coding for Action Choice subscales (Prosocial,

Aggressive) and Justification Choice subscales (Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/retribution) were taken from examples in the literature. See Appendix C.

The *CBVS* consists of four bully victimization scenarios: two from the perspective of a victim who is being bullied and two from the perspective of a bystander who witnesses bullying. Of the two victim stories, one is about physical bullying and one about relational humiliation bullying. Of the two bystander stories, one is about physical bullying and one about relational social exclusion bullying. Each story is designed to get children to imagine what the main character in the story might do. Each story involves either physical or relational bullying.

The following is an example of one of the stories written for the *CBVS*.

Josh's Story

(Bystander – Physical Bullying)

Josh watches as mean kids pick on Charlie.

> Charlie, who is small for his age, is just like most other boys in his school. Charlie gets picked on every day by some bigger kids. Charlie often gets pushed or bumped on purpose while waiting in the class lines. Once when the teacher was busy with another student, a mean kid poked Charlie with a sharp pencil. It really hurt. Another time after school, Charlie was tripped so hard that he fell down and tore his shirt. The mean kids think it is fun to pick on Charlie.

Initially, eight stories were reviewed by teachers and school administrators (n=18) of older elementary school-aged children. Teachers made suggestions for improving the realism and content validity of the stories based on their classroom observations of children's bully/victim experiences. Teachers made suggestions for rewriting the stories so that the stories would be on a 4th-grade reading comprehension level. For the revised stories, Flesch-Kincaid reading levels, computed by the Microsoft Word Spelling and Grammar function, ranged from 2.4 (2nd grade, 4th month) to 4.3 (4th grade, 3rd month).

Next, the stories were presented to children enrolled in 4th through 12th grades (30 children were enrolled in either the 4th or 5th grades; 27 children were enrolled in either the 6th or 7th grades; 32 children were enrolled in the 8th grade; and 12 children were enrolled in either the 9th, 10th, 11th, or 12th grades). Children were asked to rate each story for realism, readability, and reading comprehension. The stories were then presented to 78 university undergraduates and 7 graduate students. The university students reviewed the stories and rated for realism and readability. Using a description of several types of bullying, the graduate students verified that the stories matched the appropriate bullying scenario and, based upon perceived duplication, made suggestions for reducing the number of stories from eight to four. Eighteen teachers and school administrators confirmed that the use of four stories would minimize the time that children would need to complete the survey and ensure that school administrators would be more likely to allow time during the school day for children to participate in the survey. The stories were then revised to reflect the suggested changes made by all reviewers and better reflect each depiction of bullying the scenarios.

The Action Choices were drawn from scholarly literature and were examples of actions that children commonly say they would take if they were either victimized or witness to victimization. Each Action Choice is either a prosocial behavior or an aggressive behavior. Similarly, the Justification Choices were drawn from the scholarly literature in the area of social reasoning and reflect reason that children typically give for their behavioral responses to bullying. Each Justification Choice is either a rational based on justice, a rational based on prosocial reasoning, or a rational based on aggressive reasoning. Some examples were obtained from popular advice that parents say they would give their children when their children were victimized by bullies or were witness to others who were victimized by bullies (Banks, 1997;

Cohen-Posey, 1995; Coloroso, 2003; Crick, 1996; Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005a; Cummings, Hennessy, Rabideau, & Cicchetti, 1994; Curtner-Smith et al., 2006; Directorate, 2002; Edinburgh, 2005; Field, 2003; Freedman, 2002; Ladd & Burgess, 2001; Ladd & Profilet, 1996; Larson & Lochman, 2002; Olweus, 1993, 2003; Olweus, Limber, & Mihalic, 1999; Rigby, 2002a, 2002b; Slavens, 2004; Voors, 2004). See Appendix A.

Procedures

With The University of Alabama IRB approval and school district approval, individual schools were provided with information packets explaining the purpose and procedures of the study. Each packet contained copies of the following documents that bore the dated IRB stamp:

1. The IRB approval letter;
2. School district approval letter;
3. Teacher consent form;
4. Parent cover letter;
5. Parent consent form; and
6. Child assent form.

Twelve school systems were invited to participate in the study. Of the twelve school systems invited to participate, five school systems elected to participate in the study. The investigator met with school administrators representing each of the five participating school systems. At this meeting, school administrators recommended specific schools within their system to invite into the study. Of these five school systems participating in this study, three were individual private schools and two were public school systems, representing a total of 35 intermediate and elementary schools. One public system administrator recommended four schools, of which one school agreed to participate in the study. The other public school system

administrator recommended three schools, of which two schools agreed to participate in the study. A total of 10 schools were invited to participate. Of these six schools agreed to participate. A total of twenty-one teachers of children enrolled in the 5th grade were invited to participate. Of these, sixteen agreed to participate. Teacher participation in this study was completely *voluntary*. There was no penalty for their choosing not to participate. For example, if a teacher chose not to participate, the children in his or her classroom were not considered for participation in the study. The study required both teacher-participation and child participation.

Participating classroom teachers sent home parental consent packets with 486 children enrolled in the 5th grade. Packets contained a parent cover letter and two parent consent forms. One hundred sixty-five parents returned a copy of their signed parent consent form to their child's teacher by the date indicated in the cover letter. This represents a 33.9 percent return rate. Of the 165 children with parental consent, only 158 children signed child assent forms agreeing to participate in the study. This represents a 95.8 percent child assent rate. Common reasons given by the seven children with parent consent to not participate were that the child did not want to participate or that the child was absent on the day the survey was administered. The principal investigator assigned a unique child identification code to each participating child who returned a signed parent consent. Teachers signed, dated and returned teacher consent forms to the principal investigator. The principal investigator then provided each teacher with a list of child names and corresponding child identification codes to use when completing the online teacher's survey. Teachers completed their online questionnaires on school computers at their convenience. Participating children met in groups of 5 to 25 during school hours to complete the online *CBVS* on school computers. At each school, on the day of that the children completed their surveys, the principal investigator set up the online computer surveys prior to participant

children's arrival, answered questions that children had concerning completion of the survey, had children sign their child assent form, and walked the children through the first story, answering any questions that they might have about how to complete each story. The children completed the remaining three stories on their own, while the principal investigator stood by to address any concerns expressed by the children.

Demographic Data

Population Sample

Between September and December, 2009, 158 children enrolled in the 5th grade at either a public or private school in the South completed the *CBVS*. Surveys were administered to groups of children in their respective schools. Each child's teacher completed a questionnaire about the participating child's social behavior with peers and about the child's tendency to either bully or to be victimized. The sample of children was predominantly European American/White (n=120, 75.9%), but also included Hispanic (n=8, 5.1%), Asian Americans (n=7, 4.4%), African Americans/Blacks (n=13, 8.2%), and other ethnic groups (n=10, 6.3%). Information about socioeconomic status was not collected from these children. See Table 1.

Table 1

CBVS Sample Demographics

Ethnic Group	Male	Female	Total
African American/Black	5 7.0%	8 9.2%	13 8.2%
Hispanic / Latino	8 5.1%	4 5.6%	4 4.6%
Asian American	7 4.0%	2 2.8%	5 5.7%
European American White	120 75.9%	55 77.5%	65 74.7%
Other	10 6.3%	5 7.0%	5 5.7%
All	71 44.9%	87 55.1%	
Age in Years	M = 10.35	SD = .499	N = 158

Measures

Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)

The *CBVS* contains four hypothetical scenarios about bullying. In two of the scenarios, the main character is a victim of bullying. In the other two scenarios, the main character is a bystander who witnesses bullying. In addition, the form of bullying varies for across the type of character: bystander and victim. That is, one bystander scenario involves physical bullying and the other bystander scenario involves relational bullying. Likewise, one victim scenario involves physical bullying and the other victim scenario involves physical relational.

After reading each scenario, the child is presented with a list of six to eight Action Choices, which represent possible actions that the main character of the scenario could take in

response to either being bullied or watching another child being bullied. Half of the Action Choices on the list were Prosocial Action Choices (e.g., "I would tell the bullies to stop talking about her," "I would see if Charlie was okay and help him"). The other half of the Action Choices on the list were Aggressive Action Choices (e.g., "I would threaten to beat up the mean kids," "I would tell the bullies that they are losers").

The participant child is asked to rate each Action Choice for "how good" it is. Response options range from 1 = *very bad*, 2 = *kind of bad*, 3 = *kind of good*, and 4 = *very good*. Next, the participant child is asked to review all of the items that they just rated and select the item that represents the *very best* thing for the main character to do. A score for "best" Prosocial Action Choice is calculated by counting the number of prosocial responses listed as a Best Action Choice for each scenario. Similarly, a score for Best Aggressive Action Choice is calculated by counting the number the number of prosocial responses listed as a Worst Action Choice for each scenario. A score for Worst Aggressive Action Choice is calculated by counting the number of aggressive responses listed as a Worst Action Choice for each scenario. Best Prosocial Action Choice scores are dependent upon Best Aggressive Action Choice scores; therefore, only Best Prosocial Action Choice scores are used in the analyses. The present study was mainly concerned with indentifying what children think is the Best action to take in response to victimization; therefore, neither the Worst Prosocial Action Choices nor the Worst Aggressive Action Choices were included in the analyzes.

Next, the child is asked to reflect again on his or her "Best" Action Choice and read a list of six to nine possible reasons or explanations for why the main character would choose to engage in the "best" Action Choice. These explanations are referred to as Justification Choices. One third of the Justification Choices on the list reflect a rationale based on the principle of

Justice/Fairness. Examples include, "It's not fair to pick on Charlie," "Mike has as much right to be on the team as anybody else." Another third of the Justification Choices on the list reflect a rationale based on the principle of Prosocial behavior/Care for another person. Examples include, "Being picked on really hurts," "Charlie needs someone to help him." The last third of the Justification Choices on the list are based on the principle of Aggressive behavior/Lack of concern for another person. Examples include, "The mean kids deserve to get punished," "It will teach the mean kids a lesson." The participating child rates each Justification Choice on the list for how good it is with 1 = *very bad*, 2 = *kind of bad*, 3 = *kind of good*, and 4 = *very good*. The participating child then selects from among all of the Justifications just rated as *very good* Justification for the main character's "best" Action Choice.

The participant child also selects the *worst* Justification for the main character's "very bad" Action Choice. A score for Justice/Fair Justification was calculated by summing the number of "best" Justifications across all four scenarios that were coded as Justice/Fair. A score for Prosocial/Care was calculated by summing the number of "best" Justifications across all four scenarios that were coded as Prosocial/Care. Finally, a score for Aggressive/retribution Justifications was calculated by summing the number of *worst* Justifications across all four scenarios that were coded as Aggressive/retribution.

Teacher's Survey

The teacher's survey contained the *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)*, the *Children's Social Behavior Scale (CSBS)*, and the *Children's Social Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ).*

Child Behavior Scale (CBS). The *CBS* contains 59 items grouped into six subscales (Ladd & Profilet, 1996), which include Prosocial with Peers, Aggressive with Peers, Asocial with Peers, Excluded by Peers, Anxious-Fearful, and Hyperactive-Distractible. Only the *CBS* Prosocial with

Peers (7 items) and the Aggressive with Peers (7 items) subscales are relevant to the current study. Thus, a modified version of the *CBS* was used for this investigation, which these two subscales. Teachers rated the behavior described in each item in terms of how characteristic or "applicable" it was for the child they were rating. Scale points were defined as 1 = *doesn't apply* (child seldom displays the behavior); 2 = *applies sometimes* (child occasionally displays the behavior); 3 = *certainly applies* (child often displays the behavior). The Aggressive with Peers subscale contains questions about the child such as whether or not this child is an "aggressive child," "fights with other children," "kicks, bites, or hits other children," "argues with other children," or "threatens other children." A score for Aggressive with Peers is calculated by summing the teacher's ratings across all 7 items. Possible scores range from 1 to 7. The Prosocial with Peers subscale contains questions about the child such as whether the child is "kind toward others," "helps other children," "Seems concerned when other children are distressed," and "Shows concern for moral issues (e.g., fairness, welfare of others)." A score for Prosocial with Peers is calculated by summing the teacher's rating across all 7 items. Possible scores range from 1 to 7.

Previous research for the Prosocial with Peers subscale reported an internal consistency coefficient as determined by Cronbach alpha of .92 (M = 2.31, SD = .55, range = 1-7) (Ladd & Profilet, 1996). For the Aggressive with Peers subscale, Ladd and Profilet (1996) reported an internal consistency coefficient as determined by Cronbach alphas of .92 (M = 1.39, SD = .51, range = 1-7). The *CBS* with subscales is found in Appendix B. For Prosocial with Peers, the present study found an internal consistency coefficient as determined by Cronbach's alpha of .92 (M = 2.60, SD = .44, range = 1-7). For Aggressive with Peers, the present study found an

internal consistency coefficient as determined by Cronbach's alpha of .88 (M = 1.22, SD = .33, range = 1-7).

Children's Social Behavior Scale (CSBS). The *CSBS* is a teacher-report measure of children's aggression, prosocial behavior, and social adjustment (Crick, 1996). The *CSBS* consists of 13 items: five that assess relational aggression, four that assess physical aggression, and four that assess prosocial behavior. The Likert response scale for each item ranges from 1 (this is never true of this child) to 5 (this is almost always true of this child). Examples of relational aggression include "When this child is mad at a peer, s/he gets even by excluding the peer from his or her clique or play group" and "This child spreads rumors or gossips about some peers." Possible scores on this subscale can vary from 5 to 25. Examples of physical aggression include "This child hits or kicks peers" and "This child threatens to hit or beat up other children." Possible scores on this subscale can vary from 4 to 20. Examples of prosocial behavior include "This child says supportive things to peers" and "This child is helpful to peers." Possible scores on this subscale can vary from 4 to 20.

Previous research reports internal consistency coefficients as determined by Cronbach alphas of .94 for relational aggression, of .94 for physical aggression, and of .93 for prosocial behavior (Crick, 1996). Sample means and standard deviations were not reported for previous studies. Intercorrelations between the subscale scores have been reported to be moderately to strongly intercorrelated. In particular, the correlation between physical aggression and relational aggression was .77; the correlation between physical aggression and prosocial behavior was -.65; and the correlation between relational aggression and prosocial behavior was -.55 (Crick, 1996). The *CBSB* with subscales is found in Appendix B.

Children's Social Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ)

The *CSEQ* is teacher-report measure of children's victimization by classmates and children's receipt of prosocial acts (Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005b). Three items assess teachers' perceptions of children's physical victimization. They include "This child gets hit or kicked by peers," "This child gets pushed or shoved by peers," and "This child gets physically threatened by peers." Three items assess teachers' perceptions of children's relational victimization experiences. They include "This child gets ignored by other children when a peer is mad at them," "This child gets left out of the group when someone is mad at them or wants to get back at them," and "This child is the target of rumors or gossip in the playgroup." One item assesses teachers' perceptions of children's receipt of prosocial acts. It is "This child gets help from peers when s/he needs it." The Likert response scale for each item ranges from 1 (this is never true of this child) to 5 (this is almost always true of this child).

Findings from a previous study indicate high levels of internal consistency for each subscale. The internal consistency as determined by Cronbach's alpha for the relational victimization subscale was .82 (M = 5.4, SD = 2.6, range = 5.20). The internal consistency as determined by Cronbach's alpha for the physical victimization subscale was .93 (M = 4.3, SD = 2.1, range = 4.2). The correlation between the Relational and Physical victimization subscales was .51 ($p < .01$), indicating that the *CSEQ* measures similar yet distinct forms of victimization (Cullerton-Sen & Crick, 2005b). The *CSEQ* with subscales is found in Appendix B.

In addition, the teacher's survey for the current contained one item that assessed children's intellectual ability. Teachers rated each child for perceived intellectual ability on a 5-point Likert response option with 5 = *high intellectual ability*, 4 = *above average intellectual ability*, 3 = *average intellectual ability*, 2 = *below average intellectual ability*, and 1 = *low*

intellectual ability. This measure served as a proxy measure for children's intellectual ability and was entered into the analyses as a statistical control. It was important to statistically control for children's intellectual ability because previous research has found that children of lower intelligence are more likely to be physically aggressive with peers than children of higher intelligence (Dodge, 1986).

Dodge (1986) posited that children's social information processing skills are determined at least in part by intelligence. Recent research finds that adaptive emotion-regulation strategies, aggressive-response generation, and problem-solving response generation are all related to adolescents' intelligence. In contrast, hostile attribution of intent is not related to intelligence (Nas, De Castro, & Koops, 2005).

Given that previous research finds that intelligence is related to aggressive response generation and problem solving, it is likely that intelligence is related to actions children say they would take if they were a victim of bullying or a bystander witness to bullying. Similarly, it is possible that intelligence is related to the justifications children give for their actions in response to bullying by another child. Therefore, the relationships between teacher perceptions of children's intelligence and children's action choices and justification will be examined. If these relationships were statistically significant, then teacher perceptions of a child's intelligence would have been entered as a covariate in all analyses.

Data Analyses

What are the psychometric properties of the Children's Bully Victim Survey (CBVS)? The reader is reminded that for each of the four stories on the *CBVS*, children rated a list of Prosocial Action Choices and Aggressive Action Choices on the basis of how "good" they are as behavioral responses to bulling. Ratings ranged from 1 = "very bad" to 4 = "very good." Means,

Standard Deviations, ranges, and Cronbach alphas for the Prosocial Actions Choices across all four scenarios and the Aggressive Action Choices were calculated across all four scenarios. Similarly, means, standard deviations, ranges, and Cronbach alphas were calculated for the ratings of "goodness" on the three types of Justifications (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair).

Logistic regression analysis was used to test for a relation between a categorical dependent variable and continuous independent variables. Chi-square analysis was used to test for independence between variables. Chi-square is the most appropriate analysis to test for independence between two or more categorical variables.

For all subsequent analyses, Test for the Difference in Proportions were used total frequencies (f) and percentages (%) were computed across all four stories for Prosocial each Action Choices and Aggressive Action Choices and for Prosocial/Care justifications, Aggressive/Retribution justifications, and Justice/Fair justifications. These are reported by children's Gender (male vs. female), Story Character Form (bystander vs. victim), and Story Form of Victimization (physical vs. relational).

Does children's Intellectual Ability relate to the frequency of children's CBVS Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive) and Justification Choices (e.g., Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution)? Intellectual ability was reported as a single teacher-perceived item on the teacher measure. Children's categorical ability was reported as Low, Below Average, Average, Above Average, or High. Standardized academic ability scores were not available for this study.

A Chi-Square (χ^2) test on independence was used to determine whether or not there was a dependency between children's Intellectual Ability as perceived by teachers and children's *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Are there significant differences in the proportion of children's responses on the CBVS Justification Choice subscales (Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair) and CBVS Action Choice subscales (Prosocial, Aggressive)? A Chi-Square (χ^2) test of independence was used to determine whether children's Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive) were dependent on their Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair).

Tests for the difference in proportions were performed to determine if there were interactions between variables. Tests for the difference in proportions were performed by participant children's Gender (e.g., male, female), Story Character Form (e.g., bystander, victim), and Story Form of Victimization (e.g., physical, relational).

Does teacher-report CBS Behavior with Peers (e.g., Prosocial With Peers, Aggressive With Peers) relate to children's CBVS Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive)? Subscale means and standard deviations for the *CBS* and *CBVS* subscales were computed by averaging children's additive scores across all of the items contained within a subscale sum. The internal consistency of each subscale was estimated with Cronbach's alpha. Alphas for the two *CBS* subscales were moderately high to high in magnitude. A stepwise backwards logistic regression model was used to determine if teacher-report scores on Prosocial With Peers and Aggressive With Peers subscales on the *CBS* predicted children's Prosocial and Aggressive Action Choices on the *CBVS*. The backwards elimination analysis was used as a means of comparing the *CBS* continuous rated data with the *CBVS* nominal categorical data, which started out with *CBS*

Prosocial with Peers and *CBS* Aggressive with Peers as the predictors of *CBVS* Action Choices in the model. At each step the predictors in the model were evaluated and eliminated if they met the significance criterion of $p > .05$ for removal in order to least reduce the R^2 (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 1989; Pedhazur, 1997).

Do the teacher reports of children's social behavior with peers as assessed by the CBS Prosocial With Peers subscale and the Aggressive Behavior With Peers subscale of the Child Behavior Scale (CBS, Ladd & Profilet, 1996) relate to the children's CBVS Justification Choices that are coded as either Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution? A multinominal Logistic Regression model based on *CBS* subscales (e.g., Prosocial with Peers, Aggressive with Peers) was used to predict the *CBVS* Justification Choice subscales (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair) using Justice/Fair as the baseline variable. Multinomial logistic regression is used when the dependent variable, Action and Justification Choices, in question is nominal (a set of categories which cannot be ordered in any meaningful way) and consists of more than two categories (Prosocial vs. Aggressive actions, Prosocial/care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair justifications) (Harrell, 2001). Multinomial logistic regression is appropriate in cases where the response is not ordinal in nature as in ordered logistic. In contrast, ordered logistic regression is used in cases where the dependent variable in question consists of a set number (more than two) of categories which can be ordered in a meaningful way while multinomial logistic regression is used when there is no apparent order. The multinomial logistic model assumes that data are case specific; that is, each independent variable (e.g., *CBS* Prosocial with Peers and *CBS* Aggressive with Peers) has a single value for each case. The multinomial logistic model also assumes that the dependent *CBVS* variables cannot be perfectly predicted from the independent *CBS* variables for any case. As with other

types of regression, collinearity is assumed to be relatively low, as it becomes difficult to differentiate between the impact of several variables if they are highly correlated. The multinomial logistic is used to model choices, and may in some situations impose too much constraint on the relative preferences between the different alternative. This point is especially important to take into account when predicting how *CBS* Prosocial or Aggressive with Peers variables would change if one alternative was to disappear (for instance if the *CBS* Prosocial with Peers variable is removed). The multinomial logistic may be used in such cases as they need not violate the assumption of independence of irrelevant alternatives.

Does the difference in proportions of children's CBVS Action Choices that are coded as either Prosocial or Aggressive and CBVS Justification Choices that are coded as either Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, or Justice/Fair relate to participant child gender (e.g., male, female), Story Character Role (e.g., Bystander, Victim), Story Form of Victimization (e.g., Physical, Relational) and Bully/Victim Group Membership (e.g., Nonbully/Nonvictim, Victim, Bully, Bully/Victim)? Demographic variables that may influence children's responses for Action Choices subscales were examined. They included a child participant's gender, the character role (e.g., Bystander, Victim) depicted in each story, the form of Victimization (e.g., Physical, Relational) depicted in each story, and Bully/Victim Group Membership (e.g., Nonbully/Nonvictim, Victim, Bully, Bully/Victim).

Gender. A Chi-Square (χ^2) test on independence was used to determine whether or not there was a dependency between participant children's gender and their *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices. Tests for differences in proportion were conducted to determine the difference in frequency (f) that males or females chose *CBVS* and children's *CBVS* Action

Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive) and Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair).

Story Character Role. A Chi-Square (X^2) test of independence was used to determine whether or not there was a dependency between Story Character Role (e.g., Bystander, Victim) and children's *CBVS* Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive) and Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair). Tests for differences in proportions were conducted to determine the difference in frequency (f) in which the Story Character Role was a bystander or a victim and children's *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Story Form of Victimization. A Chi-Square (X^2) test of independence was used to determine whether or not there was a dependency between Story Form of Victimization (e.g., Physical, Relational) children's *CBVS* Action Choices (e.g., Prosocial, Aggressive) and Justification Choices (e.g., Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair). Tests for differences in proportion were conducted to determine the difference in frequency (f) in which the Story Form of Victimization and children's *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Bully/Victim Group Membership. For the present study, composite variables were computed for four Bully/Victim groups: Nonbully/Nonvictim, Victim, Bully, Bully/Victim. To compute Bully/Victim group membership, an aggression score was computed for each child by summing five relational aggression items and four physical aggression items from the teacher-rated *Children's Social Behavior Scale (CSBS)* and dividing by nine. A victimized score was computed by summing the three relational victimized items and three physical victimized items on the *Children's Social Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ)* and dividing by six.

Bullies were identified as children who scored above the 66th percentile on aggression and at or below the 66th percentile on victimization. Victims were identified as children who

scored above the 66th percentile on victimization and at or below on the 66th percentile on aggression. Bully/Victims were identified as children who scored above the 66th percentile on aggression and above the 66th percentile on victimization. Nonbully/nonvictims were identified as children who scored below the 66th percentile on aggression and below the 66th percentile on victimization. Precedent for this methodology can be found in Pellegrini et al. (1999), Schwartz (2000), and Huitsing, et al. (2007). See Table 2.

Table 2

Bully/Victim Group Membership Demographics

Bully/Victim Membership Count	Total	Male	Female
Nonbully/Nonvictim	98 (62.0%)	45 (63.4%)	53 (60.9%)
Victim	15 (9.5%)	9 (12.7%)	6 (6.9%)
Bully	18 (11.3%)	7 (9.9%)	11 (12.6%)
Bully/Victim	27 (17.1%)	10 (14.1%)	17 (19.5%)

N = 158, n (male) = 71, n (female) = 87

A Chi-Square (χ^2) test on independence was used to determine whether or not there was a dependency between children's Bully/Victim group membership as perceived by teachers and children's selection of different categories *CBVS* Action Choices and different categories on *CBVS* Justification Choices.

CHAPTER IV:

RESULTS

The purpose of this study is to evaluate a new measure of children's social reasoning about bully victimization, the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)*. This chapter will address each of the guiding research questions in the order outlined in Chapters I and III. Analyses and results of the related hypotheses will follow each question. Conclusions for each hypothesis will follow each analysis. The research questions address the following issues: 1) psychometric properties of the *CBVS*, 2) the influence of children's intellectual ability on children's *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices, 3) the relationship between *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices, 4) the ability of the *CBS* to predict children's *CBVS* Action Choices, 5) the ability of the *CBS* to predict children's *CBVS* Justification Choices, and 6) the influence of demographic variables (children's gender vs. story character role vs. Story Form of Victimization vs. children's Bully/Victim group membership) on children's *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices. A summary of the results will follow at the end of the analyses. The following analyses address the research questions for this study.

Question One

What are the psychometric properties of the child-report CBVS?

Initially, reliability and correlation analyses were performed on *CBVS* Action Choice (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) and Justification Choice (Justice/Fair vs. Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution) data that children rated on a Likert scale in response to victimization where 1 equals *very bad*, 2 equals *kind of bad*, 3 equals *kind of good*, and 4 equals *very good*.

The mean, range, standard deviation, internal consistencies, and correlations were calculated for the *CBVS* Action Choice (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) and the *CBVS* Justification Choices (Justice/Fair vs. Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution) for each story and across all four stories.

While the initial parametric analyses for internal consistency and correlations within stories and subjects will be described in detail, results were found to be lower than anticipated. Even though alpha can take on any value less than or equal to 1, including negative values, higher values are more desirable; whereas, the rule of thumb requires a reliability of .70 or higher obtained on a substantial sample (Lomax, 2001). Specifically, the findings for *CBVS* Action Choice and *CBVS* Justification Choices revealed low positive to negative internal consistencies and low positive correlations between all four stories. Findings for within *CBVS* Aggressive Action Choices and *CBVS* Justification Choices for all four stories showed similar low internal consistencies and both positive and negative values. These findings lead to the decision to not use a general linear model approach to assess the rated data; but rather, to focus on nonparametic analyses of the categorical ranked data. The nonparametric techniques subsequently used to perform the final analyses will be discussed following the analytic descriptions of the rated data.

Table 3 presents the descriptive data and Cronbach alpha for the Prosocial Action Choice subscales by each story on the *CBVS*. The first consideration was to calculate the means for Prosocial Action Choice items for each story. However, internal consistencies for *CBVS* Prosocial Actions were low for all four stories with a relatively small sample. While bystander character/physical victimization story 1 and bystander character/relational victimization story 3 showed moderately low (.3220, .2405 respectively) internal consistencies for Prosocial Actions, victim character/physical victimization story 2 showed a negative internal consistency (-2835)

for Prosocial Actions and victim character/physical victimization story 4 showed shows a near zero (.0118) internal consistency for Prosocial Actions.

The correlations for Prosocial Actions were all positive but low to moderate across all four stories. Moderately low correlations were found between story 1 and story 3 (.2536) at the .01 level of significance and between story 1 and story 4 (.1562) at the .05 level of significance. Low moderate correlations were found between story 2 and story 3 (.2744) and between story 2 and story 4 (.2061) at the .01 level of significance. Low correlations were found between story 3 and story 4 (.1721) at the .05 level of significance. See Table 3.

Table 3

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data on the CBVS Prosocial Action Subscales

	Items	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Story 1 [Bystander/Physical]	4	3.8244	.2403	3.00-4.00	.3220
Story 2 [Victim/Physical]	3	3.0717	.4195	2.00-4.00	- .2835
Story 3 [Bystander/Relational]	3	3.2932	.5108	1.67-4.00	.2405
Story 4 [Victim/Relational]	3	3.4895	.4098	2.33-4.00	.0118

Correlation Matrix for Rated Data on the CBVS Prosocial Action Subscales

	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4
Story 1	1.0000	----	----	----
Story 2	.0731	1.0000	----	----
Story 3	.2536**	.2744**	1.0000	----
Story 4	.1562*	.2061**	.1721*	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Second, Table 4 presents the descriptive data and internal consistencies for the Aggressive Action Choices subscale by each story on the *CBVS*. The means for the Aggressive Action Choices subscale for each story suggests that the items representing aggressive actions were rated by children as either "very bad" (1) or "kind of bad" (2). However, internal consistencies for *CBVS* Aggressive Actions are low across all four stories. Bystander character / physical victimization story 1 and victim character / relational victimization story 4 showed greater reliabilities (.4447, .5354 respectively) than victim character / physical victimization story 2 (.2069) for Aggressive Actions. Bystander character / relational victimization story 3 shows a negative reliability (-.0617) for Aggressive Actions. Victim character / relational victimization story 4 showed the highest reliability for Aggressive Actions.

The correlations for Aggressive Actions were all positive across all four stories. Story 1 and story 2 showed a low moderate (.2328) correlation at the .01 level of significance. Story 1 and story 3 showed the highest correlation (.6291) at the .01 level of significance followed by story 1 and story 4 showing a moderate correlation (.4268) at the .01 level of significance. Story 2 and story 4 showed a moderate level of correlation (.4897) at the .01 level of significance. Story 3 and story 4 showed a moderately low correlation (.3224) at the .01 level of significance. Story 2 and story 3 showed a low correlation (.1975) at the .05 level of significance.. See Table 4.

Table 4

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data on the CBVS Aggressive Action Subscales

	Items	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Story 1 [Bystander/Physical]	4	1.5949	.4303	1.00-3.75	.4447
Story 2 [Victim/Physical]	3	2.2110	.5404	1.00-2.00	.2069
Story 3 [Bystander/Relational]	3	2.3755	.4399	1.00-3.33	- .0617
Story 4 [Victim/Relational]	3	1.6498	.6099	1.00-3.33	.5354

Correlation Matrix for Rated Data on the CBVS Aggressive Action Subscales

	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4
Story 1	1.0000	----	----	----
Story 2	.2328**	1.0000	----	----
Story 3	.6291**	.1975*	1.0000	----
Story 4	.4268**	.4897**	.3224**	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Third, Table 5 presents the descriptive data and internal consistencies for the Prosocial/Care Justification Choices subscales by each story on the *CBVS*. However, the internal consistencies for *CBVS* Prosocial/Care Justifications are very low across all four stories. Bystander character / physical victimization story 1 showed the greatest reliability (.2754) for Prosocial/Care Justifications of all four stories. Victim character / relational victimization story 4 showed a near zero reliability for Prosocial/Care Justifications. Victim character / physical victimization story 2 and bystander character / relational victimization story 3 showed negative reliabilities (-.005, -.1.13 respectively) for Prosocial/Care Justifications.

For Prosocial/Care Justifications, positive correlations were found between story 1 and stories 2, 3, and 4 (.3719, .4474, .3187 respectively) at the .01 level of significance. Positive correlations were found between story 2 and stories 3 and 4 (.3754, .2789 respectively) at the .01 level of significance. The highest correlation was found between story 3 and story 4 (.5081) at the . 01 level of significance. See Table 5.

Table 5

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data on the CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Subscales

	Items	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Story 1 [Bystander/ Physical]	3	3.1667	.6281	2.00-4.00	.2754
Story 2 [Victim/Physical]	3	2.4578	.6651	1.00-4.00	- .0005
Story 3 [Bystander/Relational]	2	2.9209	.7498	1.00-4.00	- .1013
Story 4 [Victim/ Relational]	2	3.4051	.6364	2.00-4.00	.0736

Correlation Matrix for Rated Data on the CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Subscales

	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4
Story 1	1.0000	----	----	----
Story 2	.3719**	1.0000	----	----
Story 3	.4474**	.3754**	1.0000	----
Story 4	.3187**	.2789**	.5081**	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Fourth, Table 6 presents the descriptive data and internal consistencies for the Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices subscale by each story on the *CBVS*. However, the internal consistencies for *CBVS* Aggressive/Retribution Justifications were very low across for

all four stories. Bystander character / physical victimization story 1, victim character / physical victimization story 2 and victim character /relational victimization story 4 showed moderately low (.3478, .4931, .4252 respectively) reliabilities for Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. bystander character / relational victimization showed the lowest (.1559) reliability for Aggressive/Retribution Justifications.

Correlations were positive but moderate across all four stories for Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. Story 1 and story 2 showed a moderate correlation (.4227) at the .01 level of significance; whereas, story 1 and stories 3 and 4 showed similar but slightly weaker correlations (.3017, .3015 respectively) at the .01 level of significance. Story 2 showed moderately weak correlations with stories 3 and 4 (.3739, .4223 respectively) at the .01 level of significance. Story 3 and story 4 showed he highest correlation (.4670) at the .01 level of significance. See Table 6.

Table 6

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data on the CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Subscales

	Items	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Story 1 [Bystander/Physical]	3	1.5274	.5376	1.00-3.00	.3478
Story 2 [Victim/Physical]	3	2.3059	.8302	1.00-4.00	.4931
Story 3 [Bystander/Relational]	2	2.6835	.7344	1.00-4.00	.1559
Story 4 [Victim/Relational]	2	2.2532	.9130	1.00-4.00	.4252

Correlation Matrix for Rated Data on the CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Subscales

	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4
Story 1	1.0000	----	----	----
Story 2	.4227**	1.0000	----	----
Story 3	.3017**	.3739**	1.0000	----
Story 4	.3015**	.4224**	.4670**	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Fifth, Table 7 presents the descriptive data and internal consistencies for the Justice/Fair Justification Choices subscale for each story on the *CBVS*. However, the internal consistencies for *CBVS* Justice/Fair Justifications were very low across all four stories. Bystander character / physical victimization story 1 showed the greatest reliability (.4183) for Justice/Fair Justifications. Victim character / physical victimization story 2 and bystander character / relational victimization story 3 showed similar, but low (.1140, .1890 respectively) reliabilities.

Victim character / relational victimization story 4 showed a negative (-.2242) reliability for Justice/Fair Justifications. Correlations were low across all four stories for Justice/Fair Justifications. Story 1 and story 2 (.3107) and story 2 and story 4 (.3555) showed the highest correlation at the .01 level of significance. Story 1 and story 3 showed a correlation of .1714 at the .05 level of significance. See Table 7.

Table 7

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data on the CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Subscales

	Items	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Story 1 [Bystander/Physical]	3	3.2426	.6610	1.00-4.00	.4183
Story 2 [Victim/Physical]	3	3.1308	.5371	1.67-4.00	.1140
Story 3 [Bystander/Relational]	2	3.6139	.5697	2.00-4.00	.1890
Story 4 [Victim/Relational]	2	3.0633	.6123	1.00-4.00	- .2224

Correlation Matrix for Rated Data on the CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Subscales

	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4
Story 1	1.0000	----	----	----
Story 2	.3107**	1.0000	----	----
Story 3	.1714*	.0828	1.0000	----
Story 4	.0930	.3555**	.0659	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Last, Table 8 presents the descriptive data and internal consistencies for composite means of all Action Choices and for composite means of all Justification Choices across all four stories on the *CBVS*. However, the internal consistencies for these Action and Justification Choice

subscales across the four stories are moderate, with the exception of Aggressive Action Choices and Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices which showed relatively strong internal consistencies (.7118, .7087 respectively) for their respective subscales. Prosocial Actions and Justice/Fair Justifications showed similar reliabilities (.4637, .4868, respectively) reliabilities. Prosocial/Care Justifications showed a reliability of .5729 across all four stories.

Positive correlations were found between Prosocial Actions and Prosocial/Care Justifications (.4096) and between Justice/Fair Justifications (.3933) at the .01 level of significance. A positive correlation was found between Aggressive Actions Choices and Aggressive/ Retribution Justifications (.5640) at the .01 level of significance. A positive correlation was found between Aggressive Actions Choices and Justice/Fair Justification Choices (.1761) at the .05 level of significance. Correlations were found between Justice/Fair Justifications and Prosocial/Care Justifications (.4191) at the .01 level of significance. Correlations were also found between Justice/Fair Justification and Aggressive/Retribution Justifications (.3669) at the .01 level of significance. No significant correlations were found between Prosocial Actions and Aggressive Actions and between Prosocial Actions and Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. No significant correlations were found between Aggressive Actions Choices and Prosocial/Care Justifications. No significant correlations were found between Prosocial/Care Justifications and Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. See Table 8.

Table 8

Psychometric Properties for Rated Data for Composite CBVS Action and Justification Subscales Across all 4 Stories

	Mean	SD	Range	Cronbach's α
Prosocial Actions	3.4197	.2538	2.81-4.00	.4637
Aggressive Actions	1.9578	.3715	1.17-3.25	.7118
Justice/Fair Justifications	3.2627	.3692	2.46-4.00	.4868
Prosocial/Care Justifications	2.9876	.4928	1.63-4.00	.5729
Aggressive/Retribution Justifications	2.1925	.5582	1.21-3.67	.7087

Correlation Matrix for Composite CBVS Action and Justification Subscales across all 4 Stories

	ProAC	AgrAC	Just/F JC	Pro/C JC	Agr/R JC
Prosocial Actions	1.0000	----	----	----	----
Aggressive Actions	.0863	1.0000	----	----	----
Justice/Fair Justifications	.3933**	.1761*	1.0000	----	----
Prosocial/Care Justifications	.4096**	-.0657	.4191**	1.0000	----
Aggressive/Retribution Justifications	.1092	.5640**	.3669**	- .0919	1.0000

N = 632 responses, 158 for each story
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Because the internal consistencies were low, I did not use a general linear model approach to assess the research questions. Instead, I used two nonparametric techniques, which focuses on the proportions of categorical items where children had to rank the *very best* and *very worst* Action and Justification items that they had previously rated (Lomax, 2001). The rationale was that children were asked to rate each Action and Justification item as good or bad as a way

help them carefully consider each choice before selecting the *very best* and *very worst* categorical Action and the *very best* and *very worst* categorical Justification. This procedure is better for this data because the parametric analyses were focused on scales that subsequently failed to provide sufficient reliabilities for demonstrating significant relationships between *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices both within stories and between stories. Therefore, I used two nonparametric techniques, which included Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Tests for Difference in Proportions, to analyze the ranked *very best* and *very worst* categorical data set (Lomax, 2001; Pedhazur, 1997). The Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Tests for Difference in Proportion techniques are more appropriate for analyzing categorical data and were found to be more reliable measures of relationships between *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Next, Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Justification Choice subscales (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) and Action Choice subscales (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). Tests for Difference in Proportions were carried out to identify the relationships between variables. Using the nominal *best* data and *worst* data, difference in proportions analyses were conducted to determine the frequency (f) that children chose *CBVS* Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) and Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive).

In particular, a frequency count for the number of times across the four stories that a Prosocial Action choice was selected as the *very best* Action response to victimization was used in all subsequent analyses to examine children's Action choices. A frequency count for the number of times across the four stories that an Aggressive Action was selected as the *very worst* Action. Similarly, a frequency count for the number of times across the four stories that a

Prosocial/Care justification or Justice/Fair Justification was selected as the *very best* Justification for a child's Action Choice. A frequency count for the number of times across the four stories that an Aggressive/Retribution Justification was selected as the *very worst* Justification for a child's Action Choice.

Before considering the relationship between *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices, I wanted to determine whether or not children's intellectual ability would influence their selection of Actions and Justifications. If so, I would need to account for Intellectual Ability as a covariant for children's Action and Justification choices. If there was no significant variation, I would drop Intellectual Ability from further analyses in this study. The following research question will address the issue of Intellectual Ability and children's Action and Justification Choices.

Question Two

Does children's intellectual ability relate to the frequency of children's CBVS Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) and Justification Choices (e.g., Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution)?

Intellectual ability was reported as a single teacher-perceived item on the teacher measure. Children's categorical ability was reported as Low, Below Average, Average, Above Average, or High. Standardized academic ability scores were not available for this study.

A Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no dependency between children's Intellectual Ability and children's CBVS Action Choices that are coded as either Prosocial or Aggressive.* The non-significant Chi-Square (χ^2) (3, N=632) = 123.37, $p < .0001$, Cramer's V = .44, shows that there is no significant dependency between

Intellectual Ability and *CBVS* Action Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Action Choices is not related to children's Intellectual Ability. See Table 9 and Figure 1.

Table 9

Chi-Square (X2) Test for Independence between Participant Children's Intellectual Ability and CBVS Action Choice Subscales Across All Four Stories

	Action Choice Count		
Intellectual Ability Count	Prosocial	Aggressive	Total Responses
Low	91	33	124
Below Average	58	210	268
Average	44	164	208
Above Average/High	9	23	32
Total	202	430	632

Pearson Chi-Square (X^2) (3, N=632) = 122.37, $p < .0001$
Cramer's V = .44

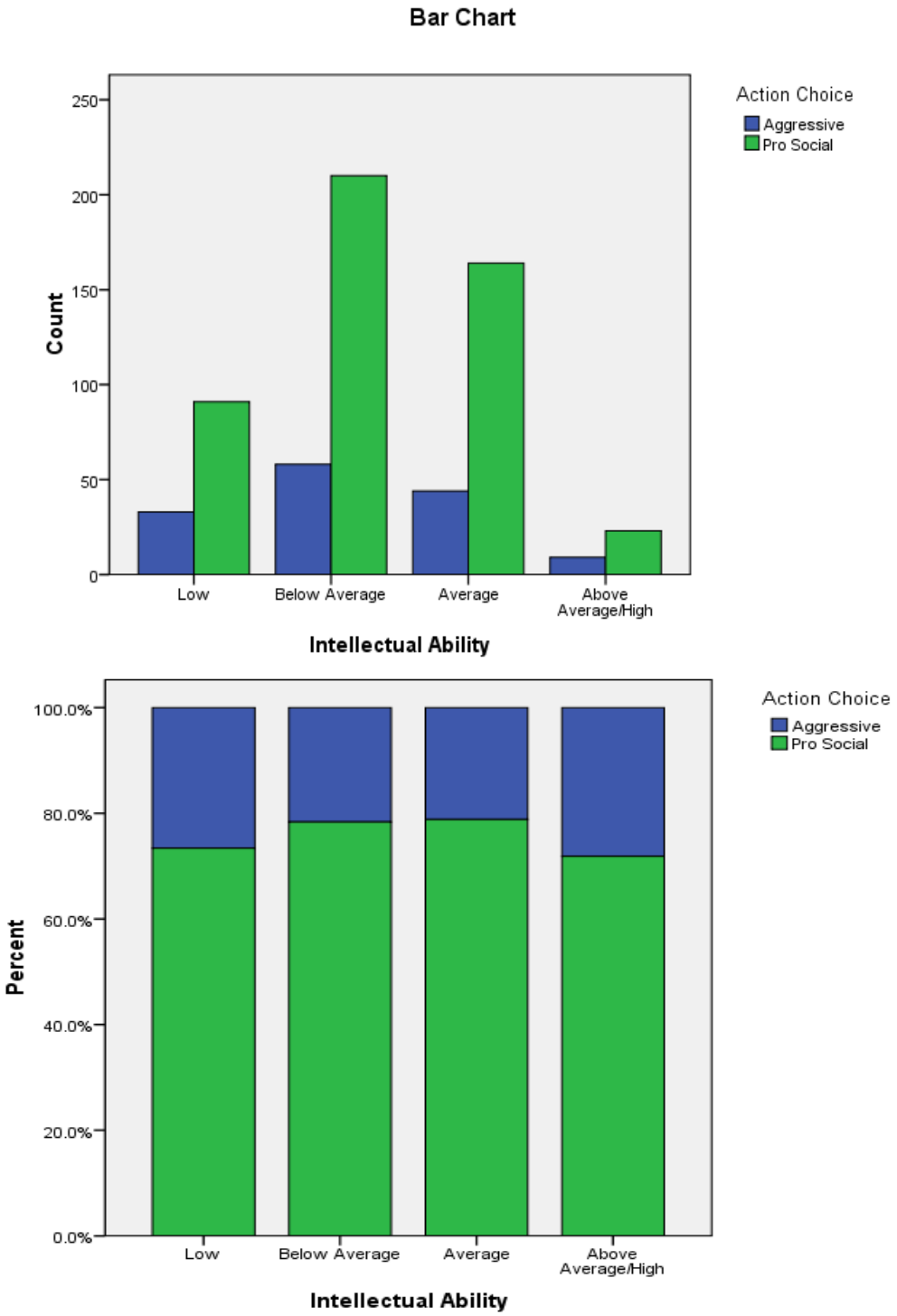


Figure 1. Chi-Square (X2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. Intellectual Ability Group

A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no dependency between children's Intellectual Ability and children's Justification Choices that are codes as either Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, or Justice/Fair.* The non-significant Chi-Square (X^2) (6, N=632) = 5.235, p = .514, indicates that there is no significant dependency between Intellectual Ability and Justification Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Justification Choices is not related to children's Intellectual Ability. See Table 10 and Figure 2.

Table 10

Chi-Square (X2) Test for Independence between Participant Children's Intellectual Ability and CBVS Justification Choice Subscales

	Justification Choice Count			
Intellectual Ability Count	Prosocial/ Care	Aggressive/ Retribution	Justice/ Fair	Total Responses
Low	30	15	70	115
Below Average	80	39	149	268
Average	61	19	128	208
Above Average/High	7	3	22	32
Total	178	76	369	632

Pearson Chi-Square (X^2) (6, N=632) = 5.37, p = .497
Cramer's V = .0656

a. 0 cells (8.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.85.

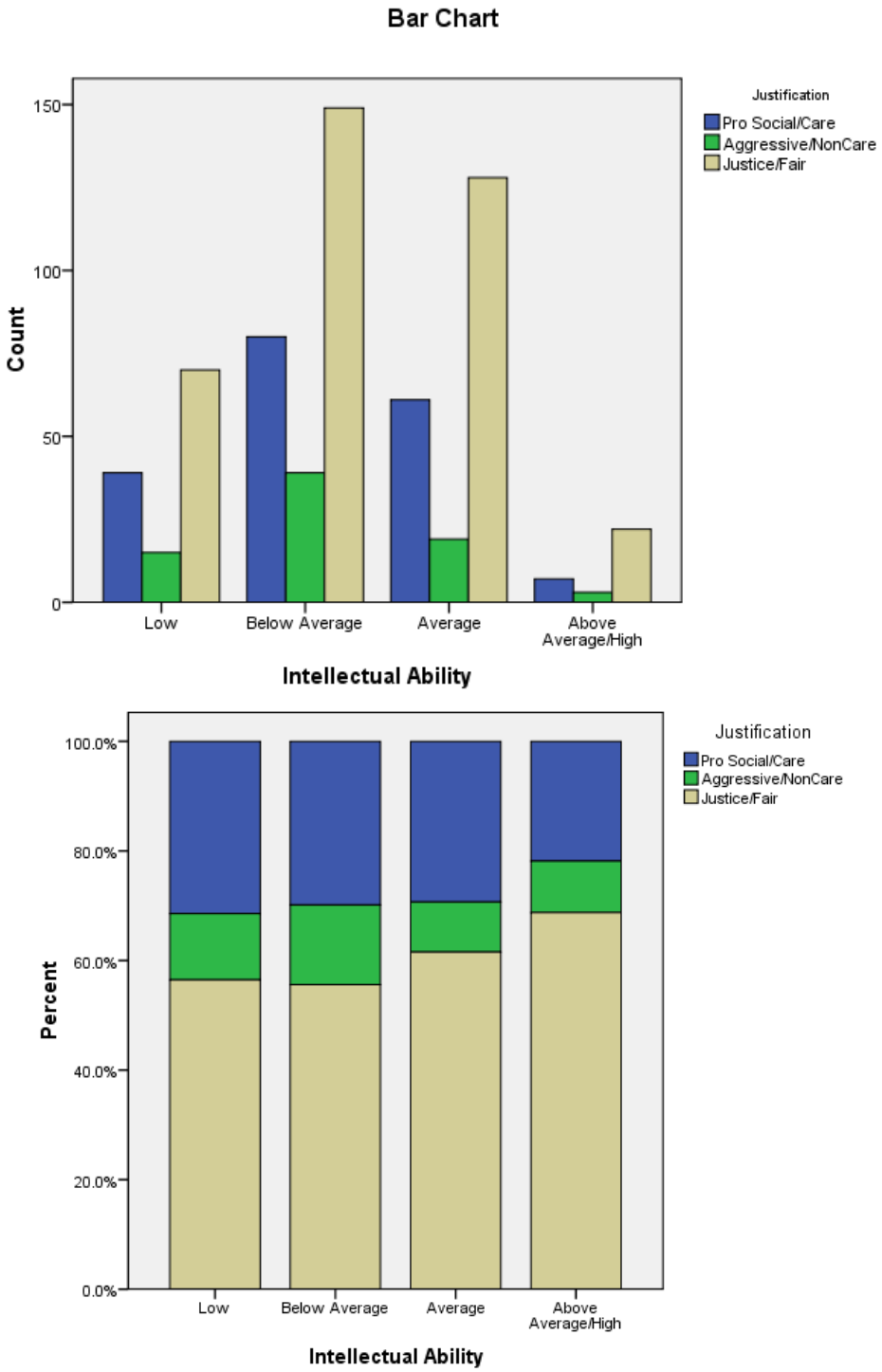


Figure 2. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Justification Choices vs. Intellectual Ability Group

Because children's intellectual ability did not relate significantly to children's selection of Action and Justification Choices, I did not include Intellectual Ability as a covariant in further analyses in this study. The next research question, considers the relationship between *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Question Three

Are there significant differences in the proportion of children's responses on the CBVS Justification Choice subscales (Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, Justice/Fair) and CBVS Action Choice subscales (Prosocial, Aggressive)?

A Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether children's Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) were dependent on their Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair). The significant Chi-Square (2, N=632) = 33.96, $p <$ .0001, Cramer's V = .2318, shows that there is a dependency between Actions Choice and Justification Choices. The results are presented in Table 11 and Figure 3.

Tests for the Difference in Proportions based on Action Choice and Justification Choices groups were performed to determine if there were relationships between variables. Tests for the Difference in Proportions were performed on *CVBS* Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) across *CVBS* Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). See Figure 3.

Table 11

CBVS Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence between Justification Choice Subscales and Action Choice Subscales

	Action Choices Count		
Justification Choices Count	Prosocial	Aggressive	Total Responses
Prosocial/Care	165	22	187
Aggressive/Retribution	42	34	76
Justification/Fair	281	88	369
Total	488	144	632

Pearson Chi-Square (2, N=632) = 33.96, $p < .0001$
Cramer's V = .2318

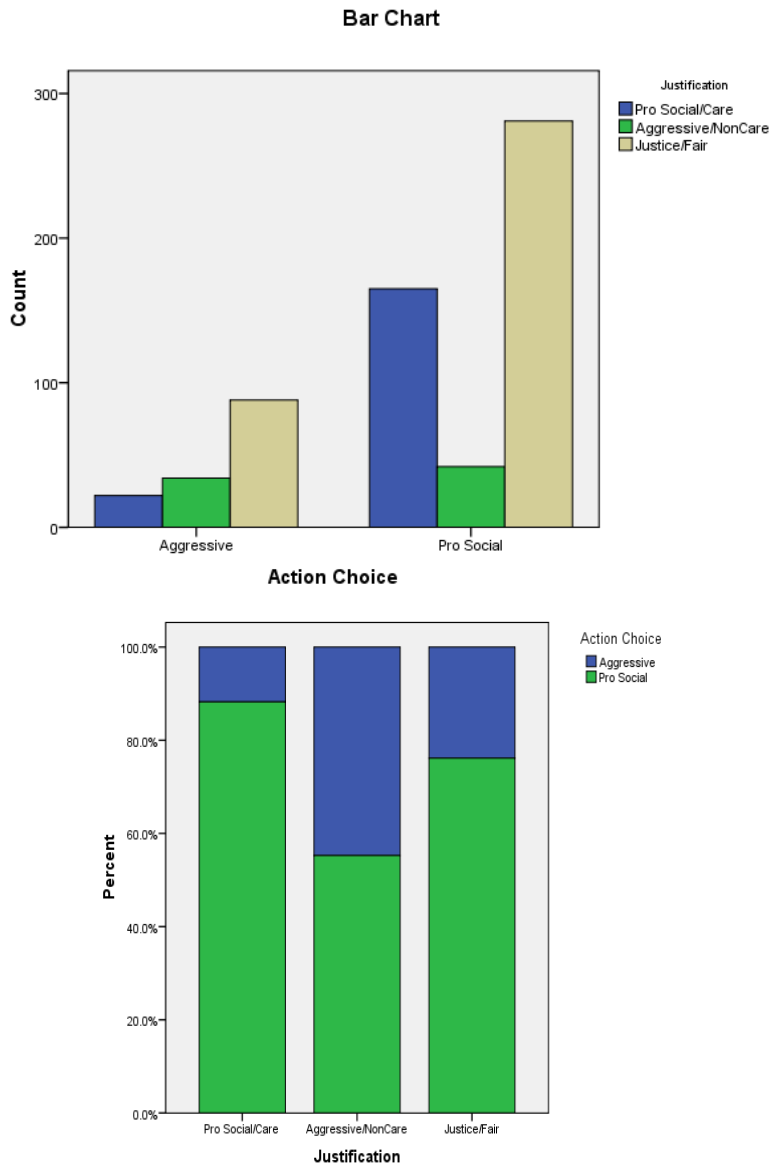


Figure 3. CBVS Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. *CBVS* Justification Choices

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *Of the children who choose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportions between those who choose Prosocial Action Choices and those who choose Aggressive Action Choices.*

Of the 187 responses to Prosocial/Care Justification Choices, 165 were Prosocial Action Choices (sample p = 0.882353, p = 0.000 when test of p =0.5 vs. p ≠ 0.5). The hypothesized difference in proportions of 0.5 does not lie within the 95% confidence interval (0.827312, 0.924783); therefore I conclude that 0.5 is not a plausible value for the true differences in proportions of children's responses to Prosocial Action Choice. Additionally, the proportions of children's Prosocial Action choice responses and children's Aggressive Action Choice responses are different and the proportions of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses were higher than children's Aggressive Action Choice responses. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that children who chose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than Aggressive Action Choices. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for One Proportion for Prosocial/Care Justification Choices

Test of p = 0.5 vs. p not = 0.5

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p	95% CI	Exact P-Value
1	165	187	0.882353	(0.827312, 0.924783)	0.000

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions also tested the following null hypothesis: *Of the children who choose Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportions between those who choose Aggressive Action Choices and those who choose Prosocial Action Choices.*

Of the 76 Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses, 42 were Prosocial Action Choices (sample p =0.552632, p = 0.422 when test of p =0.05 vs. p ≠ 0.5). The

hypothesized difference in proportions of 0.5 lies within the 95% confidence interval (0.434149, 0.666887), therefore I conclude that 0.5 is a plausible value for the true difference in proportions for children's Prosocial Action Choice responses. I also conclude that the proportions of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses and children's Aggressive Action Choice responses are not significantly different. Therefore, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that children who chose an Aggressive/Retribution Justification were just as likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices as they were to choose Aggressive Action Choices. See Table 13.

Table 13

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for One Proportion for Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices

Test of p = 0.5 vs. p not = 0.5					
Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p	95% CI	Exact P-Value
1	42	76	0.552632	(0.434149, 0.666887)	0.422

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *Of the children who make Justice/Fair Justification Choices, there is no difference in proportions of those who make Prosocial Action Choices and those who make Aggressive Action Choices.*

Of the 369 responses to Justice/Fair Justification Choices, 281 were Prosocial Action Choices (sample p =0.761518, p = 0.000 when test of p =0.05 vs. p ≠ 0.5). The hypothesized difference in proportions of 0.5 does not lie within the 95% confidence interval (0.714679, 0.804104); therefore I conclude that 0.5 is not a plausible value for the true difference in proportions of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses and I conclude that the proportions

of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses and children's Aggressive Action Choice responses are different. Additionally, the proportions of children Prosocial Action Choice responses were higher than children's Aggressive Action Choice responses. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that children who chose Justice/Fair Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than children who chose Aggressive Action Choices. See Table 14.

Table 14

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for One Proportion for Justice/Fair Justification Choices

Test of p = 0.5 vs. p not = 0.5

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p	95% CI	Exact P-Value
1	281	369	.761518	(0.714679, 0.804104)	0.000

N = 632 responses

The next research question considered the issue of whether or not teacher reports on the *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)* were predictive of children's Action Choice responses on the *Children's Bully/Victim Scale (CBVS)*.

Question Four

Do teacher-reports of children's behavior with peers (Prosocial With Peers vs. Aggressive With Peers) relate to children's CBVS Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive)?

A stepwise backwards logistic regressions tested following null hypotheses: (1) There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Prosocial With Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Action Choice responses (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) and (2) There is no relationship between the proportion of teacher reports on the Aggressive With Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Action Choice responses (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). The backwards

elimination analysis was used as a means of comparing the *CBS* continuous rated data with the *CBVS* nominal categorical data, which started out with *CBS* Prosocial with Peers and *CBS* Aggressive with Peers as the predictors of *CBVS* Action Choices in the model. At each step, the predictors in the model were evaluated and eliminated if they met the significance criterion of $p > .05$ for removal in order to least reduce the R^2.

In the first step, both the *CBS* Aggressive With Peers and the *CBS* Prosocial with Peers were entered as predictors of the *CBVS* Action Choices. There were two different *CBVS* Action Choices that children could choose: Prosocial or Aggressive. The *CBS* Prosocial with Peers was the first variable to be entered as the best single predictor of *CBVS* Action Choices in context with *CBS* Aggressive with Peers given its unique contribution towards predicting *CBVS* Action Choices.

In Step 2, the *CBS* Prosocial with Peers was dropped and only the *CBS* Aggressive with Peers was used to determine significance on the *CBVS* Prosocial and the *CBVS* Aggressive Action Choices. The Step 2 statistics showed that the *CBS* Aggressive with Peers was eligible for removal where $p > .05$, so it was removed leaving neither of the *CBS* variables as predictors of *CBVS* Action Choices.

The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test statistics are not significant, which indicates an adequate model fit where Chi-Square (X^2) (6, N=632) = 7.703, $p = .261$, in the model containing both *CBS* subscales (Prosocial With Peers vs. Aggressive With Peers) and Chi-Square (X^2) (3, N=632) = 4.336, $p = .227$, for the model containing only *CBS* Aggressive With Peers subscale. See Table 15.

Table 15

Predicting Action Choices from Teacher-Reposts of Children's Social Behavior: Hosmer and Lemeshow Test

Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	7.703	6	.261
2	4.336	3	.227
3	.000	0	

The small value in the Nagelkerke R Square indicates that the variables for the *CBS* subscales (Prosocial with Peers vs. Aggressive with Peers) do not explain the variability in the *CBVS* Action Choice subscales (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). See Table 16.

Table 16

Predicting Action Choices from Teacher-Reposts of Children's Social Behavior Model Summary

Step	-2 Log Likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	676.073[a]	.004	.005
2	676.082[a]	.004	.005
3	678.342[a]	.000	.000

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.

In the first step, neither *CBS* Aggressive with Peers nor *CBS* Prosocial with Peers subscales were significant predictors of *CBVS* Prosocial and Aggressive Action Choice subscales. *CBS* Prosocial with Peers had a higher p-value of .921; therefore, it was removed in step 2. The *CBS* Aggressive with Peers p-value of .125 was not significant in step 2, and therefore was removed

in step 3. Thus I conclude that neither the *CBS* Prosocial with Peers nor the *CBS* Aggressive with Peers subscales are useful predictors of *CBVS* Action Choice subscales (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). See Table 17 and Table 18.

Table 17

Predicting Action Choices from Teacher-Reposts of Children's Social Behavior CBS Variables in the Equation

		B	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1[a]	*CBS* Aggressive with Peers	-.055	1	.222	.946
	CBS Prosocial with Peers	.004 *	1	.921 **	1.004
	Constant	1.630	1	.083	5.103
Step 2[a]	*CBS* Aggressive with Peers	- .058 *	1	.125 **	.946
	Constant	1.716	1	.000	5.565
Step 3[a]	Constant	1.221	1	.000	3.389

a. Variable(s) entered on step 1: *CBS* Aggressive, *CBS* Prosocial
* Not significantly different from zero
** Least significant, therefore throw out

Table 18

Predicting Action Choices from Teacher-Reposts of Children's Social Behavior CBVS Classification Table[a]

			Predicted Action Choice		
	Observed		Aggressive	Prosocial	% Correct
Step 1	Action choice	Aggressive	0	144	
		Prosocial	0	448	100.0
		Overall %			77.2
Step 2	Action choice	Aggressive	0	144	
		Prosocial	0	448	100.0
		Overall %			77.2
Step 3	Action choice	Aggressive	0	144	
		Prosocial	0	448	100.0
		Overall %			77.2

a. The cut value is .500

The next research question considered the issue of whether or not teacher reports on the *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)* were predictive of children's Justification Choice responses on the *Children's Bully/Victim Scale (CBVS)*.

Question Five

Do the teacher reports of children's social behavior with peers as assessed by the Prosocial with Peers subscale and the Aggressive Behavior with Peers subscale of the Child Behavior Scale (CBS, Ladd & Profilet, 1996) relate to the children's CBVS Justification Choices that are coded as either Justice/Fair, Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution?

A multinominal Logistic Regression tested the following n*ull hypotheses:* (1) There is no relationship between the teacher reports on the Prosocial with Peers subscale of the *CBS* and children's Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) and (2) There is no relationship between the teacher reports on the Aggressive with Peers subscale of

the *CBS and* children's Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair).

A multinominal Logistic Regression was performed in which *CBS* Prosocial with Peers and *CBS* Aggressive with Peers were used to predict the *CBVS* Justification Choices Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, and Justice/Fair). Justice/Fair Justification Choices was used as the baseline variable. The overall multinomial logistic regression model to predict Justification Choices from *CBS* Aggressive with Peers and *CBS* Prosocial with Peers was not significant (G = 5.942, df = 4, $p > 0.05$). Therefore, *CBS* Prosocial with Peers and *CBS* Aggressive with Peers are not significant predictors of Justification Choices. See Table 19.

Table 19

Predicting Justification Choices from Teacher-Reports of Children's Social Behavior Multinominal Logistic Regression Model Parameter Estimates

							95% CI for Exp	
Justification[a]	B	Std Error	Wald	df	Sig	Exp(B)	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prosocial/Care								
Intercept	-1.879	.929	4.082	1	.043			
CBS Aggressive	.022	.047	.213	1	.644	1.022	.932	1.121
CBS Prosocial	.055	.035	2.439	1	.118	1.057	.986	1.133
Aggressive/Retribution								
Intercept	-3.431	1.282	7.165	1	.007			
CBS Aggressive	.108	.058	3.471	1	.062	1.114	.994	1.247
CBS Prosocial	.050	.050	1.020	1	.313	1.052	.954	1.159

a. The reference category is Justice/Fair.

The next research question considers how selected demographic variables influenced children's Action Choices and Justification Choices. The variables examined included

participant child variable such as Gender and Bully/Victim Group Membership (Nonbully/Nonvictim vs. Victim vs. Bully vs. Bully/Victim). Story variables included Story Character Role (Bystander vs. Victim) and Story Form of Victimization (Physical vs. Relational).

Question Six

Do the difference in proportions of children's CBVS Action Choices that are coded as either Prosocial or Aggressive and CBVS Justification Choices that are coded as either Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, or Justice/Fair relate to participant child Gender (male vs. female), Story Character Role (Bystander vs. Victim), Story Form of Victimization (Physical vs. Relational) and Bully/Victim Group Membership (Nonbully/Nonvictim vs. Victim vs. Bully vs. Bully/Victim)?

Gender and Action Choices

A Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Prosocial Action Choices, Aggressive Action Choices, and participant children's gender. The non-significant Chi-Square (χ^2) (1, N=632) = 5.27 , p = .0217, Cramer's V = 0.1645, shows that there is no significant dependency between gender and Action Choice. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Action Choices is not related to the gender of participant children. See Table 20 and Figure 4.

Table 20

Chi-Square (χ^2) *Test for Independence between Children's Gender and CBVS Action Choices*

Action Choices Count	Male	Female	Total Responses
Prosocial	68	76	144
Aggressive	49	27	488
Total	284	348	632

Pearson Chi-Square (1, N=632) = 5.27 , p = .0217
Cramer's V = 0.1645

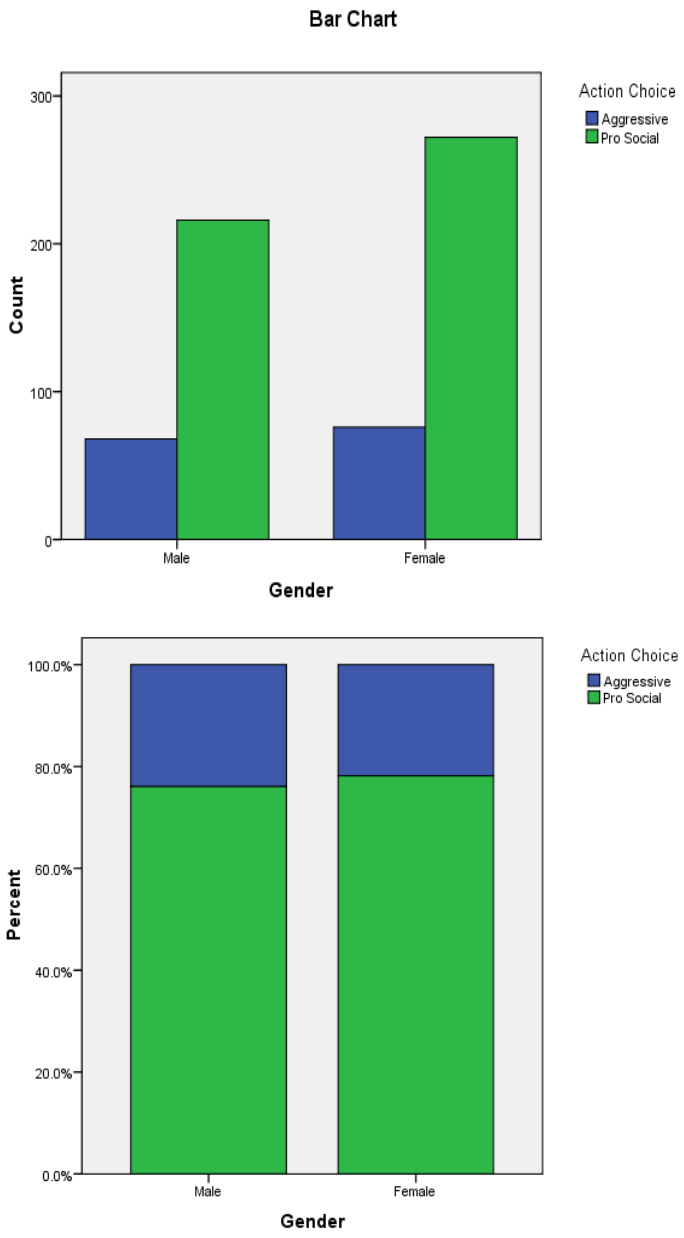


Figure 4. Chi-Square (X2) Test for Independence Test and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. Children's Gender

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the proportions of males and females who chose Prosocial Actions.*

Of the 284 Best Action Choice responses selected by males, 216 were Prosocial Action Choices (sample p = 0.760563). Of the 348 Best Action Choice responses selected by females, 272 were Prosocial Action Choices (sample p = 0.781609). The estimate of the difference between male responses and female responses was -0.0210458. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero lies within the 95% CI (-0.0869813, 0.0448896) for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Prosocial Action Choices. Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Prosocial Action Choices. I conclude that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male responses and the proportion of female responses to Prosocial/Care Justifications. Therefore, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that males were as likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices as females. See Table 21.

Table 21

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Males and the Proportion of Females who Selected Prosocial Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Male	216	284	0.760563
Female	272	348	0.781609

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (male) – p (female)
Estimate for difference: -0.0210458
95% CI (-0.0869813, 0.0448896)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -0.63 P-Value = 0.532
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.568

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the proportion of males and the proportion of females who selected Aggressive Action Choices.*

Of the 284 Best Action Choice responses selected by males, 68 were Aggressive Action Choices (sample p = 0.239437). Of the 348 Best Action Choice responses selected by females, 76 were Aggressive Action Choices (sample p = 0.218391). The estimate of the difference between male responses and female responses was 0.0210458. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero lies within the 95% CI (-0.0448896, 0.0869813) for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Aggressive Action Choices. Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Aggressive Action Choices. I conclude that there is no significant difference in the proportion of male responses and the proportion of female responses to Aggressive Action Choices. Therefore, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that males were as likely to choose Aggressive Action Choices as females. See Table 22.

Table 22

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Males and the Proportion of Females who Selected Aggressive Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Male	68	284	0.239437
Female	76	348	0.218391

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (male) – p (female)
Estimate for difference: 0.0210458
95% CI (-0.0448896, 0.0869813)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 0.63 P-Value = 0.532
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.568

N = 632 responses

Gender and Justification Choices

A Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between children's Gender and Justification Choice subscales. The significant Chi-Square (χ^2) (2, N=632) = 13.61 , p = .0011, Cramer's V = .1467, shows that there is a significant dependency between participant children's Gender and Justification Choice. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Justification Choices is related to the Gender of participant children. See Table 23 and Figure 5.

Table 23

Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence Between Children's Gender and CBVS Justification Choice Subscales

Justification Choices Count	Male	Female	Total Responses
Prosocial/Care	82	105	187
Aggressive/Retribution	49	27	76
Justification/Fair	153	216	369
Total	284	348	632

Pearson Chi-Square (2, N=632) = 13.61 , p = .0011
Cramer's V = .1467

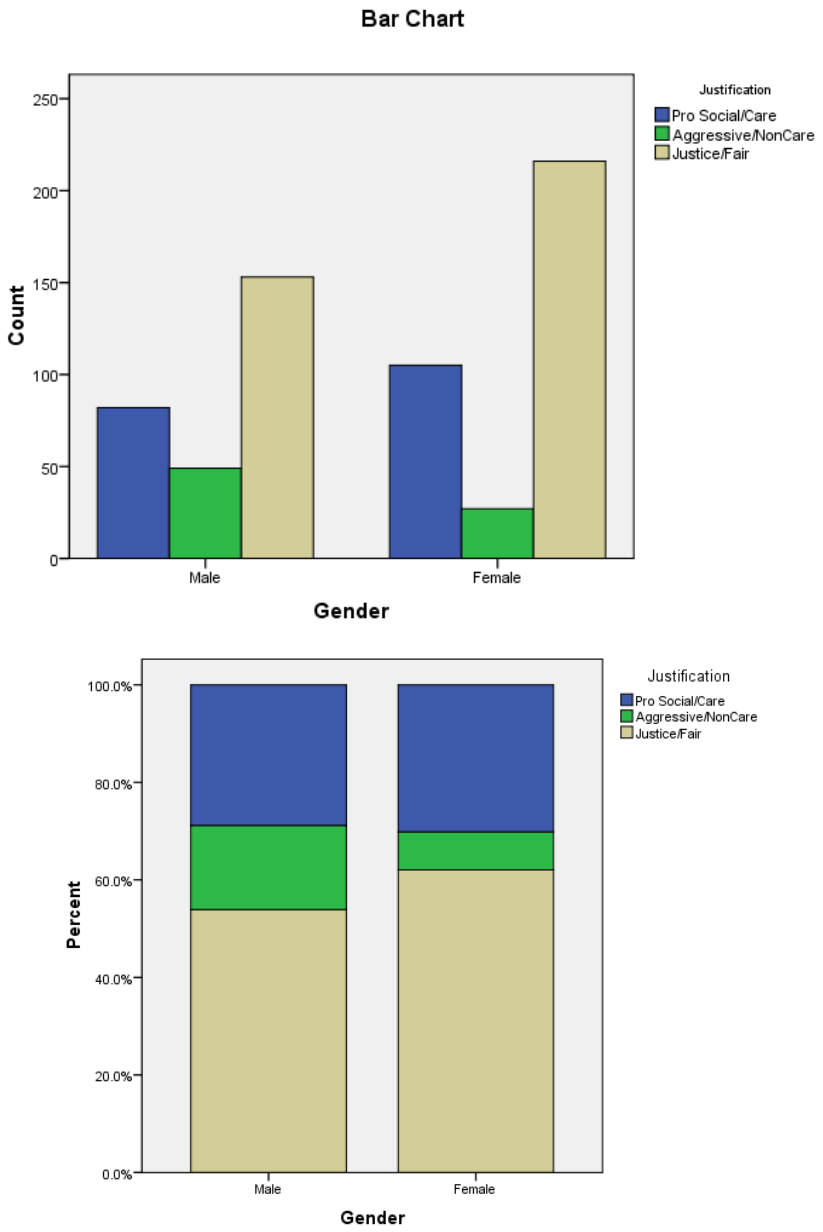


Figure 5. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence Test and Difference of Proportions for CBVS Justification Choices vs. Children's Gender

Tests for the difference in proportions were conducted to determine the difference in frequency (*f*) that male responses and female responses to *CBVS* Justification Choices

(Prosocial/Care vs. Aggression/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) and Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) where *n* is the number of responses within a story category sample, and N is the total number of responses across all four stories.

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the proportion of males and females who choose Prosocial/Care Justifications.*

Of the 284 Best Justification Choice responses selected by males, 82 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.288732). Of the 348 Best Justification Choice responses selected by females, 105 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.301724). The estimate of the difference between male responses and female responses was -0.0129917. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero lies within the 95% CI (-0.0844308, 0.0584473) for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Prosocial/Care Justification Choices. Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Prosocial/Care Justification Choices. I conclude that there is no significant difference in the proportions of male responses and female responses to Prosocial/Care Justifications and that females were as likely to choose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices as males. Therefore, I fail to reject the null hypothesis. See Table 24.

Table 24

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Males and the Proportion of Females who Selected Prosocial/Care Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Male	82	284	0.288732
Female	105	348	0.301724

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (male) – p (female)
Estimate for difference: -0.0129917
95% CI (-0.0844308, 0.0584473)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -0.36, P-Value = 0.722
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.727

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the proportion of males and females who choose Aggressive/Retribution Justifications.*

Of the 284 Worst Justification Choice responses selected by males, 49 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = 0.172535). Of the 348 Worst Justification Choice responses selected by females, 27 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = 0.077586). The estimate of the difference between male responses and female responses was 0.0949490. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (0.0427848, 0.147113) for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices. Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices. Thus, I reject the null hypothesis and I

conclude that males were more likely to choose Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices than females. See Table 25.

Table 25

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Males and the Proportion of Females who Selected Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Male	49	284	0.172535
Female	27	348	0.077586

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (male) – p (female)
Estimate for difference: 0.0949490
95% CI (0.0427848, 0.147113)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 3.57 P-Value = 0.000
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.000

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between the proportion of males and the proportion of females who choose Justice/Fair Justifications.*

Of the 284 Best Justification Choice responses selected by males, 153 were Justice/Fair Justification Choices (sample p = 0.538732). Of the 348 Best Justification Choice responses selected by females, 216 were Justice/Fair Justification Choices (sample p = 0.620690). The estimate of the difference between male responses and female responses was -0.0129917. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (-0.159159, -0.00475523) for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Justice/Fair Justification Choices. Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions between male responses and female responses to Justice/Fair Justification Choices.

Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that males were less likely to choose Justice/Fair Justification Choices than females. See Table 26.

Table 26

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Males and the Proportion of Females who Selected Justice/Fair Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Male	153	284	0.538732
Female	216	348	0.620690

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (male) – p (female)
Estimate for difference: -0.0129917
95% CI (-0.159159, -0.00475523)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -2.08 P-Value = 0.037
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.043

N = 632 responses

The next section addresses Story Character Role influence on *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices. These analyses test whether having a main character who is a bystander or victim makes a difference in selecting an Action Choice (prosocial vs. aggressive) or Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair).

Story Character Role

Story Character Role and Action Choice

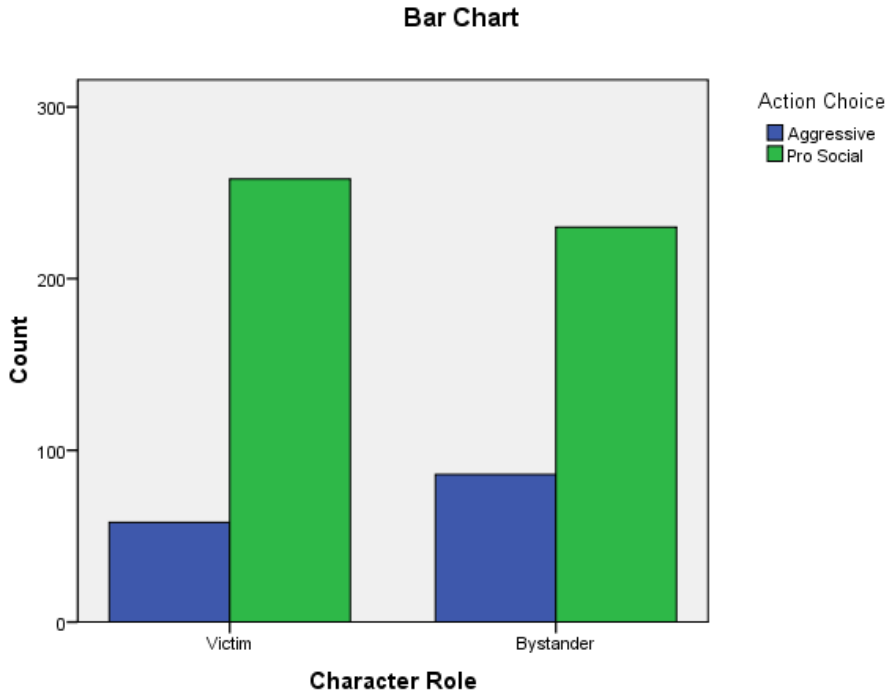
A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Story Character Role and children's selection of Action Choices. The significant Chi-Square (X^2) (1, N=632) = 6.56, p = .0104, Cramer's V = .1056, shows that there is a significant dependency between Story Character Role and children's Action Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Action Choices is related to the Story Character Role. See Table 27 and Figure 6.

Table 27

Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence Between Story Character Role and CBVS Action Choice Subscales

	Story Character Role Count		
Action Choices Count	Bystander	Victim	Total Responses
Prosocial	230	258	488
Aggressive	86	58	144
Total	316	316	632

Pearson Chi-Square (1, N=632) = 6.56, p = .0104
Cramer's V = .1056



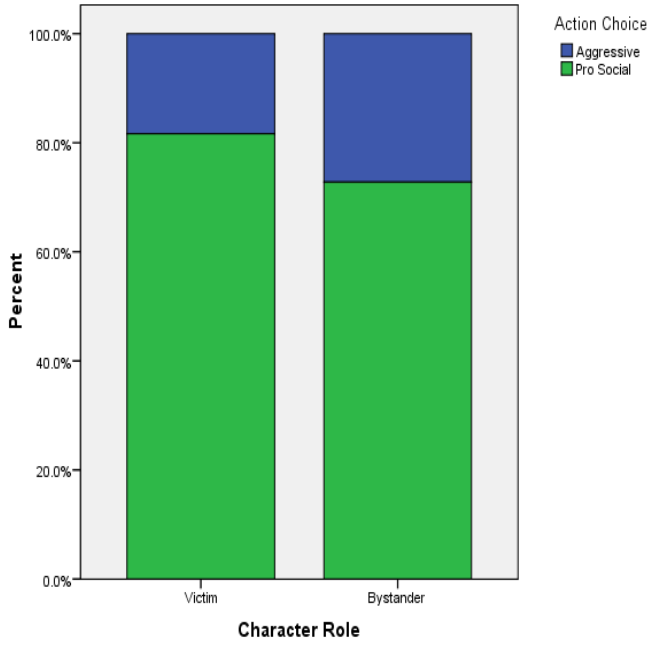


Figure 6. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. Story Character Role

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Prosocial Action Choices for stories that involved bystander story characters and the proportion of children CBVS Prosocial Action Choices for stories that involve victim story characters.*

Of the 316 responses to the Victim Story Character scenarios, 258 were Prosocial Action Choices. Of the 316 responses to the Bystander Story Character scenarios, 230 were Prosocial Action Choices. The estimate of the difference in the proportion of Prosocial Action Choice responses when the Story Character was a bystander and the proportion of Aggressive Action Choice responses when the Story Character was a Victim was -0.0886076. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (-0.153644, -0.0235711) for the difference in proportions Prosocial Action Choice responses between the bystander and victim story character roles. Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions of Prosocial Action Choice responses across victim and bystander story character roles. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a difference in the proportions Prosocial Action Choice responses across victim and bystander story character roles. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices when the story character role was a victim than when the story character role is a bystander. See Table 28.

Table 28

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Bystander and the Proportion of Victims Among Children who Selected Prosocial Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Bystander	230	316	0.727848
Victim	258	316	0.816456

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Bystander) – p (Victim)
Estimate for difference: -0.0886076
95% CI (-0.153644, -0.0235711)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -2.67 P-Value = 0.008
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.010

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Aggressive Action Choices for stories that involved bystander story characters and the proportion of children CBVS Aggressive Action Choices for stories that involve victim story characters*

Of the 316 responses to the Bystander Story Character scenarios, 86 were Aggressive Action Choices. Of the 316 responses to in the Victim Story Character scenarios, 58 were Aggressive Action Choices. The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Aggressive Action Choice responses when the Story Character was a bystander and the proportion of children's Aggressive Action Choice responses when the Story Character was a Victim was 0.0886076. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lay within the 95% CI (0.0235711, 0.153644) for the difference in proportions of children's Aggressive Action Choice responses when the story character was the bystander and when the story character was the victim. Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions of children's Aggressive Action Choice responses between victim and bystander story character

roles. Thus, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a significant difference in the proportions of children Aggressive Action Choice responses between bystander and victim story character roles. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to choose Aggressive Action Choices when the story character role is a bystander than when the story character role was a victim. See Table 29.

Table 29

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Bystander and the Proportion of Victim Among Children who Selected Aggressive Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Bystander	86	316	0.272152
Victim	58	316	0.183544

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Bystander) – p (Victim)
Estimate for difference: 0.0886076
95% CI (0.0235711, 0.153644)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 2.67 P-Value = 0.008
Fisher's exact test: P-Value 0.010

N = 632 responses

Story Character Role and Justification Choice

A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Story Character Role and children's selections of Justification Choices. The significant Chi-Square (X^2) (2, N=632) = 8.01, p = .0182, Cramer's V = .1126, indicates that there is a significant dependency between Story Character Role and Justification Choice. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Justification Choice responses is related to the Story Character Role. See Table 30.

Tests for the difference in proportions were conducted to determine the frequency (*f*) of children's *CBVS* Justification Choice responses (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggression/Retaliation vs.

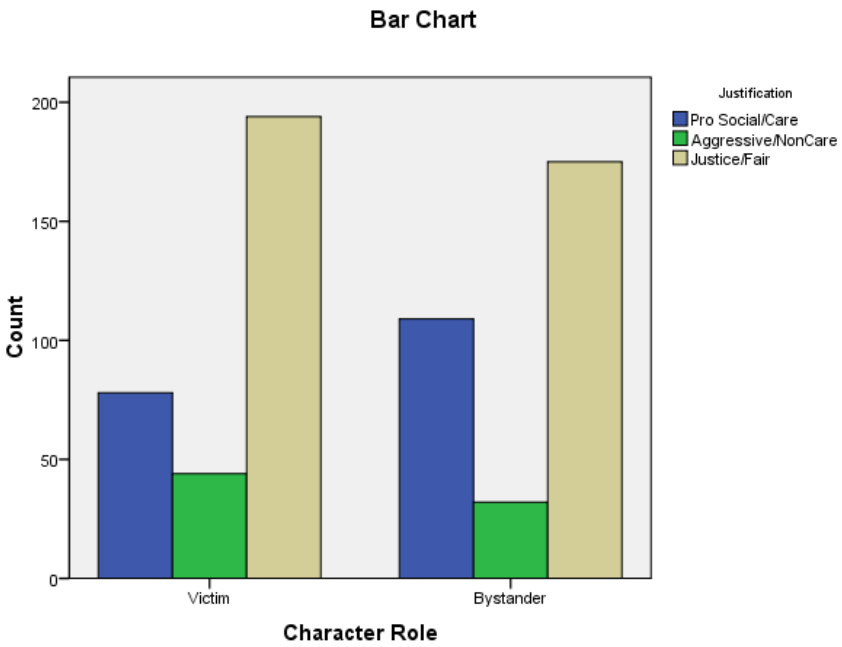
Justice/Fair) on bystander and victim Story Character Roles where *n* is the number of responses within a story category sample, and N is the total number of responses across four stories.

Table 30

Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence between Story Character Role and CBVS Justification Choice Subscales

	Story Character Role Count		
Justification Choices Count	Bystander	Victim	Total Responses
Prosocial/Care	109	78	187
Aggressive/Retribution	32	44	76
Justification/Fair	175	194	369
Total	316	316	632

Pearson Chi-Square (2, N=632) = 8.01, p = .0182
Cramer's V = 1126



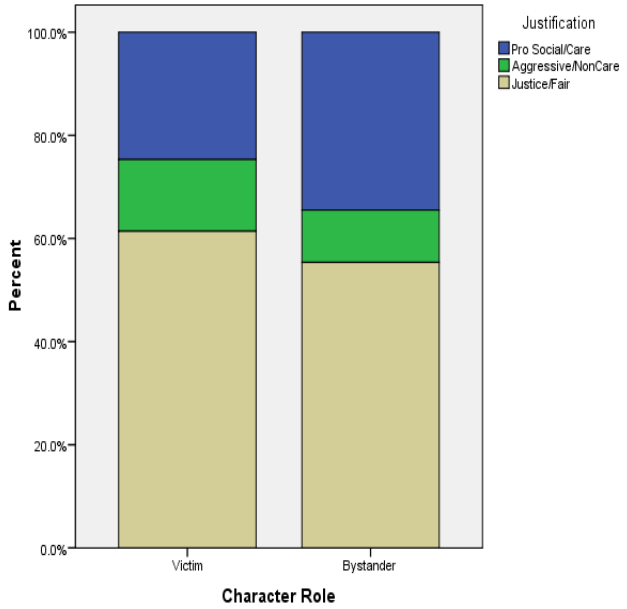


Figure 7. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Justification Choices vs. Story Character Role

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Choices for stories that involved bystander story characters and the proportion of children CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Choices for stories that involve victim story characters*

Of the 316 responses to the Bystander Story Character scenarios, 109 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.344937). Of the 316 responses the Victim Story Character scenarios, 78 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.246835). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a bystander and the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a Victim was 0.0981013. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (0.0273424, 0.168860) for the difference in proportions of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses between the bystander story character role and victim story character role. Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses between victim bystander character roles and victim story character roles. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a difference in the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification responses for bystander story character role and the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification responses for victim story character role. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to choose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices when the story character role was a bystander than when the story character role is a victim. See Table 31.

Table 31

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Bystander and the Proportion of Victims Among Children who Selected Prosocial/Care Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Bystander	109	316	0.344937
Victim	78	316	0.246835

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Bystander) – p (Victim)
Estimate for difference: 0.0981013
95% CI (0.0273424, 0.168860)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 2.72 P-Value = 0.007
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.009

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices for stories that involved bystander story characters and the proportion of children CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices for stories that involve victim story characters.*

Of the 316 responses to the Bystander Story Character scenarios, 32 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = 0.101266). Of the 316 responses to the Victim Story Character scenarios, 44 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = 0.139241). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a bystander and the proportion of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a Victim was -0.0379747. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero lies within the 95% CI (-0.0886044, 0.0126550) for the difference in proportions of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses between the bystander and victim story character roles. Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions

of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses when the story character was a bystander versus when the story character was a victim. Therefore, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is not a difference in the proportions of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification responses between bystander and victim story character roles. Thus, I conclude that children were as likely to select Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices when the story character role was a bystander as when the story character role was a victim. See Table 32.

Table 32

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Bystander and the Proportion of Victims Among Children who Selected Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Bystander	32	316	0.101266
Victim	44	316	0.139241

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Bystander) – p (Victim)
Estimate for difference: -0.0379747
95% CI (-0.0886044, 0.0126550)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -1.47 P-Value = 0.142
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.178

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Choices for stories that involved bystander story characters and the proportion of children CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Choices for stories that involve victim story characters.*

Of the 316 responses to the Bystander Story Character scenarios, 175 were Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses (sample p = 0.553797). Of the 316 responses to the Victim Story Character scenarios, 194 were Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses (sample p = 0.613924).

The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a bystander and the proportion of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses when the Story Character was a Victim was -0.0601266. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does lie within the 95% CI (-0.136842, 0.0165891) for the difference in proportions of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses between the bystander and victim story character roles. Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses when the story character was a bystander and when the story character was a victim. Thus, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is not a difference in the proportions of children's Justice/Fair Justification responses between the bystander and victim story character roles. Thus, I conclude that children were as likely to choose Justice/Fair Justifications when the story character role was a bystander as when the story character role was a victim. See Table 33.

Table 33

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Bystander and the Proportion of Victims Among Children who Selected Justice/Fair Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Bystander	175	316	0.553797
Victim	194	316	0.613924

Test of $p = 0$ vs. $p \neq 0$
Difference = p (Bystander) – p (Victim)
Estimate for difference: -0.0601266
95% CI (-0.136842, 0.0165891)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. $\neq$ 0): Z = -1.54 P-Value = 0.125
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.146

N = 632 responses

Story Form of Victimization

The next section addresses Story Form of Victimization on *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices. These analyses test whether a physical or relational form of victimization in each story makes a difference in selecting an Action Choice (prosocial vs. aggressive) or Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair).

Story Form of Victimization and Action Choice

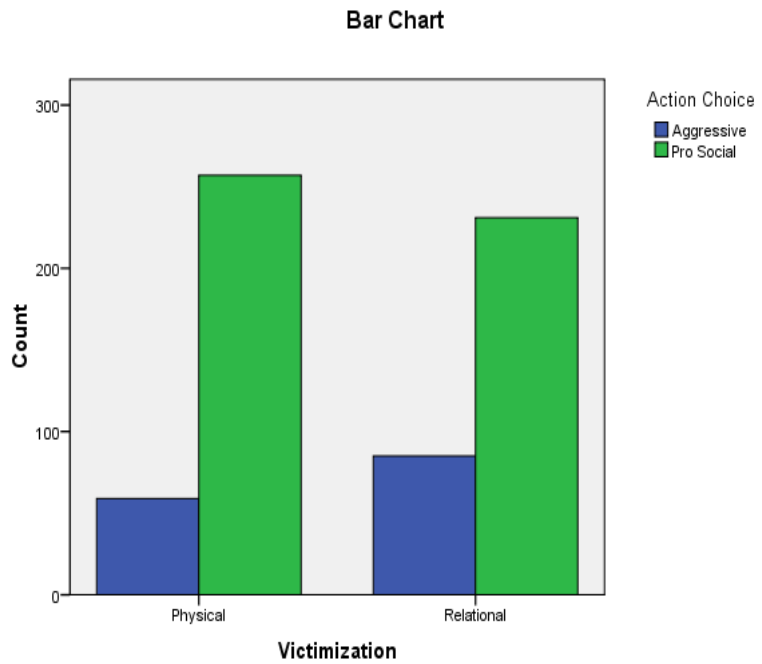
A Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Story Form of Victimization and children's choices on Action Choice subscales. The significant Chi-Square (χ^2) (1, N=632) = 5.62, p = .0178 , Cramer's V = .0981, shows that there is a significant dependency between Story Form of Victimization and children's selections of Action Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Action Choices is related to the Story Form of Victimization. See Table 34 and Figure 8.

Table 34

Chi-Square (χ^2) Test for Independence Between Story Form of Victimization and CBVS Action Choice Subscales

	Story Form of Victimization Count		
Action Choices Count	Physical	Relational	Total Responses
Prosocial	257	231	488
Aggressive	59	85	144
Total	316	316	632

Pearson Chi-Square (1, N=632) = 5.62, p = .0178
Cramer's V = .0981



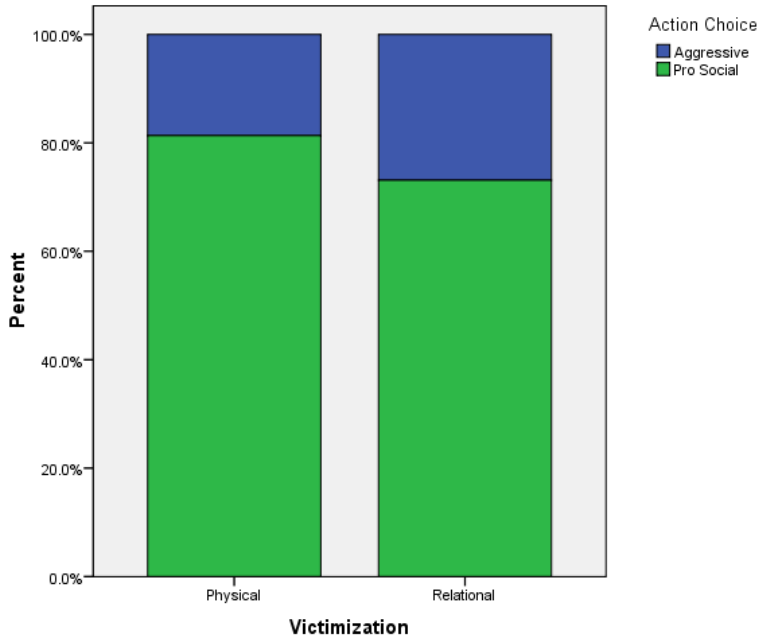


Figure 8. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. Story Form of Victimization

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Prosocial Action Choices for stories that involved physical victimization and the proportion of children CBVS Prosocial Action Choices for stories that involve relation victimization..*

Of the 316 responses to the physical Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 257 were Prosocial Action Choice responses (sample p = 0.813291). Of the 316 responses to the relational Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 231 were Prosocial Action Choice responses (sample p = 0.731013). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses when the story involved physical victimization and the proportion of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses when the story involved relational victimization was 0.0822785. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (0.0171914, 0.147366). Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses across physical and relational Story Forms of Victimization. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a significant difference between the proportion of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses in stories involving physical victimization and the proportion of children's Prosocial Action Choice responses for stories involving relational victimizations. Thus, children were more likely to select Prosocial Action Choices when the Story Form of Victimization involved physical bullying than when the Story Form of Victimization was relational bullying. See Table 35.

Table 35

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Physical and the Proportion of Relational Among Children who Selected Prosocial Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Physical	257	316	0.813291
Relational	231	316	0.731013

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Physical) – p (Relational)
Estimate for difference: 0.0822785
95% CI (0.0171914, 0.147366)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 2.48 P-Value = 0.013
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.018

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Aggressive Action Choices for stories that involved physical victimization and the proportion of children CBVS Aggressive Action Choices for stories that involve relation victimization.*

Of the 316 responses to the physical Story Form of Victimization, 59 were Aggressive Action Choices (sample p = 0.186709). Of the 316 responses to the relational Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 85 were Aggressive Action Choices (sample p = 0.268987). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children who selected Aggressive Action Choices when the story involved physical victimization and the proportion of children who selected Aggressive Action Choices when the story involved relational victimization was 0.0822785. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (0.0171914, 0.147366). Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions for children's Aggressive Action Choices selected in response to physical victimization and for children's Action Choices selected in response to relational victimization. Therefore, I reject the null

hypothesis and I conclude that there is a significant difference between the two proportions. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to select Aggressive Action Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was relational than when the Story Form of Victimization was physical. See Table 36.

Table 36

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Physical and the Proportion of Relational Among Children who Selected Aggressive Action Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Physical	59	316	0.186709
Relational	85	316	0.268987

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Physical) – p (Relational)
Estimate for difference: 0.0822785
95% CI (0.0171914, 0.147366)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -2.48 P-Value = 0.013
Fisher's exact test: P-Value 0.018

N = 632 responses

Story Form of Victimization and Justification Choice

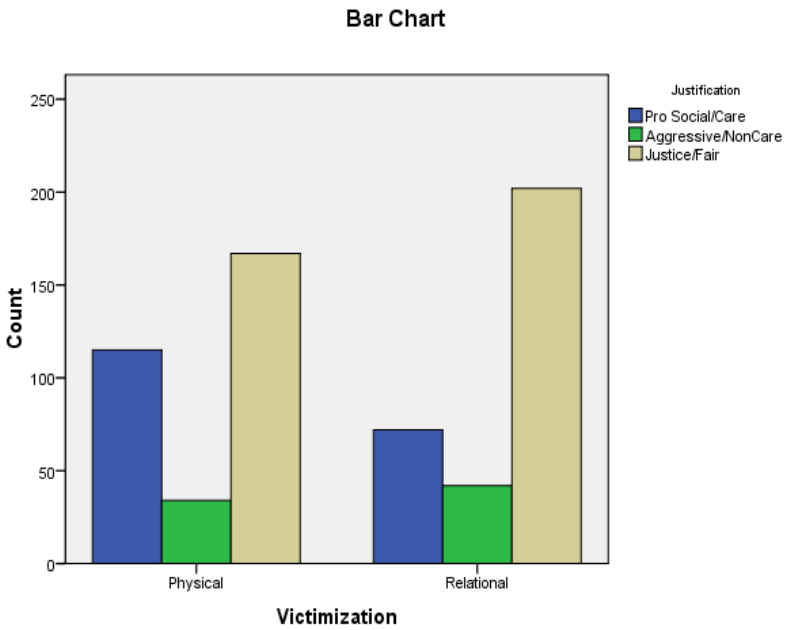
A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a dependency between Story Form of Victimization and children's selections of Justification Choices. The significant Chi-Square (X^2) (2, N=632) = 14.05, p = .0009, Cramer' V = .1491, shows that there is a significant dependency between Story Form of Victimization and children's Justification Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Justification Choices is related to the Story Form of Victimization. See Table 37 and Figure 6.3.2.

Table 37

Chi-Square (χ^2) *Test for Independence Between Story Form of Victimization and CBVS Justification Choice Subscales*

	Story Form of Victimization Count		
Justification Choices Count	Physical	Relational	Total
Prosocial/Care	115	72	187
Aggressive/Retribution	34	42	76
Justification/Fair	167	202	369
Total	316	316	632

Pearson Chi-Square (2, N=632) = 14.05, p = .0009
Cramer's V = .1491



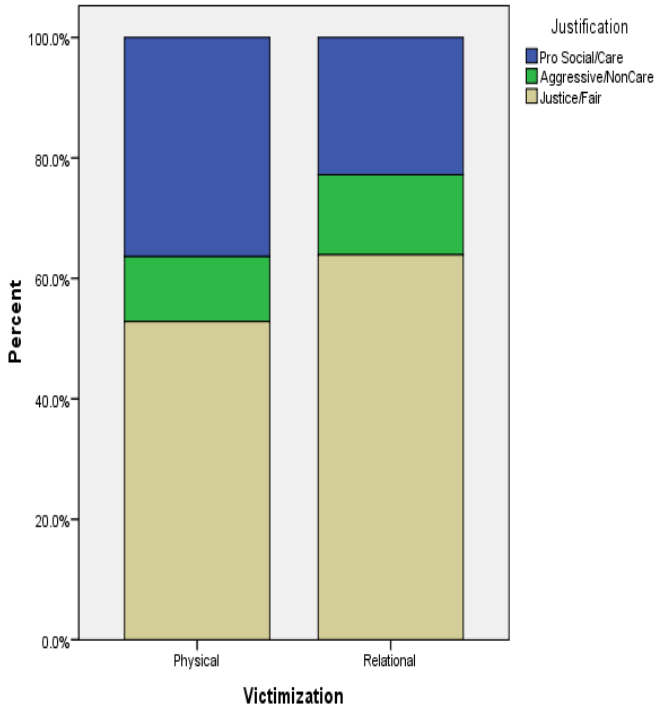


Figure 9. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Justification Choices vs. Story Form of Victimization

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Choices for stories that involved physical victimization and the proportion of children CBVS Prosocial/Care Justification Choices for stories that involve relation victimization.*

Of the 316 responses to the physical Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 115 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.363924). Of the 316 responses to the relational Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 72 were Prosocial/Care Justification Choices (sample p = 0.227848). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses when the story involved physical victimization and the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification Choice responses when the story involved relational victimization was 0.136076. The hypothesized difference in proportion of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (0.0657001, 0.206452). Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference. Thus, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a significant difference between the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification responses for stories involving physical victimization and the proportion of children's Prosocial/Care Justification responses for stories involving relational victimization. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to choose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices when the story involved physical victimization than when the story involved relational victimization. See Table 6.3.2.1.

Table 38

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Physical and the Proportion of Relational Among Children who Selected Prosocial/Care Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Physical	115	316	0.363924
Relational	72	316	0.227848

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Physical) – p (Relational)
Estimate for difference: 0.136076
95% CI (0.0657001, 0.206452)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = 3.79 P-Value = 0.000
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.000

N = 632

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices for stories that involved physical victimization and the proportion of children CBVS Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices for stories that involve relation victimization.*

Of the 316 responses to the physical Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 34 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = -0.0253165). Of the 316 responses to the relational Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 42 were Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices (sample p = 0.132911). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses when the story involved physical victimization and the proportion of children's Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choice responses when the story involved relational victimization was -0.0253165. The hypothesized difference in proportion of zero does lie within the 95% CI (-0.0759942, 0.0253613). Therefore, zero is a plausible value for the difference in proportions. Thus, I fail to reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is not a significant difference in the proportions of children's

Aggressive/Retribution Justification responses between physical and relational Story Forms of Victimization. Thus, I conclude that children were as likely to choose Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices when the Story Form of Victimization is relational as when the Story Form of Victimization was a physical. See Table 39.

Table 39

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Physical and the Proportion of Relational Among Children who Selected Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Physical	34	316	0.107595
Relational	42	316	0.132911

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Physical) – p (Relational)
Estimate for difference: -0.0253165
95% CI (-0.0759942, 0.0253613)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -0.98 P-Value = 0.328
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.392

N = 632 responses

A test for the Difference in Proportions tested the following null hypothesis: *There is no difference between children's CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Choices for stories that involved physical victimization and the proportion of children CBVS Justice/Fair Justification Choices for stories that involve relation victimization.*

Of the 316 responses to the physical Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 167 were Justice/Fair Justification Choices (sample p = 0.528481). Of the 316 responses to the relational Story Form of Victimization scenarios, 202 were Justice/Fair Justification Choices (sample p = 0.639241). The estimate of the difference in the proportion of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses when the story involved physical victimization and the proportion of children's

Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses when the story involved relational victimization was -0.110759. The hypothesized difference in proportions of zero does not lie within the 95% CI (-0.187132, -0.0343873). Therefore, zero is not a plausible value for the difference in proportions of children's Justice/Fair Justification Choice responses between physical and relational Story Forms of Victimization. Therefore, I reject the null hypothesis and I conclude that there is a significant difference in the proportions children's Justice/Fair Justification Choices. Thus, I conclude that children were more likely to choose Justice/Fair Justification Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was relational than when the Story Form of Victimization was physical. See Table 40.

Table 40

CBVS Test and Confidence Interval for the Proportion of Physical and the Proportion of Relational Among Children who Selected Justice/Fair Justification Choices

Sample	*f*	*n*	Sample p
Physical	167	316	0.528481
Relational	202	316	0.639241

Test of p = 0 vs. p ≠ 0
Difference = p (Physical) – p (Relational)
Estimate for difference: -0.110759
95% CI (-0.187132, -0.0343873)
Test for difference = 0 (vs. ≠ 0): Z = -2.84 P-Value = 0.004
Fisher's exact test: P-Value = 0.006

N = 632

The last section addresses Bully/Victim Group Membership influence on *CBVS* Action and Justification Choices. These analyses test whether children's membership in a Bully/Victim group (Nonbully/Nonvictim vs. Victim vs. Bully vs. Bully/Victim) makes a difference in selecting an Action Choice (prosocial vs. aggressive) or Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair).

Participant Child's Bully/Victim Group Membership and Action Choices

A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to the following null hypotheses: *There is no relation between the proportions of children's CBVS Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) and children's membership in a Bully/victim group (Nonbully/Nonvictim vs. Victim vs. Bully vs. Bully/Victim).*

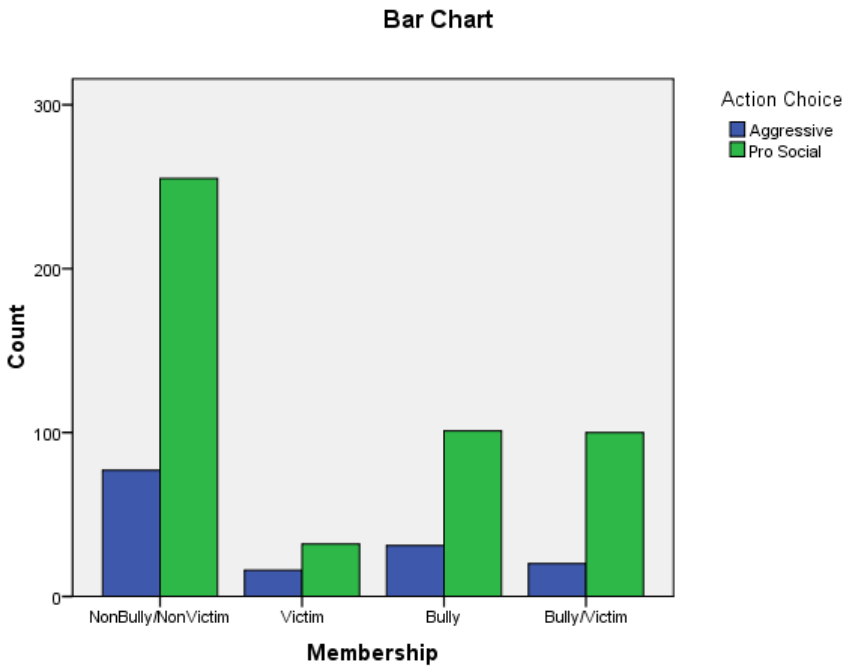
The non-significant Chi-Square (X^2) (3, N=632) = 5.65, p = .1299, Cramers' V = .0945, shows that there is no significant dependency between Bully/Victim Group Membership and *CBVS* Action Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Action Choices is not related to children's Bully/Victim Group Membership. See Table 41 and Figure 10.

Table 41

Chi-Square (X^2) *Test for Independence between Bully/Victim Group Membership and CBVS Action Subscales*

	Group Membership Count				
Action Choices Count	Nonbully/ Nonvictim	Bully	Victim	Bully/ Victim	Total Responses
Prosocial	256	101	32	100	488
Aggressive	77	31	16	20	144
Total	332	132	48	120	632

Pearson Chi-Square (3, N=632) = 5.65, p = .1299
Cramer's V = .0945



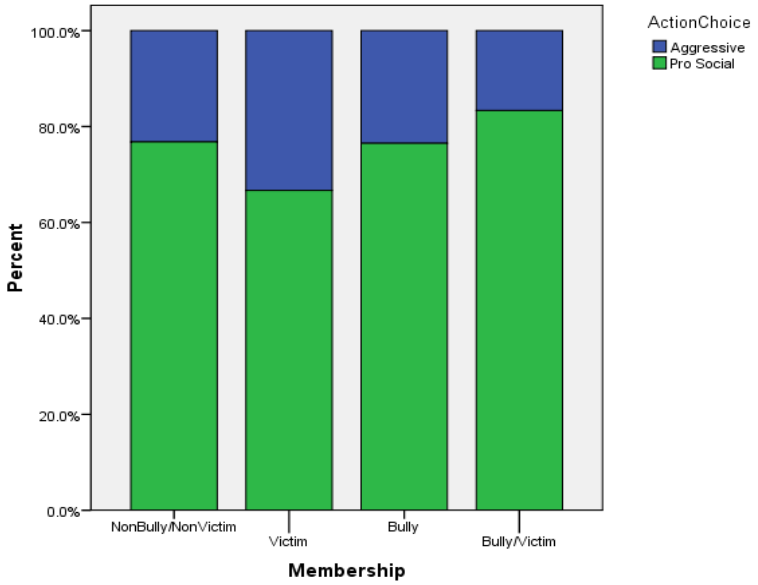


Figure 10. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for *CBVS* Action Choices vs. Bully/Victim Group Membership

A Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence was used to the following null hypotheses: *There is no relation between the proportions of children's Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair) and children's membership in a Bully/victim group (Nonbully/nonvictim, Victim, Bully, Bully/victim).*

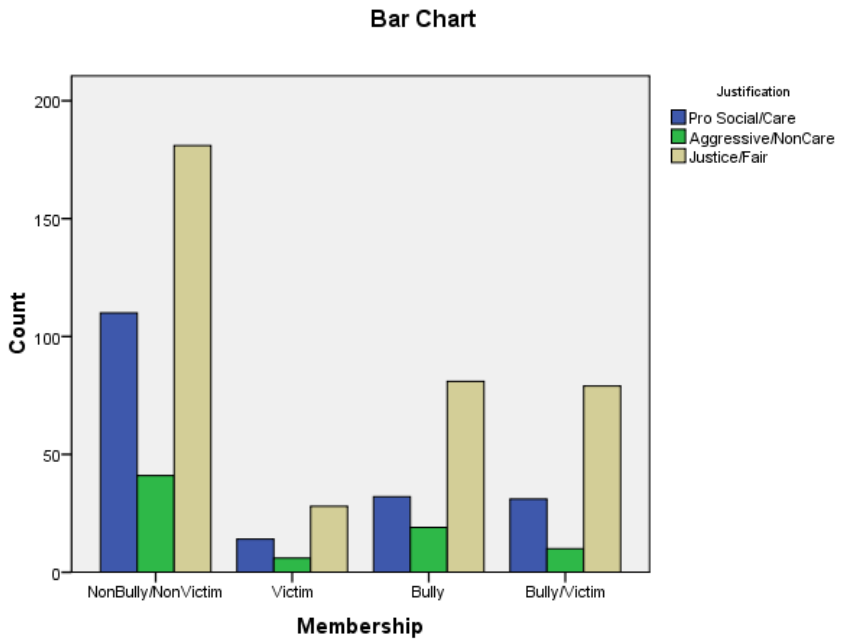
The non-significant Chi-Square (X^2) (6, N=632) = 7.46, p = .2804, Cramer's V = .0768, shows that there is no significant dependency between Bully/Victim Group Membership and children's Justification Choices. Therefore, I conclude that the frequency of Justification Choices is not related to children's Bully/Victim Group Membership. See Table 42 and Figure 11.

Table 42

Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence between Bully/Victim Group Member and CBVS Justification Subscales

	Group Membership Count				
Justification Choices Count	Nonbully/ Nonvictim	Victim	Bully	Bully/ Victim	Total
Prosocial/Care	110	14	32	31	187
Aggressive/Retribution	41	6	19	10	76
Justice/Fair	181	28	81	79	369
Total	332	48	132	120	632

Pearson Chi-Square (6, N=632) = 7.46, p = .2804
Cramer's V = .0768



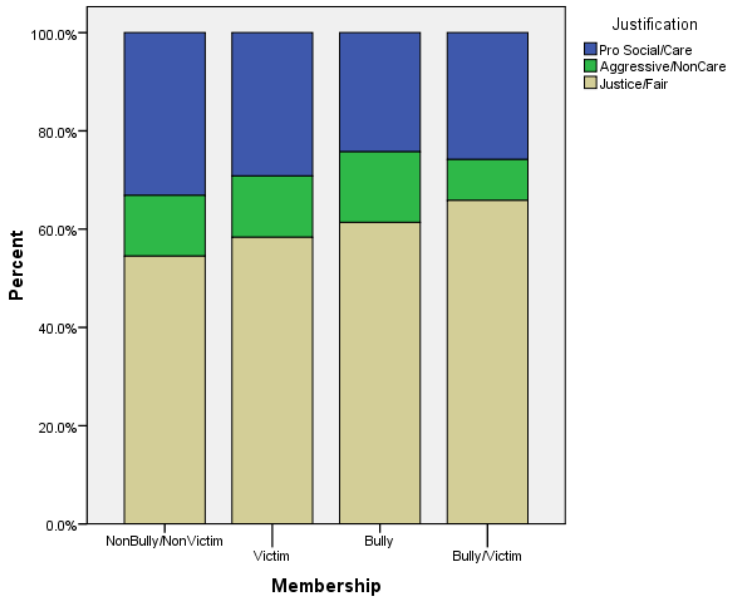


Figure 11. Chi-Square (X^2) Test for Independence and Difference of Proportions for CBVS Justification Choices vs. Bully/Victim Group Membership

Summary of Results

To summarize the findings, there is a dependency between children's Actions Choices and Justification Choices. Children who selected Prosocial/Care Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than Aggressive Action Choices. Children who chose Aggressive/Retribution Justification were just as likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices as Aggressive Action Choices. Children who chose Justice/Fair Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than Aggressive Action Choices.

This study found that neither teacher-reposts of *CBS* Prosocial with Peers nor *CBS* Aggressive with Peers were predictive of *CBVS* Action Choice subscales (Prosocial vs. Aggressive). Additionally, neither teacher-reports on *CBS* Prosocial with Peers nor teacher-reports on *CBS* Aggressive with Peers were useful predictors of children's Justification Choices.

Findings in this study indicated that neither Action Choices nor Justification Choices varied across Intellectual Ability groups.

Other findings from this study indicated that the frequency of children's Action Choices did not vary across the gender of participant children. Males were as likely to select Prosocial Actions as females. Males were as likely to select Aggressive Action Choices as females.

With regard to Story Character role, this study found that there was a difference between the proportion of children who select Prosocial Action Choices when the story character role was a bystander and when the story character role was a victim. Children were more likely to select Prosocial Action Choices when the story character role was a victim when the story character role was a bystander. Children were more likely to select Aggressive Action Choices when the story character role was a bystander than when the story character role was a victim.

Action Choices in this study varied across Story Form of Victimization. Children were more likely to select Prosocial Action Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was physical bullying than when the Story Form of Victimization was relational bullying. However, children were more likely to select Aggressive Action Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was relational bullying than when the Story Form of Victimization was physical bullying.

This study found that Justification Choices varied across the Gender of participant children. Females were as likely to select Prosocial/Care Justification Choices as males. Males were more likely to select Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices than females. Females were more likely to select Justice/Fair Justification Choices than males.

Story Character Roles in this study varied across Justification Choices. Children were more likely to select Prosocial/Care Justification Choices when the story character role was a bystander than when the story character role was a victim. Children were as likely to select Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices when the story character role was a bystander as when the story character role was a victim. Children were as likely to select Justice/Fair Justifications when the story character role was a bystander when the story character role was a victim.

This study found that Justification Choices varied across Story Form of Victimization. Children were more likely to select Prosocial/Care Justification Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was physical than when the Story Form of Victimization was a relational. Children were as likely to select Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices when the Story Form of Victimization was relational as when the Story Form of Victimization was physical. Children were more likely to select Justice/Fair Justification Choices when the Story Form of

Victimization was relational than when the Story Form of Victimization was physical. Neither Action Choices nor Justification Choices in this study varied across Bully/Victim groups.

Chapter V will discuss the results and supportive research, strengths and limitations of the study, and future research directions.

CHAPTER V:

DISCUSSION

How people justify their aggressive behavior has been an important topic in social psychology research on aggression (Fraczek, 1985). Justification is defined as a cognitive strategy that helps rationalize social behavior to be acceptable. How children justify their behavior in the context of bully/victim problems has received little attention by investigators (Hara, 2002). Yet, research has shown that bullying is a major social problem for school-aged children (Olweus, 2003). Children receive well-meaning advice about how to respond when confronted personally with bully victimization; however, there is still much to understand about how they choose to respond and how they justify those behavioral responses.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate a new measure of children's social reasoning about bully victimization. The *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* attempts to assess children's reasoning or justifications, which can vary as either Prosocial/Care, Aggressive/Retribution, or Justice/Fair, for either prosocial or aggressive actions they might choose in response to a hypothetical story about bully victimization.

The Psychometric Properties of the *CBVS* Rated Data

As stated in chapter IV, the initial parametric analyses for internal consistency and correlations within stories for actions and justifications were found to be lower than anticipated. The data were for the initial analyses were derived from children's ratings of Action Choices and Justification Choices on a 1 to 4 Likert scale, where 1 = *Very Bad*, 2 = *kind of bad*, 3 = *kind of good*, and 4 = *Very Good*. Analyses of these data were thought to a richer source with more

individual data points. Even though internal consistencies can take on any value less than or equal to 1, where the positive values are more meaningful, higher values of .70 or more are more desirable (Lomax, 2001).

While there were low internal consistencies for each Action and Justification subscale within each of the four stories, within story correlations revealed mixed patterns of significance indicating methodological problems with combining both story character role and story form of victimization for story analysis. One explanation might be that multiple story variables within a single story confused children as the tried to imagine multiple roles and forms of victimization. Future studies should use stories that clearly delineate single variables in order to eliminate confounding variables.

Another explanation for low internal consistencies within stories might be the way in which the measure was administered. Children were only given the option of the online format and completing the measure in a group setting among their peers. They did not have the option of using paper and pencil or to participate in an individual setting. Children might have lost concentration and responded by keying the same values such as all 1's or 5's, or with a repeated sequence of values in order to quickly complete the task. Upon close examination of the response data, only two of original 165 participants either failed to complete the survey and were eliminated from the data set. Another possibility might have been that children were confused about how to interpret rated items or by the directions such as what was meant by the terms *good, bad, best* or *worst*. Even though the researcher addressed all questions that were asked by children and maintained close proximity in order to answer individual questions, the possibility exists that children might have been reluctant to raise questions in the group for fear of calling attention to themselves among their peers. For future studies, the *peer effect* can be controlled for

by administering the measure in a individual setting. Additionally, problems with systematic response errors can be alleviated by use of paper and pencil formats in an interview format and by administering the online measure one-on-one with an interviewer present to clarify confusing items or terms.

While the lack of significant reliability and presence of mixed correlations within stories lead to the decision to abandon the general linear model for rated data in favor of a nonparametic analyses of the categorical ranked data, findings within the *CBVS* Action Choice and Justification Choice variables across all four stories revealed moderate to strong internal consistency magnitudes. These results will be integrated into the discussion of the nonparametric findings.

The Relationship Between Action Choices and Justification Choices

How do children's Action Choices relate to their justifications? This study found that there is a dependency between *CBVS* Action Choice and *CBVS* Justification Choice. While these findings are not unexpected, these variables were rated by the same source using related methods. These findings may have an inflated association between these variables due to the common source, which was not seen when compared to teacher ratings.

First, this study found that children's Prosocial Action Choices relate directly to their Prosocial/Care Justification Choices and to Justice/Fair Justification Choices. Specifically, children who choose Prosocial/Care Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than Aggressive Action Choices. Not surprisingly, other studies found that prosocial behavior begins at an early age and that personality disposition and prosocial parenting have a significant influence on a child's development of prosocial dispositions (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006; Scourfield, John, Martin, & McGuffin, 2004). The significance of the

large proportion of children who chose both Prosocial Action and Prosocial/Care Justification may be in part to living in a community in which parents tend to be productively employed and in which there is a low incidence of community violence, which may reflect a tendency toward prosocial family and community values over aggressive family and community values. In contrast, schools that were not part of this study may be embedded in communities with higher rates of violence and may have a more significant history of peer victimization and school violence (T. Nansel et al., 2001a; T. Nansel et al., 2004). These schools may show evidence of greater proportions of children who choose Aggressive Action and Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices.

Second, this study also found that children who chose Aggressive/Retribution Justifications were just as likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices as they were to choose Aggressive Action Choices. Interestingly, while the rated data shows an expected strong correlations between Aggressive/Retribution Justifications (.5640**) and Aggressive Actions, there was a low correlation between Aggressive/Retribution Justifications and Prosocial Actions (.1092), which may have been a function of children's first-time reading of the rated items. Children's subsequent thinking about all items together with more mental options from which to select their best and worst actions and justifications may have served as a mental mechanism to minimize perceptual schemas that may have resulted from an *initial reading bias*. When children considered a greater number of options from which to choose, they had a broader array of thoughtfully considered options for which to choose a more prioritized response.

Additionally, participant children may have interpreted a justification item as just or fair when it was intended to represent an aggressive justification. Examples of justification that may have been misinterpreted include "The mean kids will see how it feels" or "The mean kids will

get what they deserve." It is likely that participant children chose these justifications to support a prosocial action such as telling an authority figure. Also, participant children may have chosen the same justification items to support an action that could involve an authority figure who administers a fitting punishment. This is supported by studies in which children view the victimization incident as requiring a fitting degree of suffering for the bully in order to restore a moral balance (just desert) (M. Wenzel & I Thielmann, 2006). Other research finds that children sometimes rationalize their aggressive behavior as permissible when it absolves aggressors from self-criticism and responsibility for harmful behavior by blaming the victims (Bandura, 1973; Fujiqara et al., 1999). Similarly, bystanders and victims may feel the need to punish a bully as an aggressive act of retribution in response to victimization in much the same way that some bullies shift the blame for provocation to their victims (Hara, 2002).

Findings that suggest that children will sometimes use Prosocial Justifications to rationalize an Aggressive Action need to be further explored. While promoting a prosocial school climate, children should be taught to seek Prosocial Justifications for prosocial responses. However, it can be argued there are instances in which it is appropriate for children to use Prosocial Justifications in response to aggressive actions such as self-defense or protecting a victim from immediate physical or psychological abuse. However, it would be more difficult to rationalize relational aggression with prosocial justifications in the absence of threats to physical safety. Because of the nature of relational aggression, it would be difficult to morally rationalize socially aggressive behavior as a defense strategy in the absence of social support. While physical and relational aggression are not condoned by traditional social norms, without social support, children often engage in aggressive actions that serve as protective measures. Murray-Close et al. (2006) and Hara (2002) cited studies in which children's patterns of social and moral

reasoning and intellectual abilities correlate with their social behavioral competencies. Future studies should attempt to identify clusters of children who sometimes justify aggressive actions with prosocial justifications.

Third, this study found that Justice/fair justifications related to prosocial action choices. Children who chose Justice/Fair Justification Choices were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices than children who chose Aggressive Action Choices. These findings are consistent with findings from previous research in which children sometimes rationalize their prosocial behavior as a means of reconciling and reaffirming social relationships and values among peers (David & Choi, 2009); And, in which some children are motivated to behave in prosocial ways because of the concern about equality and fair treatment in support of the well-being of a victim (Eisenberg-Berg, 1979; Miller, Eisenberg, Fabes, & Shell, 1996). In contrast, other research finds that children sometimes use Justice/Fair Justification Choices to explain their Aggressive Action Choices as a way evoke equality, shift blame to the victim, or exonerate their own actions (Bandura, 1973; Dodge et al., 1997). Interestingly, other research supports the notion that children sometimes make discrepant judgments in favor of retributive punishment that they later recant in favor of more restorative behavioral outcomes (Carlsmith, 2008).

CBS Prosocial and Aggressive as Predictors of CBVS Action Choices and Justification Choice.

This study found that *neither* the teacher-reports of children's Prosocial behavior with Peers *nor* teacher-reports of children's Aggressive behavior with Peers were predictive of *CBVS* Action Choices (Prosocial vs. Aggressive) or *CBVS* Justification Choices (Prosocial/Care vs. Aggressive/Retribution vs. Justice/Fair). The number of times that Aggressive Action Choices were selected was much less than the number of times that Prosocial Action Choices were selected. Additionally, few children who participated in the study were rated by teachers as

engaging in high rates of aggressive behavior with peers. The lack of variation in these two variables may have limited the ability to detect a statistically significant relationship. A larger sample with more variance is needed to further explore the relationships between these variables. Because the backwards stepwise regression procedure eliminated both *CBS* variables for predicting *CBVS* Action Choices makes this methodological model suspect to doubt. Similarly, the multinominial regression procedure may be suspect to doubt as a methodological model because it failed to produce significant results for *CBVS* Justification Choices.

Additionally, the low numbers of children participating in the study who chose aggressive actions on the *CBVS* may suggest a chance of being wrong a greater percentage of time than correct. In contrast to the preponderance of research to the contrary, some researchers might argue that aggressive bullying behavior tends to occur when adults are either not around or when adults are not looking and that children; and, therefore, teachers may differ in their reports about children's behavior, especially about children's antisocial, aggressive behavior (Veenstraa et al., 2008). A problematic issue in this study with regard to relating teacher-report perceptions of children's Aggressive Behavior with Peers to child-report perceptions of bullying with peers is that the *CBS* asks teachers to identify children who are perpetrators of bullying; whereas, *CBVS* asks children how they would respond to a perpetrator. Teachers may not have knowledge about how children think in these situations. One implication for intervention is that teachers need to be informed about how children's cognitive processes vary when they are deciding how to respond to victimization.

It is important to note that the *CBVS* parametric analyses revealed significant internal consistencies and correlations for Aggressive Actions Choices and Aggressive/Retribution Justifications. One reason this is important is because Ladd and Profilet (1996) found that

aggressive behavioral patterns are highly salient predictors for other risk factors in children's development such as peer rejection, delinquency, criminality, mental illness, underachievement, and dropping out of school. Aggression with peers may likely to put children on a negative developmental course for future social difficulties in adolescence and adulthood. This has implications for preventive interventions that expose maladaptive social competencies and provide prosocial strategies for solving peer conflict and dealing with social stress. Preventive education and counseling may also provide critical reflective strategies for enhancing prosocial values and beliefs about peer relationships.

Child Variables

Intellectual Ability

Previous research finds that children's social behavior is related to their intellectual ability. Dodge (1986) argued that children's social information processing skills are determined at least in part by intelligence and that those skills are determined in part by intelligence. Specifically, children of lower intelligence are more likely to be physically aggressive with peers than children of higher intelligence. More recent research found that adaptive emotion-regulation strategies, aggressive-response generation, and problem-solving response generation were all related to adolescents' intelligence; however, hostile attribution of intent was not related to intelligence (Nas et al., 2005).

Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that children's Action and Justification Choices will co-vary with their intellectual ability. However, this study found that neither *CBVS* Action Choices nor *CBVS* Justification Choices varied with teacher-reports of children's intellectual ability. The vast majority of children in this study were classified by teachers as Average in intellectual ability. Very few children were classified as Above Average/High in intellectual

ability. The lack of variance in teacher-reports of children's intellectual ability may explain the non-significant relations between this variable and *CBVS* Action Choices and *CBVS* Justification Choices. This measure was intended to serve as a proxy measure for children's intellectual ability and as a statistical control in subsequent data analyses. This analytic strategy is supported by previous findings that children's social information processing skills, which include self-regulating emotions, developing social problem-solving strategies, and generating prosocial and aggressive responses, are determined at least in part by intelligence; specifically, that children of lower intelligence are more likely to be physically aggressive with peers than children of higher intelligence (Dodge, 1986).

Bully/Victim Group Membership

This study found that neither *CBVS* Action Choices nor Justification Choices varied across participant children's teacher reported Bully/Victim Group Membership. In support of this strategy, many studies cite the prevalence of negative psychosocial and behavioral effects resulting from victimization on bully/victim group members (Flashpohler et al., 2009; Huitsing et al., 2007; Olweus, 1993; Veenstra et al., 2005). As with children's Intellectual Ability, it was hoped that children's Bully/Victim Group Membership would serve as another statistical control in subsequent data analyses. One explanation for the invariance of Bully/Victim Group Membership across *CBVS* Action Choices and Justification Choices may be that in this study there were insufficient numbers in each group, particularly in the Bully/Victim group, to account for a significant group effect.

Indirect Assessments Versus Direct Assessments

One of the issues of this study involves the validity and reliability of comparing indirect teacher-reports of children's social competencies, such as *CBS* prosocial and aggressive behavior

with peers, intellectual ability and bully/victim group membership, with children's self-report assessments of what they say they would do when faced with peer victimization and how they would explain their action choices. Studies have found that indirect teacher report and child direct assessments are highly intercorrelated and statistically significant (Cabell, Justice, Zucker, & Kilday, 2009). Cabell et al. (2009) reviewed a number of studies that indirect assessments of elementary school children's skills have often been used as a methodological measure of children's academic abilities and social competencies. The benefits of using the indirect *CBS* measure, the proxy item about children's intellectual ability and the *CSBS* and *CSEQ* measures to assign children's bully/victim group membership included time efficiency, requiring only a few minutes to respond to a list of questions or statements about a specific child without requiring extended periods of testing and elimination of child fatigue and distractibility, which can undermine the validity and reliability of behavioral testing. While indirect teacher assessments may offer more in-depth developmental information on children as compared to more diagnostic assessments of specific competencies as cited in other studies by Cabell et al. (2009), the results in this study were non-conclusive. Further research needs to focus on whether or not indirect teacher ratings of children's intellectual, behavioral competencies and group membership assignments in the context of bully victimization adequately predict children's behavior and reasoning abilities, which add value to future studies of children's emergent social development (e.g., whether a child appears to have mastered a prosocial interpretation and problem-solving in the context of bully victimization). Considering the wealth of research that found that teachers and parents provide the most robust and reliable reports of children's social behavior, the results of the current study suggests methodological problems with the design and use of *CBVS* measure. Another possibility for the discrepancy between the *CBS* and *CBVS* may

lie in the lack of variability in *CBS* scores and the inconsistency of the *CBVS* scores. Without question, future research should focus on the redesign and methodological uses of the *CBVS* before it can be employed as a valid assessment of children's social behavior and social reasoning in the context of bully victimization.

Gender

This study found that males were as likely to select Prosocial Action Choices and Aggressive Action Choices as females. In general, most studies find that boys and girls have an equal capacity for prosocial behavior, but that boys tend be more physically aggressive than girls, and that girls tend to be more relationally aggressive than boys (Crick et al., 2002; Phelps, 2001). Studies of children enrolled in the 2nd through the 9th grades found that while young children engage in both prosocial and aggressive behavior that over time boys tend to prefer physical aggression, whereas girls tend to prefer use of relational ostracism as well as indirect relational harassment and manipulation, which is psychologically harmful and distressing (Cairns, Cairns, Neckerman, Ferguson, & Gariepy, 1989; Foster, DeLawyer, & Guevremont, 1986; T. Nansel et al., 2001a; Olweus, 2003). Gender differences may be mediated by differential physical development and social awareness of social norms for possession and conflict resolution (Hay, Nash, & Pedersen, 1983). One explanation for the homogeneous findings in this study may be that the population sample was skewed toward typical middle-class social norms. The population sample was made up of 74.7 percent white children in urban schools that tend to report lower incidence rates for child aggression and tend to promote typical middle-class prosocial values and social support networks as opposed to lower socioeconomic inner schools which tend to report higher rates of aggression among children and fewer available resources for social support.

In contrast, gender differences were found in children's Justification Choices. Females were as likely to select Prosocial/Care and Justice/Fair Justification Choices as males. Again, this may be a *sample effect* representing a tendency toward middle-class prosocial norms. It also suggest that 5th grade boys and girls in this sample have a typical age-appropriate developmental sensitivity for social norms of fair and just behavior among peers. However, this study found that 5th grade boys were more likely to select Aggressive/Retribution Justification Choices than 5th grade girls, which may suggests that boys may be more emotionally predisposed to aggression than girls. This finding may also suggest that boys, who are socialized to be independent and self reliant in solving problems, may have fewer initial mental schemas for resolving conflict than girls once the male brain is flooded with stress hormones in response to perceived harm. Fifth grade girls in this study were more likely to select Justice/Fair Justification Choices than males. Whereas boys and girls engage in both physical and relational aggression, this finding suggests that 5th grade girls may view aggressive peer conflicts less emotionally than boys; or, perceive that victims will experience less harm from prosocial engagement with bully perpetrators and by appealing to social support networks for resolving conflict without resorting to personal aggression.

Story Variables

Story Character Role

This study found that children's *CBVS* Action Choices and *CBVS* Justification Choices varied across Story Character Roles. Children were far more likely to select Prosocial Actions for both bystander and victim story character roles suggesting that they believe that prosocial behavioral response are better than aggressive responses for resolving peer victimization conflict. They were also most likely to select Justice/Fair reasons for justifying their action responses,

whether the story character was a bystander or a victim. However, when the story character was a victim, children were less likely to select Prosocial/Care Justifications (but more than when the story character was a bystander), and least likely to select Aggressive/Retribution (but less than when the story character was a bystander).

Children were as likely to choose Justice/Fair Justifications when the story character role is a bystander as when the story character role is a victim. Whether a victim or bystander, children are often at a loss for how to respond to peer victimization even when advised to be assertive, refrain from retaliating against bullies, and to seek peer or adult support (Rigby, 2002a). As mentioned in Chapter III, the *CBVS* model assumes that moral justifications represent generalizable moral norms based on *schemas* about the welfare, fairness, and rights of others that regulate social relationships (Helwig & Turiel, 2003; Turiel, 1983, 1998). Findings suggest the possibility that children in this study may be well aware of the action choices that are often offered by school counselors, other adults, and advice books about how to deal with peer victimization. Children may be responding to their sense of empathy for the victim or the bystander by reflecting on their moral responsibility to preserve social justice, fairness, and equality between the bully and the victim; thus, engaging predominantly more in prosocial actions. Similarly, this same sense of moral responsibility to protect the victim and the bystander for from harm may override a child's sense of self protection in service to a peer being physically or emotionally harmed.

Interestingly, participant children were less likely to select Prosocial/Care Justifications when the story character role was a victim than when the story character was a bystander, which may a reflection his or her ability to affect a positive outcome in the face of personal victimization. It may be that after a victim reflects on the moral justice of the bully treatment, he

or she may reflect on the prosocial/caring responses that affect a positive resolution, and then reflects on the negative emotions that might affect a less than desirable outcome. For example, a victim may weight the fairness of the situation, followed by prosocial/care reasons that may inhibit aggressive response and lead to prosocial actions (or, self-protective aggression in the threat of physical harm). Alternatively, a flood of angry emotions may serve to exacerbate aggressive actions regardless of personal safety.

It is interesting that children feel it is more appropriate for a bystander as opposed to a victim to respond to bully victimization with aggression. Perhaps, children believe that victims who respond with aggression are more likely to get victimization again; therefore, their most effective response is to be prosocial. Further, children may reason that bystanders, who are neither bullies nor victims, can intervene on behalf of a victim aggressively with greater power and less subjectivity to retaliation that would otherwise befall the original victim of abuse.

Story Form of Victimization

This study found that both children's Action Choices and Justification Choices varied across Story Forms of Victimization. This study found that children were more likely to choose Prosocial Action Choices when the story form of victimization was physical than when the story form of victimization was relational. While the middle-class population sample may be socialized to favor prosocial behavior over aggressive behavior, another explanation may be that children may fear that an aggressive Action Choice by a victim in response to physical victimization might result in more physical victimization and further social isolation from peers; therefore, they may reason that the best action is a prosocial action.

Other research found that children who are victimized by peers exhibit more internalizing behaviors, such as being quiet or withdrawn, depressed, and anxious (Craig, 1998;

Schwartz et al., 1998). These children are less socially accepted by their peers are more isolated than other children (Veenstra et al., 2005), which means that they favor prosocial behavior as a means to garner social support as a buffer from the harmful effects of peer victimization (Malecki & Demaray, 2004). In the context of schools, peers and teachers are the core part of a child's social support network providing emotional, motivational, instrumental, and informational support (Tardy, 1985).

In contrast, while children in this study were much less likely to select Aggressive Actions than Prosocial Actions regardless of whether the Story Form of Victimization was physical or relational. However, children were more likely to they Aggressive Action Choices when the story form of victimization was relational than when the story form of victimization was physical. With relational victimization, children may not fear a bully's retaliation because neither victims nor bystanders incur a physical threat to their personal safety. Interestingly, as previously mentioned in the gender portion of this study, girls are more predisposed to resolving relational disputes through the use of strong social support networks. Even so, Olweus (1978) reported that bullies are rarely targeted by peers, which may suggest that even relational bullies have an inhibitory effect on victims for fear of psychological harm. Alternately, when children in this study do resort to Aggressive Actions, it may be that boys tend to resort to physical aggression and girls may resort to relational aggression respectively.

With regard to Justification Choices for physical and relational forms of victimization, children tended to predominantly select more Justice/Fair Justification Choices with Prosocial/Care Justifications as a close second in both Physical and Relational Story Forms of Victimization. Murray-Close and associates (2006) argue that children tend to adopt a moral orientation (e.g., ability to distinguish behaviors that are acceptable as right and wrong) about

aggression and that they differentiate between physical and relational aggression in their moral judgments. Girls are more morally sensitive to the effects of relational aggressive; whereas, boys are more morally sensitive physical aggression.

Recommendations for Future Research

There is still much to learn about the factors that influence children's thinking about bully victimization. With this in mind, the following recommendations are made for future research related to this study.

First, modifications need to be made to the *CBVS*. To start, children need to be clearly instructed to select an action that they would most likely take if they were the story character. Second, children should also be instructed to choose the most right or moral action. Next, the justification categories need to be refined and a fourth category needs to be added called Aggressive/Retaliatory Justifications such as "I'm doing this to get back at the mean kids" or "I have a right to get back at the mean kids."

Future analysis should make use of a within story design such that each child's responses will be analyzed within each story. This will give four data sets for each child participant; the fact that child participants will act as their own control should provides a way of reducing the amount of error arising from natural variance between individual children. One advantage will be that children can be evaluated within each of the four story types in order to study the effect that each story has on children's Action Choice responses and their Justification Choice responses.

Additionally, within-story design increases statistical power and reduces error variance associated with individual differences such as children's moods or task variables (e.g., time of day, temperature in the room), which will differ across levels of the independent variable. Statistical efficiency of within-story design makes it easier to detect differences across the levels

of the independent variable such as Action Choices and Justification Choices because each child's responses for story 1 will be compared to that of stories 2, 3, and 4. The resulting variances between each story will reflect relative strengths and weaknesses of each story.

In contrast, a fundamental disadvantage of the within-story design is "carryover effect" (e.g., practice, memory imprinting, fatigue, boredom), which means that the a child's responses in one story may effect performance in the other three stories, thus creating a confounding extraneous variable that varies with the independent Action and Justification Choice variables.

Another study should include specific gender differentiation with respect to Story Character Roles and Story Forms of Victimization among the population sample.

Still other interesting study should attempt to identify clusters of children who sometimes justify aggressive actions with prosocial justifications. One research objective should correlates with this pattern of reasoning, such as children's intellectual ability, bully/victim group membership, gender, roles, or forms of victimization?

Possible Interventions for *CBVS* Inclusion

Findings from this study have implications for implementing effective interventions aimed at reducing rates of bully victimization among children in elementary schools.

First, an important point of intervention would be to make children aware of how they rationalize their aggressive actions in response to bully victimization.

Social Support Intervention Programs

In contrast to supporting or reinforcing bullying, peers may also play an important role in discouraging bullying or minimizing the negative effects of being victimized by bullies. This is because peers who defend against bullying may instrumental in promoting ant bullying behaviors (Sutton & Smith, 1999). Research highlights the value of uninvolved children or "bystanders"

that might have more influence with other children. Bystanders may be more adept at reporting bullying, intervening to stop bullying, or acting supportively toward a victimized peer (Hara, 2002). While many formal peer support programs that engage children in peer counseling or conflict resolution have failed to reduce rates of bullying, they are perceived as helpful by the bully victims because they convey the message to the victim that someone cares (Naylor & Cowie, 1999). These findings suggest the importance of understanding the role of informal forms of peer social support in buffering the negative consequences associated with bullying. Thus, the *CBVS* could be used in intervention programs as a means of helping children who might witness or be victimized by bullying to understand how their actions and justifications influence the escalation or the reduction of bully/victim problems.

Bullying Prevention Programs

The aim of interventions such as the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP) is to encourage children to shift their roles from supporting bullying to defending against it, which helps create an atmosphere that does not accept bullying (Olweus, 2001; Olweus et al., 1999). School climate programs (Munoz & Vanderhaar, 2006) may be more effective when they promote connection strategies between and among students and school staff. The *CBVS* might be helpful in highlighting children's social reasoning that underscores the need for behavioral awareness interventions that decrease harmful peer victimization and increases prosocial alternatives for resolving conflict and promoting well-being among peers.

There are a variety of bullying prevention programs available, such as *Expect Respect* (Place, 2001), Bully Busters (Guzman, 2001), and Olweus Bullying Prevention (Olweus, 1991). The available programs focus on middle school and high school populations and include information on how to handle sexual harassment, physical aggression, and anger management. A

strong component, which is directed at the cognitive processes of elementary-age children who are still forming, is not included (Rock, Hammond, & Rasmussen, 2005). The *CBVS* might be used to help elementary school age children identify maladaptive reasoning patterns.

Many school-wide programs for children enrolled in elementary schools address three areas: School policies against bullying, staff training for teaching children how to resolve conflict constructively, and specific instruction in concepts, skills, and rehearsal of actions that support a school belief system that bullying is not acceptable and that support of each other is critical and important to overall school climate (Rock et al., 2005). Instructional strategies include: perspective taking, communication skills to assist in better expressing children's feelings, problem solving, and conflict resolution. Other aspects of the program include behavior interpretation, emotional and cognitive self regulation, courage to intervene, non-intervention as a perceived safe intervention, and available social resources. The *CBVS* could be used as a tool for children to identify forms of bully victimization and character roles, identify strategies to regulate emotions, identify appropriate and inappropriate behavioral responses, and identify justifications that lead to either escalating or reducing incidences of bullying.

Following the work of Kochenderfer-Ladd (2004), an additional measure of children's feeling needs to be included as part of the CBVS. This could be done for each story by asking children how they think the story character feels after being victimized or after witnessing victimization. Response options could be "afraid," "embarrassed," or "angry." This would be an important modification that would allow investigators to examine how children's emotions mediate their Action Choices and Justification Choices.

Strengths and Limitations of the Current Study

This study sought to develop a new measure, the CBVS, which examines the relationship between children's social reasoning and what they say they might do when they are victimized by bullies or when they witness others being victimized by bullies. One strength of this measure is that it combines both behavioral actions components and justification components in a single instrument. Future studies in the field will build on the current body of knowledge about the ways that children process information in response to being victimized or to witnessing a peer being victimized; particularly, with regard to the factors that influence children's preferred action responses. This information may be helpful to practitioners who develop and implement effective bully intervention programs in elementary schools.

The current study also had a number of limitations. First, there were too few participants in the study to adequately represent all bully/victim group categories and intellectual ability groups. Second, the sample in this study was a convenience sample of 158 children and 16 teachers who were recruited through public and private elementary schools. The sample was limited to children who were enrolled in the 5th grade and resided in either a rural or a metropolitan area in the Southern region of the United States.

Another limitation was a low return rate for school systems. Possible explanations were that school administrators are reluctant to commit time away from non-curriculum-based activities. Time to complete the child surveys was too long given the limited time for non-curriculum-based activity. It took children about 25 minutes to complete the survey plus about 10 minutes to orient children before they completed the survey, which included going over and signing the child assent forms, answering children's questions, and wrapping up after the surveys were completed. School administrators may have perceived the time to complete the survey to be

too long, given other curriculum-based teaching responsibilities such as No Child Left Behind responsibilities and the five to six minutes of time it took teachers to complete their questionnaire for each child. For example, if a teacher has ten or more children to assess it would take at least an hour or more of their time. Thus, administrators have been reluctant to impose that much time on teachers given their busy daily schedule. Additionally, the low overall participant rate (33.9 %) and a high rate of white middle-class participants (74.7 %) raises questions about how representative the sample is of the overall population. One implication is that the results of this study represent a skewed perspective of the social values and behaviors of the overall school populations sampled.

Another limitation of this study is the finding that children's action choices were related to children's justifications due to the methodological approach, in which the *CBVS* variables were rated by the same source using related methods. The conclusions about the association between children's actions and justifications may be somewhat overstated due to the common source, which was not seen when compared to teacher ratings. This raises questions about methodological design when comparing rated teacher-report data with categorical child-report data.

The rating of Action Choices may be another limiting factor. For example, children may have interpreted the term "Good" for items in each story to be mean what the hypothetical main character would or should "most likely" do; or, what the hypothetical character thought was the socially or morally right thing to do. Hence, the measure needs to be modified.

The weakness of the Aggressive Justification Choice subscale in the ranked categorical data analyses may be the interpretation of aggressive justifications that in some children's

thoughts, which may have suggested retaliation. The same words might also be interpreted to suggest equality or justice. Hence, the measure needs to be modified.

In summary, there are many individual and contextual factors that influence children's ability to generate solutions, both prosocial and aggressive, for imagining themselves being victimized or bullied; some of which include children's history of aggression and victimization, the reality of the bully/victim episode (i.e., actual versus perceived), the level of aggressiveness, heightened emotional distress, the nature of the victim's relationship with the bully, the form of bully victimization and their moral and social values and beliefs (M. S. Tisak et al., 2006). These and other characteristics serve as reminders that the nature of children's social reasoning is a complex course of cognitive and emotional processing, which is further confounded by their social development. Findings from this study have raised many more questions than answers about the implications for understanding how children might imagine themselves thinking and behaving in the context of peer victimization.

REFERENCES

Ableson, R. P. (1981). The psychological status of the script concept. *American Psychologist, 36*, 715-729.

Administration, H. R. a. S. (2004a). The scope and impact of bullying. On *Stop the bullying now: Take a stand, lend a hand* [Resource Kit]: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Administration, H. R. a. S. (2004b). What we know about bullying. On *Stop the bullying now: Take a stand, lend a hand* [Resource Kit]: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Andreou, E. (2001). Bully/victim problems and their association with coping behaviour in conflictual peer interactions among school-age children. *Educational Psychology Review, 21*, 59–66.

Archer, J., & Coyne, S. M. (2005). An integrated review of indirect, relational, and social aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 9*, 212 – 230.

Arsenio, W. F., & Lemerise, E. A. (2004). Aggression and moral development: Integrating social information processing and moral domain models. *Child Development, 75*(4), 987-1002.

Austin, S., & Joseph, S. (1996). Assessment of bully/victim problems in 8 to 11 year-olds. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 66*, 447–456.

Bandura, A. (1973). *Aggression: A social learning analysis*. New York, NY: Holt.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Engliwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1983). Psychological mechanisms of aggression. In R. G. Green & E. Donnerstein (Eds.), *Aggression: Theoretical and empirical reviews*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice_Hall.

Bandura, A. (1991). Social cognitive theory of moral thought and action. In W. M. Kurtines & J. L. Gewirtz (Eds.), *Handbook of moral behavior and development* (Vol. 1: Theory). Hillsdale, NU: Erlbaum.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Bandura, A. (1999). Moral disengagement in the perpetration on inhumanities. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 3*, 193-209.

Bandura, A., Capra, V., Barbaranelli, C., Pastorelli, C., & Regalia, C. (2001). Sociocognitive self-regulatory mechanisms governing transgressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*, 125-135.

Banks, R. (1997). *Bullying in schools* (Bullying No. ERIC Report No. EDO-PS-97-170). Champaign, IL: University of Illinois.

Bare, L. A. (2006). *Examining friendship and empathy in early adolescents' responding to teasing.* Unpublished Dissertation, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.

Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. J. (1999). Intermediate concepts and the connection to moral education. *Educational Psychology Review, 11*(4), 343-360.

Becker, G. (1974). Crime and punishment: An economic approach. In G. Becker & W. Landes (Eds.), *Essays in the economics of crime and punishment* (pp. 1-54). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Berkowitz, L. (1993a). *Aggression: Its causes, consequences, and control*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Bjorkqvist, K., Lagerspetz, J. M. J., & Kaukiainen, A. (1992). Do girls manipulate and boys fight? Developmental trends in regard to direct and indirect aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 18*, 117-127.

Bjorkqvist, K., Osterman, K., & Kaukiainen, A. (1992). The development of direct and indirect aggressive strategies in males and females. In K. Bjorkqvist & P. Niemelia (Eds.), *Of mice and women: Aspects of female aggression* (pp. 51-64). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Block, J. H. (1983). Differential premises arising from differential socialization of the sexes: Some conjectures. *Child Development, 54*, 1335-1354.

Boulton, M., & Underwood, K. (1992). Bully/victim problems among middle school children. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 62*, 73-87.

Bowlby, J. (1980). *Attachment and loss: Loss, sadness and depression* (Vol. III). New York, NY: Basic Books.

Boxer, P., & Tisak, M. S. (2005). A social cognitive information-processing model for school-based aggression reduction and prevention programs: Issues for research and practice. *Applied and Preventive Psychology, 10*, 177-192.

Brewster, A. B., & Bowen, G. L. (2004). Teacher support and the school engagement of Latino middle and high school students at risk of school failure. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal, 21*(1), 47–67.

Buhs, E. S., Ladd, G. W., & Herald, S. L. (2006). Peer exclusion and victimization: Processes that mediate the relation between peer group rejection and children's classroom engagement and achievement? *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 1-13.

Burgess, K. B., Wojslawowicz, J. C., Rubin, K. H., Rose-Krasnor, L., & Booth-Laforce, C. (2006). Social information processing and coping strategies of shy-withdrawn and aggressive children: Does friendship matter? *Child Development, 16*, 371-383.

Cabell, S. Q., Justice, L. M., Zucker, T. A., & Kilday, C. R. (2009). Validity of teacher report for assessing the emergent literacy skills of at-risk preschoolers. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 40*, 161-173.

Cairns, R. B., Cairns, B. D., Neckerman, H. J., Ferguson, L. L., & Gariepy, J. L. (1989). Growth and aggression 1: Childhood to early adolescence. *Developmental Psychology, 25*(2), 320-330.

Camodeca, M., Goossens, F. A., Schuengel, C., & Meerum Terwogt, M. (2003). Links between social information processing in middle childhood and involvement in bullying. *Aggressive Behavior, 29*, 116–127.

Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., & Pastorelli, C. (2001). Prosocial behavior and aggression in childhood and pre-adolescence. In A. C. Bohart & D. J. Stipek (Eds.), *Constructive and destructive behavior. Implications for family, school, and society* (pp. 187–203). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Carlsmith, K. M. (2008). On justifying punishment: The discrepancy between words and actions. *Social Justice Research, 21*, 119–137.

Chandler, M. J. (1973). Egocentrism and antisocial behavior: The assessment and training of social perspective-taking skills. *Developmental Psychology, 9*, 326-332.

Chen, J. J. (2005). Relation of academic support from parents, teachers and peers to Hong Kong adolescents' academic achievement: The mediating role of academic engagement. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 131*(2), 77–127.

City, T. E. R. C. o. K. (1983). *Jido-seito-no-ningen-kankei-niokeru-ishiki-to-koudou-no-chosa: Ijime-no-mondai-wo-chusin-ni. (The research of thought and conduct of students' interpersonal relations: The consideration of bullying problems)*: The Educational Research Center of Kyoto City, Kyoto.

Clark, J. N. (2008). The three Rs: retributive justice, restorative justice, and reconciliation. *Contemporary Justice Review, 11*(4), 331–350.

Clarke, R. V., & Cornish, D. B. (1983). *Crime control in Britain: A review of policy research*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Cobb, S. (1976). Social support as a moderator of life stress. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 38*(5), 300–314.

Cohen-Posey, K. (1995). *How to handle bullies, teasers and other meanies: A book that takes the nuisance out of name-calling and other nonsense*. Highland City, FL: Rainbow Books.

Cohen, D., & Strayer, J. (1996). Empathy in conduct-disordered and comparison youth. *Developmental Psychology, 32*(6), 988-998.

Cohen, S., Gottlieb, B. H., & Underwood, L. G. (2000). Social relationships and health. In S. Cohen, L. G. Underwood & B. H. Gottlieb (Eds.), *Social support measurement and intervention: A guide for health and social scientists*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985). Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin, 98*(2), 310–357.

Coie, J. D., & Dodge, K. A. (1998). Aggression and antisocial behaviour. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development* (pp. 779-862). Toronto: Wiley.

Colarossi, L. G., & Eccles, J. S. (2003). Differential effects of support providers on adolescents' mental health. *Social Work Research, 27*(1), 19–30.

Collins, W. A. (1982). Cognitive processing aspects of television viewing. In D. Pearl, L. Bouthilet & J. Lazar (Eds.), *Television and behavior: Ten years of scientific progress and implications for the eighties* (pp. 9-23). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Coloroso, B. (2003). *The bully, the bullied, and the bystander*. New York, NY: Harper Resource.

Conners-Burrow, N., Johnson, D. L., Whiteside-Mansell, L., McKelvey, L., & Gargus, R. A. (2009). Adults matter: Protecting children from the negative impacts of bullying. *Psychology in the Schools, 46*(7), 593-604.

Coyne, S., Archer, J., & Elsea, M. (2006). The frequency and harmfulness of indirect, relational, and social aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 32*, 294 – 307.

Craig, W. M. (1998). The relationship among bullying, victimization, depression, anxiety, and aggression in elementary school children. *Personality & Individual Differences, 24*, 123–130.

Craig, W. M., Henderson, K., & Murphy, J. G. (2000). Prospective teachers' attitudes toward bullying and victimization. *School Psychology International, 21*, 5-21.

Cramer, R. E., McMaster, M. r., Bartell, P. A., & Dragna, M. (1988). Subject competence and minimization of the bystander effect. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 18*, 1133-1148.

Crane-Ross, D. A., Tisak, M. S., & Tisak, J. (1998). Aggression and conventional rule violation among adolescents: Social-reasoning predictors of social behavior. *Aggressive Behavior, 24*, 347-365.

Crick, N. R. (1995). Relational aggression: The role of intent attributions, feelings of distress, and provocation type. *Development and Psychopathology, 7*, 313-322.

Crick, N. R. (1996). The role of overt aggression, relational aggression, and prosocial behavior in the prediction of children's future social adjustment. *Child Development, 67*, 2317 – 2327.

Crick, N. R. (1997). Engagement in gender normative versus nonnormative forms of aggression: Links to social-psychological adjustment. *Developmental Psychology, 33*, 610-617.

Crick, N. R., Bigbee, M. A., & Howes, C. (1996). Gender differences in children's normative beliefs about aggression: How do I hurt thee? Let me count the ways. *Child Development, 67*, 1003-1014.

Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (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. A. (1996). Social information-processing mechanisms on reactive and proactive aggression. *Child Development, 67*, 993–1002.

Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1995). Relational aggression, gender, and social-psychological adjustment. *Child Development, 66*, 710-722.

Crick, N. R., & Grotpeter, J. K. (1996). Children's treatment by peers: Victims of relational and overt aggression. *Development and Psychopathology, 8*, 367-380.

Crick, N. R., Grotpeter, J. K., & Bigbee, M. A. (2002). Relationally and physically aggressive children's intent attributions and feelings of distress for relational and instrumental peer provocations. *Child Development, 73*, 1134-1142.

Crick, N. R., Nelson, D. A., Morales, J. A., Cullerton-Sen, C., Casas, J. F., & Hickman, S. E. (2001a). Relational victimization in childhood and adolescence: I hurt you through the grapevine. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 196-214). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Crick, N. R., Nelson, d. A., Morales, J. R., Cullerton-Sen, C., Casas, J. F., & Hickman, S. E. (2001b). Relational victimization in childhood and adolescence: I hurt you through the grapevine. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school: the plight of the vulnerable and victimized*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Cullerton-Sen, C., & Crick, N. R. (2005a). Understanding the effects of relational and physical victimization: The utility of multiple perspectives. *School Psychology Review, 34*(7), 147-160.

Cullerton-Sen, C., & Crick, N. R. (2005b). Understanding the effects of relational and physical victimization: The utility of multiple perspectives. *School Psychology Review, 34*(2), 147-160.

Culp, A. M., Culp, R. E., Horton, C. H., Curtner-Smith, M. E., Palermo, F., & Culp, K. (2003). *Head Start children's playground aggression and teachers' and maternal reports.* Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.

Cummings, E. M., Hennessy, K. D., Rabideau, G. J., & Cicchetti, D. (1994). Responses of physically abused boys to interadult anger involving their mothers. *Development and Psychopathology, 6*, 31 – 41.

Curtner-Smith, M. E., Culp, A. M., Culp, R., Scheib, C., Owen, K., Tilley, A., et al. (2006). Mothers' Parenting and Young Economically Disadvantaged Children's Relational and Overt Bullying. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 15*(2), 181–193.

David, R., & Choi, S. Y. P. (2009). Getting even or getting equal? Retributive desires and transitional justice. *Political Psychology, 30*(2), 161-192.

Delveaux, K. D., & Daniels, T. (2000). Children's social cognitions: Physically and relationally aggressive strategies and children's goals in peer conflict situations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 46*, 672-692.

Demaray, M. K., & Malecki, C. K. (2002). The relationship between perceived social support and maladjustment for students at risk. *Psychology in the Schools, 39*(3), 305–316.

Demaray, M. K., & Malecki, C. K. (2003). Perceptions of the frequency and importance of social support by students classified as victims, bullies, and bully/victims in an urban middle school. *School Psychology Review, 32*(3), 471–489.

Directorate, A. P. A. P. (2002). *Warning signs of teen violence: Fight for your rights: Take a stand against violence* (Information publication: www.helping.apa.org). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Dodge, K. A. (1980a). Social cognition and children's aggressive behavior. *Child Development, 51*, 162-170.

Dodge, K. A. (1980b). Social cognition and children's aggressive-behavior. *Child Development, 51*(1), 162-170.

Dodge, K. A. (1986). A social information-processing model of social competence in children. In M. Perlmutter (Ed.), *Minnesota symposia on child psychology* (Vol. 18, pp. 77-125). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dodge, K. A. (1986, October). *A social information-processing model of social competence in children.* Paper presented at the Minnesota Symposia of Child Psychology, University of Minnesota.

Dodge, K. A. (1987). Hostile attributional biases among aggressive boys are exacerbated under conditions of threats to the self. *Child Development, 58*(1), 213-224.

Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1987). Social-information-processing factors in reactive and proactive aggression in children's peer groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(6), 1146-1158.

Dodge, K. A., & Frame, C. L. (1982). Social cognitive biases and deficits in aggressive boys. *Child Development, 53*, 620-635.

Dodge, K. A., Lansford, J.E., Burks, V. S., Bates, J. E., Pettit, G. S., Fontaine, R., Price, J. M. (2003). Peer rejection and social information-processing factors in the development of aggressive behavior problems in children. *Child Development, 74*(2), 374-393.

Dodge, K. A., Lochman, J. E., Harnish, J. D., Bates, J. E., & Petitit, G. S. (1997). Reactive and proactive aggression in school children and psychiatrically impaired chronically assaultive youth. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 106*, 37-51.

Dodge, K. A., Pettit, G. S., & Bates, J. (1994). Socialization mediators of the relation between socioeconomic status and child conduct problems. *Child Development, 65*, 649-665.

Dodge, K. A., & Rabiner, D. L. (2004). Returning to roots: On social information processing and moral development. *Child Development, 75*(4), 1003-1008.

Donker, A. G. (2006). Combined parent and teacher reports: University of Leiden.

Edinburgh, U. o. (2005, 2004). *Anti-bullying network*. Retrieved January 10, 2005, from http://www.antibullying.net/

Eisenberg-Berg, N. (1979). Development of children's prosocial moral judgment. *Developmental Psychology, 15*, 128-137.

Eisenberg, N., & Fabes, R. A. (1990). Empathy: Conceptualization, assessment, and relation to prosocial behavior. *Motivation and Emotion, 14*, 131-149.

Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., Nyman, M., Bernzweig, J., & Pinuelas, A. (1994). The relations of emotionality and regulation to children's anger-related reactions. *Child Development, 65*, 109-128.

Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Spinrad, T. L. (2006). Prosocial development. In N. Eisenberg (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology,Volume 3: Social, emotional, and personality development* (pp. 646–718). New York: Wiley.

Eisenberg, N., Spinrad, T., & Sadovsky, A. (2006). Empath-related responding in children. In M. Killen & J. Smetana (Eds.), *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 517-550). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Elinoff, M. J., Chafouleas, S. M., & Sassu, K. (2004). Bullying: Considerations for defining and intervening in school settings. *Psychology in the Schools, 4*, 887–897.

Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2003). Research on school bullying and victimization: What have we learned and where do we go from here? *School Psychology Review, 32*, 365–383.

Espelage, D. L., & Swearer, S. M. (2004). *Bullying in American schools: A social-ecological perspective on prevention and intervention*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Field, E. M. (2003). *Bullybusting: How to help children deal with teasing and bullying*. Lane Cove, Australia: finch Publishing.

Flashpohler, P. D., Elfstrom, J. L., Vanderzee, K. L., Sink, H., & Birchmeier, Z. (2009). Stand by me: The effects of peer and teacher support in mitigating the impact of bullying on quality of life. *Psychology in the Schools, 46*(7), 636-648.

Foster, S. L., DeLawyer, D. D., & Guevremont, D. C. (1986). A critical incidents analysis of liked and disliked peer behaviors and their situational parameters in childhood and adolescence. *Behavioral Assessment, 8*, 115-133.

Foundation, T. F. (2004b, 2004). *Bullying online: Advice to pupils*. Retrieved January 10, 2005, from http://www.bullying.co.uk/children/pupil_advice.htm

Fraczek, A. (1985). Moral approval of aggressive acts: A Polish-Finish comparative study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 16*, 41-54.

Freedman, J. S. (2002). *Easing the teasing: Helping your child cope with name-calling, ridicule, and verbal bullying*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Frisch, M. B. (2000). Improving mental and physical health care through quality of life therapy and assessment. In D. E.. & D. R. D. R. Rahtz (Eds.), *Advances in quality of life theory and research* (pp. 207–241). Dordrecht, Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Press.

Fujiqara, T., Kohyama, T., Andreu, J. M., & Ramires, J. M. (1999). Justification of interpersonal aggression in Japanese, American, and Spanish students. *Aggressive Behavior, 25*, 185-195.

Furlong, M. J., & Chung, A. (1995). Who are the victims of school violence? A comparison of student non-victims and multi-victims. *Education & Treatment of Children, 18*(3), 282–299.

Galen, B. R., & Underwood, M. K. (1997). A developmental investigation of social aggression among children. *Developmental Psychology, 33*, 589-600.

Garrett, A. G. (2003). *Bullying in American schools: Causes, preventions, interventions*. Jefferson, NC: McFarland & Company.

Giles, J. W., & Heyman, G. D. (2005). Giles, J. W., & Heyman, G. D. (2005). Young children's beliefs about the relationship between gender and aggressive behavior. Child Development, 76, 107 – 121.

Gilman, R., & Huebner, E. S. (2006a). Characteristics of adolescents who report very high life satisfaction. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 35*, 311–319.

Gilman, R., & Huebner, E. S. (2006b). Characteristics of adolescents who report very high life satisfaction. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 5*, 311–319.

Ginsburg, H. J. (1977). Altruism in children: The significance of nonverbal behavior. *Journal of Communication*, 82-86.

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 and Adolescent Medicine, 159*, 1026–1031.

Goldstein, S. E., Tisak, M. S., & Boxer, P. (2002). Preschoolers' normative and prescriptive judgments of relational and overt aggression. *Early Education and Development, 13*, 23 – 39.

Goldstein, S. E., Tisak, M. S., Persson, A. P., & Boxer, P. (2004). Adolescents' outcome expectancies about relational aggression within acquaintanceships, friendships, and dating relationships. *Journal of Adolescence, 27*, 283-302.

Goodman, R. F. (2000, December 2000). *Bullies: More than sticks, stones, and name calling*. Retrieved January 10, 2005, from http://www.aboutourkids.org/aboutour/articles/bullies.html

Gradinger, P., Strohmeier, D., & Spiel, C. (2009). Traditional bullying and cyber bullying. *Journal of Psychology, 21*(4), 205–213.

Gromet, D. M., & Darley, J. M. (2009). Punishment and Beyond: Achieving Justice through the satisfaction of multiple goals. *Law & Society Review, 43*(1), 1-37.

Guerra, N. G., & Slaby, R. G. (1990). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders 2: Intervention. *Developmental Psychology, 26*, 269-277.

Guzman, L. D. (2001). *Bully busters*. Las Vegas, NV: Research Press.

Haan, N., Aerts, E., & Cooper, B. A. B. (1985). *On moral grounds: The search for practical morality*. New York, NY: New York University Press.

Hara, H. (2002). Justifications for bullying among Japanese schoolchildren. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 5*, 197-204.

Harrell, J., F. E. (2001). *Regression modeling strategies: With applications to linear models, logistic regression, and survival analysis*. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Harris, S., Garth, F. P. (2003). *Bullying: The bullies, the victims, the bystanders*. Oxford, UK: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Hartup, W. W. (1974). Aggression in childhood: Developmental perspectives. *American Psychologist, 29*, 336-341.

Hawker, S. J., & Boulton, M. J. (2000). Twenty years' research on peer victimization and psychosocial maladjustment: A meta-analytic review of cross-sectional studies. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 41*, 441–455.

Hawkins, D. L., Pepler, D., & Craig, W. M. (2001). Naturalistic observations of peer interventions in bullying. *Social Development, 10*, 512–527.

Hay, D. F., Nash, A., & Pedersen, J. (1983). Interactions between 6-month-olds. *Child Development, 54*, 557-562.

Hay, D. F., & Ross, H. S. (1982). The social nature of early conflict. *Child Development, 53*, 105-113.

Haynie, D. L., Nansel, T., Eitel, P., Crump, A. D., Saylor, K., Yu, K., et al. (2001). Bullies, victims and bully/victims: Distinct groups of at-risk youth. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 21*(1), 29–49.

Haynie, D. L., Nansel, T. R., Eitel, P., Davis Crump, A., Saylor, S., Yu, K., et al. (2001). Bullies, victims, and bully/victims: Distinct groups of at-risk youth. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 21*, 29–49.

Hazler, R. J., & Denham, S. A. (2002). Social isolation of youth at risk: Conceptualizations and practical implications. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 80*, 403–409.

Helwig, C. C., & Turiel, E. (2003). Children's social and moral reasoning. In P. K. Smith & C. H. Hart (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of childhood social development* (pp. 475-490). Oxford: Blackwell.

Heydenberk, W., & Heydenberk, R. (2007). More than manners: Conflict resolution in primary level classrooms. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 35*(7), 119-126.

Hoefnagels, C., & Zwikker, M. (2001). The bystander dilemma and child abuse: Extending the Latane` and Darley model to domestic violence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 31*, 1158-1183.

Hosmer, D., & Lemeshow, S. (1989). *Applied Logistic Regression*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Huebner, E. S. (1997). Life satisfaction and happiness. In G. G. Bear, K. K. Minke & A. A. Thomas (Eds.), *Children's needs II* (pp. 271–278). Silver Springs, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Huebner, E. S. (2004). Research on assessment of life satisfaction of children and adolescents. *Social Indicators Research, 66*, 3–33.

Huebner, E. S., Suldo, S. M., Smith, L. C., & McKnight, C. G. (2004). Life satisfaction in children and youth: Empirical foundations and implications for school psychologists. *Psychology in the Schools, 41*, 81–93.

Huesmann, L. R. (1988). An information-processing model for the development of aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 14*, 13-24.

Huesmann, L. R., & Guerra, N. G. (1997). Children's normative beliefs about aggression and aggressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 72*, 408-419.

Huitsing, G., Veenstra, R., & Wallien, M. (2007). Social Networks and Participant Roles in Bullying, *Educational Research Days 2007*. Groningen, the Netherlands.

Jackson, J. S. (2002). *Bye-bye, Bully! A kid's guide for dealing with bullies*. St. Meinrad, IN: Abbey Press.

James, D. J., Lawlor, M., Courtney, P., Flynn, A., Henry, B., & Murphy, N. (2008). Bullying behaviour in secondary schools: What roles do teachers play? *Child Abuse Review, 17*, 160-173.

Johnston, M. (2003). *Dealing with bullying*. New York, NY: PowerKids Press.

Juvonen, J., & Graham, S. (2001). *Peer harassment in school: The plight of the vulnerable and victimized*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Khatri, P., Kupersmidt, J. B., & Patterson, C. (2000). Aggression and peer victimization as predictors of self-reported behavioral and emotional adjustment. *Aggressive Behavior, 26*, 345-358.

Killen, M., & Turiel, E. (1998). Adolescents' and young adults' evaluations of helping and sacrificing for others. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 8*, 355-375.

Kochenderfer-Ladd, B. (2004). Peer victimization: The role of emotions in adaptive and maladaptive coping. *Social Development, 13*(3), 329-349.

Kochenderfer Ladd, B., & Ladd, G. W. (1996). Peer victimization: Cause or consequence of school maladjustment? *Child Development, 67*, 1305-1317.

Kochenderfer Ladd, B., & Ladd, G. W. (2001). Variations in peer victimization: Relations to children's maladjustment. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school: The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 25-48). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Kochenderfer Ladd, B., & Pelletier, M. E. (2008). Teachers' views and beliefs about bullying: Influences on classroom management strategies and students' coping with peer victimization. *Journal of School Psychology, 46*, 431-453.

Kochenderfer Ladd, B., & Skinner, K. (2002). Children's coping strategies: Moderators of the effects of peer victimization? *Developmental Psychology, 38*(2), 267-278.

Kochenderfer Ladd, B., & Wardrop, J. L. (2001). Chronicity and instability of children's peer victimization experiences as predictors of loneliness and social satisfaction trajectories. *Child Development, 72*, 134-151.

Kowalski, R. M. (2000). "I was only kidding!": Victims' and perpetrators' perceptions of teasing. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin, 26*, 230-241.

Kumpulainen, K., Raesaenen, E., Henttonen, I., Almqvist, F., Kresanov, K., Linna, S., et al. (1998). Bullying and psychiatric symptoms among elementary school-age children. *Child Abuse and Neglect, 22*, 705–717.

Kupersmidt, J. B., Patterson, C. J., & Eickholt, C. (1989). Social rejected children: Bullies, victims, or both? Aggressors, victims, and peer relationships, *Society for Research in Child Development*. Kansas City, MO.

Ladd, G. W., & Burgess, K. B. (2001). Do relational risks and protective factors moderate the linkage between childhood aggression and early psychological and school adjustment? *Child Development, 72*(5), 1579-1601.

Ladd, G. W., Kochenderfer, B. J., & Coleman, C. C. (1997). Classroom peer acceptance, friendship, and victimization: Distinct relational systems that contribute uniquely to children's school adjustment? *Child Development, 68*, 1181-1197.

Ladd, G. W., & Kochenderfer Ladd, B. (2002). Identifying victims of peer aggression from early to middle childhood: Analysis of cross-informant data for concordance, estimation of relational adjustment, prevalence of victimization, and characteristics of identified victims. *Psychological Assessment, 2002*(14), 1.

Ladd, G. W., & Profilet, S. M. (1996). The child behavior scale: A teacher-report measure of young children's aggressive, withdrawn, and prosocial behaviors. *Developmental Psychology, 32*(6), 1008-1024.

Lomax, R. G. (2001). *An introduction to statistical concepts for education and behavioral sciences*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Larson, J., & Lochman, J. E. (2002). *Helping School Children Cope with Anger: A Cognitive-Behavioral Intervention*. New York: Guilford.

Latane`, B., & Darley, J. M. (1970). *The unresponsive bystander: Why doesn't he help?* New York, NY: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Lindenberg, S., Veenstra, R., Zijlstra, B. J. H., DeWinter, A. F., Verhulst, F. C., & Ormel, J. (2007). The dyadic nature of bullying and victimization: Testing a dual-perspective theory. *Child Development, 78*(6), 1843-1854.

Lochman, J. E., & Wells, K. C. (2002). Contextual social-cognitive mediators and child outcome: A test of the theoretical model in the Coping Power Program. *Development and Psychopathology, 14*, 971-993.

Loeber, R., & Hay, D. F. (1993). Developmental approaches to aggression and conduct problems. In M. Rutter & D. F. Hay (Eds.), *Development through life: A handbook for clinicians* (pp. 488-516). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Ludwig, T. (2003). *My secret bully*. Ashland, Oregon: RiverWood Books.

Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1980). Sex-differences in aggression: A rejoinder and reprise. *Child Development, 51*(4), 964-980.

Malecki, C. K., & Demaray, M. K. (2003). What type of support do they need? Investigating student adjustment, as related to emotional, informational, appraisal, and instrumental support. *School Psychology Quarterly, 18*(3), 231–252.

Malecki, C. K., & Demaray, M. K. (2004). The role of social support in the lives of bullies, victims, and bully-victims. In D. L. Espelage & S. M. Swearer (Eds.), *Bullying in American schools: A social-ecological perspective on prevention and intervention*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Marcus, R. F. (1980). Empathy and popularity of preschool children. *Child Study Journal, 10*, 133-145.

McCullough, G., Huebner, E. S., & Laughlin, J. E. (2000). Life events, self-concept, and adolescents' positive subjective well being. *Psychology in the Schools, 37*, 281–290.

McKnight, C. G., Huebner, E. S., & Suldo, S. M. (2002). Relationships among stressful life events, temperament, problem behavior, and global life satisfaction in adolescents. *Psychology in the Schools, 39*, 677–687.

McNeely, C., & Falci, C. (2004). School connectedness and the transition into and out of health-risk behavior among adolescents: A comparison of social belonging and teacher support. *Journal of School Health, 74*(7), 284–292.

Melton, G. B., Limber, S., Flerx, V., Cunningham, P., Osgood, D. W., Chambers, J., et al. (1998). *Violence among rural youth. Final report to the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.*: Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Melzoff, A. N., & Moore, M. K. (1977). Imitation of facial and manual gestures by human neonates. *Science, 198*, 75-78.

Miller, P. A., Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Shell, R. (1996). Relations of moral reasoning and vicarious emotion to young children's prosocial behavior toward peers and adults. *Developmental Psychology, 32*(2), 210-219.

Mishna, F., Sainia, M., & Solomona, S. (2009). Ongoing and online: Children and youth's perceptions of cyber bullying. *Children and Youth Services Review, 31*(12), 1222-1228.

Monks, C. P., & Smith, P. K. (2006). Definitions of bullying: Age differences in understanding of the term, and the role of experience. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 24*, 801-821.

Morita, Y., & Shimizu, K. (1994). *Ijime: Shinteiban (Bullying, Revised Edition)*. Kaneko Shabo, Tokyo.

Mullin-Rindler, N. (2003). *Findings from the Massachusetts Bullying Prevention Initiative. Unpublished manuscript.*

Munoz, M. A., & Vanderhaar, J. E. (2006). Literacy-embedded character education in a large urban district: Effects of the Child Development Project on elementary school students and teachers. *Journal of Research in Character Education, 4*(1–2), 27–44.

Murray-Close, D., Crick, N. R., & Galotti, K. M. (2006). Children's moral reasoning about physical and relational aggression. *Social Development, 15*, 345 – 372.

Musher-Eizeman, D. R., Boxer, P., Danner, S., Dubow, E. F., Goldstein, S. E., & Heretick, D. (2004). The relation between self-regulatory and environmental factors and aggressive behavior: Social-cognitive information-processing mediators. *Aggressive Behavior, 30*, 389-408.

Nansel, T., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simmons-Morton, B., & Schmidt, P. (2001a). Bullying behaviors among U.S. youth: Prevalence and association with psychosocial adjustment. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 285*, 2094-2100.

Nansel, T., Overpeck, M., Pilla, R. S., Ruan, W. J., Simmons-Morton, B., & Schmidt, P. (2001b). Bullying behaviors among US youth. *Journal of American Medical Association, 285*, 2094-2100.

Nansel, T., W., C., Overpeck, M. D., Saluja, G., & Ruan, W. J. (2004). Cross-national consistency in the relationship between bullying behaviors and psychosocial adjustment. *Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine, 158*, 730–736.

Nansel, T. R., Overpeck, M. D., Haynie, D. L., Ruan, W. J., & Scheidt, P. C. (2003). Relationships between bullying and violence among US youth: National Education Association.

Nas, C. N., De Castro, B. O., & Koops, W. (2005). Social information processing in delinquent adolescents. *Psychology, Crime & Law, 11*(4), 363-375.

Nasby, W., Hayden, b., & DePaulo, B. M. (1979). Attributional bias among aggressive boys to interpret unambiguous social stimuli as displays of hostility. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 89*, 549-468.

Naylor, P., & Cowie, H. (1999). The effectiveness of peer support systems in challenging school bullying: The perspectives and experiences of teachers and pupils. *Journal of Adolescence, 22*(4), 467–479.

NEA. (2003). *School safety facts*, from www.nea.org/schoolsafety/ssfacts.html

NEA. (2008). *National bullying awareness campaign*, from http://www.nea.org/schoolsafety/bullying.html

Neary, A., & Joseph, S. (1994). Peer victimization and its relationship to self-concept and expression among schoolgirls. *Personality and Individual Differences, 16*, 183-186.

Nucci, L. (2001). *Education in the moral domain*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Nucci, L., & Herman, S. (1982). Children's social interactions in the context of moral and conventional, and personal issues. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 10*, 411-426.

Nylund, K., Bellmore, A., Nishina, A., & Graham, S. (2007). Subtypes, severity and structural stability of peer victimization: What does latent class analysis say? *Child Development, 78*(6), 1706-1722.

O'Connell, P., Pepler, D., & Craig, W. (1999). Peer involvement in bullying: Insights and challenges for intervention. *Journal of Adolescence, 22*(4), 437–452.

Olweus, D. (1978). *Aggression in the schools: Bullies and whipping boys*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere Press (Wiley).

Olweus, D. (1991). Bully/victim problems among school children: Basic facts and effects of a school-based intervention program. In D. J. Pepler & K. H. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Olweus, D. (1993). *Bullying at school: What we know and what we can do*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

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

Olweus, D. (2001). *Olweus' core program against bullying and antisocial behavior: A teacher handbook, version III*. Bergen, Norway: Dan Olweus, University of Bergen.

Olweus, D. (2001a). Peer harassment: A critical analysis and some important issues. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school*. New York, NY: Guilford Publications.

Olweus, D. (2002). *Mobbing i skolen: Nye data om omfang og forandring over tid. (Bullying at school: New data on prevalence and change over time.)*.Unpublished manuscript, Bergen, Norway.

Olweus, D. (2003). A profile of bullying at school. *Educational Leadership*, 12-17.

Olweus, D., Limber, S., & Mihalic, S. F. (1999). *Blueprints for violence prevention, book nine: Bullying prevention program*. Boulder, CO: Center for the Study and Prevention of Violence.

Owens, L., Slee, P., & Shute, R. (2000). 'It hurts a hell of a lot...' The effects of indirect aggression on teenage girls. *School Psychology International, 21*, 359-376.

Paquette, J. A., & Underwood, M. K. (1999). Gender differences in young adolescents' experiences of peer victimization: Social and physical aggression. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 45*, 242-266.

Parke, R. D., & Slaby, R. G. (1983). The development of aggression. In P. H. Mussen (Ed.), *Handbook of child psychology* (Vol. 4: Socialization, personality and social development, pp. 547-641). New York, NY: Wiley.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple Regression in Behavioral Research: Explanation and Prediction*: Thompson Learning.

Pellegrini, A. D. (1998). Bullies and victims in school: A review and call for research. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 19*(2), 165–176.

Pellegrini, A. D., Bartini, M., & Brooks, F. (1999). School bullies, victims, and aggressive victims: Factors relating to group affiliation, and victimization in early adolescence. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 91*, 216-224.

Percival, P., & Haviland, J. M. (1978). Consistency and retribution in children's immanent justice decisions. *Developmental Psychology, 14*(2), 132-136.

Perren, S., & Alasker, F. D. (2006). Social behavior and peer relationships of victims, bully-victims, and bullies in kindergarten. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 47*(1), 45–57.

Perren, S., & Hornung, R. (2005). Bullying and delinquency in adolescence: Victims' and perpetrators' family and peer relationships. *Swiss Journal of Psychology, 64*(1), 51–64.

Perry, D. G., & Bussey, K. (1977). Self-reinforcement in high- and low-aggressive boys following acts of aggression. *Child Development, 57*, 700-711.

Perry, D. G., Kusel, S. J., & Perry, L. C. (1988). Victims of peer aggression. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 807-814.

Perry, D. G., Perry, L. C., & Kennedy, E. (1992). Conflict and the development of antisocial behavior. In C. U. Shantz & W. W. Hartup (Eds.), *Conflict in child and adolescent development* (pp. 301–329). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Perry, D. G., Perry, L. C., & Rasmussen, P. (1986). Cognitive social learning mediators of aggression. *Child Development, 57*, 700-711.

Phelps, C. E. (2001). Children's responses to overt and relational aggression. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 30*, 240-252.

Place, S. (2001). *Expect respect*. Austin, TX: Safe Place.

Putallaz, M., Grimes, C. L., Foster, K. J., Kupersmidt, J. B., Coie, J. D., & Dearing, K. (2007). Overt and relational aggression and victimization: Multiple perspectives within the school setting. *Journal of School Psychology, 45*, 523–547.

Rabiner, D. L., & Coie, J. D. (1989). The effect of expectancy in inductions on rejected children's acceptance by unfamiliar peers. *Developmental Psychology, 25*, 450-457.

Rabiner, D. L., Lenhart, L., & Lochman, J. E. (1990). Automatic versus reflective social problem solving in relation to children's sociometric status. *Developmental Psychology, 26*, 1010-1016.

Rest, J. R., Narvaez, D., Bebeau, M. J., & Thoma, S. (1999). *Postconventional Moral Thinking: A Neo-Kohlbergian Approach*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rest, J. R., Narvaez, D., Thoma, S. J., & Bebeau, M. J. (2000). A neo-Kohlbergian approach to morality research. *Journal of Moral Education, 29*(4).

Richard, B. A., & Dodge, K. A. (1982). Social maladjustment and problem solving in school-aged children. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 50*, 226-233.

Richman, N., Stevenson, J., & Graham, P. J. (1982). *Preschool to school: A behavioural study*. London UK: Academic Press.

Rigby, K. (2000). Effects of peer victimization in schools and perceived social support on adolescent well-being. *Journal of Adolescence, 23*, 57–68.

Rigby, K. (2001). Health consequences of bullying and its prevention in schools. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school: The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 315–331). New York: Guilford Press.

Rigby, K. (2002a). *Stop the bullying: A handbook for teachers*. Markham, Ontario: Pembroke Publishers.

Rigby, K. (2002b). *New perspectives on bullying*. London: Jessica Kinglsey Publications.

Rigby, K. (2003). Consequences of bullying in schools. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry, 48*, 583–590.

Roberts, W., & Strayer, J. (1996). Empathy, emotional expressiveness, and prosocial behavior. *Child Development, 67*, 449-470.

Rock, E. A., Hammond, M., & Rasmussen, S. (2005). School-wide bullying prevention program for elementary students. *Journal of Emotional Abuse, 4*(3), 225-239.

Rogers, M. J., & Tisak, M. S. (1996). Children's reasoning about responses to peer aggression: Victims' and witness's expected and prescribed behaviors. *Aggressive Behavior, 22*, 259-269.

Rubin, J. Z., Provenzano, F. J., & Luria, Z. (1974). The eye of the beholder: parents' view on sex of newborns. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 43*, 720-731.

Rubin, K. H., & Krasnor, L. R. (Eds.). (1986). *Social cognitive and social behavioral perspectives on problem solving* (Vol. 18). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rule, B. G., & Ferguson, T. J. (1986). The effects of media violence on attitudes, emotions, and cognitions. *Journal of Social Issues, 42*, 29-50.

Salmivall, C., & Nieminen, E. (2002). Proactive and reactive aggression among school bullies, victims, and bully-victims. *Aggressive Behavior, 28*, 30–44.

Salmivalli, C. (2001). Group view on victimization: Empirical findings and their implications. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school. The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 398-419). New York, NY: Guilford.

Salmivalli, C., & Isaacs, J. (2005). Prospective relations among victimization, rejection, friendlessness, and children's self- and peer-perceptions. *Child Development, 76*, 1161-1171.

Salmivalli, C., Kaukiainen, A., Kaistaniemi, L., & Lagerspetz, K. M. (1999). Self-evaluated self-esteem, peerevaluated self-esteem, and defensive egotism as predictors of adolescents' participation in bullying situations. *Personal Social Psychology of Bullying, 25*, 1268-1278.

Salmivalli, C., Lagerspetz, K., Bjorkqvist, K., Osterman, 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.

Schwartz, D. (2000). Subtypes of victims and aggressors in children's peer groups. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 28*, 181–192.

Schwartz, D., Dodge, K., Coie, J., Hubbard, J., Cillessen, A., Lemerise, E., et al. (1998). Social-cognitive and behavioural correlates of aggression and victimization in boys' play groups. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 26*, 431–440.

Schwartz, D., Dodge, K. A., & Coie, J. D. (1993). The emergence of chronic peer victimization in boys' play groups. *Child Development, 64*, 1755–1772.

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.

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*, 113–125.

Schwartz, D., Proctor, L. J., & Chien, D. H. (2001). The aggressive victim of bullying: Emotional and behavioral dysregulation as a pathway to victimization by peers. In J. Juvonen & S. Graham (Eds.), *Peer harassment in school: The plight of the vulnerable and victimized* (pp. 147–174). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Scourfield, J., John, B., Martin, N., & McGuffin, P. (2004). The development of prosocial behaviour in children and adolescents: A twin study. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 45*, 927–935.

Selman, R. L. (1971). The relation of role taking to the development of moral judgment in children. *Child Development, 42*, 79-91.

Shank, R. C., & Ableson, R. (1977). *Scripts, plans, goals, and understanding*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Shapiro, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Kessler, J. W. (1991). A three-component model of children's teasing: Aggression, humor, and ambiguity. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 10*, 459-472.

Slaby, R. G., & Guerra, N. G. (1988). Cognitive mediators of aggression in adolescent offenders I: Assessment. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 580-588.

Slavens, E. (2004). *Bullying: Deal with it before push comes to shove*. Toronto Canada: Lorimer James & Company.

Slee, P. T. (1995). Bullying in the playground: the impact of inter-personal violence on Australian children's perceptions of their play environment. *Child Environment, 12*, 320-327.

Smetana, J. G. (1995). Morality in context: Abstractions, applications, and ambiguities. In R. Vasta (Ed.), *Annals of child development* (Vol. 4, pp. 83-130). London, UK: Jessica Kingsley.

Smetana, J. G. (2006). Social-cognitive domain theory: Consistencies and variation in children's moral and social judgments. In M. Killen & J. Smetana (Eds.), *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 119-154). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Smith, D. C., & Sandhu, D. S. (2004). Toward a positive perspective on violence prevention in schools: Building connections. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 82*, 287–293.

Smith, P. K., & Green, M. (1984). Aggressive behavior in English nurseries and playgrounds: Sex differences and response of adults. *Child Development, 45*, 211-214.

Smokowski, P. R., Reynolds, A. J., & Bezruczko, N. (1999). Resilience and protective factors in adolescence: An autobiographical perspective from disadvantaged youth. *Journal of School Psychology, 37*(4), 425–447.

Snyder, J., Brooker, M., Patrick, M. R., Synder, A., Schrepferman, L., & Stoolmiller, M. (2003). Observed peer victimization during early elementary school: Continuity, Growth, and relation to risk for child antisocial and depressive behavior. *Child Development, 74*, 1881–1898.

Strayer, J., & Roberts, W. (2004). Empathy and observed anger and aggression in five-year-olds. *Social Development, 13*(1), 1-13.

Strelan, P., Feather, N. T., & McKee, I. (2008). Justice and forgiveness: Experimental evidence for compatibility. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 44*, 1538–1544.

Suldo, S. M., & Huebner, E. S. (2004). Does life satisfaction moderate the effects of stressful life events on psychopathological behaviors during adolescence? *School Psychology Quarterly, 19*, 93–105.

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

Sutton, J., Smith, P. K., & Swettenham, J. (1999). Socially undesirable need not be incompetent: A response to Crick and Dodge. *Social Development, 8*, 132-134.

Tardy, C. H. (1985). Social support measurement. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 13*(2), 87–202.

Tedeschi, J. T., & Felson, R. B. (1994). *Violence, aggression, and coercive actions*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Telcom, & Police, N. Z. (2004, 2004). *What's bullying?* Retrieved January 10, 2005, from http://www.nobully.org.nz/advicek.htm

Thoma, S., Crowson, M., Hestevold, N., & Sargent, J. n. d. (2005). *Describing and testing a contextualized measure of adolescent moral thinking*. Unpublished manuscript.

Thoma, S. J., & Rest, J. R. (1999). The relationship between moral decision making and patterns of consolidation and transition in moral judgment development. *Developmental Psychology, 35*, 323-334.

Tisak, J., Maynard, A. M., & Tisak, M. S. (2002). AIRA: Measurement of adolescents'' judgment regarding intentions to respond to physical and verbal aggression. *Aggressive Behavior, 28*, 207-223.

Tisak, M. S., & Jankowski, A. M. (1996). Societal rule evaluations: Adolescent offenders' reasoning about moral, conventional, and personal rules. *Aggressive Behavior, 22*, 195-207.

Tisak, M. S., & Tisak, J. (1996). Expectations and judgments regarding bystanders' and victims' responses to peer aggression among early adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence, 19*, 383-392.

Tisak, M. S., Tisak, J., & Goldstein, S. E. (2006). Aggression, delinquency, and morality: A social-cognitive perspective. In M. Killen & J. Smetana (Eds.), *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 611-629). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tisak, M. S., & Turiel, E. (1988). Variations of seriousness of transgressions and children's moral and conventional concepts. *Developmental Psychology, 24*, 352-357.

Toblin, R. L., Schwartza, D., Gorman, A. H., & Abou-ezzeddinea, T. (2005). Social–cognitive and behavioral attributes of aggressive victims of bullying *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 26*(3), 329-346.

Tokunaga, R. S. (2010). Following you home from school: A critical review and synthesis of research on cyberbullying victimization. *Computers in Human Behavior, 26*, 277–287.

Tom, S. R., Schwartz, D., Chang, L., Farver, J. A. M., & Xu, Y. (2010). Correlates of victimization in Hong Kong children's peer groups *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 31*(1), 27-37.

Tremblay, R. E., Japel, C., Perusse, D., McDuff, P., Boivin, M., Zoccolillo, M., Montplaisir, J. (1999). The search for the age of 'onset' of physical aggression: Rousseau and Bandura revisited. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health, 9*(1), 8-23.

Troup-Gordon, W., & Ladd, G. W. (2005). Trajectories of peer victimization and perceptions of the self and schoolmates: Precursors to internalizing and externalizing problems. *Child Development, 76*(5), 1072-1091.

Turiel, E. (1978). Social regulations and domains of social concepts. In W. Damon (Ed.), *New directions for child development, Vol. 1: Social cognition*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Turiel, E. (1983). *The development of social knowledge: Morality and convention*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Turiel, E. (1998). The development of morality. In W. Damon & N. Eisenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Vol. 3. Social, emotional, and personality development* (5th ed., pp. 863932). New York, NY: Wiley.

Turiel, E. (2002). *The culture of morality: Social development, context, and conflict*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Turiel, E. (2006). Thought, emotions, and social interactional processes in moral development. In M. Killen & J. G. Smetana (Eds.), *Handbook of moral development* (pp. 7-36). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P., Sacco, F. C., Gies, M. L., Evans, R., & Ewbank, R. (2001). Creating a peaceful school learning environment: A controlled study of an elementary school intervention to reduce violence. *American Journal of Psychiatry, 158*, 808-810.

Unnever, J. D. (2005). Bullies, aggressive victims, and victims: Are they distinct groups? *Aggressive Behavior, 31*, 153–171.

Unnever, J. D., & Cornell, D. G. (2003). Bullying, self-control, and ADHD. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 18*, 129–147.

Vaillancourt, T., Hymel, S., & McDougall, P. (2003). Bullying is power: Implications for school-based intervention strategies. *Journal of Applied School Psychology, 19*, 157-176.

Valois, R. F., Zullig, K. J., Drane, W. J., & Huebner, E. S. (2001). Relationship between life satisfaction and violent behaviors among adolescents. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 25*, 353–366.

van Prooijen, J. (2010). Retributive versus compensatory justice: Observers' preference for punishing in response to criminal offenses. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 40*, 72–85.

Vedder, P., Boekaerts, M., & Seegers, G. (2005). Perceived social support and well being in school: The role of student ethnicity. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 34*(3), 269–278.

Veenstra, R., Lindenberg, S., Oldehinkel, A. J., DeWinter, A. F., Verhulst, F. C., & Ormel, J. (2005). Bullying and victimization in elementary schools: A comparison of bullies, victims, bully/victims, and uninvolved preadolescents. *Developmental Psychology, 41*, 672–682.

Veenstra, R., Lindenberg, S., Zijlstra, B. J. H., de Winter, A. F., Verhulst, F. C., & Ormel, J. (2007). The dyadic nature of bullying and victimization: Testing a dual perspective theory. *Child Development, 78*, 1843-1854.

Veenstraa, R., Lindenberg, S., Oldehinkel, A. J., De Winter, A. F., Verhulstd, F. C., & Ormel, J. (2008). Prosocial and antisocial behavior in preadolescence: Teachers' and parents' perceptions of the behavior of girls and boys. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 32*(3), 243-251.

Voors, W. (2004, 2004). *Bullying: Both sides of the fence*. Retrieved January 10, 2005, from http://www.onlineparadigm.com/archives/220-W03_A.BM.GI.P.pdf

Wenzel, M., & Thielmann, I. (2006). Why we punish in the name of justice: Just desert versus value restoration and the role of social identity. *Social Justice Research, 19*(4), 450-470.

Wilkins-Shurmer, A., O'Callaghan, M. J., Najman, J. M., Bor, W., Williams, G. M., & Anderson, M. J. (2003). Association of bullying with adolescent health-related quality of life. *Journal of Pediatric Child Health, 39*, 436–441.

Wolke, D., Woods, S., Bloomfield, L., & Karstadt, L. (2000). The association between direct and relational bullying and behaviour problems among primary school children. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 41*, 989–1002.

Zullig, K. J., Valois, R. F., Huebner, E. S., Oeltmann, J. E., & Drane, J. W. (2001). Relationship between perceived life satisfaction and adolescent substance abuse. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 25*, 353–366.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

IRB Approval

Office for Research

Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

September 14, 2009

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
RESEARCH

Malvin Porter
Department of Educational Psychology
College of Education
Box 870160

Re: IRB Application # 09-017 "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Victimization"

Dear Mr. Porter:

The University of Alabama IRB has received the revisions requested by the full board on 8/21/09. The board has reviewed the revisions and your protocol is now approved for a one-year period. Please be advised that your protocol will expire one year from the date of approval, 8/21/09. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure Form. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of the Continuing Review and Closure Form.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number. Please use reproductions of the IRB approved stamped consent/assent forms to obtain consent from your participants.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Stuart Usdan, PhD
Chair, Non-Medical IRB
University of Alabama

152 Rose Administration Building
Box 870117
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0117
(205) 348-5152
fax (205) 348-8882

Appendix B

Invitations to Participate

(Schools, Parents)

Date, _____, 2009

Malvin (Vin) Porter, EdS, PhD Candidate
Educational Psychology
Box 870160
The University of Alabama
Tuscaloosa, AL, 35487-0160

School Administrator
School or School System
Address
City, AL Zip Code

Dear Dr./Mr./Ms _____,

My name is Vin Porter. I am a doctoral candidate at The University of Alabama and I work with Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner-Smith in the Department of Human Development and Family Studies.

I am contacting you for permission to conduct a research study in your school system about what children who are enrolled in the 5th grade would do and how they would reason if they were a victim of bullying or a bystander who witnesses bullying.

Bullying is a serious social problem in schools today. The purpose of this study is to assess children's social reasoning about being a victim of bullying or a witness to others being bullied.

All children who are enrolled in the 5th grade are eligible to participate in the study. The children will read four short stories about bullying and tell what they would do if they were the main character in the story and why. The computer survey will take about 25 minutes to complete during school hours. Teachers will fill out a 35-item survey for each child who participates in the study, which will take about 5 minutes per child participating in the study.

More details of the study are explained in the Informed Consent forms that are attached to this letter.

Thank you for considering my request to allow me to work with the 5th grade children in your school district. I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Vin Porter

Date, _____, 2009

Dear Parent or Legal Guardian,

My name is Vin Porter. I am a doctoral candidate at The University of Alabama working with Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner-Smith in the Department of Human Development and Family Studies.

I am contacting you with the permission of your child's school principal and the Board of Education. I am conducting a study about being a victim of bullying.
Bullying is a serious social problem in schools. The purpose of this study is to validate a survey, *Children's Bully Victim Scale (CBVS)*, that will measure children's reasoning about being a victim of bullying.

All children who are enrolled in the 5th grade are eligible to participate in the study.
The children will read four short stories about bullying and tell what they would do if they were the main character in the story and why. The computer survey will take about 25 minutes to complete. The survey will be completed during school hours.

More details of the study are explained in the Parent Consent form that is attached to this letter. If after reading the Parent Consent form, you are willing for your child to help with the study, please sign both copies of the Parent Consent form and return one copy to your child's teacher by **(Month _____, day _____)**, 2009. Keep one copy for your records.

Thank you for considering letting your child help with this project. I look forward to hearing from you soon.

Sincerely,

Vin Porter

Vin Porter, Doctoral Candidate
Educational Psychology
The University of Alabama
Box 870160
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0160

Appendix C
School Approvals

2828 Sixth Street
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35401
brountree@thecapitolschool.com
www.thecapitolschool.com
Telephone: 205.758.2828
Facsimile: 205.750.0280
May 21, 2009

Malvin (Vin) Porter, EdS
The University of Alabama
220 Child Development Research Center
Box 870160
Tuscaloosa, AL , 35487-0160

Dear Mr. Porter,

I am writing to confirm that The Capitol School will consider participation in the "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Victimization" study for the 2009-2010 school year pending IRB approval by The University of Alabama. I understand that:

a) parents will give consent for their children to participate in the study,
b) children will assent to participation in the study,
c) Surveys will be administered to children at the school during school hours
d) Teachers will participate by completing assessments on participating children.

Please notify the The Capitol School when The University of Alabama IRB has granted you permission to proceed with contacting schools. We will be pleased to consider your proposal at that time.

Sincerely,

Barbara S. Rountree

Barbara S. Rountree, Ed.D.
Director

Tomorrow's School for Today's Child

SHELBY
COUNTY SCHOOLS
WHERE LEARNING NEVER ENDS

June 10, 2009

Mr. Malvin (Vin) Porter, EdS
The University of Alabama
220 Child Development Research Center
Box 870160
Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0160

Dear Mr. Porter,

I am writing to confirm that the Shelby County School System will consider participation in the "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Victimization" study for the 2009-2010 school year pending IRB approval by The University of Alabama. I understand that:

a) Parents will give consent for their children to participate in the study,
b) Children will assent to participation in the study,
c) Surveys will be administered to children at the school during school hours, and
d) Teachers will participate by completing assessments on participating children.

Please notify the Shelby County School System when The University of Alabama IRB has granted you permission to proceed with contacting schools. We will be pleased to consider your proposal at that time.

Sincerely,

Donna Dickson
Student Services Coordinator

410 East College Street • Post Office Box 1910 • Columbiana, AL 35051 • (205) 682-7000 Phone • (205) 682-7005 Fax • www.shelbyed.k12.al.us

TUSCALOOSA COUNTY SCHOOLS

A RICH HERITAGE SINCE 1871...A COMMITMENT TO THE FUTURE

OFFICE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

Malvin Porter, Ed.S.
The University of Alabama
220 Child Development Research Center
Box 870160
Tuscaloosa Alabama 35487-0160

Dear Mr. Porter,

I am writing to confirm that the Tuscaloosa County School System will consider participation in the "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Victimization" study for the 2009-2010 school year pending IRB approval by The University of Alabama. I understand that:

- Parents will give consent for their children to participate in the study
- Children will assent to participation in the study
- Surveys will be administered to children at the school during school hours
- Teachers will participate by completing assessments on participating children

Please notify my office when The University of Alabama IRB has granted you permission to proceed with contacting schools. We will be pleased to consider your proposal at that time.

Sincerely,

Polly S. Moore

Polly S. Moore, Ed.D.
Assistant Superintendent for Curriculum, Instruction and Staff Development

TUSCALOOSA COUNTY BOARD OF EDUCATION ■ P.O. BOX 2568 ■ TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA 35403
205/758-0411 ■ FAX 205/758-4711

TUSCALOOSA ACADEMY
420 Rice Valley Road, North • Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35406 • (205) 758-4462 • FAX (205) 758-4418

Dear Mr. Porter,

I am writing to confirm that Tuscaloosa Academy will consider participation in the "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Victimization" study for the 2009-2010 school year pending IRB approval by The University of Alabama. I understand that:

a) parents will give consent for their children to participate in the study,

b) children will assent to participation in the study,

c) Surveys will be administered to children at the school during school hours, and

d) Teachers will participate by completing assessments on participating children.

Please notify the Tuscaloosa Academy when The University of Alabama IRB has granted you permission to proceed with contacting schools. We will be pleased to consider your proposal at that time.

Sincerely,
Heatherly Whitside
Dean of Middle School

www.tuscaloosaacademy.org
e-mail: taknights@tuscaloosaacademy.org

Appendix D

Informed Consent Forms

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
Teacher Informed Consent for *CBVS* Research Study

Dear Teacher,

I am asking for your help with my research study entitled "Children's Social Reasoning in the Context of Bullying and Victimization." This study is being conducted by Vin Porter, a doctoral student at The University of Alabama under the supervision of Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner-Smith, Associate Professor in the Department of Human Development and Family Studies. This study has been approved by The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects.

Bullying and victimization has been identified as a serious social problem in schools. This project attempts to understand the relationship between how children reason about bullying. The purpose of study is to confirm the content validity and reliability of a new survey entitled *Children's Bully Victim Survey (CBVS)* against a well documented *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)*. The *CBVS* will measure children's reasoning about bullying and victimization.

Teachers will recruit parents and children enrolled in the 5th grade. You can help by sending parent letters informing them of the study. You will also receive returned parent letters and pass them to the counselor's office where I will collect them for selection into the study. Children with parent consent will be asked to go to a designated room during school hours to complete the *CBVS*. Children will be asked to read four short stories about bullying and imagine that they are the main character in each story. For each story, children will then select action responses and reasons for their choices from a list of representative actions and justifications.

Teachers with sufficient contact with each of the child participants and having knowledge of the child's typical social behavior will be required to complete the *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)*, a 14-item standardized assessment of children's competence with peers. For each item, teachers state how frequently the child engages in the behavior described in the statement (1 = Doesn't apply, 2 = Occasionally displays the behavior, and 3 = Often displays the behavior). The teacher survey contains an additional 20 items that indicate a child's form of aggressive behavior and form of victimization on a scale of 1 (never) to 5 (always). Finally, teachers will answer one item that assesses the teacher's perception of the child's intellectual ability. It is estimated that the teacher report survey will take no more than 5 minutes to complete for each child.

Children and their parents will be assured that all information given by children or about children by teachers will be kept confidential.

Your participation in this study is completely **voluntary**. There is no penalty for choosing not to participate. If you choose not to participate, the children in your classroom will not be considered for participation in the study. There are no penalties for the child if he or she is not invited to participate in the study. There are no known psychological, physical or social risks involved. Your assistance with this study will be strictly **confidential.** All data will be grouped and analyzed. Data will not be reported individually.

Helping with this study will not have any direct benefit to you. You may benefit by knowing that you helped to validate an assessment for children's moral reasoning about bullying. I hope that this assessment will be used in future bully/victim intervention programs.

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact me, Vin Porter (205-348-6158 or vporter@bama.ua.edu) or Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner -Smith (205-348-8151 or mcurtner@ches.ua.edu). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the Office for Research Compliance at 205-348-8461 (local) and 1-877-820-3066 (toll free).

I have read this consent form. The study has been explained to me. I understand my role and responsibilities in this study. I freely agree to participate. I will receive a copy of this assent form to keep.

Teacher Signature _____ Date _____

Investigator Signature _____ Date _____

1

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 9/14/09
EXPIRATION DATE: 8/20/2010

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
Parent Informed Consent for *CBVS* Research Study

_____
School Name

Dear Parent or Legal Guardian,

My name is Vin Porter. I am a doctoral student at The University of Alabama working under the supervision of Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner-Smith, Associate Professor in the Department of Human Development and Family Studies.

I am contacting you with the permission of your child's school principal and the Board of Education to ask for your permission to allow your child to help in a research study about bullying and being the victim of bullying.

What is this study about?

The purpose of study is to confirm the content validity and reliability of a new survey entitled *Children's Bully Victim Survey (CBVS)* against a well documented *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)*. The *CBVS* will measure children's reasoning about bullying and victimization.

Why has my child been asked to be in this study?

This study is not the result of any one incident. Its purpose is to find out what kids think about being the victim of bullying. All children enrolled in the 5th grade are eligible to participate.

Why is this study important?

Bullying and victimization have been identified as serious social problems in schools. This study seeks to better understand how children think about other kids "being mean" to their peers.

How many children besides my child will be in this study?

All children enrolled in the 5th grade are eligible to participate in the study. I hope to get about 100-200 children to help with this part of the study.

What will my child be asked to do in this study?

Your child will read four short stories about bullying and select items from a list that tell what he or she would do if he or she were the main character in the story and why.

How much time will my child spend participating in this study?

The survey will take about 25 minutes to complete.

Will other information be collected about my child?

A teacher who spends a lot of time with your child will complete a short survey about your child's social behavior.

Will my child be paid for being in this study?

Your child will not be paid for helping with this study.

PLEASE TURN THIS PAGE OVER

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 9/14/09
EXPIRATION DATE: 8/20/2010

1

Will being in this study cost my child anything?

Except for your child's time, there is no cost for helping with this study.

Does my child have to participate in this study?

Helping with this study is completely **voluntary**. It is up to you and your child to decide to help with the study. Your child's choice to help or not to help will not affect any of his or her school work.

What are the benefits (good things) that may happen to my child if he or she is in this study?

You and your child may enjoy knowing that what we learn from this study will help educators who work with parents and children to better understand how children think about bullying.

What are the benefits to education or society?

This survey is being developed to help make bully/victim intervention programs used in schools more effective.

What are the risks to my child if he or she is in this study?

For most children, there is little risk of harm by helping in this study. However, there may be small chance that your child has had an experience similar to one of the bully/victim stories that we will read. If your child appears to be upset, we will stop and I will ask the school guidance counselor to help your child with his or her feelings.

How will my child's privacy be protected?

Your child's name will not appear on any form used in this study. Your child will get an individual identification number that will appear of all the forms. Your child's agreement form will be the only record with your child's name on it. It is similar to this form and is required for your child to help in the study. That agreement will be kept in the researcher's file until the end of the study and destroyed at that time. Anything that your child shares as well as anything about your child will be reported as a group, not individually.

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB) is the committee that protects the rights of people in research studies. The IRB may look at the study records from time-to-time to be sure that everyone helping in the study is being treated fairly and that the study is being carried out as planned.

Who do I call if I have questions or problems?

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact me, Vin Porter (205-348-6158 or vporter@bama.ua.edu) or Dr. Mary Elizabeth Curtner -Smith (205-348-8151 or mcurtner@ches.ua.edu). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the Office for Research Compliance at 205-348-8461 (local) and 1-877-820-3066 (toll free).

By completing this form, you are giving permission for your child to participate. You are also verifying that you are the legal guardian of this child and you are at least 19 years of age.

I have read this consent form. The study has been explained to me. I understand what my child will be asked to do. I freely agree for my child to take part in it. I understand that I will get a copy of this form to keep.

_____
Child Name

_____ _____
Parent or Legal Guardian Signature Date

_____ _____
Investigator Signature Date

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 9/14/09
EXPIRATION DATE: 8/30/2010

2

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA
Child Informed Assent for *CBVS* Research Study

Dear Student,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. Your parents and the school have given their permission to help Vin Porter, who works at The University of Alabama.

What is this study about?

Mr. Porter has asked you here to help in a study about kids being mean to other kids.

Why was you were asked to help with this study?

Everybody can help. It is not because of anything anybody has done.

Why is this study important?

Kids' being mean to other kids is a big problem in schools. This study seeks to understand how kids think about "being mean" toward others.

Who will take part in this study?

All children enrolled in the 5th grade are eligible to participate in the study.

How many people besides you will be in this study?

It is hoped that between 100-200 kids from the 5th grade will participate in this study.

What will you be asked to do in this study?

If you agree, you will

1. Read four short stories about bullying and imagine that you are the main character in the story.
2. Read a list of things some kids might do and decide if they are good or bad choices.
3. Pick the best and worst choices.

Next, you will

4. Read a list of reasons some kids might give and decide if they are good or bad reasons.
5. Pick the best and worst reasons.

How much time will it take to complete this study?

It will take about 25 minutes to complete the survey.

What else will you need to do?

Nothing else. However, one of your teachers will fill out a short form about you.

Will you get anything for being in this study?

You will not receive anything for participating in this study. However, your help is most appreciated.

PLEASE TURN THE PAGE OVER

UA IRB Approved Document
Approval date: 9/14/09
Expiration date: 8/30/2010

Will being in this study cost anything?

It does not cost anything to help in this study

Do you have to take part in this study?

Your participation is **completely voluntary**. It is totally up to you. You do not have to help if do not want to. There is no penalty if you decide not to participate.

What are the good things that may happen if you help with this study?

This study will help the school to work better with kids who are mean to others.

Will it be harmful to help with this study?

You will not be harmed in any way. But, if you may feel sad, angry, or worried we will stop and ask the school counselor to help you with your feelings.

What will happen to the information you provide in the study?

Instead of using your name on the information, you will get a special code just for you. It will be on all of your forms. Nothing that you do today will be connected to anything else at school. Everything reported in the study will be as a group. Your name will only appear on this signed agreement form.

Who do you call if you have questions or problems?

If you have any questions about this study, you can call Vin Porter at 205-516-9596 or email at vporter@bama.ua.edu. You can also call the University and talk to Dr. Curtner-Smith at 205-348-8151 (mcurtner@ches.ua.edu) or the Office for Research Compliance at 205-348-8461 (local) and 1-877-820-3066 (toll free).

By completing this form, you are agreeing to help with this study.

Now that the study has been explained to you, do you understand what you are being asked to do?

Do you freely agree to help me with my study?

You will get a copy of this form to keep.

Do you have any questions?

If you don't have any other questions, please sign this form and we can begin.

_____ _____
Child/Student Signature Date

_____ _____
Investigator Signature Date

UA IRB Approved Document
Approval date: 9/14/09
Expiration date: 8/20/2010

Appendix E

Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)

General Instructions

Thank you for agreeing to help with this study.

I. FIRST, You will begin the *Children's Bully/Victim Survey (CBVS)* by giving some information about you: but, it will not identify who you are.

II.A. NEXT, you will

1. Read four (4) short stories and think about the main character in each story.
2. Read some possible Action Choices that the main character might take.
3. Rate the each Action Choice as Very bad, Kind of bad, Kind of good, or Very good.
4. From your list of Very good choices, pick the BEST Action Choice.

II.B. THEN, while thinking about your BEST Action Choice, you will look at a list of possible Justification Reasons for why you picked your BEST Action Choice.

1. Rate the each Justification Reason as Very bad, Kind of bad, Kind of good, or Very good.
2. From your list of Very good reasons, pick the BEST Justification Reason.

III.A. After picking the BEST Actions and Justifications, look at your list of Very bad Actions and Very bad

Justifications.

1. Pick the WORST Action Choice.
2. Pick the WORST Justification Reason.

If you have any questions, ask Mr. Porter now.

You may begin when you are ready.

Questions About You

[Check any box that applies to you]

1. Are you a: ☐ **Male / Boy**
☐ **Female / Girl**

2. I consider myself: ☐ **African American/Black**
☐ **Hispanic**

☐ **Asian American**
☐ **European American / White**
☐ **Other**

3. How old are you today? ☐ **8 years old**
☐ **9 years old**
☐ **10 years old**
☐ **11 years old**
☐ **12 years old**

4. When were you born? _____Month _____Day _____Year

5. What is the primary language that you speak at home?
☐ **English**
☐ **Spanish**
☐ **German**
☐ **Other**

6. Who lives with you in your house? (Check all that apply)
☐ **Mom**
☐ **Dad**
☐ **Step-mom**
☐ **Step-dad**
☐ **Grandparent**
☐ **Aunts / Uncles / Other family members**
☐ **Brothers**
☐ **Sisters**
☐ **Step Brothers**
☐ **Step Sisters**

7. How many people live in you house?

☐ **2** ☐ **3** ☐ **4** ☐ **5** ☐ **6** ☐ **7** ☐ **8** ☐ **9** ☐ **10 or more**

Story 1. Josh's Story [Bystander – Physical bullying]

Josh is the main character in this story. He watches as mean kids pick on Charlie.

Charlie, who is small for his age, is just like most other boys in his school.

Charlie gets picked on every day by some bigger kids. Charlie often gets pushed or bumped on purpose while waiting in the class lines. Once when the teacher was busy with another student, a mean kid poked Charlie with a sharp pencil. It really hurt. Another time after school, Charlie was tripped so hard that he fell down and tore his shirt. The mean kids think it is fun to pick on Charlie.

I. What would you do if you were Josh?

Remember, <u>Josh is the main character in this story</u>. Josh has been watching the mean kids pick on Charlie.

Read the following list of possible actions that Josh could do.

Rate each action for how good you think it is using the following scale.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	***Kind of bad***	***Kind of good***	***Very good***
1. Make friends with Charlie	1	2	3	4
2. Threaten to beat up the mean kids	1	2	3	4
3. Take up for Charlie	1	2	3	4
4. Tell the bullies that they are just losers	1	2	3	4
5. See if Charlie was ok and help him	1	2	3	4
6. Tell Charlie to just "blow it off"	1	2	3	4
7. I would tell an adult/teacher	1	2	3	4
8. Help the mean kids pick on Charlie	1	2	3	4

<u>Action Choice Subscales:</u>
Prosocial actions: #s 1, 3, 5, 7
Aggressive actions: #s 2, 4, 6, 8

II. Of all the actions that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> thing for Josh to do? (CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8)

III. Of all the actions that you just rated as Very bad, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST</u> thing for Josh to do? (CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8)

IV. Now, think about the <u>VERY BEST ACTION</u> that Josh could do.

Read the following list of possible reasons that Josh might have for his BEST action.

Rate each reason for how good you think it is.

If one of the following reasons does not make sense or does not seem to fit with your BEST Action then mark it Very bad.

(**DARKEN** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	*Kind of bad*	*Kind of good*	*Very good*
1. It's not fair to pick on Charlie	1	2	3	4
2. Charlie needs someone to help him	1	2	3	4
3. I can beat the means kids up for Charlie	1	2	3	4
4. A teacher can watch the mean kids	1	2	3	4
5. The mean kids are hurting my friend	1	2	3	4
6. The mean kids will see how it feels	1	2	3	4
7. So the mean kids won't pick on Charlie	1	2	3	4
8. I know how Charlie feels	1	2	3	4
9. Charlie deserves to get picked on	1	2	3	4

Justification Choices Subscales:

Justice/Fair	**#s 1, 4, 7**
Prosocial/Care	**#s 2, 5, 8**
Aggressive/retribution	**#s 3, 6, 9**

V. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the VERY BEST reason Josh would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8) (#9)

VI. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very bad, which do you think is the VERY WORST reason Josh would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8) (#9)

Story 2. Beth's Story [Victim – Physical bullying]

Beth is in a new school. She is shy and quiet. Beth is like most kids her age, but she does not have any close friends yet.

One day in class, a big mean kid bumps Beth on purpose so that she messes up her work. Another time, the mean kid kicks Beth from behind while they are waiting in the lunch line. Two other kids join the mean kid in picking on Beth when the teacher can't see. They knock things out of Beth's hands on purpose.

I. What would you do if you were Beth?

Remember, Beth is the main character in this story. Beth is being picked on by the mean kids.

Read the following list of possible actions that Beth could do.

Rate each action for how good you think it is.

(**DARKEN** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	*Kind of bad*	*Kind of good*	*Very good*
1. Stay close to the teacher	1	2	3	4
2. Bump and kick the mean kids back	1	2	3	4
3. Avoid the mean kids	1	2	3	4
4. Stand up and tell the means off	1	2	3	4
5. Say something funny to make the mean kids laugh	1	2	3	4
6. Make the mean kids pick up my things	1	2	3	4

Action Choice Subscales:
Prosocial actions: #s 1, 3, 5
Aggressive actions: #s 2, 4, 6

II. Of all the actions that you just rated VERY GOOD, which do you think is the VERY BEST THING for Beth to do?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

III. Of all the actions that you just rated VERY BAD, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST THING</u> for Beth to do?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

IV. Now, think about the very best action that Beth could do.

Read the following list of possible reasons that Beth might have for her BEST action.

Rate each reason for how good you think it is

If one of the following reasons does not make sense or does not seem to fit with your BEST Action then mark it Very bad.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	***Kind of bad***	***Kind of good***	***Very good***
1. A teacher can see trouble and stop it	1	2	3	4
2. Being picked on really hurts	1	2	3	4
3. I'm not afraid of them; they can't get away with treating me that way	1	2	3	4
4. If the means knock something down of mine, they have to pick it up	1	2	3	4
5. It would make them angry if I did that to them	1	2	3	4
6. They will see how it feels	1	2	3	4
7. It is not right to get pushed around	1	2	3	4
8. I'll be safe if the mean kids can't find me	1	2	3	4
9. The mean kids will get what they deserve	1	2	3	4

Justification Choices Subscales:
Justice/Fair #s 1, 4, 7
Prosocial/Care #s 2, 5, 8
Aggressive/retribution #s 3, 6, 9

V. Of all the reasons that you just rated as VERY GOOD, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> reason Beth would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8) (#9)

VI. Of all the reasons that you just rated as VERY BAD, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST</u> reason Beth would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6) (#7) (#8) (#9)

Story 3. Jamal's Story [Bystander – Relational Social Exclusion]

Jamal watches as mean kids leave Mike out of their group.

Mike is just like most other boys in a school where there are some mean kids who think they are better than other kids whose families don't have as much money. Mike lives in a nice house that is just right for his family. The mean kids live in really big houses with swimming pools. Mike's parents drive a nice old car. The parents of the mean kids drive sporty new cars.

One day, Mike learns about a new school sport. Everybody is invited to try out for the team except for Mike. The mean kids do not include Mike on the team because Mike has not been on a team before but he would like to try out. The mean kids think Mike's family is poor and can't afford the uniform and equipment he will need to play. Mike feels very left out.

I. What would you do if you were Jamal?

Remember, Jamal is the main character in this story. Jamal has been watching the mean kids pick on Mike.

Read the following list of possible actions that Jamal could do.

Rate each action for how good you think it is.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	***Kind of bad***	***Kind of good***	***Very good***
1. Tell the mean kids that it is wrong to not let Mike play	1	2	3	4
2. Tell Mike to get mad and fight the means if they won't let him play	1	2	3	4
3. Don't join the mean kids' team if Mike can't play	1	2	3	4
4. Start a new team and challenge the mean kids to play	1	2	3	4

5. Talk to Mike about his feelings	1	2	3	4
6. Tell Mike to just "blow it off"	1	2	3	4

Action Choice Subscales:
Prosocial actions: #s 1, 3, 5
Aggressive actions: #s 2, 4, 6]

II. Of all actions that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> thing for Jamal to do?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

III. Of all the actions that you just rated as Very bad, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST</u> reason Beth would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

IV. Now, think about the VERY BEST action that Jamal could do.

Read the following list of possible reasons that Jamal might have for his <u>BEST Action</u>.

Rate each reason for how good you think it is.

If one of the following reasons does not make sense or does not seem to fit with your BEST Action then mark it Very bad.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	*Kind of bad*	*Kind of good*	*Very good*
1. Mike has as much right to be on the team as anybody else	1	2	3	4
2. The mean kids might think about it and let Mike join the team	1	2	3	4
3. It will teach the means kids a lesson if Mike turns out to be a good player	1	2	3	4
4. It's not fair to judge people that way without a chance to show what they can do	1	2	3	4
5. I think Mike would be very upset being left out	1	2	3	4
6. The mean kids should be kicked of the team	1	2	3	4

<u>Justification Choices Subscales:</u>
Justice/Fair #s 1, 4
Prosocial/Care #s 2, 5
Aggressive/retribution #s 3, 6

V. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> Reason Jamal would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

VI. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very bad, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST</u> Reason Jamal would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

Story 4. Annie's Story [Victim – Relational Humiliation]

Annie is just like most other girls who attend a large school.

A group of mean kids say things about Annie that are not true. They say that Annie has lice so that the other kids will avoid her. Now Annie's feelings are hurt because the things they say are not true. Annie feels that the other kids are joking and laughing about her because they are "grossed out" by her.

I. What would you do if you were Annie?

Remember, Annie is the main character in this story. Annie is being picked on by the mean kids.

Read the following list of possible actions that Annie could do.

Rate each action for how good you think it is.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	***Kind of bad***	***Kind of good***	***Very good***
1. Tell the bullies to stop talking about her	1	2	3	4
2. Tell the bullies that they are just "losers"	1	2	3	4
3. Find other people to hang out with	1	2	3	4

4. Make up something about the mean kids and let them see how it feels	1	2	3	4
5. Prove to the mean kids that what they are saying is not true	1	2	3	4
6. Get really upset with everybody who laughs at her	1	2	3	4

<u>Action Choice Subscales:</u>
Prosocial actions: #s 1, 3, 5
Aggressive actions: #s 2, 4, 6

II. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> Reason Annie would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

III. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very bad, which do you think is the <u>VERY WORST</u> Reason Annie would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

IV. Now, think about the VERY BEST action that Annie could do.

Read the following list of possible reasons that Annie might have for her BEST action.

Rate each reason for how good you think it is.

If one of the following reasons does not make sense or does not seem to fit with your BEST action, then mark it Very bad.

(**<u>DARKEN</u>** the appropriate face to show your answer.)

	Very bad	*Kind of bad*	*Kind of good*	*Very good*
1. Make the mean kids feel sorry about what they say about her	1	2	3	4
2. It's no fun to get picked on	1	2	3	4
3. Who cares what the mean kids think; they are just stupid	1	2	3	4
4. The bullies can't pick on you when there are more people to help you out; friends	1	2	3	4

stick together

5. Other friends can help Annie to have confidence 1 2 3 4

6. Those mean kids deserve to get punished 1 2 3 4

<u>Justification Choices Subscales:</u>
Justice/Fair #s 1, 4
Prosocial/Care #s 2, 5
Aggressive/retribution #s 3, 6

V. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very good, which do you think is the <u>VERY BEST</u> reason Annie would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

VI. Of all the reasons that you just rated as Very bad, which do you thing is the <u>VERT WORST</u> reason Annie would use?

(CIRCLE your choice.)

(#1) (#2) (#3) (#4) (#5) (#6)

Appendix F

Teacher Online Questionnaires

Child's ID_____ Date_____

The *Child Behavior Scale (CBS)* –Teacher Report

Please consider the descriptions contained in each of the following items below and rate the extent to which each of these descriptions applies to this child, particularly in the context of his or her behavior with peers.
For example, Circle 3—"Certainly applies" if the child often displays the behavior described in the statement, circle 2—"Applies sometimes" if the child occasionally displays the behavior, and circle 1—"Doesn't apply" if the child seldom displays the behavior. Please circle only one response per item.

Reference Subscales:
Aggressive with Peers: Item #s 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14
Prosocial with Peers: Item #s 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15

1. How would you rate this child's Intellectual ability? 5 = High 4 = Above Average 3 = Average 2 = Below Average 1 = Low	
2. Fights with other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies	**8**. Aggressive child. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies
3. Helps other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **4.** Bullies other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **5**. Shows a recognition of the feelings of others; is empathic. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **6**. Kicks, bites, or hits other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **7**. Seems concerned when other children are distressed. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes	**9**. Kind toward peers. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **10**. Taunts and teases other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **11**. Cooperative with peers. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **12**. Threatens other children. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies **13**. Shows concern for moral issues (e.g. fairness, welfare of others). 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes

3 = Certainly applies **14**. Argues with peers. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies	3 = Certainly applies **15**. Offers help or comfort when other children are upset. 1 = Doesn't apply 2 = Applies sometimes 3 = Certainly applies

***Children's Social Behavior Scale (CSBS)* – Teacher Report**

Please consider the descriptions contained in each of the following items below and rate the extent to which each of these descriptions applies to this child, particularly in the context of his or her behavior with peers. For example, Circle 5—"Almost Always True" if the child often displays the behavior described in the statement, Circle 1—"Never True" if the child never displays the behavior, and Circle 2,3,4 to the extent that the child displays the behavior. Please circle only one response per item.

Reference Subscales:
Relational Aggression: Item #s 17, 20, 22, 24, 26
Physical Aggression: Item #s 18, 21, 25, 27 |
Prosocial Behavior: Item #s 16, 19, 23, 28

16. This child says supportive things to peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**23.** This child is helpful to peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
17. When this child is mad at a peer, s/he gets even by excluding the peer from his or her clique or play group. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**24.** This child threatens to stop being a peer's friend in order to hurt the peer or to get what s/he wants from the peer. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
18. This child hits or kicks peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**25.** This child threatens to hit or beat up other children. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
19. This child tries to cheer up peers when they are upset or sad about something. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**26.** When mad at a peer, this child ignores the peer or stops talking to the peer. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
20. This child spreads rumors or gossips about some peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**27.** This child pushes or shoves peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
21. This child initiates or gets into physical	**28.** This child is kind to peers.

fights with peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
22. When angry at a peer, this child tries to get other children to stop playing with the peer or to stop liking the peer. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	

Children's Social Experience Questionnaire (CSEQ) – Teacher Report

Please consider the descriptions contained in each of the following items below and rate the extent to which each of these descriptions applies to this child, particularly in the context of his or her behavior with peers. For example, Circle 5—"Almost Always True" if the child often displays the behavior described in the statement, Circle 1—"Never True" if the child never displays the behavior, and Circle 2,3,4 to the extent that the child displays the behavior. Please circle only one response per item.

Reference Subscales:
Relational Victimization: Items #30, 33, 35
Physical Victimization: Items #29, 31, 35
Receipt of Prosocial Acts: Item #32

29. This child gets hit or kicked by peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**33.** This child gets left out of the group when someone is mad at them or wants to get back at them. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
30. This child gets ignored by other children when a peer is mad at them. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**34.** This child gets physically threatened by peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
31. This child gets pushed or shoved by peers. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	**35.** This child is the target of rumors or gossip in the playgroup. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True
32. This child gets help from peers when s/he needs it. 1 = Never True 2 3 4 5 = Almost Always True	

Appendix G

Coding Scheme for the CBVS

ACTION CODES

1. Positive Actions: Assertive, Intervene, Empathy, Teaching

Positive Assertive Responses / Behavior / Advice

- Verbally challenge the bully's statement. Label the bully's action as a misdeed.
  Example: "BJ is stupid" **Responses** "No, BJ is not stupid" "BJ is actually very smart" "How would you know?"
  Example "You're an idiot!" **Responses** "That hurts my feelings." "Picking on others is never okay!"

- Talk with the bully about the reasons for the bullying to better understand the motivations of the bully.
  Example "Kim is such a loser". **Responses** "Why are you saying that?" "What has she done to you to make you say that?"

- **Be confident and polite.** Look the bully in the eye. Firmly say "leave me alone" or "Stop! I don't like what you are doing."

- **Protest bullying:** • Refuses to join bullying • Not join the club
  • Stops being friends with bullies

- **Self-Regulated Behavioral Strategies for the victim**
  • Give a good come-back line when the victim is calm and assertive.
  • Confront bullies only when the threat is not physical
  • Try distracting bully by engaging him or her in different conversation of interest to the bully
  • Rehearse appropriate social interaction that solves problems & gives victim a sense of power, confidence and control.
  • When attacks are physical, learn a defensive strategy (e.g., boxing, martial arts, etc.)
  • Tell the victim not to become a bully too, just because you've been picked on.
  • Role reversal – consider being the victim – how does it feel to be the victim?
  • Get involved in another activity or a diversion
  • Avoid the bullies • Change location • Sit somewhere else
  • Walk away • Don't hang with jerks • Ignore it
  • Stay on task • Act like everybody else • Seek self help
  • Beware of groups and adults for safety. • Diffuse the attack with humor
  • Go early or late & in different ways that are safe. • Participate in another activity
  • Write in a journal • Self comfort – positive self-talk
  • Get friend who will listen • Get friend to confront the bullies

- Make new friends / change peer groups
- Confronts or stands up to the bullies.
- Don't show any emotion – it will escalate the conflict

Positive Intervention / Advice

Tell Authority Figure

- Tell teachers, counselors, principal, parents, other adults, trusted friends & expect immediate action
- Show threatening or harassing evidence to parents, teachers, and adults.
- Ask others for problem-solving advice
- Get help – no description

Other interventions / Advice

- Dispel rumors about the victim
- Tear up notes/Breaks up pushing
- Help w/o describing how
- Be friends with victim
- Make new friends / change peer groups
- Start new club and include victim
- Be nice to victim

Positive Empathy / Acknowledge Victim's Feelings / Consoles

- Find out if the victim is okay
- Identifies how victim would feel (e.g., "He'd be upset.")
- Console/comfort the victim
- How bully hurt victim's feelings or caused physical pain

Positive teaching moment

- Talk to victim about how the victim is different
- Tell the victim –
  - Not everyone is going to like you.
  - Doesn't always have to please others.
  - Should not be friends with bullies.
- Help the victim to understand that it is not his/her fault.
- Advise about the bully's response to emotional displays.

2. Negative Actions: Retaliate/Aggression, Coercion, Teaching

Negative Retaliate/Aggressive

Verbal/Psychological

- Response statements that attack the bully
- **Example**: "Your dress is so tacky." **Response:** "Well, you're stupid." "You're no better than me." "Just look in the mirror!"
- Threaten to "Get even" or "beat them up" or get "bigger" siblings or friends to retaliate.

Physical

- Respond by hitting, kicking, or inflicting physical force on the bully.
- Put self physically close to the bullies – "Sit with them even if they don't want you to"

"Takes matters into own hands" – no description

Negative Coercion

- **Engages in verbal/psychological coercion over the victim**
  - Verbally retaliate/reprimand the victim for having been bullied
  - Threaten future punishment if victim gets bullied again – "toughen him/her up."

- **Engages in coercion over the victim**
  - Refuses to be friends or to support the victim without discussing the reasons for being bullied
  - Pick on victim for having been bullied
  - Physically hitting, pushing, shoving, etc. or threaten to use physical aggression

- **Victim, in turn, bullies others who are smaller, weaker or have less power**

- **Withhold support for or avoid the victim**

- **Put victim in "harm's way" by advising the victim to make friends with the bully**

Harm • Suicide "Kill yourself" • Homicide "Blow them away"

Negative Teaching Moment

- **Don't worry about it.**
  - Don't worry about it
  - Just blow it off
  - Deal with it
  - Just don't care about it
  - It doesn't matter

JUSTIFICATION CODES

1. Justice: Fairness, Equality, Personal Interests

Justice

- Right thing to do
- True / not true
- Fair / equitable
- Keep out of trouble
- Proving the truth
- Can't keep her out
- Prevent violence
- Respect for power
- Protection
- Wrong to do that
- Prove them wrong
- Not fair
- Getting into trouble
- Personal interests
- Safety
- Balance of Power
- Being picked on
- Factual / Proof
- Show them I can …
- Rule-oriented
- Social responsibility/duty
- Personal rights
- Stop the action
- Greater numbers, groups
- Adult attention/monitor

2. Prosocial: Caring/Empathy

Prosocial – Concrete Responses

- Get bullies to think about their actions
- Being inclusive
- Have better friends • Imaginary friends
- Reciprocal treatment (Golden Rule)
- Being inclusive
- Talk through the problem – find a solution
- Advice about solving the problem
- Social status/influence
- Make a better club
- Friends stick together
- Being nice
- Do better work
- Self help /encouragement
- Achieving / Performing
- Admitting a mistake
- Reciprocal treatment / Do unto others (Golden Rule)
- Making friends
- Friends with everybody
- Friends take care of each other
- Can make a better club
- Better way to resolve problem
- Use Peer pressure (positive)
- Being loyal
- Laughing at self
- Nice thing to do
- Knowing self
- Being persistence
- Being Honest

Empathy/Caring/Concern for Others/Identify Feelings & Emotions

- Not alone
- Kind thing to do
- Hurt/pain – feeling, physical
- Affirm victim
- Nothing wrong with being smart
- Not bring me down
- I'm a nice person
- I get nervous when …
- Mean
- Really won't want to be their friend
- Words can't hurt
- Can't hurt me. I don't care.
- Everybody is different – not the same
- Feel better if gets help
- Comfort/consoling
- Tired of mistreatment / Fed up
- Victim has courage
- Resilience
- Getting over the hurt
- Peer pressure
- Not nice
- They don't want me
- They won't let me sit with them
- Need help
- Caring for a friend
- Victim is afraid
- Don't want to be left out
- Not giving up
- Not afraid/scared
- Social stress
- Don't like it
- No big deal
- They hurt me
- Doesn't bother me
- Leaving friend out

3. Aggressive/Antisocial

Aggressive / Negative Criticism

- Getting even
- Angry, mad emotions
- They will think twice next time
- "They deserve it"
- They do it to me
- "Kids was kids."
- "I said so!"
- "He's a punk!"
- Want them to feel like I do
- Teach the bullies a lesson
- "They are just jerks!"