The development of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children CAES-C, and its adapted version for Adolescents (CAES-C/A); and an evaluation of the Support Group Method and Circle Time

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This is a signed declaration that the work presented in this thesis is my own.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

This thesis argued that empathy is a two-dimensional dispositional trait, dependent upon aspects of an individual's socialisation and dispositional temperament; and as a pro-social emotion influenced by the nature and closeness of an individual's relationship towards a specific peer. It focussed upon peer relationships across everyday interactions and bullying behaviours were assessed by the Participant Role Scale. Five studies were conducted. **Study 1** investigated the development and the reliability of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Younger Children (CAES-C) using test-retest methodology. There were two main factor loadings of empathy; one (affective) and two (cognitive). Girls scored higher levels of empathy than boys and were more cognitively empathetic to same gender peers. **Study 2** measured bullies, bully-victims and non-bullying roles (victims, outsiders and defenders) empathy levels. It found that defenders had higher cognitive empathy levels than victim-bullies and combined bullying roles. **Study 3** used an adaptation of the CAES-C with adolescents (CAES-C/A). Findings corresponded to Study One, with two main factors of affective and cognitive empathy. **Studies 4 and 5** investigated the effectiveness of two anti-bullying interventions, an adaptation of the Support Group Method, and Circle Time, using the CAES-C/A as an outcome measure. It found girls had higher cognitive empathy towards same gender peers, as in Study 1 and more likely to have a greater understanding of another girls social and situational perceptions. Both interventions were effective in enhancing cognitive and developing affective empathy. However, results indicated especially in younger ages and for opposite gender peers that affective empathy was predominately a dispositional trait, dependent upon the emotionality and temperament of a specific individual; and cognitive empathy was a more fluid construct which had a greater chance of being heightened. In conclusion the CAES-C and CAES-C/A allowed a useful baseline measure of empathy.

The Development, Validity and Reliability of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children (CAES-C)

Chapter One: Is Empathy Multi-Dimensional?
(1) Aims of this Thesis

This thesis aims to address the issues around a consistent and reliable two – dimensional (cognitive and affective) empathy questionnaire, which is targeted at a younger age group (7 to 11 year olds/School Years 3-6). This thesis an extension of my earlier unpublished research (Howard, 2006, see Chapter Two for further details); Bullying and its relationship with two-dimensional empathy in children. My research demonstrated that there was no single two-dimensional empathy scale which was specifically aimed at a younger age group for children. Consequently, I implemented two single empathy questionnaires; the Bryant's Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents (IECA; see Chapter Two) for affective empathy and Schultz, Izard and Bear's (2004) the Assessment of Children's Emotional Skills (ACES, see Chapter Two) for cognitive. My results (2006) found that using two insular empathy questionnaires made it difficult to compare two-dimensional empathy because their methodology, Likert scales and scoring differed immensely.

Therefore, this thesis will explore how the empathy questionnaires reviewed in Chapter Two fail to investigate children's actual two-dimensional empathy because the questions do not relate to children's different peer relationships within their everyday interactions. Additionally, it aims to demonstrate that many of these scales did not measure the different types of peer interactions, which makes the evidence found by them rather skewed because they do not accurately measure the child's levels of empathy within their everyday lives. Therefore, this thesis argues that a child-friendly two-dimensional empathy measure is needed which investigates peer interactions across childrens everyday lives.

The CAES-C will use an integrated approach, arguing that it is important to explore children's two-dimensional empathy differentiation as it will enable an in-depth investigation of various empathic peer centred behaviours. Additionally, the CAES-C will use a two-dimensional/integrative approach because at present such a questionnaire does not exist for this

specific age group (i.e. 7-11 year olds). It will also allow an investigation of how children act in various empathic peer orientated scenarios. Additionally, as gender is an important factor in childrens bullying behaviours (as research reviewed within this thesis will show), the questions in the CAES-C will use a selection of questions around both genders, with the premise of investigating children's two-dimensional empathic responses towards same-gender and opposite gender peers. Moreover, sub-scales that involve children (peers, younger children and friends) will be used to investigate whether or not children vary in their levels of empathy under these various peer interaction dimensions.

Consequently, the overall topic of this thesis is the development of a Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children (CAES – C) and then after its validation, the use of the CAES - C as a tool to evaluate the effectiveness of empathy-based anti-bullying interventions. The CAES-C will be used to explore the pupil's experiences of bullying, and to document the implementation and perceptions of the relative effectiveness of the Support Group Method (SGM, Robinson & Maines, 2007, formerly known as the No-Blame Approach, 1989), which consists of seven stages, and works on the rationale of enhancing an empathic response in the pupils involved in the bullying without attributing specific blame on individuals. This study predominately focused upon the pupil's perceptions and experiences, with the aim of these pupils acting as a support group helping to promote positive empathetic behaviour in their school peers.

This chapter will now consider the approaches used to define empathy; demonstrating the fundamental differences between such definitions. It will focus on empathy development models; biological preparedness, social comprehension, subjective state and morality. Overall it will examine empathy and its relationship with prosocial/antisocial behaviours.

Empathy is a rather controversial construct, especially in regard to whether it is a one or two-dimensional or a global construct; and within the nature/nurture debate, (i.e. if it is an innate and or/situationally specific emotion). This chapter will now explore how psychologists have attempted to define empathy and will focus upon the social cognitive, affective, two-dimensional integrative and functional neuroanatomy approaches.

(2) Definitions of Empathy

(i)The Social Cognitive Approach

The Social Cognitive Approach states that fundamentally, empathy works from a cognitive understanding, perspective taking, which is dependent upon predictive accuracy (e.g. Feshbach, 1987) which may then progress to affective empathy. Feshbach (1975) and Hoffman (1982, 1984), argue that empathy is a personality trait or a general stable ability; described by Hogan (1969, p. 309) as an "Empathic disposition". This perspective suggests that through a combination of nature and/or nurture an individual develops, or fails to develop, empathy. Feshbach's (1978) Three Component Model of Empathy states that initially an empathic response requires an individual to have the capability to discriminate and identify the emotional state of another, and then to be able to take that person's perspective, and finally to have the capability to be able to produce a shared response with that person (affective empathy). Her model states that the first two parts are the cognitive components of empathy and the last is affective. Therefore, Feshbach (1978) argues that empathy is a complex emotion which is a fundamental part of a child's endorsement of positive prosocial behaviour.

(ii) The Affective Approach

The Affective Approach (e.g. Eisenberg, Wentzel & Harris, 1998, 2002) defines empathy by its affective component alone, arguing that it is "An affective response that stems from the apprehension or comprehension of another's emotional state or condition, and that is similar to what the other person is feeling or would be expected to feel" (Eisenberg et al., 2002, p. 135). Eisenberg et al's (1998, 2002) heuristic model is based upon individual differences in emotional intensity and regulatory capabilities in social behaviours such as empathy and sympathy. It states that individuals who generally have overall intense emotions are more likely to experience personal distress (PD) which is an aversive over-arousal emotional state that leads to self-focus rather than other focused behaviour. This model argues that emotional regulation should be positively related to empathy and sympathy. Therefore, empathy/sympathy is positively correlated with a disposition to experience the correct level of emotional regulation and conversely PD is correlated to negative affect (i.e. distress, anxiety or discomfort).

(iii) The Integrative Approach

The Integrative Approach or Two-Stage Model of Empathetic Mediation (Coke, Batson & McDavis, 1978) works from the premise that empathy is an intertwined two-dimensional construct; a combination of cognitive (personal distress i.e. worry and alarm) and affective empathy (sympathy and comparison). This perspective suggests that empathy is a situationally specific, cognitive-affective state whereby the individual responds "*vicariously*" (Batson & Coke, 1981) to a specific stimulus or individual.

Additionally, Vreek and van der mark (2003) state firstly it is a method of responding to the perceived feeling of others, and secondly how the communicative pattern or concepts (care, concern and role-taking) are understood

Coke et al.'s (1978) Two-Stage Model of Empathic Mediation (i.e. helping behaviour) states that taking the perspective of the person in need (cognitive empathy) increases empathic concern (affective empathy). It argues that this process is dependent upon the helping individual's social evaluation of the situation/circumstances and that empathy is specific to a given situation. Their model suggests that both cognitive and affective empathy processes work simultaneously to motivate helping behaviour; cognitive empathy increases an empathic emotional response and in turn this response, affective empathy, induces actual helping behaviour.

Coke et al. (1978) stated that while their Two-Stage Model of Empathic Mediation does explain how helping occurs, the motivation behind this helping behaviour is not always clearly defined because factors such as egoistic vs. altruistic motivators are very difficult to untwine. Nevertheless, they argue that it should not always be assumed that it is an individual's egoistic desire to alleviate their PD which results in helping behaviour but that it may be because of an empathic emotional concern which has produced an altruistic desire to see another person's distress reduced.

(iv) Functional Neuroanatomy and Empathy

In recent years this perspective has been combined with functional neuroanatomy, arguing that empathy works from a process that is not merely a response, but that empathy is dependent upon prefrontal functioning that facilitates an empathic response through working memory, which improves the ability to assess likely outcomes from past experiences (Decety & Jackson, 2004; de Waal, 2002). Decety and Jackson (2004) stated that empathy has three components or aspects: experiencing what another is feeling, knowing what another is feeling and having the intentional response to behave compassionately. Therefore, the three aspects are; an affective response, the cognitive capacity to adopt another's perspective and an element of monitoring or self-regulation which is focused for both self and another's feelings. This model encompasses four intertwined functional aspects which produce the emotional experience. Firstly, affective sharing which is founded on a perception action coupling mechanism; secondly a self-other awareness because for empathy to occur there needs to be no confusion between an individual's self and another's, emotionality; thirdly mental flexibility, an ability to use or adapt past memories; and finally an emotional appraisal is required if an individual is able to respond to the other person's emotionality appropriately.

Decety and Jackson (2004) propose that if an individual experiences pain like it is their own this would lead to empathetic over arousal which would result in a focus upon a self-need rather than upon the other person's needs. They argue that affective empathy component of sharing occurs automatically and unconsciously, but conversely intentional processing is needed for perspective taking and certain aspects of emotional regulation.

Blair (2005) reviewed his own research and other literature regarding empathy and argued that there are three major components or divisions of empathy; Cognitive empathy (or theory of mind), is the ability to represent the states of others; implemented by the neural responding of temporo-parietal regions and paracingulate cortex (Frith, 2001); Motor empathy, is the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize the facial expressions, postures, and movement of another individual; implemented by superior temporal, inferior parietal and inferior frontal cortex (Carr, Iacoboni, Dubeau, Mazziotta & Lenzi, 2003; Decety & Jackson, 2004); Emotional empathy, is a person's ability to respond to the emotional expression of another; requiring the superior temporal cortex and other areas - the amygdala (fear, sadness, happiness) the insula (disgust) and ventrolateral frontal cortex (anger). Blair (2003) argued that response to another person's facial and vocal emotional expressions in emotional empathy is utilised by the

communicating signals of another individual, which involves separate brain regions as depicted above.

Blair (2005) added that there are additional forms of empathy such as empathic reaction to another person's verbal statements, e.g. "Sam's dog has been run over by a car and killed"; here the person needs to have previous association with that specific experience (e.g. an understanding of a dog dying) to feel empathy. Blair (2005) concluded that "empathy is not a unitary system but rather a loose collection of partially dissociable neuro-cognitive systems" (p.698)". He stated that there is a degree of anatomical overlap between the types of empathy that appear to be reliant upon the integrity of neurons in the superior temporal regions, but argued that their actual positioning means that they are all able to work independently to each other.

(v) The Violence Inhibition Mechanism (VIM) Model (1995, 1997)

Blair's (1995) and Blair, Jones, Clark and Smith's (1997) model of affective empathy, the Violence Inhibition Mechanism (VIM) model, argues that humans have submissive cues, i.e. sad and fearful facial expressions and vocal tones (i.e. distress cues). They propose that such cues cause an autonomic arousal that inhibits subsequent aggressive behaviour, therefore in normal developing individuals, an activation of the VIM, a basic emotion system, mediates an appropriate response to another's distress.

Blair (1995) stated that the VIM has a learning component, which is developed through the process of classical conditioning; the distress cues represent the unconditioned stimuli (US) for the unconditioned response (UR); the activation of the VIM. For this reason, it plays a fundamental part in human socialisation and morality. Moral socialisation is achieved if a victim's distress cues are important and cause an abatement of another's moral transgressions (i.e. inflicting harm to another or to their property). Consequently, if there is a victim the transgression will be processed as a moral transgression and result in abatement. Conversely if there is no victim, the transgression will be seen by the individual as a conventional transgression (e.g. talking in class) and viewed as less serious and will not result in the activation of the VIM.

Children with conduct problems have been shown to display a reduced moral/conventional distinction when a victim is present and are less likely to refer to the victim's welfare and as a result feel less empathy (Blair, 1995; Blair et al., 1995). Therefore, Blair (1995) argued that an individual's moral/conventional distinction could be used as an index to measure their VIM. Blair (1997) investigated children with psychopathic tendencies (CPT's) to discover if they were similar to adult psychopaths (AP's). Their findings found that CPT's were distinct from normal developing controls, within their moral/conventional distinction, when using story scenarios. These findings showed that CPT's were to some extent in line with AP's, because they made significantly less moral/conventional distinctions within their attributions and showed less moral emotions towards the story protagonist. However unlike AP's, CPT's made equal reference as controls to the victim's welfare, indicating that they felt at least a diminutive level of empathy. Furthermore, in line with AP's, CPT's were able to attribute emotions such as happiness and embarrassment, suggesting that both groups do not have a global inability to attribute emotions per se. However, CPT's, like AP's, were found to be unable to attribute guilt or sympathy, but conversely to AP's, CPT's was able to attribute the basic emotion of fear. Blair (1997) argued that these results support the rationale that CPT's (like AP's) have an element of cognitive dysfunction within their VIM. Therefore, Blair's (1997) study showed that CPT's do not have an overall deficit in two-dimensional empathy as they were able to attribute the basic emotion of fear (even though they were not able to attribute guilt and sympathy) to the story protagonists. Moreover, these children were also shown to be able to feel a level of empathy for the victim's welfare indicating the existence of empathy albeit if it is shown to be at a rather dysfunctional and inconsistent level.

This Chapter will review a selection of research into the development of empathy in children and adolescents. Firstly, examining the Developmental Model, which purports a biological preparedness in children towards empathy. Secondly, empathy development in childhood, arguing that similarity to another child and social comprehension, enhances empathy. Thirdly the Perception Action Mechanism (PAM) suggests that an observer's ability to access the subjective state of another, through PAM. The PAM initiates empathetic action and fourthly the Russian Doll Model, developing higher cognitive abilities. Finally, this section will focus on cognitive, affective and behavioural empathy responses in children.

(3) Empathy Development

(i) The Developmental Model of Empathy in Children

Hoffman (1975, 1982) proposed, within his conceptual developmental model of empathy, that children have a biological preparedness for empathy, which impacts upon their prosocial behaviour. This evolving emotional response progresses through a number of stages; in Stage One the child shows emotional contagion (i.e. they are able to hear another person crying, but are unable to distinguish where the crying is originating from) and is only able to display a self-distress response. At Stage Two, the toddler has some ability to be able to discriminate between themselves and others, but at this stage they can only display egocentric empathy (i.e. empathy which is primarily centred on them) because they have not yet fully developed person permanence (i.e. awareness that another person exists as a separate physical entity). At Stage Three (generally between 3-7 years of age year) the child is now able to distinguish that others are separate entities (i.e. they have developed person permanence) and they are able to take another's perspective. The empathetic response is triggered by distress, and generally this response evolves into sympathetic concern for another. Within these developmental stages a child has a degree of constancy between their emotional sensitivity and their responsiveness towards others. Hoffman (1975, 1982) proposed that people respond empathically towards the victim's distress and offer helping behaviour because this is more likely to abate the negative affect the victim's distress has had upon them. Therefore, it is only when a child has progressed through these three stages (which are gained through their own empathetic reactions based upon past experiences with others) that they are able to understand the circumstances, feelings and wishes of others and assist them, whilst maintaining a sense of self. Hoffman (1975, 1982) argues that this model is a universal pattern of developmental maturation. Overall, he argues from a theoretical viewpoint, that the contribution of empathy aids cognitive development and that it is only elicited when a child develops the cognitive sense of another's emotional state. Hoffman (1975, p.617) stated that an individual;

"Can process various types of information—that gained through his own empathic reaction, immediate situational cues, and general knowledge about the other's life. He can act out in his mind the emotions and experiences suggested by this information and introspect on all of this. He may thus gain an understanding of the circumstances, feelings, and wishes of the other and

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have feelings of concern and the wish to help while maintaining the sense that this is a separate person from himself".

(ii) Empathy Development and Social Comprehension in Middle Childhood

Feshbach and Roe (1968) investigated the situations that facilitate empathy in younger children (six- and seven-year olds), and defined empathy as "A vicarious affective response" (p.133). They wished to test the hypothesis that the similarity of the child's gender to that of the stimulus, would promote affective empathy. They argued that little research had been conducted upon this age group, even though there may be a relevance to the children's development of social comprehension and morality.

Forty-six boys and girls from the first grade (six to seven years of age), of an elementary school were used in Feshbach and Roe's (1968) study. The children were shown a series of slides, accompanied by narratives, and asked, "How do you feel" and "Tell me how you feel" to the scenarios, which contained one of the four affects; happiness, sadness, fear and anger. The children's responses were used to check the child's level of comprehension of the affective scenarios. Additionally, within the narratives the use of general or specific labels, were avoided. The narratives that involved a male stimulus were presented to 12 males and 11 females. This procedure was followed with a female stimulus, to a further 12 females and 11 males. The children received a score for each match and for its effect on specific and total empathy. The second scoring procedure was broader; empathy was noted if the affective category and the child's verbal response were consistent to either a negative or positive connotation as marked uniformly by two independent raters.

Feshbach and Roe's (1968) results showed that in all but one case, empathy was higher when children observed same gender peers; one exception was found within both genders because in the fear scenarios they reported experiencing higher anxiety when observing females. Additionally, affective situations showed a higher level of significance for happiness than for sadness which was significantly higher than for aggression. In the second scoring procedure, a significant result was found in the happiness and sadness stimuli. However, the gender of the subject-stimulus interaction to situation in the emotion of fear was now found to be significant.

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Feshbach and Roe (1968) argued that their results have fundamental implications i.e. their empathy measure is distinct from their social comprehension measure. Therefore, they indicate that empathy is not only shown by an ability to recognise the affective experiences of others, but social comprehension is also required as a prerequisite. Moreover, they stated that the children's variability in empathy responses was related to the similarity between the child and the stimulus person, which supports the rationale that similarity facilitates an empathic response whereas an exaggeration of differences tends to reduce it. These findings suggest that in younger children empathy is higher for same-gender peers; indicating a different empathy trajectory than is found in older boys (see Bryant 1982; see Chapter Two).

(iii) The Perception Action Mechanism (PAM)

Preston and de Waal (2002) argue that empathy is developed through the observer or subject's ability to access the subjective state of another individual (i.e. the object) through a Perception Action Mechanism (PAM) which is automatically and unconsciously activated. The PAM works in terms of shared representations for perceiving and generating actions.

The perception actions are activated when perceiving the object (e.g. another person, animal or entity) provides an empathy related stimuli. The state of the object is often referred to as cognitive empathy, which activates the dorsolateral prefrontal cortex to maintain information of the object into working memory. The PAM is activated by direct perception, imagery or imagination and is actuated by either overt or imagined acts or abstract cognitive affordances. However, imagination needs additional activation because it requires the subject to bring the state of the object into their mind, it then works from the same process of activation as direct empathy (Preston and de Waal, 2002).

Representations of feelings are related to somatosensory-related areas such as the somatosensory cortex, which stores sensations; and the cingulated cortex which stores reactions, all of which are activated by the subject. Shared experiences and similarity are paramount because the subject's state must be similar to the objects, where accuracy and similarity work on a continuum. The PAM emphasises the degree of match between the subject and object to produce empathy. Therefore, the PAM enables the observer to be able to share the emotionality

and needs of another person, which in turn, elicits sympathy and helping behaviour (Preston and de Waal, 2002).

(iv) The Russian Doll Model

The Russian Doll Model of de Waal (2003) states that higher cognitive abilities of empathy are developed through the hard-wired basis of the PAM, which underpins the development of more cognitively, advanced abilities such as sympathetic concern or perspective taking. Additionally, the PAM allows motor mimicry to develop, explained by the Russian Doll model as being able to relate to the doings of others through body synchronization, coordination and imitation. The motivational processes of imitation and empathy include shared representation; identification of another founded on physical, shared experience and social closeness; and finally automaticity and spontaneity. Overall the Russian Doll Model of Empathy and Imitation states that empathy produces a similar emotional state between the subject and the object, with at its core the Perception-Action Mechanism (PAM). The doll's outer layers, such as sympathetic concern and perspective-taking, are built upon a hard-wired socio-affective foundation or basis. Sharing the same mechanism, the doll's imitation component is related with the empathy. Therefore, the PAM underlies motor mimicry, coordination, shared goals, and true imitation. Even though the doll's outer layers are dependent upon prefrontal functioning and an increased self-other distinction, the outer layers remain connected to its inner core and work in synchronisation (Preston and de Waal, 2002)

(v) Children's Cognitive, Affective and Behavioural Responses

Zahn-Waxler, Rake-Yarrow, Wagner and Chapman (1992) investigated two-year-old children's cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to witnessing another child's distress caused either by themselves or by another person in two conditions (bystander distress simulated and bystander distress natural). They found that by the age of two-years children have the ability/capacity to intervene on another person's behalf. Additionally, with age, personal or self-distress were increasingly replaced by more modulated, constructive and action-orientated behaviours. However, at this young developmental age there was still a conflict between the children's concerns of self and the welfare of others. These findings support Hoffman (1975, 1982) who emphasised the developmental (at the age of two-years) from self-concern towards empathetic concern indicating they have the ability to make self-awareness and self-other differentiation. Behavioural expressions of concern and empathetic other oriented behaviours

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were found to be correlated with self-awareness and role-taking abilities. The ability to be able to make self-referential responses was correlated with self-recognition, which was predicted to lead to later developmental prosocial and empathetic concern and was not related to self-distress. However, these results overall did not provide a lucid predictor to whether or not social-cognitive capabilities are a prerequisite for more developed empathetic involvement. In contrast prosocial involvement corresponded with increased levels of symbolic, imaginative play and pretence, which may serve to facilitate the child's ability to act on the behalf of another.

The children's use of constructive interventions indicated prosocial reparative behaviour supporting Hoffman's (1975, 1982) rationale that empathetic arousal mediates internalised behaviour (i.e. indicating altruistic behaviour and conscience). Conversely different mediating mechanisms were found in anti-social behaviours (i.e. psychological and physical aggression) these children displayed more enjoyment, aggression and personal distress. These children showed less concern for others and were less likely to explore for indicators of another person's distress (in the children they were aggressing against) than when they were not the perpetrator and in the position of a bystander. Therefore, this developmental age may mark the point when two different types of harm doing (i.e. accidental vs. intentional) and their relationship with prosocial behaviours such as empathy, occur.

Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992) found gender differences as girls (across all age groups) displayed more concern than boys for the affective experiences of others which were shown by behaviours such as reproducing or imitating the behaviours of another. Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992) suggested this could have occurred because females may have a biological predisposition or direct or indirect pressures to be more nurturing to the emotional needs of others as preparation for the caregiving role.

Generally, Zahn-Waxler et al's. (1992) study indicated that children as young as two years of age displayed patterns of moral internalisation which were not predominately based on fear or as a response to paternal commands. It revealed that young children were able to display signs of feeling responsibly connected, which seemed to be dependent upon others.

(vi) Prosocial Development, Moral Reasoning and Affect (Empathy)

Eisenberg, Shell, Patternack, Lennon, Bellar and Mathy (1997) investigated prosocial development within a longitudinal study. Children were interviewed either at ages 9-10 or 11-12 to discover if there was an interrelation between moral reasoning and affect (empathy). They found that less sophisticated methods of moral reasoning (i.e. hedonistic reasoning) decreased with age, while needs-orientated reasoning (a simple form of reasoning) peaked in middle childhood and then seemed to level off. In contrast more sophisticated modes of affect reasoning increased with age over consequences reasoning, as did approval oriented, stereotyped, direct-reciprocity and sympathetic. Pragmatic reasoning (at ages 9-10-11-12) increased with age supporting the rationale that older children are more likely to consider the various situational factors incorporated when resolving a moral dilemma. Additionally, gender differences were found in the usage of reasoning that incorporated empathy and sympathy in girls as it was found to increase with age especially in early adolescents, which may be due to a gender difference within socialisation. Both levels of prosocial moral reasoning (hedonistic and pragmatic) were found to be related to moral empathy. Also an increase in age was positively correlated to donating, which suggested that prosocial actions increased with age. However, this may have occurred because the older children were better able to interpret and act upon their feelings. They concluded that empathy probably impacts upon behaviour directly whilst indirectly affecting the children's moral cognitions. Therefore, overall they argued that there is a strong pattern for the development of prosocial moral judgments, types of prosocial behaviours and empathy which seem to be interrelated.

(vii) Are there Early Signs of Empathy Development before Two-Years of Age?

Roth-Hanania, Davidov and Zahn-Waxler (2011) findings in regards to early empathy development were contrary to those of Hoffman (1975, 1984) and Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992). They found evidence for affective and cognitive markers in infants as young as 8-10 month old. This pattern continued to increase gradually into the children's second year. This study also showed that prosocial behaviour was rare in the infant's first year but increased in the second year, with a considerable increase from 16 months. They demonstrated that infants understanding of internal states of another were extended to the ability to be able to comprehend the emotion of distress and show emotional atonement. Self-distress responses to the distress of

another (e.g. fear, whimpering and crying) were rare particularly in the 8-10-month age group. However, they argued that concern is more likely to be shown when it is unambiguous and not overwhelming, as distress which is highly intense or stressful could result in a self-distress response. Individual differences between levels of vicariously induced arousal and the ability to regulate it effectively were found in prosocial responding, particularly at 10 months, and it was consistently linked to prosocial behaviour of empathy at the age of two. This study did not find any gender differences in cognitive and affective empathy, but proposed this may have occurred because they had a small sample size or that as other result has indicated such difference are only prominent in older age groups (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998).

(4) Twin Studies

This section reviews several twin (zygotic) studies investigating developmental empathy (cognitive and affective/behavioural) over time (age); examining monozygotic (MZ) and dizygotic (DZ) twin heritability factors and prosocial orientation.

(i) Are there Age differences in Twin Empathy Levels?

Zahn-Waxler, Robinson and Emde (1992) examined monozygotic (MZ) and dizygotic (DZ) twins to investigate whether or not cognitive affective and the behavioural (affective) components of empathy increased with age as subjects, and favour female twins at two years of age; secondly if there was evidence that these changes are accounted by heritability factors; thirdly, the patterns of concordance rates between MZ and DZ twins and the heritability estimates; and lastly if MZ and DZ twins differed within their empathetic and for prosocial orientations to determine if MZ twins share a close relationship which infringes upon their expressions of concern for others.

The results showed differences between twin zygosity, as MZ boys indicated higher scores of unresponsiveness towards others than DZ twins. Additionally, gender differences were found as girls engaged in more hypotheses testing, demonstrated higher levels of empathic concern, prosocial behaviour and self-distress, which were shown to increase with age between the ages of between 14-20 months. The interrelations of measures and stability over time showed a significant correlation at both 14 and 20 months for hypothesis testing, prosocial behaviour and empathetic concern which indicated internal coherence between these components. Correlations

between 14-months and 20-months showed only a significantly high correlation for maternal reports; all other measures (prosocial acts, empathic concern, hypothesis testing, self-distress and unresponsive in different) were found to have low correlation scores indicating that these periods are significantly marked by flux and change.

At 14-months MZ, but not DZ twins, showed concordances correlations for prosocial behaviour, empathetic concern, hypothesis testing, unresponsive- indifference and self-distress. In both sets of twins (MZ and DZ) maternal reports showed significant patterns of concordance for prosocial behaviour. However, at 20-months there were fewer significant correlations other than in empathetic concern and unresponsive-indifferent which demonstrated higher concordance rates. Heritability estimates showed high significant concordance correlations in MZ twins for prosocial acts, empathetic concern, hypothesis testing, and unresponsive- indifferent, maternal reports and self-distress. At 20-months MZ showed higher concordance rates than DZ in empathic concern and unresponsive-indifferent, but maternal reports continued to show prosocial patterns for both types of twins. Correlations between MZ twins showed that the greater the level of prosocial behaviour towards each other, the less likely the MZ's were at engaging in hypothesis testing or prosocial actions which would assist a victim. In contrast DZ twins demonstrated if one twin was more prosocial to the other, greater empathetic concern was displayed towards the distress of the victim.

Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992) concluded that within their second year the children were able to demonstrate empathetic concern, and attempted to comprehend the emotions of others, albeit at this stage of their development this was at a rather limited level. Moreover, the children at this age were able to engage in prosocial acts. Emotional concern, prosocial acts and cognitive indicators (hypothesis testing) albeit a low significance were shown to be stable over time. Overall the evidence for heritability of empathy was shown to be modest. Conversely mother's reports demonstrated that prosocial behaviour were influenced by genetic and environmental factors alike Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992) stated that there is not a genetic code for social emotional behaviours, but a genetic code for enzymes which are specific to the context of a child's environment that influence and affect patterns of brain chemicals and neuro-hormonal systems. Additionally, Zahn-Waxler et al. (1992) argued that personality differences and temperament type may predispose a child towards higher levels of empathy.

(ii) Twin Empathy during Infancy and Early Childhood

Knafo, Zahn-Waxler, Van Hulle, Robinson and Rhee (2008) studied MZ and DZ twins during infancy and early childhood, from 14-36 months, and the development of a disposition towards empathy and prosocial behaviour, investigating its continuity across time, focusing upon genetic and environmental contributors. They stated that empathy (cognitive and affective) and prosocial behaviour are the building blocks for compassion.

Knafo et al. (2008) found considerable developmental changes in the infants as prosocial behaviours developed in the infants first year, indicating the development of emotional regulation, perspective taking and the ability to be able to successfully make a self-other differentiation; empathic concern increased progressively between the ages of 14-20 months. Higher-order functioning such as hypotheses testing (an early developmental indicator of cognitive empathy) was found to exist in the latter age groups and shown to be higher towards the mother than the examiner, indicating a meaningful relationship that was contextualised by reciprocated prosocial behaviour. These findings increased with age and reflected the development of a closeness/emotional investment between the mother and her child, who in turn internalised the mothers' emotionality to produce prosocial behaviour externally towards their mother.

The prevalence of prosocial acts showed no differences between the children's gender and their twin zygosity. It was found not surprisingly that the majority of children across all age groups displayed more prosocial behaviours towards the mother than the examiner. Prosocial behaviour increased from 14-months (19%) to 36-months (53%). Increases towards the mother were shown to occur from 14 to 20 months.

Genetic and environmental influences upon empathy were found at 14-20 months and there was a similarity between MZ and DZ twins, suggesting that empathy within these ages is more dependent upon shared environment, rather than on genetic factors. However, these environmental influences decreased with age because at 36 months common empathy seemed to be due to genetics. This was especially true towards the examiner but genetics were shown to have almost no effects towards the mother, suggesting a relationship with a shared environment.

The continuity of genetics and environmental effects over time showed that genetic effects appeared at 20 months and then increased at 24-36 months. Therefore, genetics were shown to

effect the change and continuity of empathy. Genetic influences may have also contributed to the variance as from 20 months and onwards its contribution to the unique variance in hypothesis testing were greater than those for empathic concern suggesting a later developmental process. By the latest age group children had progressed from a rudimentary self-differentiation which allowed them to project their own concerns on others, to higher order emotionality - caring about what another feels and how their reactions would be viewed by others. However, differences in the levels of empathic concern towards the mother and examiner were not found. Hypotheses testing and empathetic concern seemed to develop separately as the former increased steadily with age and the latter mainly between the ages of 14-20 months supporting the premise of different developmental stages or trajectories. These findings are supported by neuroscience as the limbic and paralimbic systems of the brain more relevant to the affective components of empathy develop before the prefrontal or temporal cortices which are relevant to the cognitive aspect of empathy (i.e. hypothesis testing, Singer, 2006).

Environmental effects of a shared environment appeared by 14 months but decreased with age, which indicated that an environmental continuity weakened with age as none shared environmental effects loaded on a single factor and did not support continuity. At 24-months both prosocial behaviour and empathy showed an element of heritability. At 20-months shared environment was shown to have a significant effect on prosocial behaviour.

Overall this study found support for an empathetic tendency across the ages and a specific component of cognitive empathy steadily increasing with age (i.e. hypotheses testing) and moderate support for an overall empathy disposition. However, it found greater support for overall empathy than it did for a single or two dimensional index measure, supporting the rationale that empathy is a multifaceted construct of at least two dimensions (cognitive & affective) which may have a relationship with other factors such as genetics, social context, modality response (cognitive vs. affective) and developmental stages.

(iii) Are there Heritability Characteristics of Dispositional Empathy in Adolescents?

Davis, Luce and Kraus (1994) investigated the heritability of characteristics associated with dispositional empathy components (empathetic concern, personal distress and perspective taking) in 800 sets of high-school senior aged twins. Results showed that the emotional constructs of empathetic concern and personal distress had greater MZ/DZ differences than the cognitive construct perspective taking. This finding supports the rationale that a phenotypic variation is only characteristic within dispositional effects of affective and not for the cognitive components of empathy. Davis et al. (1994) suggested that this difference may be due to two factors. Firstly, because cognitive empathy is not generally associated with a strong emotional response (i.e. sympathy or self/personal distress) it is therefore not as dependent upon emotional temperament. Secondly temperamental emotionality may have a genetic/environmental underpinning as chronic role-taking tendencies which help to develop perspective taking may also be created by the individual's environment whereby they are encouraged to use their understanding of another's perspective or viewpoint.

The next section suggests that empathy research demonstrates stereotypical perceptions towards sex roles. It argues that empathy tasks are more reliant upon problem-solving than empathy skills per se, which detrimentally influence and effect the results found.

(iii) Do Sex-Role Stereotypes Affect Childrens Responses?

Hoffman and Levine (1976) argued that there is a prevailing sex role stereotype which suggests that females respond more emotionally to external factors than males. Hoffman and Levine (1976), using Feshbach's and Roes Empathy Measure, aimed to investigate whether or not this gender difference was dependent upon a deficiency in males contingent upon them having a difference within their interpersonal orientation (i.e. they are more instrumental or agentic within their approach than females e.g. Baken, 1966). Hoffman and Levine argued that because generally empathy tasks could be viewed as being reliant upon problem solving rather than upon an empathic response, all gender protocol were removed, and two independent coders were used within scenarios. They found that 4-year old boys (30% of the boys in comparison to only 5% of girls) provided at least one problem solving response. These results suggested that boys generally tended to rely upon more alternative solutions, than the girls. They argued that

such differences may be dependent upon the instructions provided within their study because the children were not asked to problem solve, but to describe how they felt within the interpersonal transactions. However, in contrast to other findings, which have generally found that girls have greater verbal fluency or language comprehension, boys were found to be as accurate in their descriptions emotionally of how they felt towards the pictured child, as females. This suggested that there was a lack of gender differences in the task as well as within the language comprehension. Therefore, they concluded that these results indicate that there are no cognitive differences between either genders ability to judge another individual's feelings under various situations.

Summary of Developmental Trends

The developmental trends suggested that empathy related responses can occur from the age of 10-months upwards. Affective empathy related reasoning (i.e. approval orientated, stereotyped, direct reciprocity and sympathy) has been shown to increase with age. Gender differences have found that between 14 to 20-months girls demonstrate higher empathetic concern, prosocial behaviour than boys, which seem to have more of a relationship with environmental factors. However, at 36-months genetic contributors have been shown to account for the differing trajectories of empathy development. Stereotypical factors in 4-year olds have been proposed to affect empathy, as have gender differences in the types of response used (i.e. girls use empathic responses while boys use problem solving responses). In middle childhood empathy seems to be higher towards same gender peers (again especially in girls). At this age factors such as social comprehension and the ability to recognise the emotions of others seem to be a prerequisite of empathy development.

Generally, the above research suggests that empathy is a multifaceted construct which has at least two components (cognitive and affective). There are clear trajectories in the development of empathy which increases steadily from 14 -20 months. While Roth-Hanania et al. (2011) argue that it is a stable dispositional trait which can be seen before the age of two years of age, Davis et al. (1994) have argued that in adolescents this is only true within the affective but not cognitive components of empathy. This may be because there is a stronger link for a genetic contribution for the affective component of empathy because it is generally dependent upon emotional temperament. Conversely cognitive components of empathy are dependent upon factors such as perspective taking which are not emotionally based. Overall factors such as the

child's environment, social context, temperament, brain chemistry and neuro-hormonal maturation have been linked to individual differences in empathy levels and prosocial behaviour.

This chapter will now review research which has focused upon children's morality and its relationship with two-dimensional empathy. Morality can be defined as a generally a human phenomenon which incorporates intensely personal sentiments with impersonal standards which are fundamental and crucial for collective social living (Damon, 1978). Morality is used normatively to refer to a code of conduct that, given specified conditions, would be put forward by all rational persons.

(5) Morality and Social Judgement

(i) Piaget: Moral Judgments in Children

Piaget (1932) made pioneering observations of moral judgments in children, where he initially observed the rules that boys and later girls, used when engaging in games. He distinguished three stages within the children's awareness of rules, which up until four to five years of age, are not actually understood and the child is only able to make pre-moral judgements. The next stage (between the ages of 5-9 years) is based upon moral realism, which is a morality founded upon respect of adults and the rules incorporated and developed by this adult authority. At this stage of development, the child's rules are fixed and based upon a black and white concept which is unalterable. The third stage which develops in later childhood (after 9-10 years of age) is moral subjectivism which is an autonomous morality of co-operation. This developmental progression is founded upon the older child's ability to progress from egocentrism to perspectivism, which is shown by a progression from only a one-way relationship with adult constraint to an interaction between reciprocal mutual respect amongst their peer group and societal rules.

While Piaget's moral judgment theory has been very influential especially in providing a rationale for the basis of children's moral reasoning, it has been criticised because his methods place high memory demands on children (Kail, 1990; in Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2003). Additionally, his work has been criticised for containing methodological flaws in his construction of stages because he asked children (older than 5 years of age) to contrast intent

and accidental damage when younger children at the age of five years of age have been shown to able to judge intent. Furthermore, young children have been shown not to have monolithic conceptions of rules as constraints, suggesting they are able to judge behaviour that violates purely social commentaries and those which violate moral ones.

Smetana (1981; in Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2003) found that young children (4-5 years of age) were able to make a conceptual distinction between social conventional and moral transgressions showing that they have the developmental understanding to be able to make a distinction that moral transgressions are a more serious offence and more deserving of punishment than social conventional ones. Smetana (1993; in Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2003) found that girls as young as three-years of age (but not boys) were able to make the distinction that actual moral transgressions are more independent of the rules than conventional ones, indicating a possible developmental difference between genders in the understanding of morality which was shown to have occurred at a younger age group than was proposed by Piaget.

(ii) Kohlberg: Moral Judgment in Children and Adults and their Concern to Avoid Punishment

Kohlberg (1981) agreed with Piaget's rationales of children's moral reasoning being characterised by a punishment and obedience orientation, but he argued that Piaget had mischaracterised their thinking because he believed that young children expressed their morality by an expedient concern to avoid punishment. Kohlberg's (1981) construct moved progressively through a series of 6 levels which start at the pre-conventional morality stage, where the child's moral judgment is at a stage one defined by punishment or obedience which are set by the cultural rules of what are seen as right or wrong. At this stage the child has a punishment and obedience (a law and order) orientation whereby the physical consequences of a child's actions determine whether behaviour is right or wrong. At this level avoidance of punishment results in the child not questioning morality and is solely based upon adult power. At stage two of level one the instrumental relativist orientation, (which is defined by individualism and exchange) the right actions are instrumental to the satisfaction of an individual needs and occasionally the needs of others which are based upon a reciprocal relationship. At level two conventional

moralities is now based on the maintenance of the expectation of the child's family, group or society based upon loyalty and identification.

At stage three the interpersonal concordance of good boy, nice girl orientation (Duska & Whelan, 1978) (i.e. maintaining social order) which is founded upon good behaviour that pleases and is approved of by others therefore a child earns this approval by being 'nice'. At stage four, the law and order orientation there is an orientation towards authority and its fixed rules of right behaviour which is now judged by showing respect for societal order. The individual now progresses to the post-conventional autonomous or principled level where effort is consistent with moral values and principles which are not solely dependent upon authority. At stage five, the social-contrast legalistic orientation has utilitarian overtones where right actions are based and judged upon an individual's rights within the constructs which have been examined and agreed upon by society. At this stage there is now a distinct awareness of the relativism of personal values and opinions and a corresponding emphasis upon procedural rules for reaching consensus (Duska & Whelan, 1978). By stage six the individual has developed to the universal ethical principle orientation which is based upon abstract ethical rather than a concrete principle with an underlying emphasis on the principles of justice, reciprocity, equality and the respect of the individual. However, stage six was later excluded by Kohlberg with his colleagues (Colb, Kohlberg, Gibbs & Lieberman, 1983) because they were unable to draw out stage six broader conceptions of justice and individual rights. Therefore, scoring of all post conventional responses has been scored at stage five.

(iii) Criticism of Kohlberg; Gilligan (1982) In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development.

Gilligan (1982) argued that Kohlberg's (1981) theory had a gender bias and is androcentric as it only reflects male morality and fails to include the perspectives of women. Within her study of young women attending abortion-and pregnancy-counselling services, she found that when women are faced with a real moral dilemma they did it differently than Kohlberg's justice orientation (which is based upon abstract principled judgements) because they focused more on responsibility which was based on rationality. Such rationality was found to be context dependent and based upon concern for the impact of their behaviour on other people's feelings (Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2003).

(6) Moral Development and the Distinction between Empathy and Sympathy

Eisenberg, Shell, Pasternack, Lennon, Beller and Mathy (1987) examined prosocial development (the interrelations between moral judgements and affect (empathy) and behaviour in middle childhood) starting at reception to fourth graders (five to nine years of age). Their results were consistent with Kohlberg's (1984) moral reasoning; hedonistic reasoning and needs-orientated decreased with age while more complex modes of reasoning such as approval orientated, stereotypical, directed reciprocity, role-taking, sympathetic and positive affect increased with age.

Gender differences were found in methods of moral reasoning such as role taking or empathy which increased in girls in early adolescents but not in boys. Additionally, empathy was positively correlated to needs orientated judgements and higher level prosocial methods of reasoning. Conversely it was negatively correlated to more simplistic methods of moral reasoning such as hedonistic reasoning. Empathy was correlated to costlier acts of donating in the 11-12 year olds but not in the younger age group of 9-10 year olds. Sharing behaviour was negatively correlated to hedonistic reasoning. This suggests that there was a relationship between moral judgement and prosocial behaviour, as prosocial behaviour only occurred when it was likely to involve moral conflict. The level and mode of prosocial moral judgment increased with age suggesting a relationship between moral trajectories of sympathetic reasoning that was founded on prosocial values. Overall this study found that prosocial moral judgements and empathetic response generally tended to be interrelated. Furthermore, Eisenberg, Shell, et al. (1987) proposed that empathy and sympathy can affect behaviour directly while also indirectly affecting moral cognitions.

Eisenberg et al. (1994) argued that pure empathy is not always "other" orientated. They proposed that an empathetic response produces sympathy, the feeling of sorrow or concern which is developed from the perception of another's emotional state or well-being and that empathy and sympathy are intertwined in their relationship with prosocial behaviour and that empathy can also produce an egoistic reaction (i.e. personal distress).

Generally, the research above has indicated that there is a relationship between moral judgments, empathy and prosocial development. While gender differences have been found,

factors such as a stereotypical gender inappropriateness distinction have been proposed to influence displaying certain empathic and/ or sympathetic behaviours (i.e. Eisenberg et al. 1988). Additionally, increases in age have been shown to have an effect on socially desirable responses which are indicative towards displaying positive rather than negative affect which are especially true in adulthood. Overall this research suggests that empathy and sympathy are entwined and can result in either a display of personal distress (i.e. an egocentric response) or as a prosocial response depending upon the individual's perception of the situation and socially desirable responses resulting in a suppression of expressed affect.

Summary of Empathy Dimensions

Overall the above psychologists support this thesis rationale that empathy works as an at least two-dimensional construct. Models of development have proposed that there are different types of mechanisms that work predominately from a biological preparedness which is hardwired. Again within the prosocial development of empathy evidence suggests it is a multi-dimensional construct which has at least two-components (i.e. affective and cognitive). Empathy has been shown to increase steadily from the age of two and has been suggested to be a stable dispositional trait. Nevertheless, it has been shown to be measurable at a younger age too (between 10-16 months). Affective empathy has been purported to have stronger links with genetics than cognitive empathy, because it is more dependent upon emotionality and temperament. Factors such as a child's environment, social context, temperament, brain chemistry and neurohormonal maturation have been linked to individual differences in empathy levels and its relationship with prosocial behaviour.

Conclusion of Empathy Dimensions

Developmental trends support the hypothesis that empathy is at least two-dimensional. Empathy has been shown to increase with age suggesting that the youngest age-group (7 years) within Study One and Two have levels of empathy that can be successfully measured. However, research (Hoffman & Levine, 1976) argued that gender empathy variations do not differ but are affected by stereotypical perceptions and the task methodology. Therefore, it is important within Study One to investigate if gender based differences, which are not stereotypically based are still as apparent within the CAES-C.

The nature vs. nurture debate suggests that affective empathy has a greater genetic component that cognitive. However anti-bullying interventions such as the SGM (Robinson, & Maines, 2007) have demonstrated that affective empathy can be enhanced, a hypothesis that will be tested in Study Four. This thesis argues that while affective empathy may have a genetic component it can also be enhanced through anti-bullying intervention such as the SGM's.

Empathy and sympathy has been proposed to be entwined (Eisenberg et al. 1988). However, this thesis argues that empathy is a distinct component from sympathy and such comparison are dependent upon skewed definitions. Therefore, it is fundamental that a concise and consistent definition of two-dimensional empathy is used throughout this thesis. The next chapter will investigate how psychologists have defined empathy and the methods that have predominately been used to measure empathy levels in children, adolescents and adult samples. Such examination will lead to a clear two-dimensional definition of empathy, enabling empathy to be measured effectively as a distinct construct from sympathy.

Chapter Two: How has Empathy Been Measured?

This chapter will address how psychologists have attempted to measure empathy using the self-report methodology of questionnaires. Predominately self-report methodology will be used within this thesis because of ethical considerations regarding a younger age group (7-11 years of age) as peer-reporting could cause them distress. Consequently, this chapter will focus upon the various definitions used by researchers; affective, cognitive and two-dimensional empathy. The next section will examine how such definitions have been used to develop empathy questionnaires. Finally, this chapter will focus upon the development of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children (CAES-C). This thesis will also use teaching reports as a link between the outsider role and sociometric status have not found using the traditional method of nomination (self-nomination), but shown in rating-based methodology (see Goossens, Olthof & Dekker, 2006).

As described in Chapter One, several authors (e.g. Blair, 1995, 1997) have suggested that other types of empathy are incorporated within global empathy, while others have proposed that it has either one or two major components (i.e. two dimensional); cognitive and affective. These definitions will now be considered individually and when appropriate, jointly. Firstly, affective empathy definitions will be evaluated to investigate whether or not psychologists who have studied empathy specifically in regards to self-reporting methods have come upon an agreed understanding of an individual's understanding of another's emotional feelings.

(1) Affective Empathy Definitions

Mehrabian and Epstein (1972, p.526) proposed that affective (or as they termed it emotional) empathy is *"A heightened responsiveness to another's emotional experience".*

Bryant (1982) defined affective empathy as "a vicarious emotional response to the perceived emotional experiences of others", which like Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) placed emphasis on sharing the emotional responsiveness of another, rather than on the child's actual cognitive insight. Bryant (1982) proposed that groups of children who have high levels of affective empathy are able to share the feelings of all other children (especially with those who have been negatively evaluated by other peers).

Eisenberg and Miller (1987) stated that affective empathy is *"An affective state that stems from the apprehension of another's emotional state or condition, and that is congruent with it"* (p.91) Eisenberg et al (1998) accept that empathy does incorporate a cognitive process, i.e. identifying another's emotions (e.g. Feshbach,1978), but they argue that it is fundamental to differentiate empathy from cognitive perspective taking (a process in which an individual tries to understand others internal states and thoughts by cognitively placing himself or herself in another person's situation) (Eisenberg et al. 1998, p.507) and other cognitive processes, because such responses also involve an emotional response. While perspective taking may at times "engender empathy" it is not identical. Eisenberg and Fabes (1992; 1994) stated that there is a fundamental aspect of emotionality which is specific to empathy-related responding, namely dispositional emotional intensity (a stable individual difference deciphered by how an individual experiences emotionality, which are measured by the individual's tendency, and frequency to experience positive and/or negative emotions).

The authors above have a general agreement as to what defines affective empathy because they propose that it occurs when an individual has an emotional response to another's distress or emotions - they feel the emotions of another.

(2) Cognitive Empathy Definitions

After examining the use of affective empathy it is now necessary to discuss the ways that theorists who have constructed questionnaires have defined cognitive empathy.

Hogan's (1969) Empathy scale (HES) defined cognitive empathy as;
 "The intellectual or imaginative apprehension of another's state of mind without actually experiencing that person's feelings" (p.308).

Schultz, Izard and Bear (2004) defined cognitive empathy as when children are able to cognitively understand 'the emotional signals (states)' of others.

Again there is an agreement from these authors as to what specifically defines cognitive empathy because both definitions state that it is the understanding of another's emotional state without actually sharing this emotional feeling.

Davis (1994) proposed that two factors of empathy can be defined as 'empathic mimicry'; which is when a person observes distress in another, they automatically share that person's emotive response; and 'empathic concern' which is when a person takes the perspective of another and sympathises with them.

As the above definitions indicate psychologists have used several measures to tap into cognitive and affective empathy. These will now be considered, focusing on the most dominant self-rating method, i.e. questionnaires, specifically in regards to the relationship between empathy and prosocial/antisocial behaviour.

(3) Questionnaires that Measure Affective Empathy

(i) Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy (QMEE)

Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) aim was to measure empathy under two distinctly different social situations. They hypothesised that individuals who have high levels of affective empathy would be less likely to participate in anti-social behaviours such as aggression and in contrast, be more likely to engage in helping behaviours. Their Questionnaire Measure of Emotional Empathy (QMEE) explored affective empathy, under two differential social situations involving aggression and/or helping behaviour. The questionnaire has thirty-three inter-correlated items which measure related aspects of emotional empathy. The authors rated male and female university student participant's empathic responses on the following subscales, using a four point Likert scale: susceptibility to emotional contagion, appreciation of the feelings of unfamiliar and distant others, extreme emotional responsiveness, the tendency to be moved by others' positive emotional experiences, the tendency to be moved by others' negative emotional experiences, sympathetic tendency, and finally the willingness to be a contact with others who have problems. The aggressive scenario (which only used female participants) involved behaviour towards a slow female learning student, which was measured by the student's aggressiveness or empathic tendency under two conditions (immediate and non-immediate responses of the victim) when administering electric shocks (a replication of Milgram's 1965 study). Helping behaviour was examined, using a study which consisted of a scenario of the similarity of the victim (who was a female requiring help and assistance) to the participant.

Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) found that a high level of empathy per se was not a sufficient factor for inhibiting aggression, but when empathy was combined with immediacy of the victim and their moderately negative cues, high affective empathy individuals showed less aggression towards the victim. However, it should be noted that these cues were not verbal and did not provide a feedback manipulation, as in Milgram's original study, which may have produced a weaker effect for the helping behaviour. This study also indicated that males who had lower levels of empathy, showed higher levels of aggression in the immediacy conditions than females, suggesting a gender difference both in levels of aggression and empathy. They found that factors such as a dissimilarity to the person requiring help, were not an important factor (as they had hypothesized it would be) for hindering helping behaviour. In contrast high levels of affective empathy in females were found to be related to helping behaviour; as illustrated by comments from several of the participants who stated that "*She wasn't like me, but that wasn't important",* (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972, p.14). Overall they argued that their results indicated "That empathic individuals are emotionally responsive to others needs" (Mehrabian & Epstein 1972, p.16). Age differences were not investigated within this study because all of the participants were young adults.

Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) study provided important findings which indicated that dissimilarity and high empathy were not sufficient factors to inhibit aggression per se unless the individual had close immediacy with the victim. It found gender differences as females displayed higher levels of empathy within these situations than males and higher levels of helping behaviour. However, as it only focused on a young adult population, it is now important to look at on affective empathy measures that are specifically targeted at a younger age-group - children and adolescents.

(ii) Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents

The Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents (IECA, Bryant 1982) is an affective empathy measure which was specifically designed for a younger age group. This 22-item index was adapted using sixteen items from Mehrabian and Epstein's QMEE (1972) which were re-worded so that they were age-appropriate. Additionally four of Mehrabian and Epstein's QMEE (1972) original question items were adapted to be either a designated male or a parallel female stimulus, to provide a foundation for discrimination amongst children (i.e. between children who are empathic across genders as well as being empathic to their own gender).The fifth

original item created two new items; one an affirmative response indicating an empathic response, and in contrast the other item, a negative response, indicating an empathic response. The Likert scale for school-aged children 11 and under, provided an either yes or no format, for older adolescent age groups Bryant used a 9-point scale, which was also used by Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) (i.e. - 4 {not at all like me} to + 4 {very much like me}. Negative items were reversed scored and all of the items were summed to obtain an overall empathy scale score.

Bryant's (1982) research on first to seven graders (5-11 years of age) showed, as did Mehrabian and Epstein (1972), that females expressed greater overall levels of empathy in their vicarious affective responses in comparison to males. Additionally, very low levels of empathy were found between opposite sex peers, which may indicate that social normative behaviours (i.e. children generally play with same gender peers, in middle childhood) may have an effect on levels of affective empathy.

Males were found to decrease in their levels of empathy for same gender peers as their age increased. Conversely females increased their levels of empathy towards same gender peers as they matured with age. Such evidence indicates that affective empathy may increase with age for females but conversely decrease in males. Bryant (1982) suggested that adolescent males may fear showing affective empathy because they have a fragile sexual identity or are apprehensive of social rejection. Furthermore, age was positively correlated with levels of affective empathy in grade seven children, who demonstrated higher empathic scores in comparison to their younger peers (years one to year four) which indicates that empathy levels increase with age from fifth grade upwards.

(iii) The Internal Structure of Bryant's IECA

de Weid et al. (2007) in the Netherlands, examined the internal structure of Bryant's IECA (1982) on a large sample of third to eighth grade pupils (six to twelve years of age), in three studies. All of the children were given the original 22-item questionnaire, and a condensed adaptation of the IECA, which was constructed from 12-items. Exploratory Factor analysis conducted on the dichotomous data found that rather than Bryant's IECA (1982) measuring a single factor of affective empathy, two dimensions were indicated in the loadings. The two sub-scales were defined as empathic sadness and reflecting attitudes which loaded on a seven item (empathic sadness) and five items scale (reflecting attitudes). Moreover, results of this 12-item scale demonstrated that for the empathic sadness dimension girls showed higher levels of

empathy than boys. However, the second factor, reflecting attitudes showed a weaker reliability and poor differentiation between the sexes in the younger sample (third, fourth and sixth graders, six to 10 year olds).

de Weid et al. (2007) argued that their results show that Bryant's (1982) IECA is not as homogeneous and valid as was originally represented by Bryant (1982), and that their study "seriously challenges" (p.103) the overall validity of the IECA and that further investigation is needed to improve its validity. They proposed that their 7-item scale, of empathic sadness is a more homogenous measure but should be expanded upon as it is not a broad enough measure of affective empathy. However, they stated that it does contain a fundamental part of affective empathy i.e. the responsiveness to another individual's sadness. Finally, they argued that the IECA is multidimensional rather than one-dimensional as their analysis showed two distinct subscales, suggesting support for the premise that empathy has at least two components, - cognitive and affective.

(iv) The Empathic Responsiveness Questionnaire (ERQ)

Olweus and Endresen (1998) investigated 2286 children (1193 boys and 1093 girls) from grades six-nine (11-15 year olds) in a large-scale cohort-longitudinal study. Their ERQ consists of 12 items with a Likert scale from "*does not apply*" which scores 1 to *"applies exactly"* which scores 6 (i.e. high scores indicating a high empathic response). Olweus and Endresen's (1998) focus was pupils' responses to problems regarding bullying and victimisation, so several of the items focused on the gender of the pupil in distress (either a boy or a girl) using Davies' (1980, 1994) Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI see later in Chapter Two for further expansion) dimension of empathic concern. A modification of Bryant's (1982) IECA was used in four sets of items using identical wording, other than the stimuli was a boy in one set and a girl in the other. In contrast to Bryant's (1982) study whereby many of her questions focused on an emotional distress reaction such as crying, only two items of this nature were used, as this emotional response was maybe viewed by the boys as being an inappropriate reaction and response for their gender. A Principal Component Analyses of the questionnaire items, conducted on boys and girls separately, produced a 12-item Responsiveness Questionnaire which had three sub-scales; the empathic distress scale, reflecting personal distress, and empathic concern (a sympathetic reaction) towards girls and boys separately (to make three scales in all) and empathic responsiveness. Olweus and Endresen (1998) argued that it is

important to have separate gender scales because there are fundamental sex differences between boys and girls in empathy levels.

Olweus and Endresen's (1998) research found a highly marked difference by gender of the respondent, whereby all the children showed a higher empathic response towards girls. Additionally, empathic response and empathic distress were found to be higher in girls and increased with their age. When grades eight and nine (13-15 year olds) were combined, 97% of the most empathic participants were found to be girls but in contrast 97% of the boys were shown to have low levels of empathic concern. However, in the lower grades (six-seven, 11-13 year olds) there was a percentage decrease for girls in the most empathic groups falling from 97% to 76% and only a slight decrease in boys from 97% to 95%. Additionally, both boys and girls were found to be more empathic towards a girl in distress than a boy. Olweus and Endresen (1998) stated that while their findings did reflect real gender differences in empathic responsiveness, they maybe to some extent dependent upon a social desirability explanation or a demand characteristic bias specific to how the child would like to be perceived by others. However, they argued that such an explanation would only be of very limited help in explaining such a complex and distinct pattern which they found in their study. They concluded that girl's empathic responsiveness increases from the age 10 upwards up until at least the age of 16 years, towards both genders. Conversely an opposite pattern was found in boys towards same-sex stimulus it decreased, but in accordance to girls was shown to display more empathy towards girls in distress. Olweus and Endresen (1998) suggested this may be partly dependent upon a growing attractiveness towards the opposite sex and competition towards their same sex peers. Additionally, girls showed straightforward development, displaying an increase of empathic concern towards both genders. Boys, whilst following similar patterns of developmental trajectories towards girls as a stimulus, showed a decreasing trend towards other boys. Olweus and Endresen (1998) argued that generally the sex-of-stimulus has not really been considered as important in past research investigating empathy.

(v) Comments on the Concordance of Olweus and Endresen's ERQ with Bryant's Findings in Regards to Gender and Age

Olweus and Endresen's (1998) findings were generally in concordance to Bryant's (1982), and indicated that empathic concern for other children's distress in girls steadily increased, from ten years to sixteen years. However, in boys, empathic concern was found to be dependent upon the

sex of the stimulus, with empathic concern increasing towards girls but decreasing towards boys. This trend was found to be more prominent from the age of thirteen and upwards. Additionally, fourth grade children (9-10 years of age) in both genders groups showed higher empathic concern towards same sex peers. Moreover, they stated that they had provided a general equivalent of Bryant's IECA (1982) dimensions which allowed a sex-of-stimulus differentiation.

However, Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) have argued that Endresen and Olweus's ERQ (1998, 2002) may have some overlap with their measure of bullying and affective empathy (i.e. they may have measured the same underlying construct of bullying rather than its correlation with affective empathy) which would have had fundamental implications for the interpretation of their results and whether or not the ERQ actually measures the construct that it reports to (i.e. affective empathy).

(4) Cognitive Measures of Empathy

After examining measures of affective empathy it is now necessary to examine measures of cognitive empathy, and the relationship between levels of cognitive empathy and bullying.

(i) Hogan's Empathy Scale

Hogan (1969) developed and validated his Empathy Scale (the Hogan Empathy Scale, HES), a 64-item self-report empathy measure (which distinguished high and low empathy groups), on an adult population (psychologists, undergraduate students, research scientists and military officers). He investigated two questions; firstly, to what degree do empathy scores reflect an empathic disposition; and secondly, do highly empathic individuals adopt the moral view point (show higher morality) more than individuals who have lower levels of empathy?

Hogan (1969) found in response to his first question (to what degree do empathy scores reflect an empathic disposition), that a high score on levels of empathy did indicate higher levels of sensitivity towards others within their interpersonal behaviours and that low scorers in contrast, were indicative of hostile, cold and insensitivity towards others. However, he found that his second question (do highly empathic individuals adopt the moral point of view more than low empathic ones) was rather more difficult to answer because by the nature of its construct it

involved pinpointing behaviour that adopts the moral viewpoint which was very difficult to recognise and evaluate. Therefore, he concluded that his empathy scale did indicate that cognitive empathy is one fundamental requirement for taking the moral point of view.

Hogan's (1969) HES is an important measure of cognitive empathy, which has indicated that higher levels of cognitive empathy equate to greater sensitivity in interpersonal behaviours and a greater ability to be able to take a moral viewpoint. However, this thesis aims to focus on children rather than adults, so the next measure is an important one because it is a more specific and tested tool which has focused on measuring children's cognitive empathy.

(ii) Assessment of Children's Emotional Skills (ACES)

A cognitive questionnaire which focuses upon children was developed by Schultz, Izard and Bear (2004) and is called the Assessment of Children's Emotional Skills (ACES). This is a behavioural questionnaire that works on the premise that children are able to cognitively understand the emotional signals (states) of others. The questionnaire measures how accurate or biased a child is at perceiving the emotional signals of another. Schultz et al. (2004) proposed that the ACES enables cognitive empathy to be examined because the questions involve evaluating the cognitive emotional behaviours of others. They stated that emotionality has a positive relationship with cognitive empathy and social cognitive development. Schultz et al.'s (2004) research focused on children's abilities to interpret social information (specifically cognitive empathy) and its relationship with aggression.

Schultz et al. (2004) found that in first to second grade pupils (6 to 7 year olds), those children who experienced greater levels of happiness and interest from others exhibited greater empathic and pro-social behaviours, in comparison to children who had negative emotional experiences who were more likely to engage in angry and aggressive responses. Happier children were able to correctly attribute the emotions of others with a greater level of accuracy and show superior levels of empathy. Aggressive children generally perceived others as angry, mean and hostile and so displayed lower levels of cognitive empathy towards them. Their results indicated that happy children firstly participate in friendly interactions more often than aggressive children, and that by placing themselves in pro-social situations; they are able to learn from other's emotional cues which aid them in future social interactions.

Boys were rated as being angrier than girls both by teachers and peers. Girls were found to have greater levels of emotionality than boys. Significant gender differences were not found or seemed to appear in other emotional scales, in emotionality biases or empathy. However slight gender differences were found in the relationship between emotional processing and aggression, which correlated for both genders but was shown to be a stronger indicator for girls. Girls demonstrating deficits in a single emotion processing intensified the likelihood of an aggressive tendency; conversely boys required two or more deficits in these emotional domains. This finding suggests support for the premise that girls are more emotional focused than boys, which in turn leads to conflicts within their peer interactions.

Levels of emotion processing risk in boys only were found to have a main effect on aggression. The older children in this study were shown to have greater attribution accuracy than their younger counterparts in grade one. However, children's age did not have a relationship with emotionality indices, emotion attribution bias, empathy, or aggression.

Schultz et al. (2004) argued that factors such as the development of informational bias corresponded with aggressive behaviours, which resulted in aggressive interactions. Therefore, how children perceive their emotional experiences may have an effect on their developmental trajectories.

Overall Schultz et al. (2004) found that emotionality such as happiness had a relationship with empathic accuracy and pro-social behaviour. A negative relationship was found for negative emotions such as anger and aggression. Gender differences were found as girls were shown to have greater levels of emotion attribution than boys. Emotional processing was found to have a relationship to conflict especially in girls and emotional processing risk in males. Finally, older children were found to have greater attribution accuracy than younger children.

While the above scales mentioned above measure either one level of empathy (i.e. cognitive or affective) my thesis argues that an integrated approach is needed which measures actual global empathy (i.e. cognitive and affective) because integration total empathy scores provides a greater understanding of prosocial and antisocial behaviours. This thesis argues that combined global empathy measures allow continuity between Likert scoring, providing a homogenous tool. Therefore, the next section will review global empathy measures that correspond to a two-dimensional rationale.

(5) Two-dimensional Empathy Measures

(i) The Interpersonal Reactivity Index, (IRI)

Davis (1980) developed the Interpersonal Reactivity Index, (IRI) in an attempt to measure individual differences in both cognitive and affective empathy. This measure had 28-items, divided into four subscales; two were cognitive empathy scales: Perspective taking (PT), the ability to take a psychological view of others; and Fantasy Scale (FS), the ability to invent imaginatively into the feelings of fictitious stimuli (e.g. books, films). The emotional reactions of an individual were measured by two further scales; Empathic Concern (EC) measuring other-oriented feelings (i.e. of sympathy and concern); and Personal Distress (PD), measuring self-orientated feelings of anxiety in interpersonal situations.

Davis' (1980) validation of his scale on undergraduate students supported the rationale of multidimensional empathy. The PT scale showed a correlation with greater interpersonal functioning, and higher levels of self-esteem. In contrast EC displayed a distinct relationship to emotional empathy and other-oriented sensitivity but no correlations with self-esteem or social competence. Moreover, the PD scale also showed a correlation with interpersonal relationships. The PT scale showed that social competence and self-esteem were negatively correlated with high levels of personal distress and emotional vulnerability. The FS showed comparable patterns to the EC scale but in addition displayed a strong correlation with verbal intelligence and conversely lower levels of other-oriented sensitivity.

Davis (1980) found that the "cognitive" PT scale was highly correlated with Hogan's (1969) **"***Cognitive"* Empathy Scale (HES). An opposite pattern was found with the PD **a**nd EC scale in that they were highly correlated to Mehrabian and Epstein's (1972) "affective" empathy measure.

Additionally, Davis (1980) found no real gender differences in PT as both genders high scores were correlated with self-esteem less self-reported nervousness, anxiety and insecurity. Conversely FS was found not to be related to social functioning in females and to be related in males only to shyness, loneliness and social anxiety. Davis' (1980) results suggested that fantasisers demonstrated a greater ability or tendency to be able to be more sympathetic and sensitive towards other, a finding which was emphasised slightly for the males. EC low scores

were found to be slightly prone to levels of anxiety and shyness and therefore indicated higher levels of emotional vulnerability. High scorers displayed desirable interpersonal styles (i.e. emotionality and non-selfishness towards others). Overall within this construct no overall gender differences were found. PD low scorers were associated with lower levels of self-esteem and poor interpersonal skills (i.e. shyness and social anxiety). Additionally, it was found to be associated with a specific emotional collection of vulnerability, uncertainty and fearfulness. Again no gender differences were found. Finally, as the participants within this study were all adults, age was not analysed as a factor.

Davis's (1980) IRI component PT was correlated with self-esteem. FS were shown to be related to social functioning in females and shyness, loneliness and social anxiety in boys. Conversely high levels of EC were shown to be related to positive emotionality and non-selfishness. PD was associated with low self-esteem and poor interpersonal skills and vulnerability. Therefore, overall Davis (1980) found support for the premise that empathy is a two-dimensional (cognitive and affective) rather than just a one dimensional construct.

(ii) The Basic Empathy Scale for Adolescents

Jolliffe and Farrington (2006) developed the Basic Empathy Scale (BES) to address two-dimensional empathy. The forty item BES was aimed at adolescents, and its validation was conducted originally with 363 English adolescents from year 10. One year later the scale was reduced by factor analysis from 40 items to 20, and Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) gave the BES to a further 357 different Year 10 children. The BES consists of 11 affective empathy items (which assessed emotion congruence) and 8 cognitive empathy items (which assessed understanding of another's emotions). Emotive words e.g. "*feeling sorry for another*" were avoided because Jolliffe and Farrington (2006) argued that they are value laden. The items were based around four of the five basic emotions i.e. fear, sadness, anger and happiness. An example of one of the cognitive questions is "*I often understand how people are feeling even before they tell me*" and the mirrored question for affective empathy is *"I get caught up in other people's feelings easily"*.

Jolliffe and Farrington's (2006) results showed that females scored higher on all levels of empathy. Those who helped others (e.g. defenders) also demonstrated high levels of total empathy in comparison to their peers. Jolliffe and Farrington's study made an important finding indicating that cognitive empathy in all bullying categories does not seem to be deficient in

comparison to non-bullying peers whereas affective empathy does. Jolliffe and Farrington (2006) demonstrated that such defending behaviour was not an insular but a consistent construct.

(iii) Bullying and Two-dimensional Empathy in Adolescents

Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) used the BES (2006) to investigate whether low global empathy is related to bullying, when individual differences and social background variables are controlled (i.e. socioeconomic status, the intactness of the family group, and parental supervision). Their sample was 720 pupils aged thirteen-seventeen years of age. The pupils were given the Verbal Fluency Impulsivity (the Urgency component of the [Lack of] Premeditation, [Lack of] Perseverance, and Sensation seeking (Whiteside and Lynam, 2001); and a self–report Bullying Questionnaire (Whitney & Smith, 1993).

Jolliffe and Farrington's (2011) results found one real statistical significance in the total empathy scores of males, who did not bully, which, were higher in comparison to males in the violent bully group. For both genders differences in cognitive empathy levels were non-significant when comparing all types of bullying (direct and indirect) and non-bullying. Jolliffe and Farrington's (2011) results demonstrated that low affective empathy was independently related to bullying in males in indirect and violent bullying, but not in females as neither cognitive nor affective empathy was independently related to bullying. In contrast high impulsivity in both sexes was found to be related to bullying and low socioeconomic status in females in name calling, indirect and violent bullying.

Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) proposed that anti-bullying interventions that work on an affective empathy enhancing perspective rather than a cognitive one may be useful in reducing bullying in males. Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) argue that a more appropriate anti-bullying intervention would work on the relationship of high impulsivity and bullying like one used in Australia called Stop-Think-Do (Peterson, 1997), where pupils are encouraged to clarify their problems and to consider an appropriate solution to act upon. Jolliffe and Farrington (2011) added that many of the anti-bullying interventions which enhance cognitive empathy (e.g. Olweus, 1993) may not be effective because enhancing solely cognitive empathy (perspective taking) could be used negatively to recruit others or create greater bullying skills such as Theory of Nasty Mind (Sutton, Smith & Swettenham, 1999 see p43). Jolliffe and Farrington's (2011) study made an important finding indicating that cognitive empathy in all bullying categories

does not seem to be deficient in comparison to non-bullying peers whereas affective empathy does. This Suggests that a high degree of emotional recognition facilitates cognitive and low affective empathy but emotional liability is required to induce higher levels of affective empathy.

(iv) Howard's (2006) Study on Bullying and its Relationship with Two-Dimensional Empathy in Children

My unpublished research (Howard, 2006) conducted with 289 English primary school children (154 males and 133 females from year 3-6) investigated bullying and its relationship with total empathy levels. This study used Schultz, Izard and Bear's (2004) the Assessment of Children's Emotional Skills (ACES) to measure cognitive empathy and an adapted version of Bryant's (1982) the Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescence (IECA), which consisted of seven items, to determine the child's empathic emotional response.

The results of my 2006 study were in accordance with Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) who found no differences in levels of cognitive empathy between bullies and peers. The results supported Bryant's (1982) findings that defenders would have high levels of affective empathy because they were able to share the feelings of others, which are seen in their prosocial behaviours towards other peers. Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) also found that in male's direct bullies displayed less levels of total empathy, but conversely only lower levels of affective empathy were found in females who engage in indirect bullying. Because of the small sample size of bullies, this study was unable to examine gender differences. Nonetheless Sutton, Smith and Swettenham (1999) stated that ringleader bullies while having an inflated awareness of perspective abilities may be incapable or unwilling to share such feelings resulting in low levels of affective empathy thus supporting these empirical findings.

An additional possible confounding variable which may have had an effect on the children's answers in the Bryant's revised version of IECA (1983), was that it only gave them a Likert scale of agree or disagree. In my 2006 study a number of children actually ringed both agree/disagree suggesting the need for an extra category. If a sometimes disagree scale was added this might mean that certain children would be less likely to engage in socially desirable answers. This finding suggests that Bryant's IECA (1983) Likert scale provided a skewed response base as it did not provide enough scope for the childrens actual response. Moreover,

certain questions may have been culturally specific (e.g. number seven which stated "I get upset when I see an animal being hurt") because a large number of children in several of the schools had only recently emigrated to England and may have come from farming communities where an animal being hurt may have been interpreted as meaning being slaughtered.

My results (see Table One) supported many of Farrington and Jolliffe's (2005) findings because bullies scored lower in affective empathy than defenders, victims or outsiders; the latter three groups did not differ significantly from each other. Furthermore, like Jolliffe and Farrington (2005), I found little difference in levels of cognitive empathy between bullies and all other peer groups.

Questionnaire	Cognitive Empathy Schultz, Izard and Bear's the Assessment of Children's Emotional Skills ACES (2004)		Affective Empathy Bryant's Index of Empathy IECA (1982)	
Descriptives	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Direct bully (n=10)	9.40	1.58	3.20	1.87
Indirect/relational bully (n=32)	9.34	1.70	4.55	1.76
Mixed bully (Direct/Indirect/ Relational (n=19)	8.16	2.85	4.34	2.37
Common Victim (n=15)	8.60	2.59	6.00	1.20
Victim/bully (n=15)	9.93	1.53	5.20	1.82
Defender (n=40)	9.28	2.15	5.41	1.37
Outsider/bystander (n=146)	8.92	2.25	5.29	1.65
Total n=277	9.03	2.20	5.11	1.75

Table One: Howard's (2006) data on cognitive and affective empathy in young children and its relationship with bullying roles.

In conclusion my (2006) results suggested that Bryant's IECA (1982) was not sensitive enough measure to be able to provide sufficient differentiation between childhood and adolescent empathy development. It also demonstrated that the two empathy questionnaires, Bryant's IECA (1982) and Schultz et.al ACES (2004) scales were not transferable or corresponding within their methods for measuring empathy; as their Likert scales and scoring differed. Therefore, my study supported the premise that a comprehensive two dimensional age specific empathy questionnaire was required as it would allow greater comparisons between two-dimensional empathy (cognitive and affective); enabling its constructs to be measured using an equivalent methodology, Likert scale and scoring criteria.

(v) The Development of the Children's Empathic Attitudes Questionnaire (CEAQ, 2008)

Funk, Fox, Chan and Curtis (2008) developed the Children's Empathic Attitudes Questionnaire (CEAQ, 2008) to measure the empathic attitudes of children and adolescents. They tested the CEAQ using both Classical Test Theory (CTT, Spearmen, 1907, 1913) and the Rasch Model (1960, 1980), which is a model that constructs uni-dimensional measures or rulers, of the person and items which are positioned within the same metric scale. Existing questionnaires - Bryant's IECA (1982) and Davis' Interpersonal Reactivity Index, IRI (1980) - were used to construct a nine item measure. After the initial study in the USA with 728 pupils in the forth to sixth grades (9-11 year olds) this was expanded to a 12-item questionnaire. However, after a second study (on a further 349 children, again in the fourth & sixth grade) using Rasch diagnostics, the CEAQ was expanded to a 16-item version, because the 12-item scale did not provide distinguishable levels of the variable. The CEAQ had a three-point Likert scale of No, Maybe, and Yes.

Funk et al.'s (2008) next study was with 445, fifth to sixth graders (10-11 year olds). It used the original Bryant's 22-item IECA, the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ, Goodman, 2001) and the Crandall Social Desirability Test for Children short form (CSDIC-SF) to evaluate the impact of the socially desirable responses on the CEAQ. The internal consistency reliability of the CEAQ showed a moderate Cronbach's Alpha of .72 and the person reliability (which offers a Rasch estimate, whereby extreme scores are removed from the estimates to provide a more conservative reliable) was .75. The Likert scale was found to be adequate for a meaningful distinction of empathy. Girls scored significantly higher levels of empathy in comparison to boys on the CEAQ. Convergent and divergent validity with Bryant's IECA, the SDQ Prosocial

scale problems score and the Crandall measure was found to be significant and the conduct problem measure of the SDQ was found to have a marginally acceptable correlation. Therefore, Funk et al. (2008) proposed that children can be measured on a distinct continuum ranging from low to high empathy. They concluded by stating that "The CEAQ fills a gap in the measurement of empathy providing a psychometrically strong measure of empathic attitudes which are modifiable knowledge structures that influence behavioural choice" (p.194). They proposed that the CEAQ could be a useful tool in the assessment of children at risk of progressing into anti-social behaviours.

Conclusion of Empathy Questionnaires

Generally, the above studies have indicated that across ages that there are gender differences in levels of empathy. This has ranged from females showing higher levels of affective empathy to higher two-dimensional empathy which have been proposed to increase with age. Olweus and Endresen (1998) showed that both genders were more empathetic towards females than males. Bryant's (1982) research results indicated that age effects empathy with higher empathy levels for younger children.

However, this thesis argues that Bryant's (IECA 1982) emotionally focused empathy questionnaire does not place enough emphasis on children's developmental labile emotionality which suggests that such questionnaires need to be aimed at specific age groups and not at children and adolescents in general. In addition, many of the separate empathy scales may not actually be cross transferable in their construct and scoring. Moreover, a more consistent scale may enable researchers to discover whether or not a relationship exists between the two components of empathy and types of pro-social or antisocial behaviours. Therefore, I argue that the generation of a younger age-specific questionnaire aimed at seven to eleven year olds is needed for a measurement of empathy (e.g. cognitive and affective) specifically for the measurement of a comparison of levels of empathy between types of bullies and their peers. A comprehensive empathy questionnaire will also enable gender to be examined. Furthermore, such a measurement tool may facilitate the development of empathy training based specifically on two-dimensional empathy.

From the studies reviewed within this chapter, the two-dimensional definition for empathy that will be used within my thesis is Jolliffe and Farrington's (2006) definition because it incorporates all the key terminology mentioned; cognitive empathy as; *"The ability to*

understand another's emotional state"; and affective empathy;" *the ability to share the emotional state of another person*".

(6) The Development of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children (CAES-C)

It is important to learn from the construct and internal validity of the empathy scales reviewed above, and to focus on the problems which need to be addressed within the creation of the CAES-C. Aspects such as gender differences, age-specific understanding of basic emotions, use of Likert scale, and the focus of the question items (i.e. gender, younger children, and same age peers/friends) will now be explored independently.

(i) Are there Gender Differences in Empathy Levels?

Maccoby and Jacklin's (1983) reviewed 29 papers and found that there were no sex differences in empathic capabilities which they defined as predominately an affective response. Subsequently Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) reviewed sex differences in affective empathy and other related capacities (affective role-taking and decoding of nonverbal cues). Their review found that the most prominent methods used were either the picture/story technique or self-report measures. Overall they found that sex differences were only generally found when self-report measure were used but very little were deciphered in non-obtrusive measures.

Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) found that past empirical data was rather inconsistent and as stated highly dependent upon the methods used to gather the data. While females favoured self-report methodology, when rating their behaviours and empathetic/and or sympathetic responses, few were found to rate their emotionality towards contrived or hypothetical picture/story measures suggesting this may not be an appropriate empathy measurement to use with females. Additionally, the differences found may be dependent upon the age groups used, as by definition self-report methods can only be used on older children and adults and so are not indicative of developmental differences in younger age groups. Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) argued that conclusions from current empirical research must be circumscribed and tentative as it is rather limited especially within self-report methods.

Eisenberg and Lennon's (1983) review found that self-report measures were greater favoured by females, than males. This indicates that it is vital when investing empathy to use methodology that does not favour one gender over the other as this could skew the results. Also as the majority of the review focused upon one dimension of empathy, affective, it cannot determine overall differences in children's total empathy abilities. It could be argued that a one-dimensional focus is outdated especially in regards to investigating prosocial and antisocial behaviours; so a two-dimensional approach of investigation is required to determine accurate empathy levels.

(ii) Perspective Taking and Empathic Concern in Adolescence: Gender Differences in Developmental Changes

Van der Graaff, Branje, De Wied, Hawk, Van Lier and Meeus (2013) conducted a longitudinal study in the Netherlands, with 214 females and 283 males, which investigated perspective taking (PT, cognitive empathy) and empathetic concern (EC, affective empathy) using the Dutch version of the IRI (Davis, 1980). The IRI was taken over six waves, the first four between 13-16 years of age. The results demonstrated that empathetic concern increased during adolescence. However, in boys EC was shown to have a temporary decline between the ages of 13-16, conversely girl's levels were stable. In accordance to Eisenberg and Lennon (1983) girls had greater levels of PT than their male counterparts, and demonstrated a two-year enhancement in intellectual and social cognitive abilities. Van der Graaff et al's (2013) results were indicative of significant gender differences. Moreover, EC was shown to enhance in early adolescence and PT was strengthened between early and the middle marker years.

Overall the research reviewed above is mixed in its findings (which seem to be dependent upon the methodology used) but generally suggests that while females have been shown to have higher levels of emotional/affective empathy, there are no real differences in cognitive empathy. This suggests that both genders have the ability to understand how another individual is feeling, but that females generally have a greater capacity to actually share that emotion/ feeling (i.e. to feel affective empathy).

(iii) Childrens Age Specific Understanding of Emotions

As the CAES-C is dependent upon the children's understanding of the emotions of others and the child's ability to share that emotion, this section will now consider the developmental age at which primary school-aged children are able to understand the four basic emotions of happiness, sadness, anger and fear in their responses to empathy.

Borke's (1971) article entitled "Empathy or Egocentrism?", whilst agreeing with Piaget's (1967) view that children's social sensitivity towards empathy develop and increase with age, disagreed with his premise that children between the ages of three-eight years are egocentric and do not have the capability to understand another's viewpoint or the ability to understand specific situations that evoke an affective response (i.e. empathy). Borke (1971) argued that if a task was within the child's response capabilities, children as young as three years of age would be able to empathise with another child's feelings and show interpersonal awareness, even though they had not yet developed the actual skills to communicate them. Borke's (1971) study incorporated the use of drawn faces, which expressed the four basic emotions; happiness, sadness, anger and fear, as an age -appropriate communicative method to assist the children with their empathy responses.

The study was conducted with 200 American children between the ages of three to eight years, and was divided into two parts. In the first part the children were asked to give their answer to stories which depicted how another child felt by drawings faces that were either; happy, sad, afraid or angry. In the second part the children were given the emotional responses of happiness, sadness or anger. In this section the stories depicted how their behaviour towards another child might make the other child feel by pointing to the emotional expression picture that best depicted their perceived response.

Borke's (1971) results illustrated that children, as young as three, had an awareness of understanding the happiness reactions of empathy as 60% of these children responded correctly in both parts of the study. Moreover, Borke (1971) showed that the first major differentiation children develop was between the generalisation of pleasant and unpleasant responses. Conversely the children's empathic responses to sadness or anger demonstrated the least consistent trend between the age groups. Borke (1971) stated that this may have been because either anger or sadness could have been an equally appropriate response to the scenario, or that these stories were too ambiguous. The results also indicated that the children had more

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difficulties in the second part of the study than the first, because there may have been a conflict between doing something negative or bad towards another child because such a type of behaviour are seen as socially unacceptable.

Borke (1973) also investigated the relationship that culture and social class have upon empathy, using a cross cultural study, and the universality of the development of children's empathic awareness. She conducted a cross cultural study with 288 American children and 288 Chinese children between three-six years of age to investigate children's developmental changes in their understanding of others empathic feelings, again using stories which depicted the basic emotions: happiness, sadness, anger and feeling afraid.

Borke (1973) found that by the age of 3-4 years all of the children were able to differentiate between the emotions of happiness and unhappiness, but not sadness. Both cultural groups had the greatest difficulties in differentiating and identify anger. Borke (1973) proposed that children's individual differences may have resulted in some children feeling sadness rather than anger to the anger scenarios.

Overall, Borke (1973) found that the emotional feelings of happiness, being afraid, sadness and anger generally are fully developed by the age of six years of age. She showed that children's identification of fearful situations increased from 50% correct responses at 3/3.5 years to over 90% by the age of five. This pattern was duplicated in the sad situations for the younger age group but conversely, the children's correct responses increased by the age of six.

In response to the findings from Borke's (1971) research the CAES/C will use the four basic emotions of happiness, sadness, anger and fear, as it supports the rationale that the lowest age group in this study (i.e. 7 years of age) are able to understand and differentiate the empathic feelings of others individuals within the context of these four distinct emotions.

(iv) An Age-Appropriate Likert Scale

Kline (1993) argued that there are problems with yes or no Likert scales; since responses are dichotomised they provide little variability. Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) commented on Hogan's (1969) HES that the true/false design reduced the variability of the responses available to the participants. Moreover, Olweus and Endresen (1998) criticised Bryant's (1982) Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents two scale response, arguing that it did not allow enough

scope for the children to select the response which was appropriate for them. This thesis will review how developmental differences in children can affect their understanding and usage of Likert scales and how effective the use of various different response modes (such as Smiley faces) are as an age- appropriate response method.

(v) The Effects of Development Differences in Children's use of Likert (rating) Scales

Chamber and Johnston (2002) examined the developmental differences in children's (5-12 year olds) use of rating scales when using either three or five-point Likert scales, under three conditions, physical characteristic, subjective - the child's own feelings and social objective - their interpretation of other people's feelings. Chamber and Johnston (2002) found that younger children demonstrated more extreme scores than the older children, in the subjective and social objective conditions but surprisingly not within the physical condition; regardless of age, all of the children were able to provide accurate physical ratings. In the social objective condition, the 5-6-year-old age group showed the more extreme scores, a trend which lessened with age. Chamber and Johnston (2002) proposed that the accurate use of rating scales is a difficult task for elementary school-aged children. Their findings were found not to be dependent upon the children's choice of rating scales, as in the social subjective and objective conditions, younger children responded in an extreme manner, regardless of the rating scale choice provided. Chamber and Johnston (2002) suggested that to help counteract these extreme responses self-report questionnaires for younger children should use visual aids to help represent the responses choices (e.g. the use of different size bars, circles or colour).

(vi) A Questionnaire which Utilises Smiley Faces as a Likert-scale with Children

Davies and Brember (1994) tested the reliability and validity of the 'Smiley' scale developed by Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis and Elob (1986). This was originally created to examine junior school-aged children's attitudes towards their school environment. The original study, which was part of the Inner London Education Authority Junior School Project, used a five-point Likert scale that ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. However, because of the age range of their sample, which started from Year Two, Davies and Brember (1994) used an adaptation of the scale showing a set of five faces, which gradually differed from very happy to very sad.

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To test the Smiley scales internal consistency and reliability, 641 Year Two (6-7 years of age) and 585 Year Six children (10- 11 years of age) were given the scale. The test-retest reliability was conducted to test the consistency with which the young children replied to each of the items. After the initial test the smiley face scale was re-administered after a one-week interval to 172 Year 2 and 167 Year 6 children. The correlation coefficient for each item to test retest was found to be significant. The Year 6 pupils generally showed higher significant correlations between their two scores than those in Year 2. Davies and Brember (1994; p.453) stated that their analysis showed that "A smiley face scale is an appropriate and reliable instrument for testing the attitudes of young children, through the results of its administration should be viewed more cautiously with Year 2 than those in Year 6".

As a result of the evidence provided above a five point emotional Likert scale worded and accompanied by five smiley faces (angry, sad, do not know, happy, and scared), will be used with the CAES-C. Firstly, because this provides a sufficient scale for the children to be able to express their actual response. Secondly, because it is an appropriate scale for the age group as it will not confuse the children with too many scale points to choose from. which may result in the children responding at the extreme end of the scale. Finally, because it will allow a response base which addresses the children's actual levels of empathy, forcing them to think carefully about their response. To assist and counteract the effects of developmental changes on children's accuracy of ratings, colour will be added to the Likert scale to provide a clear visual aid which will help the children in their differentiation of the five rating scales. In order to eliminate deception, the colours used will be identical for each of the emotive faces; providing a correspondent response set.

(vii) Socially Desirable Responses

Social desirability (SD) can be defined as the tendency of individuals to deny traits and behaviors which they believe others perceive as socially undesirable and to state socially desirable ones (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987). Therefore, it is important to consider that certain types of questions such as "*Seeing a boy/girl crying makes me feel like crying*" used in Bryant's (1982) IECA may elicit responses that are either socially desirable or undesirable, which can be open to presentation bias (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2005).

Nederhof (1985) conducted a review into methods of coping with various types of response bias which examined factors such as experimenter expectancy, effect and demand characteristics,

participant effects, evaluation apprehension, and response effects in surveys, pre-test effects and non-response sets. He found that one possible suggestion for counteracting social desirable responses is a social desirability scale. One of the most popular questionnaires reviewed was the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (1964, MC Scale) which was designed to measure the need for social approval. The MC scale consists of items which explore behaviours which are culturally sanctioned and approved of, but which are virtually impossible to actually happen in real life. However, the MC Scale is not applicable for my study because it is aimed at an adult population.

Paulhus (1984) proposed that there are two-factors which explain SD arguing that the individual actually believes their self-report, which is based upon self-deception and other deception such as desirability and active defensiveness. Additionally, this self-deception is accompanied by impression management. This explanation clusters around two distinct factors, Alpha (an unconscious evaluative bias) and Gamma (deliberate falsification). Paulhus (1984) therefore argue that any SD scale which attempts to decipher SD responses should consequently take into account both types of SD response to self-report responses. They found that SD responding was limited to self-deception when the individuals reported threatening thoughts or insecurity. Conversely impression management was cantered upon socially overt desirable behaviour. They concluded that if a construction under investigation incorporates both factors then both should be examined. However, if it is actually accessing factors it may be inappropriate to eliminate self-deception as it may be an intrinsic aspects of the construct that it is trying to measure. In contrast if impression management is present because it is a conscious bias it should always be controlled for. Additionally, Paulhus (1984) argue that this scale does not take into account the two factors and only provides a crude control for both.

A questionnaire which is applicable for use with children from as young as Year Three (which is the youngest group envisaged in the development of the CAES-C) was devised by Crandall, Crandall and Katkovsky (1965) and is known as The Children's Social Desirability Questionnaire. This consists of 48 true-false items which the child is only able to answer in "*a social desirable manner by dissembling*" (Crandall, Crandall & Katkovsky, 1965, p.2). The Children's Social Desirability Questionnaire Crandall and Katkovsky (1965) may provide a possible method for measuring children's social desirable responses within the CAES-C. However other methods will now be discussed and reviewed.

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Another measure to counteract for social desirable responses and presentation bias was used by Joliffe and Farrington in their 2005 BES study, a six items from the Lie scale of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1991). An example item is "I sometimes boast a little" (disagree). They found that the Cronbach's alpha for their sample in this study was .62 (alpha males=0.61, alpha females=0.63) reliability for this lie scale which provided support for more accurate reflection of actual, rather than sociable desirable, empathetic responses in this adolescents sample.

However, several authors (e.g. Bryant, 1982, Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972) have argued that there is no association between empathy measures and social desirability. Others (e.g. McCrae, Costa, Dahlstrom, Barefoot, Siegler, & Williams, 1989) have shown that corrections for sociable desirability actually reduce the ability of test construct being examined.

McCrae and Costa (1983) proposed that social desirability has been seen to affect an individual's answer within one of two ways; as an individual difference variable (dependent upon the individual's uniqueness from other people), or as a propensity of items or scales; therefore, an individual's systematic response can be measured by its relationship with its closeness to societies perception/conception of an appropriate desirable response. Normative information can help to make a comparison between the differences of an individual's score and the target population of interest. Consequently, an individual's difference variable is shown when an individual is more or less susceptible to the Social Desirable (SD) characteristics of an item. Hence an individual who demonstrates a low SD response may be seen as indicating a more accurate indication of them.

Several methods have been used to help counteract SD bias (distortion or lying) responses within self-reports methods. One such method is to use another more objective external method, but McCrae and Costa (1983) argue that this can be problematic as it can be extremely difficult to find a reliable source. Another is to use SD scales such as the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (1964). However, they argue that when an item can be seen to indicate a good reason for an individual to portray themselves in a favorable manner, SD responding may be elicited in some or all individuals. Therefore, methods such as lie or SD scales should be renamed as 'a need for approval', 'social naiveté' or 'social adjustment'. Overall they concluded that SD scales give an artificial interpretation of the participant and therefore the correcting of SD scores should be questioned.

Piedmont, McCrae, Riemann and Angleitner (2000) commented on the invalidity of validity scales, stating that while bias and errors can occur in questionnaire scales, even the most sophisticated validity scales offer limited interpretation of the meanings of the test responses. They stated that this may be dependent upon two reasons. Firstly, social desirability scales are generally endorsed with the researcher's unrealistic beliefs that careful and honest participants will make consistent responses. Secondly, biased or careless responding is relatively low. Moreover, Tellegen (1988, in Piedmont et al. 2000) proposed that it is possible to reduce false positives by setting stringent cutoff points for validity, but this may only result in eliminating a few cases making it rather counterproductive. Piedmont et al. (2000) stated that every effort should be made to motivate the participants and in endeavoring to ensure that the instructions are understood.

Consequently, my thesis will not use a socially desirable scale because I argue that the CAES-C is actually investigating a construct which is not related to social desirability, i.e. empathy. I argue in line with the evidence (Bryant, 1982; Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972) that there is no association between empathy and social desirability so there does not need to be any correction made. However, the CAES-C will include positive and negative answers to check for consistency I propose that such methods may actually reduce the ability of the CAES-C to measure children's global empathy and therefore are rather arbitrary and counterproductive. Additionally, my study aims to investigate individual differences and acute indictors of the children, which may be lost if a social desirability scale is used.

(7) The Overall Development of the CAES-C

The CAES-C was developed over three various versions. The first version of the CAES-C (see Appendix One) incorporated a four choice ratings scale incorporating; Describes me very well, Sometimes describes me, Sometimes does not describe me and Does not describe me well. However, in a small pilot study of 30 children (mean age of 8 years) it was deemed as not being an appropriate response base because it did not provide insight into the emotionality of specific children's perceptions of the peer stimuli (child, younger child, friend, girl and boy).

The second version of the CAES-C (see Appendix Three) used five scales; four emotive ones, angry, sad, happy and frightened providing the children with an age specific expressive of their emotions and an 'I do not know' response too. The CAES-C incorporated a scale, which was

reliant upon the children's emotionality in response to each specific peer stimuli (child, younger children, friend girl or boy). I argue that children between the ages of 7 years and upwards, have the ability to demonstrate sensitivity towards the understanding of another's viewpoint (cognitive empathy), and within specific situations which evoke an affective response (empathy) within these various peer groups. The 'I do not know' scale was used again to prevent the children from being forced into a response. This type of scale helped counteract for limited variability within responses, which can be found when using a yes or no response scale (Olweus and Endresen 1998, who criticised Bryant's, 1982 Index of Empathy for Children and Adolescents two scale response) or true/false scales (e.g. Hogan's, 1969, HES). I argue that they provide little scope for the children to select the responses which are appropriate for them specifically (e.g. Jolliffe & Farrington, 2005; Kline, 1993). Therefore, as the CAES-C required the children's empathetic emotional response within general peer orientated scenarios this was well within the children's response and developmental capabilities (Borke, 1971).

The forty questions (20 cognitive and 20 affective) of the CAES-C provided mirrored (corresponding questions) worded questions to address the two types of empathy (cognitive and affective). Forty questions were found to be appropriate by a second pilot study with 40 primary school children (mean age of 7 years) as it demonstrated that the CAES-C was a sufficient length to be able to investigate empathy levels (cognitive and affective), while not being too long to have detrimental effects upon the younger children's attentional levels.

Smiley faces were deemed as a simulating and age appropriate response within the CASE-C (Mortimore, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis and Elob, 1986; Davies and Brember (1994).
The use of smiley faces provided an additional response aid that would assist younger children; specifically, those who had difficulties within their reading abilities. Additionally, the use of colour within smiley responses provided an enhancement of the children's perceptions, and helped to accelerate their attentional focus.

Chamber and Johnston (2002) suggested that to help counteract for extreme responses self-report questionnaires for younger children should use visual aids to help represent the responses choices (e.g. the use of different size bars, circles or colour). In accordance the CAES-C incorporated yellow emotional smiley faces. The size and type of smileys used was tested within the two small pilot studies.

This thesis argues that the CAES-C is specifically investigating a construct which is not related to social desirability, i.e. empathy so the CAES-C did not use a socially desirable scale. This is in line with the evidence by Bryant (1982) and Mehrabian and Epstein (1972) who proposed that there is not an association between empathy and social desirability, consequently within the CAES-C I did not make corrections with regards to socially desirable responses.

However, after pre-discussion with the pilot study children the size of the smiley faces was found to be too small, and the word 'frightened' replaced with scared within the final version of the CAES-C Version Three (see Appendix Four) as several children within the second short pilot study stated that they were not sure what frightened actually might and was felt that scared would enhance comprehension. Therefore, issues such as the developmental age of the children, language comprehension and the understandings of their and others emotionality, were addressed within the CAES-C's development and overall construction, enabling the production of a final version CAES- C Three.

(8) The Final CAES-C Questionnaire

After the initiation of two pilot studies with children from the youngest age groups (7-8 years of age) the following criteria was used within the final CAES-C (see Appendix Four)

(i) Smiley Face Development

The final coloured (yellow faces had black facial features, on a blue background smiley faces drawn by myself, using Microsoft Word. Each face was adapted to maintain equal sizing, colouring and definition via Word format picture (i.e. picture correction, crop, sizing and picture fill). Equal sizing, dimensions and colouring ensured that no specific face drew greater attention than the others from the children, helping to counteract skewed Likert responses.

(ii) The Wording Used

The emotions happy, sad and scared were adapted from Schultz, Izard and Bear's (2004) Assessment of Children's Emotion Skills (ACES). The word 'mad' was replaced by 'angry' because within the second pilot study is was deemed as a more appropriate word by the English pupils. Also the Scale 'No feeling' implemented by Schultz et al's (2004) ACES was not used because this thesis argues that generally children should have an emotional response albeit if it is a negative one to the peer scenarios. However, 'Do not know' was included to provide the

pupils, who are unsure of their answers, a Likert response that does not force a socially desirable emotional response.

(iii) The CAES-C Scoring Criteria

The final CAES-C was developed firstly through a 0 .91 inter-rater reliability from four researcher's ratings. Additionally, a second pilot study conducted with thirty children from the youngest age groups (7-8 years of age) instructed the pupil's to answer one answer, using their initial 'gut' feeling and the results demonstrated that the children's answers corresponded with the raters scoring. This scoring will also be reviewed within in Study One's test-retest methodology.

(9) The Aims of this Thesis

This thesis aimed to investigate peer interactions across not only within bullying scenarios, but also within children's everyday lives. It argues that at present certain empathy scales (such as ERLE, Olweus & Endresen, 1998) merely focus on children's bullying behaviour and not on everyday peer interactions. This lead to the CAES-C aim to examine the children's socio-metric relationships per se. This makes the evidence from obtained rather skewed because they do not focus on children's actual empathy within all peer relationships, so by definition they do not measure affective empathy generally. Other questionnaires (such as Bryant's ICEA, 1982) have been shown to not actually measure what they purport to or to provide a homogenous tool for investigating affective empathy (de Weid et al., 2007). While it does provide a valid tool for pupils in grades four (9 year olds) and upwards (Funk et al.'s CEAQ, 2008) as a two dimensional empathy measure it only provides an uneven measure of 4 cognitive to 12 affective questions; so it can be argued that it does not provide a homogenous measure of two-dimensional empathy.

As gender has been shown to be an important factor in children's empathetic behaviours (e.g. Bryant; 1982, Feshbach & Roe, 1968, Olweus & Endresen, 1998), the questions in the CAES-C (2010) will use a selection of questions incorporating both genders, with the premise of investigating children's two dimensional empathic responses towards same-gender and opposite gender peers. Moreover, sub-scales that involve children (peers, younger children and friends) will be added to investigate whether or not, children varying in their levels of empathy under these peer interaction dimensions.

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The language in the questions presented within the CAES-C will be age-specific so that the children are able to comprehend the questions asked. The CAES- C was used because individual interviews would have presented time-constraints within the test-retest methodology used within Study One, to help counteract for differences in the children's levels of literacy the CAES-C questionnaire will be read out to the children. This will allow for individual differences in reading skills and comprehension which is age specific. However, children deemed by the school to have developmental educational delays will be presented with the CAES-C questionnaire within smaller groups to help ensure their full understanding of its requirements. Instructions and the CAES-C questions will be read out without deviation and presented using a computerised white board (where available) to enable consistency and provide an unobtrusive and nonreactive self-reporting response measure.

(10) The Studies within this Thesis

Study One: Aimed to generate and explore the internal validity of an age-specific (7 to 11 years) two-dimensional empathy questionnaire, The Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Younger Children (CAES-C). This will investigate childrens two-dimensional empathy across their everyday peer interactions.

Study Two: Aimed to use the CAES-C after its validation, to measure levels of empathy between bullies and other non-bullying roles - victims, outsiders and defenders. These will be generated from the Participant Role Scale approach of Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Bjorkqvist, Osterman and Kaukiainen (1996) (see Chapter Five for further details).

Study Three: Study Three aimed at using a re-worded version of the CAES-C, the CAES-C/ A with 12-16 year olds. This will re-word the questions in minor ways to provide greater grammatical clarity. The wording of the questions was changed from 'you' to 'I' to enable greater grammatical sense as the older pupils will read the questions to themselves. This will differ from Study One as I will read the questions to the younger class to enable greater comprehension and to counteract for differences in reading abilities. Therefore, in Study One 'You' was used as the term 'I' might have confused the younger age groups who could have perceived that the questions were referring to myself (the reader) rather than being aimed at them. These changes will be aimed at providing a sufficient measure for an older age group.

Study Four: Aimed to investigate the effectiveness of an anti-bullying intervention that works from the premise of improving the affective and/ or cognitive empathy of a child who is engaging in bullying behaviour in a school environment, namely the Support Group Method (SGM, Robertson & Maines, 2007). After being contacted by the school that an incident of bullying has occurred, I implement the anti-bullying intervention and the child/dren involved in the bullying role/s. Both parties will be asked to take part in a pre-intervention and post-intervention semi- structured interview. Form teachers and the Head of Year will also be asked to participant in a teacher pre and post intervention semi-structured interview

Study Five: Aimed to explore pupils and the teacher's perspectives of Circle Time (CT, Mosley, 1996) a whole school approach of peer support that places emphasis on morality and culture; by the implementation of post CT Pupil and Teacher Questionnaires. The CT questionnaires will examine the (pupil & teachers) perceptions of the success or failure or the CT meetings and recommendations to enhance their form group's harmony. Secondly it aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the girls from the SGM Two and Three, attempts to heal the emotional hurt and levels of self-esteem within their form group, which specifically were focused on promoting prosocial two - dimensional empathic behaviours within peer relationships.

Chapter Three: Study One: Design, Internal validity and consistency of the CAES-C using a test-retest methodology

This thesis aimed at measuring aspects of empathy, a complex concept of emotionality, which has at least two dimensions. The CAES-C rationale was to investigate two of its components, namely cognitive and affective empathy, on a young age group (7-11 year olds). As younger children could have difficulties with reading comprehension, it was fundamentally important that the CAES-C questionnaire was age-specific. Therefore, visual imagery was a crucial aspect of the CAES-C because it helped to focus the children's attention. Another important feature of attention, colour, was used in the CAES-C because it offered an intrinsic visual aid. Colour smiley emotive faces provided a pictorial aid that assisted the children's responses to the CAES-C scenarios.

The CAES-C allowed empathy to be measured not only with respect to same age/gender peers but in other aspects of their peer relationships (i.e. younger or opposite gender peers). The CAES-C enabled an investigation into the children's various relationship dynamics and sociometric status. Therefore, in contrast to Olweus' ERQ (1998), the CAES-C allowed a response base which was not unduly reliant upon bullying peer interactions but integrated children's everyday peer scenarios as well.

The CAES-C is a forty-item scale, which assesses two-dimensional empathy and is constructed from 20 cognitive items and 20 affective items (see Appendix 4). For a breakdown of the CAES-C questions divided by empathy level (cognitive & affective) and peer stimuli (child, friend, younger child, girl & boy) see Appendix 2. The cognitive and affective items were rated by three raters and had an inter-rater agreement of .89. Within the CAES-C five pupil stimulus were used; general child, friend, younger child, girl and boy. The Likert scale had five scales; angry, sad, do not know, happy and scared. The five scales were accompanied by emotional smiley coloured face (in yellow and blue) to aid the childrens comprehension, and to make the CAES-C more child friendly. The questions were scored at 3 for the most appropriate deemed from the pilot study and the three raters answer, 2 for the next appropriate answer and 1 for the least appropriate of the three, incorrect answers were marked with a 0, as was do not know, as

this response indicated either a lack of understanding of the question or a lack of an empathic response (see Appendix 5).

Study One: Test/Re-test of the CAES-C

This study aimed to address four questions:

Firstly, to assess the CAES-C internal validity and consistency between the test (T1) -retest (T2) scores, conducted within two months so that developmental changes in the children would not be too great: and to determine if it was an appropriate measure across all of the age groups (7-11 year olds). **Secondly,** to see whether the factor analysis supported two factor loadings (cognitive and affective) and to indicate if there are any problematic questions in the CAES-C, which may have loaded on both factors. **Thirdly,** it aimed to investigate if there are any differences between the age-groups or genders in the children's cognitive and affective empathy scores. **Fourthly**, it aimed to discover if there was any gender or age differences in the childrens response towards the peer stimuli (child, friend, younger child, girl and boy).

Method

Participants

The data for this study was obtained from 442 pupils (209 females and 233 males) from years 3, 4, 5 and 6. The ages of the children were at T1 (M=9 years, SD =1.03) and T2 (M= 9 years, SD. =1.00). However, it should be noted that the children from the 10-11-year-old group were smaller at T2 because they were participating in Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SAT). The children were from five primary schools in the South of London; all were from the London Borough of Greenwich. The majority of the schools were categorised by their local education authority as being within high deprivation areas. The children were selected by those who had received passive parental consent (see Appendix 7). The study was completed during the Spring/Summer/Autumn terms of 2010/11. The five primary schools had no religious affiliation, and three out of five pupils came from minority ethnic backgrounds.

Procedure

Measure

Two-dimensional empathy was measured using the CAES-C (see Appendix 4). The CAES-C was designed to measure younger children's (7 -11 years of age) understanding of empathy, within scenarios that depict possible every day peer interactions. Teacher nominations (see Appendix 10) were sought at the end of this study to categorise the children's bullying participant role but were not used within this study but were used in Study Two (see Chapter 5 for more details).

The CAES-C was given to the pupils in two visits by a female researcher (myself). On both occasions (T1 and T2), the CAES-C was read out to avoid individual differences in reading skills and comprehension. The instructions were read out, without deviation, and where available, presented using a computerised white board to enable consistency and to provide an unobtrusive and nonreactive self-reporting response measure. To help counteract for demand characteristics, the children were told that their answers were confidential and anonymous, and that the questionnaire was about their relationships with their peers. The children were also told not to discuss their answers with the other children (to help stop social desirable responses); and to answer how they would feel or believed another child would feel towards the child stimuli. The children were instructed to answer using their initial 'gut' feeling as this would help them choose a single emotional response. The researcher (myself) was not aware of the children's teacher ratings of bullying participant roles (which were to be used in Study Three bullying and its relationship with empathy). All of the children at the end of each questionnaire were given a debriefing sheet (see Appendix 8) and a help sheet (Appendix 9) which informed them of who to go to if any of the questions had caused any stress or concerns. At debriefing the children were asked to participant in a post discussion which asked if they had any questions or would like to make comments about the CAES-C.

The following result section will use Cronbach's Alpha to examine the internal validity and consistency of the CAES-C by age group and empathy (cognitive and affective). Pearson's correlations will examine the test-retest reliability of the CAES-C. Principal Axis Factoring will be used to provide exploratory analyses of the factor loadings of the CAES-C. Finally, independent t-tests will investigate if differences are found between gender, age and two-dimensional empathy.

Psychometric scoring of CAES-C of the pupil's responses will be recorded on an empathy scoring sheet (see Appendix 6) which divides the childrens responses via peer stimuli (child, friend, younger child, girl and boy) and type of empathy (cognitive and affective).

Results

Aim One: Did the CAES-C have internal validity and consistency between test one (T1) and two (retest T2) empathy scores?

Internal Validity

The internal validity of the CAES-C by age group and type of empathy (cognitive and affective) was consistently high for the affective empathy generally in all of the age groups but within the eight and nine year olds at T2 it was an acceptable one (see Table One).

Empathy	Cognitive T1	Cognitive T2	Affective T1	Affective T2
7yrs	.76	.73	.76	.83
8yrs	.80	**.40**	.80	.81
9yrs	.81	**.60**	.81	.85
10yrs	.80	.76	.80	.85
11yrs	.90	.85	.90	.95

Table One: Cronbach's Alpha by Age Group and Empathy (Cognitive and Affective) at T1 and T2

Table One suggests that the individual questions of the CAES-C had a relatively high internal consistency and reliability for the affective questions across the majority of age groups and an acceptable one for the cognitive ones (George & Mallery, 2003).

Test-retest reliabilities

All but one of the T1 and T2 Pearson correlation coefficients for the 20 affective items were found to be highly significant, $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed). The exception was question 7 (for which $r = 0.104$, $p < 0.05$, 2-tailed). See Table Two for full details; the CAES-C questions are presented under peer stimuli (general child, friend, younger child, girl and boy).

Question	Correlation (r)
General Child	
5. If another child is crying, you would feel?	.426**
19. If a child was told off for something they did not do, you would feel?	.274**
21. If another child is crying, you would feel?	.275**
26. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, you would feel?	.374**
Friend	
2. If another child punched your friend, you would feel?	.249**
15. If your friend had just moved away, you would feel?	.262**
22. If your friend was seriously ill, you would feel?	.263**
28. If your friend won a race you would feel?	.344**
Younger Child	
7. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, you would feel?	**. 104***
16. If I see a group of younger children having fun, you would feel?	.211**
24. If a younger child is crying, you would feel?	.417**
34. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, you would feel?	.285**
Girl (Stimuli)	
3. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, you would feel?	.415**
29. If a girl in your class won a prize, you would feel?	.373**
33.If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel	.354**
36. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, you would feel?	.460**
Boy (Stimuli)	
9. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, you would feel?	.340**
12. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, you would feel?	.330**
31. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, you would feel?	.214**
38. If a boy is being hit by another child, you would feel?	.365**

**Significance level $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed) * Significance level $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Table Two: The Correlations between T1 and T2 for affective empathy questions

The majority of the T1 and T2 correlation coefficients for the 20 cognitive items were found to be significant at $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed), with the exceptions of Q 20 ($r = 0.114$, $p < 0.05$) and Q8 ($r = 0.115$, $p < 0.05$, 2-tailed). See Table Three on the next page for full details the questions are presented via peer stimuli (general child, friend, younger child, and girl and boy stimuli.

Question	Correlation (r)
General Child	
1.If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel	.296**
11. If another child is crying, I think they would feel?	.299**
18. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel?	.281**
35. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel?	.257**
6. If another child is crying, you would feel?	.277**
Friend	
17. If your friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?	.145**
20. If your friend won a race, I think my friend would feel?	.114*
37. If your friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel?	.310**
Younger Child	
4. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel?	.229**
14. If I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel?	.165**
27. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?	.160**
32. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel?	.134**
10. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel?	.160**
13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?	.162**
Girl (Stimuli)	
25. If a girl in your class won a prize, I think she would feel?	.182**
39. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would feel?	.233**
Boy (Stimuli)	
8. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel?	**.115***
23. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel?	.133**
30. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel?	.275**
40. If a boy is hit by another child, I think he would feel?	.127**

**Significance level $p < 0.01$ (2-tailed) * Significance level $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Table Three: The Correlations between T1 and T2 for cognitive empathy questions

Aim Two: Did factor analysis support the rationale of two factor loadings (i.e. cognitive and effective)?

Factor Analysis for T1

Exploratory analysis (using Principal Axis Factoring, PAF) was conducted on the T1 data from as the Cronbach's Alpha was consistent between T1 and T2. The scree plot (which indicates the inflexion on the curve) showed that there were two or three loadings, before a stable plateau was reached (see figure 1). The originally PAF indicated 14 factors before rotation which demonstrated higher Eigenvalues values for two/three factors before rotation (Factor 1, 13.02%, Factor Two 5.93 and Factor Three 4.97 % respectively, see Appendix 18).

Therefore, a second analysis with rotation was conducted extracting two and then three factor loadings in order to examine the rotated factor matrix loadings.
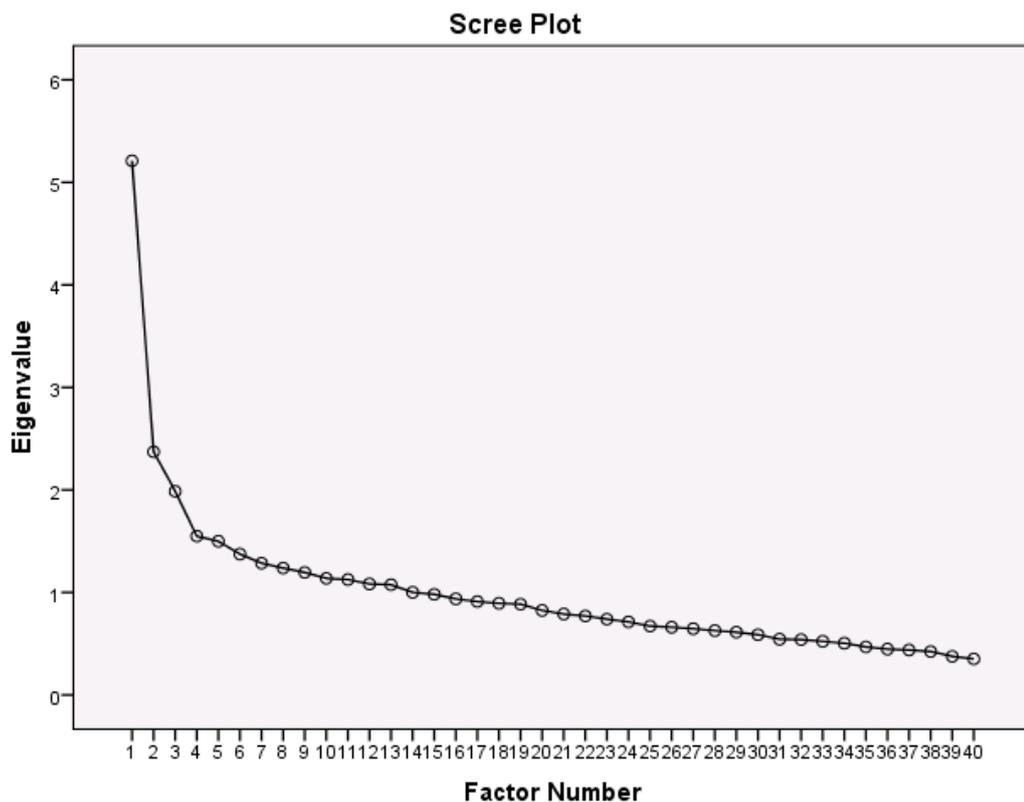
Figure 1: Scree Plot for the PAF T1 of the CAES-C

The two rotated matrix (see Appendix 20) showed greater loadings for two distinct factors which was consistent with my thesis hypothesis for two-dimensional empathy.

The structure matrix, showed that the majority of the affective questions of the CAES-C had higher loadings on factor one. However, the following four questions loaded more highly on the second factor:

Q15. If your friend had just moved away, you would feel?
Q16. When I see a group of younger children having fun, you would feel?
Q22. If your friend was seriously ill, you would feel?
Q33.If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel?

This may have been because the two-dimensions of empathy are inter-correlated. Alternatively, the questions may have been misinterpreted by the children and therefore they might need to be either re-worded or to be excluded from the CAES-C questionnaire.

The majority of cognitive questions loaded more highly on factor two than on factor one. However, the following cognitive questions did not load on either factor;

Q6. If another child punched your friend, I think my friend would feel?
Q13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?
Q27. If another child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

However, the rotated factor matrix for three factors failed to add clarity between the allotted factors even the ones above that fail to load on either of the two factor loading, demonstrating complex loadings (see Appendix 20).

Therefore, these three questions might need to be excluded from the CAES-C because they do not fall into either of the two factors (affective and cognitive).

This analysis showed that there were two main factors which loaded; factor one (affective empathy) and factor two (cognitive empathy), supporting the CAES-C's validity as a measure of two-dimensional empathy.

Aim Three: Were gender Differences found in the Levels of the childrens two - dimensional empathy?

Empathy	Gender	N Overall Total T1 Empathy	M	SD	N Overall Total T2 Empathy	M	SD
Affective	Girl	209	35.33	7.85	209	43.32	10.29
	Boy	233	31.93	9.61	233	38.73	13.08
Cognitive	Girl	209	48.51	4.92	209	47.08	6.13
	Boy	233	47.36	6.62	233	45.27	7.53

Table Four: Table of means and standard deviations for the T1 and T2 of the affective and cognitive items of the CAES-C

Both t-tests for T1 were significant, indicating that there was a gender difference for levels empathy (t = 4.08, p < 0.001, (affective empathy) and t = 2.08, p < 0.05 (cognitive empathy). Girls scored higher levels of the two-dimensional empathy (affective empathy M = 35.33 and cognitive empathy M= 48.50) in comparison to the boys (affective empathy M = 31.93 and cognitive empathy 47.36).

Analysis of the T2 data found that both t-tests were significant indicating that there was a gender difference within both levels of two-dimensional empathy t = 4.12, p < 0.001, (affective empathy) and t =2.80, p < 0.05 (cognitive empathy); which was in accordance to test one. Girls scored higher levels of empathy (affective empathy M = 43.31 and cognitive empathy M= 47.08) in comparison to the boys (affective empathy M= 38.72 and cognitive empathy 45.27).

Aim Four: Were gender or age differences found in the levels of children's two - dimensional empathy towards the peer stimuli (i.e. child, friend, younger child, girl and boy)?

Analysis of T1 data for the cognitive component of empathy test to examine gender differences in empathy towards peer stimuli found that there was only one significant t-test for the girl peer stimuli (t=2.13 < 0.001). Girls (M= 10.30) in comparison to boys (M= 9.95) were shown to have higher mean scores in this peer stimulus indicating that girls were more cognitively empathetic to same gender peers at T1. No other gender differences were found (see Table 5 for M & SD).

Totals Cognitive Empathy	M (T1)	SD (T1)	M (T2)	SD (T2)
Girl (N= 209)				
General Child	10.45	1.43	10.57	1.77
Friend	9.19	1.83	9.14	1.70
Younger Child	9.79	1.71	9.90	1.91
Girl (Stimuli)	10.30	1.41	10.11	1.59
Boy (Stimuli)	8.78	2.31	9.14	1.98
Boy (N= 233)				
General Child	10.15	2.15	10.31	2.07
Friend	8.96	2.19	9.20	2.07
Younger Child	9.82	2.01	9.88	2.02
Girl (Stimuli)	9.95	1.99	9.79	2.10
Boy (Stimuli)	8.48	2.19	8.93	2.05

Table 5: The means and standard deviations for t-test of cognitive empathy for T1 & T2

Analysis of T1 showed no significant results for cognitive empathy towards any of the peer stimuli (child, friend, younger child, girl and boy). Affective empathy showed significant t-tests for the following peer stimulus: child (t=2.82 < 0.05) friend (t=2.34 <0.05) and younger child (t=2.54 < 0.05) and a highly significant t-test for the girl stimuli (t =4.58 < 0.001). As the mean scores for these categories were higher in the girls than for the boys these results showed that girls had higher affective empathy scores in the following peer stimuli; child, friend, younger child and girl stimuli (see Table Five for M and SD). Therefore, T-tests were conducted to compare the girl (stimuli) within girls and the boy (stimuli) within boy's empathy scores. Affective empathy questions relating to gendered peers (boy and girl stimuli) at T1 were highly significant t-tests for the girl stimuli (t=4.59 < 0.001) but not for the boys (t= 1.58 > 0.05). At

T1 cognitive empathy questions relating to gendered peers (boy and girl stimuli) were also significant t-tests for the girl stimuli (t= 2.13 < 0.05) but again not for the boys (t= 1.41 > 0.05). As the t-test scores in the girls were higher towards the girl stimuli than they were for the boys, girls had highly significant affective and cognitive empathy scores towards same gender peers and significant scores towards opposite gender peers (the boy stimuli, see Table 5 for M & SD). However, this was not found in the boys towards either stimulus (boy or girl).

T1/2 Totals Affective Empathy	M (T1)	SD (T1)	M (T2)	SD (T2)
Girl (N= 209)				
General Child	8.78	2.79	8.61	3.14
Friend	9.89	1.95	10.00	1.85
Younger Child	8.05	2.65	8.12	2.84
Girl (Stimuli)	8.60	2.94	8.85	2.99
Boy (Stimuli)	7.52	2.68	7.74	2.98
Boy (N= 233)				
General Child	7.96	3.26	7.85	3.44
Friend	9.39	2.48	9.37	2.54
Younger Child	7.36	2.98	7.03	3.41
Girl (Stimuli)	7.21	3.38	7.30	3.72
Boy (Stimuli)	7.11	2.81	7.18	3.29

Table Six: The means and the standard deviations for the t-test affective scores for T1 & T2

Analysis of T2 data for affective empathy showed significant t-tests for the following peer stimulus: child (t = 2.42 < 0.05) and friend (t = 2.91< 0.05) and highly significant t-tests for younger child (t = 3.62 < 0.001) and the girl stimuli (t = 4.79 < 0.001). As the mean scores for these categories were higher in the girls than the boys these results indicated that girls had higher affective empathy scores than males towards the following peer stimuli; child, friend, younger child and girl. Therefore, as in T1 t-tests were conducted to compare the girl (stimuli) within girls and the boy (stimuli) within boy's empathy scores. Affective empathy questions relating to gendered peers (boy and girl stimuli) at T2 were highly significant t-tests for the girl stimuli (t= 4.80 < 0.001) but not for the boys (t= 1.87 > 0.05). At T2 cognitive empathy questions relating to gendered peers (boy and girl stimuli) were not significant t-tests for the girl stimuli (t=1.80 > 0.05) or for the boys (t= 1.11 > 0.05). These t-test scores generally corresponded to T1 as the girls mean scores were higher towards the girl stimuli than they were for the boys, girls had higher affective and cognitive empathy scores to same gender peers but not towards opposite gender peers (the boy stimuli, see Table 5 for M & SD). However, the

cognitive scores were again higher in the girls towards same gender stimuli than the boys mean scores they did not demonstrate a significant p -value differences in the cognitive girl stimuli.

No differences found between the age groups (7, 8,9,10 and 11 year olds) in the children's levels of two-dimensional empathy towards the five peer stimuli (general child, friend, younger child, girl and boy) which differs from previous research (Feshbach & Roe, 1968, and Olweus & Endresen, 1998).

Discussion

The initial purpose of Study 1 was to determine whether the CAES-C had high internal validity, and test-retest reliability. The internal reliability of the CAES-C was found to be high for the affective questions and to have an acceptable one for the cognitive questions (George & Mallery, 2003); this provides support that the CAES-C has a good consistency and conceptual framework. The CAES-C's reliability (over the two tests) was found to be consistent, as both questionnaires showed significant correlations between the children's responses. Additionally, factor analyses demonstrated that the CAES-C loaded on two factors; the first affective and the second cognitive. The findings supported the rationale behind the CAES-C's construction, which was to create a valid measure of two-dimensional empathy (cognitive and affective).

While the results showed that the majority of the CAES-C 's questions loaded highly on one or other of the two factors, several questions (Q15 friend affective; Q16 younger child; Q22 friend affective; Q33 girl affective) within the first factor of affective empathy showed a higher loading within the second factor of cognitive empathy. One possible reason why this may have occurred is that could be argued that empathy is inter-correlated and therefore it would be expected that there is an element of overlap. However, several of the cognitive questions did not load on either of the two factors (Q6 friend cognitive; Q13 girl cognitive; Q27 friend cognitive).

An additional explanation for the affective questions loading higher on the cognitive factor, was that several children stated to the researcher (in a post class discussion) that when answering Q15 they felt that they would be happy if their friend had moved away because it would mean that they had a nicer place to live than they did at present. These comments suggested that these children may have interpreted the question in a different manner than the raters had, because this question was scored as receiving a higher score of 3 for selecting the sad response. Furthermore, this may have been an appropriate empathetic response for many of these children because of their socio-economic status; the majority of the schools were categorised by the local education authority as being within high deprivation areas. For Q16 several children stated that they would be unhappy if a group of younger children were having fun and they were not, this showed either a lack of understanding of the question and many children stated that they would be sad indicating personal distress (cognitive empathy) rather than affective empathy. Within Q22 numerous children asked what type of illness their friend had, a factor which again seemed to affect their responses. Many of the children were interested in knowing the severity of the

illness because several stated if the illness was a minor one this would mean that their friend would not have to come to school. These comments suggest that the scoring of these questions were not accurate towards several of the children's interpretations, indicating that for this sample that an alternate option within the CAES-C scoring would have been beneficial. Finally, for Q33 several children said that they thought it was silly that a girl would be in a field with a bull suggesting that they did not feel that it was an everyday situation that they could see themselves in. Additionally, many other children confused a male cow (a bull), for a bouncy ball, this was also misinterpreted by a teacher, indicating again that this may have affected the children's responses. This suggests that the word bull should be explained as a male cow within the CAES-C to counteract misinterpretation.

Possible reasons why several of the cognitive questions did not load on either factor was that many of the children stated for Q6 that how they would feel would be dependent upon how close they were to that friend, indicating varying relationships in friendship which were shown to be fluid. For Q13 it was perceived by several children as being rather too vague and that the children needed more clarity on the perpetrators of the aggressive behaviour towards the girl to decide upon a response. Finally, several of the children for Q 27 did not understand the meaning of the word snatched, and had to be told that the child had had their sweet stolen or taken away. This suggests that this question may need to be re-worded. Therefore, further investigation is needed to discover whether these questions may have been misinterpreted by the children, which can be addressed via one of two possible solutions; to amend these questions or to exclude them from the final version of the CAES-C, in order to make it a more consistent and homogeneous measure of empathy.

A good Cronbach's Alpha reliability was found at each age group, indicating that all age groups had good internal reliability. This suggests that the CAES-C is an appropriate measure for the age groups included within this study (7-11 year olds). The lowest Cronbach's Alpha was found within the 8 year olds rather than the 7 year olds, indicating that seven year children group were not too young an age for comprehending the CAES-C.

The results indicated that the five-point Likert smiley face scale used was appropriate for the children as it provided a visual aid as well as a written one. This was especially true with the younger age groups and children who had special educational needs. It also provided the children with an appropriate scale to be able to express their responses because there were not

too many choices to hinder the children's understanding or too little so it did not provide enough scope for the child's actual response.

Gender differences at both T1 and T2 were consistent with other studies (Bryant, 1982; Olweus & Endresen. 1998; Jolliffe & Farrington, 2005; Howard 2006; de Weid et al. 2007; Funk et al. 2008). At both T1 and T2, girls scored higher levels of two - dimensional empathy (cognitive and affective) in comparison to boys. Additionally, girls showed more cognitive empathy towards same gender peers than boys, which supports Feshbach and Roe (1968) hypotheses because they were more likely to have shared similarities and a greater understanding of their social and situational experiences.

Results indicated within affective empathy at T1 and T2 that girls displayed higher empathy not only to same gender peers but towards general child, friend, younger child and boy stimuli. However, girls showed while demonstrating a significant difference in their empathy levels towards boys, they had a highly significant result towards the same gender stimuli suggesting that because of a lack of similarity, the girls felt less empathic towards boys. This was supported by several girls stating that if the peer had been a girl they would have shown more concern and therefore would have equated toward higher affective empathy supporting Feshbach and Roe (1968). The finding that girls were more empathetic towards younger children was not surprising, especially as females are encouraged to show more maternal instincts/behaviours than boys (Hoffman & Levine, 1976).

No developmental age differences were found between the category peer stimuli and age groups (7-11 year olds). This finding contradicts Olweus and Endresen (1998) who found that boy's levels of empathy decreased towards same age peer from ten years and upwards. This was not supported here, as years 4 (10 year olds) and 5 (11 year olds) did not show less empathy towards same gender peers than the younger age groups. Additionally, the younger age groups did not show increased levels of empathy towards same gender peers. Possible explanations for no decreases in empathy between 10-11 year olds, which differed from Olweus and Endresen (1998) year olds findings as the sample size Study One for the 10-11 year olds was smaller than the other groups; because when this study was conducted Year 6's were taking their SATs examinations Therefore those Year 6's who participated at T1 were unable to take part at T2 which resulted in their data having to be excluded from the final test-retest analyses. Conversely within this age group the developmental effects of same gender competitiveness may have been

smaller than in early adolescence, when males are generally more competitive around females and have greater pressures to conform to cultural stereotypes of rivalry (Bryant 1982; Olweus & Endresen, 1998).

Limitations

On a cautious note it should be mentioned that the shared variance levels of the correlations within this study were quite small (i.e. the test re-test validity was rather low) on individual questions. For example, at T1 the CAES-C was detected as significant because of the large sample size. Additionally, the numbers of children in 10-11-year-old group were rather small because the year six pupils were taking part within SAT so had to be excluded from the test-retest analysis so a further study should be conducted to see if the different findings from Olweus and Endresen (1998) can be replicated with these age groups as compassions could not be made with Study One.

While factor analysis generally demonstrated two distinct factor loadings at T1 and T2, loadings were complex within the following affective questions (Q15, Q16, Q22 & Q33); loading higher on the second factor (cognitive empathy). Additionally, three others questions (Q6, Q13 & Q27) did not load highly on either of the factors (cognitive or affective). Pre class discussion demonstrated within several of the lower socio economic status (SES) schools that several of the children had misperceived several of these questions (e.g. Q15: If your friend had moved away, you would feel?) stating that they felt it would be beneficial for the peer stimuli to move away from their area. Such misconceptions suggest that the scoring of these questions were not appropriate for a minority of children from lower SES. Therefore, an alternate option within the CAES-C scoring could have been more beneficial as it could have accounted for such differences within the perceptions of children from lower SES areas per se.

Implications for Current Knowledge

The results of Study One indicate that the CAES-C is a valid and consistent two-dimensional empathy scale it is a psychometrically good measure of children's empathic attitudes towards their peers. Moreover, it provides a simple tool to administer that investigates children's empathy under different everyday situations. The CAES-C provides a broad visual emotionality scale (angry, sad, do not know, happy, and scared) that allows two-dimensional empathy to be investigated in an integrated manner in a young age group (7-11 years of age). My results

demonstrated that the CAES-C was not a skewed measure which only examined empathy under insular bullying scenarios, but enabled prosocial socio-metric relationships and behaviours to be investigated too. Overall the CAES-C could enhance current empathy research as it allows anti-social and prosocial behaviours to be determined within childrens everyday sociometric relationships.

Implications for Study Three

Therefore, I will use an amended version of the CAES-C the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Children/Adolescents (CAES-C/A, Appendix 11). Study Three will be aimed at using a re-worded version of the CAES-C, the CAES-C/ A with 12-16 year olds. This version will re-word the questions in minor ways to provide greater grammatical clarity. The wording of the questions will be changed from 'you' to 'I' to enable greater grammatical sense as the older pupils will read the questions to themselves. This will differ from Study One as I read the questions to the younger age-groups to enable greater comprehension and to counteract for differences in reading abilities. Therefore, in Study One 'You' was used because the term 'I' might have confused the younger age groups, who could have perceived that the questions were referring to myself (the reader) rather than being aimed to them. Overall these changes will be aimed at providing a sufficient measure for this older age group.

Chapter Four: Bullying Roles

(1) Bullying Definitions

Bullying has various definitions, but fundamentally it can be considered as a systematic abuse of power (Smith & Sharp, 1994) which occurs when there is an imbalance of power. Regarding school bullying, Olweus (1993, p. 9) defined this as '*A student is* being bullied *or* victimised *when* he *or* she *is* exposed repeatedly *and* over time *to* negative actions *on* the *part of* one *or* more *other students'*. Olweus defined negative actions as when one or more persons intentionally inflicts, or attempts to inflict, injury or discomfort upon another (i.e. behaves in an aggressive manner). Craig and Pepler (2003) defined bullying as harmful physical, verbal, or relational aggression used intentionally to assert dominance.

Peterson and Rigby (1999, p206) described bullying as:
"Bullying occurs when someone is deliberately hurting or frightening someone weaker than themselves for no good reason. ... teasing, threatening actions or gestures, name-calling or hitting or kicking. It is not bullying when two people of about the same strength have the odd fight or quarrel."

This chapter will explore bullying participant roles (ringleader, assistant, reinforcer, victim, defender and outsider/bystanders) in children. It will investigate how children self-report their roles within the bullying context and whether or not these ratings differ from those provided by their peers. This chapter will predominately focus upon bully and victim roles, as the premise of the CAES-C is that it provides a valid and reliable measure of cognitive and affective empathy improvements after the implementation of anti-bullying interventions. Additionally, it will investigate whether or not there are gender or age differences within these specific roles, and give an overview of selected research regarding bullying prevalence in primary and secondary schools. These bullying behaviours/roles will be examined both within traditional bullying (TB) and cyberbullying (CB), focusing upon individual differences in relation to empathy, aggression and the Social Information Processing Model (Crick & Dodge, 1994).

(2) Bullying Participation Models

(i)The Participant Role Scale Approach

The Participant Role Scale (PRS) approach by Salmivalli, Lagerspetz, Björkqvist, Österman and Kaukiainen (1996) states that;

"Bullying is social in its nature, and takes place in relatively permanent groups in which the victim has little possibility of avoiding his/her tormentors, and the bully often gets support from other group members" (Björkqvist et al., 1982, p.1).

The PRS model works from the premise that bullying is a social phenomenon. Salmivalli et al.'s (1996) Finnish study, with 600 Year Six pupils (aged between twelve/thirteen years) identified six frequent subtypes of bullying participant roles; the ringleader, the assistant, the reinforcer, the victim, the defender and the outsider/bystanders.

The ringleader is the initial perpetrator of the bullying, the assistant helps, and the reinforcer incites or encourages the bullying behaviour by providing an audience. The victim provides the target for the bullying, and the defender sticks up for the victim by either telling an adult, comforting the victim or by actively trying to get the bullying stopped. Outsiders/bystanders are peers who act passively when bullying occurs. Outsiders/bystanders use behaviours such as pretending not to notice or avoiding the bullying or by seeming to be oblivious that the bullying behaviour is actually taking place.

Salmivalli et al. (1996) found that peer nomination scores for the bully, reinforcer, assistant, defender and outsider did not greatly overlap. Overall Salmivalli et al. (1996) were able to classify 87% of students within their PRS and to support the rationale that bullying is a group phenomenon in which the majority of children have a definable role.

Salmivalli et al's. (1996) study demonstrated gender differences. Boys were more likely to participate in bullying roles (ringleader, reinforcer and assistant) than girls. This finding was replicated by Salmivalli, Lappalainen and Lagerspetz (1998), who used a follow-up subsample of students taking part in their earlier study (Salmivalli et al., 1996). They found that 29 % of girls were classified as defenders as opposed to only 5% of males, and that girls were most commonly placed within either the role of defender or outsider. Salmivalli et al. (1996) suggested that their findings may have been influenced by gender stereotypical roles as society

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deems it more socially acceptable for boys to engage in aggressive acts, whilst having the expectation that girls engage in maternal roles such as helping and caring and to have a better developed ability for empathy (Hoffman, 1977, see Chapter One for further details).

Salmivalli et al. (1996) found that participant roles have a relationship with the child's sociometric status. Defenders were more likely to be accepted by their peers, but in contrast victims and the various types of bullies (ringleader, reinforcer and assistant), were more likely to be rejected. In response to Salmivalli et al. (1996), Walden and MacKinnon (2003) identified that children who held the leadership roles in high status peer groups were more likely to take either a bullying or a defender participant role, suggesting that children's sociometric high status leadership roles are very complex.

Salmivalli's (2001) review found that children who bullied (especially assistant bullies) are usually part of a social network of the child being bullied. Gender differences were shown as female bullies had both higher social acceptance but also social rejection, which is rather a surprising finding as ordinarily acceptance is the opposite of rejection. This suggests girl bullies have a controversial status, whilst boy bullies had lower peer status. However, this contradicts research by Luthar and McMahon (1996, in Salmivalli, 2001) which has indicated in secondary school-aged boys that engage in aggressive behaviours are perceived by peer nominations as a sub-set of "aggressive –popular. Similarly, Rodkin, Farmer, Pearl, and Van Acker, 2000 (in Salmivalli, 2001), analyses of teacher ratings demonstrated that such sub-sets are regarded as "popular- toughs". These studies support the premise that high status boys can be viewed as socially competent and in accordance have higher perceived popularity. Therefore, this rather complex relationship may be due to the method of bullying used by girls compared to boys. Girls generally use more relational or indirect bullying, which are more sophisticated and subtle methods of bullying than boys, who use more direct, often physical bullying. Girl bullies may be characterised as appearing frightening during their bullying behaviours, but they were admired outside of them because they were able to entertain and stimulate their peers in a social context.

Sutton and Smith (1999) adapted Samivalli et al.'s (1996) PRS approach, using a sample of English school children aged between seven to eleven year olds (Years 3 to 6). Sutton and Smith (1999) made two major adaptations to the Salmivalli et al. (1996) original methodology. First they made a reduction of the PRS (following consultation with Salmivalli), condensing the original 49 behavioural descriptors to 21 items; bully 4, reinforcer 2, assistant 2, defender 5,

outsider 4 and victim 1). Second, they used interviews rather than questionnaires because Sutton and Smith's pilot study using Salmivalli et al.'s (1996) questionnaire was found to have created several methodological problems in a younger age sample. Factors such as difficulties with reading comprehension made the questionnaire time consuming resulting in a lack of attention and motivation in these younger children.

The results of Sutton and Smith's (1999) study also indicated gender differences. Boys had higher scores than girls as reinforcers and assistants, and conversely to Salmivalli et al's. (1996) findings, boys were also rated more often as either a defender or as an outsider. This difference was accounted for by the fact that more girls than boys within this sample had no defined PRS role. However, no significant gender differences were found in ringleader bully or victim scores. Additionally, age differences were found; reinforcers were significantly younger than outsiders, suggesting that younger aged children may lack the confidence to resist or abstain from the bullying and so allow themselves to become involved.

(ii) New Peer Role Scales (NPRS)

Goossens, Olthof and Dekker (2006) assessed a New Peer Role Scale (NPRS) with Dutch ten year olds. The NPRS used an adapted version of the PRS (Salmivalli et al., 1996) which incorporated an Aggression and Victimisation Scale (Perry, Kusel & Perry, 1988). The NPRS reduced the original PRS (Salmivalli et al., 1996) 48 items to 28 and was similar to the Sutton and Smith (1999) and Salmivalli et al. (1998) versions plus four extra items used to expand upon the victim category. Overall the NPRS was constructed from 32 items where the children nominated as many peers as they liked (as leader-like and follower- like bullies, outsider, defender and victim), but were unable to nominate themselves. Within sociometric nominations the children were asked to nominate which two members in their class they liked the most and which ones they liked the least.

The NPRS test-retest reliability was high over a two-year period, as Goossens, Olthof and Dekker's (2006) data supported differences between bullies and followers, as had Sutton and Smith's (1999) version, and enabled a distinction between active and initiative-taking bullies, from those who would join in the bullying at a later stage (leader-like and follower-like bullying). It demonstrated that bullies were generally rejected at time 1 (T1 original test), but at time 2 (T2 re-test) were often categorised as controversial, less average and less popular. This difference may have been found because at T2 the pupils had developed enhanced leadership

and interpersonal skills. Therefore, these students may have used a double strategy using both negative coercive behaviour and prosocial behaviour resulting in peers viewing their behaviour as controversial.

Defenders at T1 and T2, who behaved in a prosocial and empathetic manner, were rated by peers as having high popularity and were less often rejected. Conversely victims were rejected as both times (T1 and T2). A link between the outsider role and sociometric status was not found using the traditional method of nomination (self-nomination), but was shown in the rating-based methodology. This suggests that the traditional method may not be sufficient to make a distinction, as the rating-based method found at T1 and T2 that outsiders were less often rejected but at T2 they were more often likely to be rated within the neglected category. By the use of peer nominations, Goossens et al. (2006) demonstrated that children who were not involved are more often rejected by peers.

Goossens et al. (2006) also found gender differences. Boys were more often categorised as bullies and followers, and girls more often rated as outsiders and defenders; a finding which replicated Salmivalli et al. (1996). However, they argued there may be a lack of content validity in the NPRS as it may have failed to provide items which were able to tap gender differences within bullying styles because girls bully in a more indirect way (social exclusion and damaging another child's reputation) than boys, who generally use more open and direct methods. Additionally, methods of defending behaviour in boys may not have been measured effectively, as the descriptors did not include types of defending behaviours which are used more often by boys, such as physical and verbal attacks directed towards the bully. Furthermore, the outsider category descriptors may have been more typical of girls, who are generally shown to be more likely to shun violence. Also defender category was a role deemed and rated more highly by girls maybe because they are generally perceived by society to behave in a prosocial way. Defenders were rated more highly popular by girls, than by boys, which could have affected their categorisation. Therefore, Goossens et al. (2006) argued that the NPRS items are able to make a clear distinction within its items that enable such gender-specific prosocial behaviour to be disguised.

The next article discusses measurement validity; investigating if researchers should use percentages (an absolute scores) or relative scores (self and/or peer nominations) when examining bullying behaviours in children.

(iii) Measurement Validity: Should Researchers use an Absolute or Relative Score?

Goossens et al. (2006) acknowledged the importance and validity of an absolute measure such as percentage scores but argued that the appropriate method to use is dependent upon the specific goal of the research. They proposed that when investigating developmental trends an absolute measure, for example percentage scores, seems to be a better indicator; in contrast when assigning bullying roles, a relative score of peer nomination seem to be a more appropriate method as it will enable the investigation of children's perceptions of themselves and others.

However, both can be useful; Salmivalli et al. (1996) used a relative criterion for all bullying roles other than for the victims where they used an absolute measure which helped them to conclude that victims were nominated 30% of the time and showed that victimisation decreased over time. Additionally, they found a decrease in victimisation over time in a somewhat younger age group using a z-score and percentage criterion indicating a decline. This indicates that bullying may start to decrease at a younger age than was first believed.

Percentage scores could be effective at determining the successfulness of anti-bullying interventions being taken before and after the interventions. However, z scores are more indicatively useful for the children's categorisation to help determine an appropriate treatment programme. Furthermore, the relative criterion identified more followers and fewer bullies, but the absolute criterion more bullies and fewer followers, demonstrating that the relative method might determine more children to the victim role (indicating a type one error i.e. a false positive) but conversely the absolute method may not have been sensitive enough to determine any of the PRS roles (indicating a type two error i.e. a false negative).

These differences suggest that it is difficult to make a comparison or to be able to determine which is the most appropriate measure, because the appropriate choice is dependent upon what specifically the researcher wishes to investigate. Overall Goossens et al. (2006) supported the use of the nomination methodology, arguing that it allows a less taxing and tedious measure for both the pupils and the researchers. They argued that the NPRS enables a continuous scale for each of the PRS roles.

Summary of PRS Studies

The Participant Role Approach demonstrated that children are more likely to accept other children who they have rated as defenders, than they are bullies, and rather surprisingly victims too. Furthermore, bullies are rated as being controversial, less average and less popular than other roles other than the victim. This controversial rating seems to be more prominent at the end of primary school where bullies use very conflicting (negative cohesive and seemingly prosocial) behaviours to achieve their goals. In contrast defenders are seen as behaving in a prosocial and empathetic manner, which leads to higher popularity. Bully-victims were shown to be more likely to be rejected by peers, and in contrast bullies were often found to be an actual part of the victim's social network. Moreover, children who are uninvolved (i.e. bystander/outsiders) were shown to be rejected by peers when a nomination methodology was used.

Gender differences were shown as girls were more likely to use more covert behaviours that masked their antisocial behaviours of bullying. Defenders were characterised as having more empathic behaviours than the other roles. Boys were more likely to be viewed as being a bully or follower. However, many of the differences may have resulted from the measures used as several of the categorisation items may be viewed by the children as being more socially applicable to attribute to girls and certain behaviours which exist in boys may not be admitted to because they are deemed as gender inappropriate behaviours.

The majority of research regarding the Participant Role Approach suggests that females are more likely to be nominated as defenders (Salmivalli et al., 1996; Goossens et al., 2006). These findings may be due to demand characteristics in the children's ratings as they may feel that it is more culturally acceptable for females to be seen as defenders. However, Sutton and Smith (1999) found that males were more likely to be rated as defenders and outsiders which seems to be in contradiction to the other studies (Salmivalli et al., 1996, Goossens et al., 2006).

Differences were found which seemed to be dependent upon the type of methodological measure used. Therefore, it is fundamental that researchers are precise about what specifically they wish to investigate. For developmental trends an absolute measure such as percentage scores should be used; when designating peer nominations, a relative score is more appropriate as used by Salmivalli et al. (1996).

Therefore, the next section of this chapter will focus on what other individual factors may have a relationship with a child's participant role in bullying. It will investigate the various roles: defenders, bystander/outsiders, passive/common victims, provocative victim/bullies (also known as bully-victims) and bullies.

(3) Defender Roles

Children nominated for defender roles generally have high levels of social competence skills which may assist in their abilities to affectively defend others (Crick, 1999). However, an observational study by O'Connell et al. (1999) found no significant difference between the genders in social competence. In contrast O'Connell al. (1999) found significant differences between the ages as younger and older girls were more likely to defend the victim, than older boys were.

Davis (1994) found that high levels of empathy in high school juniors correlated highly to prosocial behaviour (see Chapter Two for further details of this study). Foster et al. (1986; in Davies, 1994) found that help and support were linked to acceptance from their peers, in children between seven to fourteen years.

Rigby and Johnson (2006) showed that children who had the intentions to intervene and defend victims were more often primary school girls who had rarely (if ever) been bullied themselves. They found several fundamental reasons that defenders stated were the justifications as to why they helped their peers: the moral explanation, because bullying is simply wrong and that helping is the right action to take; that it was in their basic instinct to help others and that defending was related to empathic feelings (concern and pity); others appeared to relate it to their own feelings about being bullied; for the reciprocal benefit defending could bring e.g. in making a new friend; that it was conditional as their friends would stick up for them if they were in that position; and finally the possibility of gaining higher peer status.

(i) Active Defending and Passive Bystanding Behaviour

Pozzoli and Gini (2010) examined the role of pro-victim attitudes towards the victim specifically in relation to personal responsibility and coping responses, and the perception of

normative peer pressure on 7th to 8th grade (11 to 13 years of age) pupils in four middle schools in Italy. This study used multivariate sources of ratings (i.e. pupils and their teachers).

Their results demonstrated that problem solving coping strategies and the perception of normative peer pressure had a positive relationship with active helping behaviour of the victim. Teacher ratings were negatively correlated to bystander behaviour as rated by the teachers. Passive bystander behaviour was associated with distancing strategies and negatively correlated with teacher ratings for defender behaviours. Defending behaviour was positively correlated to personal responsibility but only when there was low peer pressure for bystander behaviour. This supports Rigby and Johnson (2006) as it suggests that that the mere intention to defend needs to be strengthened by peer pressure to assist as it increases with age, especially in early adolescence when peer norms seem to have the strongest impact upon behaviour. Furthermore, even when personal responsibility was deemed low in pupils peer pressure from friends increased defending behaviour. This effect was weakened and dependent upon the closeness of the peers - the closer the relationship the higher the pressure. Finally, pupils seemed to be deterred from helping the victim when there was a perception of peer pressure. This indicated that these pupils deferred personal responsibility and their lack of response towards peers.

(ii) The Role of Individual Correlates and Class Norms in Defending and Passive Bystanding Behaviour in Bullying

Pozzoli, Gini and Vieno (2012) examined individual and class correlates of defending and passive bystanding behaviour in bullying, in Italian primary school (M=10 years) and middle school (M = 13 years) pupils. The findings indicated that a combination of individual characteristics (provictim attitudes and perceived peer pressure for intervention) and class characteristics (class provictim attitudes, peer injunctive norms, and descriptive norms) facilitated defending and passive bystanding behaviour in bullying. This study helped to strengthen Pozzoli and Gini's (2010) conclusions above on active defending behaviour and bystander behaviours as it reinforces the fundamental importance of peer pressure. Moreover, it extends Pozzoli and Gini's study (2010) by investigating the importance of class characteristics too.

(iii) Willingness to Intervene in Bullying Episodes among Middle School Students: Individual and Peer-Group Influences

Espelage, Green and Polanin (2012) investigated the relationship between empathy (perspective taking), and specific attitudes towards victimisation and bullying within peer groups in 6th and 7th grade (11-12-year-old) students in the USA. Their results indicated that boy's willingness to defend and intervene was dependent upon the social network involved. Factors such as perspective taking in boys, was also associated with defending in male peer groups, but only after controlling for their willingness to intervene. Conversely if the boys peer group was involved within the bullying this was related to a lack of willingness to intervene. However, this pattern was not shown in girls. Their findings suggest that within male bullying peer groups anti-bullying interventions should focus upon enhancing prosocial male defending behaviours to intervene against the bullying peer group.

The research by Pozzoli and Gini (2010), Pozzoli et al. (2012) and Espelage et al. (2012) suggests that the willingness to engage in defender or bystander behaviour is specific to many factors. These include the closeness of the defenders' relationship to the peer who is being bullied, and the levels of peer pressure to intervene/help. There seemed to be fundamental differences between actively defending or bystander behaviour where peer pressure was influential, especially in boys, resulting in a lack of willingness to intervene when their peer group are implementing the bullying. Furthermore, in boys' perspective taking abilities was correlated with the boy's willingness to intervene.

(4) Bystanders/Outsiders

Bystanders and outsiders are terms which can be viewed as synonymous within the PRS perspective (Salmivalli et al., 1996). Bystanders can be defined in as children or adolescents who are not directly involved when bullying occurs (Salmivalli et al., 1996). Some authors (Cowie, 2000; Menesini, Codecasa, Bennelli & Cowie, 2003) propose that because bystanders generally withdraw when bullying behaviours occur (i.e. they are avoidant onlookers or a silent audience) they can also be defined as passive onlookers.

Students can play different roles when witnessing a bullying episode toward a peer, from passive onlookers, to active participants (Atlas & Pepler, 1998, Gini et al., 2008). Latane and Darley (1968) stated that bystanders generally look to others to see how they should act or

behave. Therefore, if they see that no-one else is assisting the victim, they then view/interpret the situation as not being an emergency and so do not offer help. Within bullying, the bystander may believe that someone else other than them will offer help and deal with the situation (a diffusion of responsibility). Salmivalli et al., (1996) called children who act as bystanders (children who remain passively aside and do not intervene) the outsiders who generally make up around 24% of the PRS role assignments. Monks (2000) stated that bystander/outsiders in younger children (four - six year olds) make up 24% of classroom peer category roles.

Generally, research has focused upon these children's reactions to psychological and behavioural bullying. Bystanders/outsiders reactions are generally on a continuum from acting passively to defending behaviour or negatively as assistants to the bullying. The next section will examine these factors and investigate why some children behave in this manner and what are the consequences for this type of behaviour. This lack of involvement by bystanders/outsiders has been argued to serve to reinforce the bully's aggressive behaviour and increase the isolation and humiliation of the victim (Hazler, 1996). Hazler (1996) found that passive bystanders/outsiders behave in this manner for one of three reasons, firstly they do not actually know what to do, secondly they are frightened that if they do assist the victim they may then become the bully's target, and lastly they might not actually do the correct thing and may actually make the bullying worse.

(i) Bystanders Readiness to Support the Victim

A possible reason why outsiders may avoid the victims was investigated by Rigby and Johnson (2006), whose research focused on outsiders/bystanders readiness to support victims of bullying Rigby and Johnson (2006) study was conducted with Australian school-aged children as part of the International Bystander Project, with similar groups of school children in England, South Africa, Italy, Israel, and Bangladesh. Ninety per cent of the children indicated an actual awareness that the bullying was occurring in the presence of bystanders/outsiders. Therefore, the study focused on how the bystanders behaved when witnessing bullying. The results indicated that there were various possible reasons why outsiders fail to help the victims of bullying; that they believe that it is not "my concern"; that they fear the consequences that their intervention brought upon them personally; that the responsibility was with the victim because they can take care of themselves; or that the victim deserved it because of their provocative behaviour; that they feel that their personal action to stop the bullying would be useless or in a worst case scenario, make the bullying worse; and finally a very small percentage of children

found the possibility of violence an attractive prospect in itself. There was a large variability in readiness to intervene, but forty-three per cent stated that they would help the victim; this high percentage may have been influenced by social desirability in the responses as the majority of these pupils did not in reality offer helpful behaviour. Additionally, while the bystanders acknowledged an overall positive attitude towards the victims, the majority of children (57%) did not actually state that they would support the victim.

Rigby and Johnson (2006) found that the children who were willing to intervene were more likely to be younger (primary school-aged) and female, and those children who rarely, if ever bullied others. Factors such as the opinions of their significant others (parents and friends) seemed to help support this prosocial behaviour. Teacher expectations in younger children have been shown to have a positive impact upon helping behaviour (Rigby & Bagshaw, 2003) and teacher suggestions for conflict resolution. Conversely in many young adolescents, teacher expectations have been found to have a negative impact, as this age group is more open to peer suggestions, than to adult ones. This suggests that within young adolescent age groups the use of less direct methods (i.e. role play or normative peer pressure) would be more productive in encouraging bystander intervention, which can help to develop safe and successful means of indicating/expressing peer disapproval of victimisation.

(ii) Assertive Bystander Behaviour

Aboud and Miller (2007) investigated assertive bystander behaviour in verbal bullying, specifically name calling. Their study with third to sixth grade (8 -11 year-olds) Canadian pupils aimed to examine how passive bystander behaviour can be counteracted in terms of intergroup discrimination. They used scenarios of an in-group bully victimizing on an out-group victim. Assertive bystander behaviour (moral, social conventional and psychological) and effectiveness was demonstrated by getting the name calling stopped.

Aboud and Miller's (2007) results indicated that sixty per cent of pupils in the last four weeks had witnessed a bullying incident. Moreover, sixth graders were shown to be more 'bothered' by the bullying, but conversely only ten per cent of sixth graders were willing to intervene in comparison a greater percentage of third graders (22%). This indicated that the majority of bystanders did not want to get involved and either just watched the victimisation or ignored that it was actually happening. However, pupils less frequently stated that they were afraid to get

involved or did not know what to do or say. The majority of sixth graders, while they did not want to get involved, did feel that they wanted to talk about the victimisation to somebody.

Overall it was found that for the assertive bystanders who were successful in stopping the bullying, anti-bias comments against anti-social behaviour seemed fundamentally successful to help counteract harm from public discrimination. Parent models were shown to be more effective in younger age groups, while peer group models seemed to have the greatest influence for the older year group. Older pupils were more likely to use reasons of morality to justify intervening, and younger pupils used social or psychological rationales. Therefore, if bystanders create a positive norm around peers, especially within the playground in their intergroup relationships, and re-affirm anti-bias attitudes, they will act as assertive role models for other bystanders.

(iii) Are Bullies More Aggressive and Less Empathic than Defenders?

Gini, Albiero, Benelli and Altoe (2007) investigated bullies' high levels of aggression and low levels of empathy. They argued that the self-report measures used by Endresen and Olweus (2001), who developed a short ad hoc empathy scale, and Norwegian preadolescent self-reports of bullying behaviours to investigate the relation between the two, which found a negative weak relation between empathy and bullying, and a larger negative correlation between empathy and positive attitudes to bullying, because it may have caused a bias. Firstly, because lower levels of empathic responsiveness in bullies may have lowered the preadolescent's ability to recognise their aggressive behaviours towards others; and secondly because social desirability bias may have occurred as the children may not have wanted to be seen as engaging in bullying behaviours. To counteract for such bias, peer nominations were used to provide more valid independent judgements. A dimensional measure was used to allow a continuous rather than categorical indicator of the children's typical behaviour. Empathy was examined by a single index calculated as the sum of score of two dimensions of empathy, perspective taking (cognitive empathy) and empathic concern (affective empathy); this allowed them to establish bullying behaviour and the role of each component definition of empathy. Gini et al. (2007) investigated for possible gender differences between peer nominations in the PRS, as past research suggests boys would be nominated as pro-bullying and girls as defenders (Sutton & Smith, 1999); and that girls' would usually be described as more empathic (Davis, 1994). They conducted separate structural equation modelling (SEM) for gender. Gini et al. (2007) found that all the structural coefficients of empathy (perspective taking and empathic concern), and

pro-bullying and defending behaviour were significant. Low levels of empathic response were associated with bullying behaviour and a high level of empathic response was associated with defending behaviour. However, Gini et al. (2008) found that in girls, having a high empathic response was not a sufficient requisite for defending behaviour per se.

(iv) Determinates of Adolescents Active Defending and Passive Bystander Behaviour

Gini, Albiero, Benelli, Altoe and Gianmarco (2008) investigated a model, which suggested that two fundamental characteristics, empathy and perceived social self-efficacy, were important determinants of active defending of the victim. They used Salmivalli et al.'s (1996) PRS, and Davies's interpersonal reactivity index (IRI, 1980, 1983) to measure empathy with Italian adolescents aged twelve to fourteen years.

Empathy was found to be positively correlated with both types of behaviour - active defending and passive bystanding/outsider behaviour. Defender's high levels of empathy seemed to contribute to their willingness to engage in the plight of the victim, which led to prosocial types of behaviour such as telling the bully to stop and providing the victim with comfort. While it might be expected that passive bystanders would have lower levels of empathy this was not found to be the case as their levels were quite high. This suggests that high levels of empathy alone are not sufficient for peers to engage in prosocial defending behaviour. An additional contributory factor seemed to be self-efficacy beliefs within the context of interpersonal interactions, as students with both high empathy and self-efficacy beliefs were associated with defender behaviours. These findings suggest that in adolescents, high empathy levels cannot sufficiently explain defending behaviour, because whilst many students may perceive the victims feelings of suffering and wish to stop this suffering, they may actually stay outside of the situation because they do not believe that they are able to help and intervene efficaciously.

This research suggests that there are fundamental reasons that differentiate defenders from bystanders/outsiders. Defenders are generally younger female primary school-aged children who seem to be reliant, and encouraged, by the opinions of significant others in their lives (friends and parents). In contrast some bystanders/outsiders do not help the victim because they believe they might make matters worse, for the victim and themselves, and by helping they may actually become a victim themselves. Yet other bystanders feel that it is not their concern or that

the victim was being provocative and deserved being bullied. Empathy may not be a single contributory factor to differentiate defenders and bystanders/outsiders as both groups could have high levels of empathy. Additional factors such as high self-efficacy belief seem to be associated with defending behaviour and while some bystanders/outsiders want to help and have cognitive and affective empathy, they do not have the belief in themselves. They may believe that their help will be ineffective and may even make matters worse.

The next section will examine victims of bullying demonstrating two very distinct sub-types of victimisation (the passive/common victim and provocative bully-victim).

(5) *Victims of Bullying*

Longitudinal research suggests that victim status may be a relatively stable concept across time (Olweus, 1977). Victims of bullying generally have fewer friends and lower levels of self-esteem which makes them more vulnerable to abusive manipulations. Greene (2000) proposed that bullies usually target peers who primarily react in an ineffective aggressive manner, and are as a result easily subdued. Camodeca, Goossens, Terwogt, and Schuengal (2002) stated that fundamentally it is the manner by which the victims respond to the bullying which categorises them as either passive or provocative/aggressive victims.

(i) *The Passive/Common Victim*

The most frequent type of victim is the passive/common victim. Risk factors for this include being withdrawn and/ or displaying behaviours such as anxiety and insecurity. Such victims do not retaliate with aggression but internalise their emotions by either withdrawing or by crying (Carney & Merrell, 2001). Moreover, passive victims may experience peer exclusion resulting in them being ignored and /or rejected.

The Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986) suggests that we should expect a correlation between an individual's behaviour and peer victimisation. Bandura (1977,1986) proposed that outcome expectancies of either reward or punishment may shape behaviour, and that such behaviours may be heavily influenced by how much weight that individual attaches to the consequences of their actions (the outcome values). Schwartz et al. (1993) found that boys who rarely initiated assertive behaviour or who spent their time in passive play were more likely to be victimised because they rewarded their bullies by displaying signs of distress which

reinforced the bullying behaviour. Veenstra, Lindenberg, Oldehinkel, Verhulst and Ormel (2005) found that girls were more likely to be passive victims than their male peers and indicated that bullies and victim roles are not mutually exclusive (see bully/victims, below).

Champion, Vernberg and Shipman (2003) investigated nonbullying adolescent victims (NBAV) and factors which differentiate them from non-victims (NV). Their results showed that there were relatively subtle differences between the two groups. NBAV had difficulties in the management of confrontation and demonstrated more reactive aggressive behaviour towards peers. These characteristics could be indicative of an inability to be able to differentiate the escalation of an ambiguous situation resulting in it turning into a conflict. Girls in the victim group displayed fewer self-controlled responses to conflict than non-victim females who used greater social skills. NBAV girls were shown to have fewer levels of social skills, which would help to maintain the required element of self-control, and they generally lacked the ability to have successful interpersonal interactions with peers. Moreover, these girls failed in their behavioural intent as they were unable to select non aggressive alternative counterattacks to elevate confrontations. Females generally reported more social support than boys within their close friendships such as warmth, companionship and intimacy. However, the female victims reported more confrontations and conflicts within these friendship groups. This suggests that these females were unable to use strategies such as conflict resolution and had a tendency to become embroiled in arguments with their friends, which in turn results in peer rejection and a reduction in their opportunities to develop their interpersonal social competence skills.

(ii) Provocative Victim/ Bully-Victims

A sizable group of children classified as bullies, or as victims, appear to be a combination of both, i.e. bully/victims (Stephenson & Smith 1989). Provocative victim-bullies (or bully-victims) are generally seen as less common than passive victims, and are individuals who have been or are still being victimised, but who are now involved in bullying in either a provocative or aggressive manner. Olweus (1984) proposed that only one in five victims can be categorized as provocative. Alternatively, Perry, Kusel and Perry (1988) stated that there are generally equal numbers of low and high aggression victims.

Perry, Kusel and Perry (1988, 2001) stated that bullies are often victims of bullying within their home environments; they found a relationship between victimisation and levels of aggression.

Their research demonstrated that the most extreme victims of bullying have an association with some of the most prolific and aggressive bullying practices against others. Victims-bullies have been correlated to aggressive victims, who are characterized by symptoms of internalized distress (e.g. depression and anxiety, Haynie et al., 2001) and externalizing behaviours problems (Schwartz, Dodge, Pettit & Bates 1997); these generally result in more excessive and importunate forms of peer treatment than is the case for other victims of bullying (Salmivalli & Nieminen, 2002). However unlike direct aggressors, the aggressive victim behaviours are indicative of an underlying state of poorly controlled anger and irritability rather than a goal-orientated social strategy (Tobin et al., 2005).

Bully-victims may also provoke and aggravate their peers sometimes to the extent of antagonising aggressors. This type of bully-victim are the highest risk group, who generally elicits negative feelings not only from the bullies but from all peers (Carney & Merrell, 2001). Natvig, Albertson, and Qvarnstrom (2001) proposed that past victimisation may have a causal relationship for engaging in the bullying of peers. It has been suggested that provocative victim-bullies are easily upset emotionally so such emotions interfere with their social cognitions (Randall, 1997). Moreover, gender studies have indicated that males are more likely than females to be victim/bullies (Veenstra et al., 2005).

(6) Bullies

Bullies were divided into three distinct categories within the PRS (Salmivalli et al., 1996); ringleader bullies (8.2%), reinforcers (6.8%), and assistants (17.3%). The initial category, the bully or ringleader is the initial perpetrator of the victimisation, who may be aided by other children (reinforcers and assistants). The reinforcers of the bullying help the ringleader by reinforcing the ringleaders behaviour and supporting their wishes – for example they may assist by providing an audience and through verbal encouragement. The assistant bully helps in any aspect of the bullying that the ringleader requires help or assistance. Generally, the largest percentage of children engaging in the bullying roles are categorised as assistant bullies; this is especially true of younger children, who lack the confidence or skills to become a ringleader bully or to not actually get involved within the bullying incident.

As research on aspects of bullying is vast, the next section of this chapter will focus upon a selection of literature which is significant to the CAES-C. This includes the prevalence and

stability of bullying both in primary and secondary schools and whether or not bullying is decreasing. It will also review factors which have been proposed to explain why children bully, and why their peers believe that these children bully them or other children.

(i) Are Bullying Prevalence Rates Decreasing?

Rigby and Smith (2011) examined empirical research which specifically focused upon repeated surveys from twenty-seven countries within Europe and Northern America regarding the prevalence of bullying. Much of the data was drawn from the HBSC survey, reported by Molcho, Craig, Due, Pickett, Harel-Fisch, and Overpeck (2009), with eleven to fifteen-year-old pupils. This demonstrated that while chronic bullying was on the decrease, occasional bullying seemed to be on the increase, suggesting that many bullies did not bully the same victim but are indiscriminate about who they victimised. Molcho et al. (2009) found a significant reduction for both occasional and chronic bullying between 1997 and 2006 for males but no difference on either measure for girls.

In the USA, Finkelhor, Turner, Ormrod, and Hamby (2009) examined data from two studies conducted in 2003 and 2008, about abusive behaviour generally (emotional or physical, sexual, peer and sibling victimisation) experienced by children between the ages of two to seventeen years of age. Caregivers responded for children under the age of eleven and older children provided self-reported data. It was found that between these dates that there was a reduction in the levels of reported abusive behaviour. This reduction was found to be more prominent within physical sibling and peer abuse (from 22% to 15%), and while a reduction was shown in emotional abuse it was not as significant. These differences were speculated to be dependent upon increases in the use of the school's implementation of anti-bullying interventions.

Del Barrio, Martín, Montero Gutiérrez, Barrios and José de Dios (2008) investigated 300 secondary schools in Spain over a seven-year period. They found highly significant reductions in bullying, which included name calling, being insulted, ignored, threatened sexual harassed and having belongings hidden; and a similar reduction for the bullying of others. Del Barrio et al. (2008) argued that because this study was over seven years it provided strong evidence for a reduction of bullying behaviours.

Between 2001 and 2004, Roland, Bru, Midthassel, and Vaasland (2010) found a significant decrease in bullying in grades five, six, seven and nine (10-15 year olds) of Norwegian schools.

However, Roland (2011) showed an increase in bullying between 2004 and 2008, which he suggested was due to the lack of follow up of the Norwegian Manifesto I (2002-04), which focused heavily against bullying, within the Manifesto-II (2006).

(ii) The Prevalence of Bullying in Middle School-Aged Children

Boulton and Underwood (1992) studied the prevalence of bully-victims in two groups of middle school children (eight-nine year-olds and eleven-twelve year-olds), in schools in England, using self-report. Overall the findings indicated that the majority of children reported higher levels of verbal rather than direct physical methods of bullying being used against them.

Significant age differences were found, as it emerged that the older children reported less prevalence of bullying. This finding suggests that younger children have a greater prevalence of being bullied by older children. Gender differences were shown, as a greater number of boys were bullied or were taking the bully role; Sixty per cent of girls reported being bullied by boys only.

Victimisation had a significant relationship with reported peer rejection; less friendships and higher levels of loneliness. Bullies believed that victims were instrumental and provoked their victimisation. Victims believed that they were bullied because they were younger, smaller and weaker. Generally, bullies were shown to have lower levels or a lack of empathy, in comparison to non-bullying peers, as only a quarter of stated that they felt negative feelings such as sadness when they victimised other children (indicating low affective empathy) or that they felt that their victims would have negative feelings (i.e. demonstrating a lack of cognitive empathy).

(iii) The Prevalence of Bullying in Eleven-Fifteen year olds: What is an appropriate cut-off point?

Solberg and Olweus (2003) investigated the prevalence of bullying with Norwegian pupils between eleven-fifteen years of age, in order to determine a reasonable cut-off point for assessing its prevalence. This study included the perceptions of victims, bullies and non-involved pupils. It used a global measure; the children had been bullied\or bullied others (i.e. two or three times a month, or more often) were categorised as bully-victims and whose who had not been bullied or bullied others or this had only occurred once or twice, were categorised

as non-victims/non-bullies. The measures of victimisation and bullying asked seven questions in regard to the various types of victimisation these were verbal, social exclusion, having rumours spread about them, direct victimisation, having things taken from them, threatened into actions against their will, and finally being bullied in regard to the child's race or colour.

Solberg and Olweus (2003) argued that although this type of research predominately relies upon the use of a single self-report (i.e. questionnaires); this method was an appropriate one because it functioned reasonably well providing sufficient construct validity and desirable 'psychometric properties'.

Solberg and Olweus (2003) demonstrated within the bully category factors such as social disintegration/dissolution (i.e. the victim felt less liked by their peers), negative self-evaluations such as self-esteem and higher incidence of depression. Conversely bullies were found to have higher externalising problems (i.e. aggression and antisocial behaviour). These results were found to be consistent in both boys and girls in both primary and secondary schools indicating a high level of generalizability, especially as this study had a large sample size (over 5,000 pupils).

Solberg and Olweus (2003) results suggested that two to three times a month was an appropriate lower bound cut-off point for prevalence rates of bullying. The cut-off point exclusion of once or twice was deemed by Solberg and Olweus (2003) as inappropriate, because it does not agree with the general definition of bullying (i.e. it does not occur over time and is not repetitive). One third of the students before a definition of bullying stated that they had been bullied. However, after Olweus's (2003) definition had been provided, during the duration of bullying questions replied that they had not been bullied. This could be interpreted as either these children agreed with the definition of bullying provided by this study and so did not believe that they were being bullied. Conversely these children may not have understood the Olweus questionnaire definition of bullying, affecting the studies internal validity.

Solberg and Olweus (2003) argued that it would be useful to use percentage rates for children being bullied or those who had bullied others for pastoral care as it would enable teachers to make evaluations in regards to successfulness of prevention or intervention programmes. In conclusion Solberg and Olweus (2003) argued that it is fundamental when reporting prevalence

rates that less circumscribed groups should be included than the victim and bully (pure victims, bully-victims and pure bullies) because this will allow stronger interpretive results.

(iv) The Stability of Direct and Relational Victimisation

Wolke, Woods and Samara (2009) investigated the stability of direct and relational victimisation with English children aged six-nine years (Year 2-4); with a follow-up study two-four years later.

Wolke et al., (2009) found that children who were victims of relational bullying were more likely to withdraw from the follow-up study than their non-bullied counterparts. These children were shown to have fewer friends, and to have been part of a class, which had a strong hierarchical peer structure. Children who had been directly bullied were shown to be two times more likely to be still suffering from victimisation at follow ups, but this was only found in girls who had received less positive peer nominations, which seemed to be indicative of victimisation. No real long-term stability was found in remaining a relational victim. However, in classes which had high hierarchical peer structures, children who received negative peer nominations and had health problem, were found to be more likely to have become victims of relational bullying at the two-four-year follow-up.

Wolke et al., (2009) found that 85% of the children who had dropped out of the study had moved to another school. As stated above, these children had fewer friendships which may have been associated with their victimisation because having friendships can act as a deterrent from victimisation because it can provide a protective aid; this may have been a fundamental reason for moving. An increase in relational and decrease in direct bullying was found in the follow-up study. This supports the premise that age has a relationship to the type of bullying behaviour children engage in.

Girls were shown to have a 2.5 increased risk for remaining involved in victimisation than boys. Boys were more likely to be involved in direct bullying than girls. Possible explanations for this difference are that female victims may be more visible and labelled as victims, which then in turn is a difficult label to lose. Also girls generally engage in close relationships groups which are predominately dependent upon dominance and acceptance in the in-group. Such girls are less likely to make close friendships with peers from outside of their group (the out-group),

resulting in victimisation from outside groups. Additionally, many of these girls were shown to be high in impulsivity and had difficulties regulating their negative emotions which may have reinforced their victimisation.

Overall the Wolke et al., (2009) study demonstrated that direct bullying is more stable in female victims between the ages of six to eleven than males. It would seem that predominately male bullies are negatively re-inforced by their victim's emotional response. They suggest that between the initial study and follow-ups, some victims developed maladaptive coping mechanisms and responses which may lead to low levels of self-esteem, loneliness, depression, anxiety and illness which consequently lead to further victimisation. In contrast relational bullying is not as stable between the ages of six-ten years of age. Pupils between ten - eleven years of age seemed to use relational bullying in a testing manner supporting the premise that relational bullying becomes more prominent in secondary than primary school because of the development of cognition and intimate relationships.

The research on the prevalence of the bullying reviewed above indicates that older children reported less bullying, which suggests that bullying decreases with age. However, this figure may also be indicative of older children being shown to be more likely to bully younger children. Victims were shown to be more likely to be rejected by peers and believed by their bullies to actually provoke their victimisation. Boys were found to be more likely to be the bullies and the majority of girls more likely to be bullied by such boys. Prevalence of bullying was found to be consistent across time as children who had been shown to be bullied over a one term period had often been bullied the term before. I argue that there are problems making comparisons within this type of research as there seems to be a fundamental lack of consistency between the measures and methodology used. Finally factors such as cultural differences within the school systems and policies make it difficult to obtain precise comparisons across cultures.

(v) Stability and Constancy of Bully-Victim Behaviour

Strohmeier, Wagner, Spiel, and Von Eye (2010) investigated Austrian preadolescents/adolescents (between nine-fifteen years) and adolescents (fifteen-nineteen years) to determine; firstly, the stability of bully-victim behaviour and its constancy between preadolescents and adolescents; and secondly whether or not there are any patterns of change between the different age groups of the bully-victims identified. This was achieved by two short longitudinal studies; for the stability over time, one month before and then two months after the

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summer holidays, during a four-week summer camp which started immediately at the end of the school term. Study one enabled a study of how these children engaged with stable school class peers. Study two provided a comparison in a camp setting and the opportunity to examine bully-victim behaviour. Strohmeier et al. (2010) argued that bullying behaviour would increase in the bully-victims as they were in a novel and new peer setting/environment and so would be able to establish greater dominance over these peers

Their results showed that victimisation was only moderately stable over time. However, stability was not found between settings. No gender differences were found in either stability or constancy. These findings suggest that across the summer camp setting these children may have felt less interpersonal risk, as they are engaging with new less familiar peers, who were unaware of their bully-victim histories. These risk factors became more prominent when the child returned to their same class peer groups at school. Bullying behaviour was not found to increase in the bully-victim group. This may have been because the children felt better able to relax in their new settings and so did not feel the need to dominate this new peer group. However further investigation is needed to support this, because if it is true it demonstrates that these bully-victims, when not labelled as such, are able to engage normally with peers when they are taken out of their normal school settings.

(vi) Bullying and Victimisation: Should Researchers rely upon a source Single Informant?

Veenstra, Lindenberg, Oldehinkel, Winter and Verhulst (2005) argued that generally, previous research investigating bullying and victimisation has been reliant upon a single informant. They used a sample of Dutch preadolescent pupils from a cohort study called the Tracking Adolescents Individual Life Survey (TRAILS), which followed children from pre-adolescence to 25 years of age, recording the participant's mental health and social development.

Veenstra et al. (2005) initially used multivariate sources of information, teacher and parent questionnaires parent interviews, and peer nominations for bullies and bully-victims, which included factors such as individual differences (aggressiveness, academic performance, prosocial behaviour and dislikability), parenting style (emotional warmth and rejection) and background (gender and social economic status, SES). For victims it measured individual differences (isolation, prosocial behaviour and dislikability, parenting style (overprotection and

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rejection) background (gender and SES). Familial vulnerability for externalising and internalising disorders was also included (adverse family circumstances and parental psychiatric symptoms).

Veenstra et al. (2005) results indicated that bully-victim's perceptions (i.e. but it should be noted that this was only using univariate data and not data which was provided by parents too) of parental relationships were not positive. Bully-victims stated that there was less warmth, and more parental rejection in comparison to other peer groups (i.e. victims and uninvolved peers). Individual characteristics were demonstrated to have a stronger impact upon bullies and victim groups than social circumstances. Higher levels of aggression were naturally found in bully-victims and bullies; however, bullies were less isolated by peers, than their victims, which may help to explain why bully-victims feel rejected and excluded by their peers.

Overall children who were bullied came from classes which had more hierarchical peer structures. Moreover, especially for girls, victim labelling seemed to be very difficult to lose. Victims were generally from out-groups which again was more prominent within females who are more likely to form very tight in-group close, but rigid friendships. Therefore, without the flexibility and fluidity of other friendship groups victimised girls seem to be bullied by out-group peers. Victims demonstrated high impulsivity and difficulties within appropriate emotional regulation which in turn seemed to negatively reinforce their victimisation.

Relational bullying was shown to be more prominent in secondary than primary schools; this may be due to developmental factors such as advanced cognition and interpersonal skills. Bullying was found to be moderately stable over time. Finally, victims were shown to develop maladaptive coping mechanisms, which seemed to reinforce their consequent victimisation and may have subsequently resulted in low levels of self-esteem, loneliness, depression and anxiety. Therefore, Veenstra et al. (2005) study demonstrated the use of various sources of information (teacher and parent questionnaires parent interviews, and peer nomination) allows inter-rater viability to be determined by providing a more accurate overview of what is specifically happening within the individual's life. Moreover, this study indicated that it is appropriate at times to use a combination of multivariate and single source of information (bully-victim's perceptions) to examine the relationship between bullying and victimisation.

(vii) The Emotional Regulation of Victims of Bullying

Mahady-Wilton, Craig and Pepler (2000) observed Canadian children in grades one to six (six-11 year olds), focusing on their emotional regulation, coping behaviours, emotional facial expressions of the victim and the bully during victimisation, and the victim's coping choices and their effects upon subsequent bullying. The study was conducted over a three-year period during winter and spring terms. The observational study consisted of 240 hours of playground and 120 hours of classroom interactions.

Mahady-Wilton et al. (2000) results showed distinct patterns of emotional display and regulation interaction, between the bully and their victim. Victims displayed maladaptive responses of interest and joy; these would normally be indicators of pleasure signals - initially at least it was perceived by the victims as a form of social contact, but by the bully as emotional cues of an immediate positive social reinforcement for the initial and subsequent victimisation. While this may be interpreted as a rather surprising finding, the victim may initially view such social interactions as desirable because they perceive them as attention even though this can be seen as rather dysfunctional. Conversely bullies typically used such displays as a demonstration of higher social dominance status and the victim's emotional displays reinforced a pleasurable experience.

In general, the victims in this study demonstrated passive coping styles, by displaying submissive insecure behaviours and low levels of emotional regulation skills. These passive victims used either non-assertive or withdrawn behaviour which translated to the later development of victim status and in the long-term indictors for the development of low self-esteem and depression (in adolescence or in adulthood). Overall Mahady-Wilton et al. (2000) study found that the victims generally used very maladaptive displays and coping styles which resulted in the escalation of victim status.

By and large the research above by Mahady -Wilton, et al. (2000) suggests that girls are more likely to be passive victims, and boys to be bully/victims (provocative victims), and both groups seem to be isolated from their peers. Factors such as parental warmth or rejection especially in older children were not found to have a relationship specifically to bully/victim status. Older children were less likely to discuss their victimisation with their parents. Maladaptive responses in victims were inadvertently displayed as pleasure signals which seem to provide positive reinforcement for victimisation. This suggests that many victims initially at least perceive these

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social interactions as desirable and consequently when victimisation is apparent their maladaptive responses (verbal and/or physical) encourage the dysfunctional interactions. Overall the majority of victims were found to be passive in nature and their passive coping styles were submissive and insecure exchanges. Therefore, victims rather than addressing the bullying seemed to actually reinforce it.

The next part of this chapter will focus upon cyberbullying as recent research has argued that it is a new technological form of bullying. Consequently, this part of the chapter will review a selection of research in order to determine whether or not it is a distinct form of bullying to traditional bullying. It will also examine why pupils use cyberbullying to victimise peers.

(7) Cyberbullying

(i) A Definition of Cyberbullying

Cyberbullying is defined by Smith et al. (2008, p.376) as;
 "An aggressive, intentional act carried out by a group or individual, using electronic forms of contact, repeatedly over time, against a victim who cannot easily defend him or herself".

The next part of this chapter will investigate how affective and cognitive empathy has been used to investigate the relationship between gender and cyberbullying. It will examine a selection of literature which relates to the roles of empathy and cyberbullying. Moreover, it will investigate whether cyberbullying and traditional bullying differ in relation to pupil's empathy total levels (cognitive & affective).

(ii) Cyberbullying and Affective and Cognitive Empathy

Ang and Goh (2010) investigated the relationship between affective and cognitive empathy, gender and cyberbullying. This study was conducted with students between the ages of twelve to eighteen years of age, in Singapore. Low levels of affective empathy in both genders had an association with CB behaviours. However, this pattern was not found in girls who had low cognitive empathy. Ang and Goh (2010) suggested that anti-bullying empathy based intervention programs should focus upon affective empathy in girls and on cognitive empathy in boys. Therefore, such interventions should predominately be focused on the perspective taking of the victim for boys and the victim's emotionality for girls.

(iii)Affective and Cognitive Empathy as Mediators of Gender differences in Cyber and Traditional Bullying

Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) investigated the mediation role of empathy with its two components (cognitive and affective) when explaining difference between gender in physical and cyberbullying environments. Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) study was conducted with 795 Turkish male and female adolescents between 13-18 years of age.

Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) used their Revised Cyberbullying Inventory (RCBI, Topcu & Erdur 2010), which consisted of 14 mirrored statements incorporating being a bully and victim. The Cyberbullying Inventory (TBQ, Erdur-Baker & Kavsut, 2007) because cyberbullying has been found to be closely related to relational bullying rather than physical bullying (Keith & Martin, 2005; in Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) it aimed to measure the relational type of traditional bullying too. To measure empathy Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) used the Basic Empathy Scale (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2006) to measure cognitive and affective empathy (see Chapter Two for details).

Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) results supported traditional research (Jolliffe & Farrington, 2006) as males were found to bully, more often than females, in both environments (physical and cyber) indicating a lack of empathy. Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) also demonstrated a combined effect of both cognitive and affective empathy, mediated by gender, in traditional and cyberbullying relationship. Affective empathy mediated the gender and traditional bullying relationship even after the effect of cognitive empathy were accounted for. However only an indirect effect of empathy was found in gender and cyberbullying. Subsequently while both of the components of empathy worked as a mediator for both traditional and cyberbullying, affective empathy was found as a specific mediator for the relationship between gender and traditional bullying. Cognitive empathy was not found to be a mediator between gender with both types of bullying (traditional and cyberbullying).

Topcu and Erdur-Baker (2012) proposed that their findings demonstrated that bullies differed with their empathy levels in regards to gender (Ang & Goh, 2010: Jolliffe & Farrington, 2006, 2010), but argued that implications are not gender specific but because less empathy puts adolescents at a higher risk for engaging in bullying. Therefore, anti-bullying interventions should be focused upon cognitive and affective empathy enhancement in males and with

cyberbullying. Conversely with traditional bullying, interventions should predominately focus upon affective empathy.

(iv) Cyberbullying vs. Traditional Bullying in Adolescence and Moral Disengagement (cognitive empathy), Emotions (affective empathy) and Values

Perren and Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger (2012) carried out an on-line survey with students between the ages of 12 and 19 years. They were interested in whether either TB or CB had a relationship with deficits in moral values or emotions (i.e. a lack of remorse, affective empathy) and /or moral disengaged cognitive justifications (cognitive empathy). They hypothesised that there would be a significant overlap between TB and CB; and such negative aspects of reduced moral emotionality.

Perren and Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger (2012) found that there was a high level of overlap between TB and CB which differed from Dempsey et al. (2009) findings as it was not distinct separate latent construct. All levels of morality were shown to have a relationship with bullying behaviour. However moral and emotional values were found to be correlated significantly to CB whilst disengagement justifications were more prominent in TB and not generally associated with CB which supports the differences between the two distinct types of bullying. These findings suggested that whilst there is an element of overlap between the two types of bullying there is a distinct difference between moral disengagement (cognitive empathy) and emotionality (affective empathy) and levels of disengaged justification. It would seem that levels of disengaged justification did not predict levels of CB, which indicates that not seeing the victim renders the use of cognitive distancing unnecessary because of the nature of the bullying behaviour. Gender differences indicated that females demonstrated more positive levels of morality in comparison to males.

Overall this study suggests that there is a need for an integrative approach to help promote empathy, moral feelings and emotionality in bullies for their victim, which needs to be initiated in a very systematic manner. This is especially true in CB whereby many pupils need to gain a deeper understanding as to why it is so morally wrong. Therefore, whilst it is important such programs focus on enhancing cognitive and affective empathy, moral aspects of emotionality

(e.g. shame, pride and indignation) need to additionally be contextualised within specific CB situations.

(v) Cyberbullying vs. Traditional Bullying Prevalence Rates in High School Students

Schneider, O'Donnell, Stueve and Coulter (2012), in 2008, carried out a survey with a large sample (20406) of high school students (9th to 12th grade, 14 -17 year olds) in America. They aimed to investigate the prevalence of CB and TB, and its association with psychological distress (i.e. depression and suicide and self-harm). An addition aim was to investigate whether pupils who had been cyber-bullied (which generally occurred outside of school) also experienced school bullying (within school). Results indicated that 26% of students had experienced tradition bullying and 16% CB, within the last year. 60% of the CB victims had also experienced bullying within school and 36.3% of traditional school bullying victims had experienced CB victimisation. CB and dual victimisation (experiencing both types of victimisation) was shown to be higher in non-heterosexual groups of peers (i.e. 23% compared to 9% of heterosexual pupils).

A major strength of Schneider et al.'s (2012) study was that it was school based so it allowed for a very large sample size and a diverse minority sub-groups (i.e. non-heterosexual), and more infrequent factors of psychological distress (i.e. attempted suicide) to be examined.

However, as Schneider et al.'s (2012) study used victim only self-reports it may have been open to demand characteristics, and with only a single rater it did not enable inter-rater reliability to be examined. Also this study did not investigate PRS so it was unable to consider the overlap between scales such as bullies, bully-victims or bystander and their perspectives per se. Nevertheless, overall this study did allow the need for anti-bullying interventions that address the overlap between CB and TB school victimisation, and their association with psychological distress.

(vi) Cyberbullying its Nature and Impact in Secondary Schools

Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, Fisher, Russell and Tippett (2008) surveyed pupils aged eleven-sixteen years, in English schools. They investigated CB both within and outside of school, regarding 7 media: text messages, picture/photos or video clips, phone calls, emails, chat rooms,

instant messaging and websites. Their first survey incorporated 93 pupils as focus groups, and a second survey on 533 pupils assessing the generalisability of the first survey's findings. In addition, comments were obtained from focus groups.

Smith et al.'s (2008) results generally suggested that CB was less frequent than traditional bullying (TB). The surveys suggested that the most prominent CB methods were phone calls and text messages, both within and outside of school. Moreover, the majority of pupils from the focus groups believed the most common method used was text messaging because it provided anonymity. However, when informed that the most frequent method of CB used (as shown by survey two) was phone calls, pupils suggested it might be because phone calls provide less concrete evidence for the victim and the bully might actually enjoy this more personal/direct method. The most commonly heard of medium was picture/video clips generally referred to as 'happy slapping'. In both surveys fewer pupils admitted doing CB in comparison to pupils who had reported being cyber victims suggesting that many pupils may not have perceived their actions as actually being bullying or that the bullies provided social desirable responses. This may because bully rates are usually less than victim rates in TB too; and that maybe a few bullies can harass a number of victims.

The incidents of being bullied inside the school or outside were generally equal or greater outside of the school environment within the entire criterion other than from emailing others. The groups believed that CB occurred more often outside of school because of several factors such as phones were not allowed within school and if CB did occur the teachers would be able to track down whomever the perpetrator/s were. They stated that CB occurred more frequently outside of school because nobody is "checking on you". This was supported by the second survey as CB was significantly higher in its occurrence than TB outside of school (11% to 5%).

Few pupils had experienced each of the seven CB media. However, a higher percentage was bullied from their same year group; and generally bullied by a single male perpetrator. In study two the highest rates of CB were found in the years Ten to Eleven. Girls were more likely to be perceived as CB bully/victims perhaps because girls hold a grudge longer, whilst boys are generally more direct using there and then methods. In survey two, pupils who had experienced CB were also shown to have experienced TB.

Within the focus groups CB was perceived as a cowardly behaviour and believed to occur because bullies either lacked confidence or had a desire for control. A lack of empathy was a theme as pupils perceived CB to be the bully's entertainment at the expense of others. Therefore, pupils who are categorised specifically as CB bully-victims may not need immediate gratification for revenge, but prefer to humiliate their victim via a wider audience than TB is able to provide (e.g. through picture/ or video clips). However, the focus group's seemed to show that while some pupils believed that CB, because of its anonymity, makes the impact of the bullying worse, others believed that it is similar in its impact to TB. Conversely other pupils suggested that it has less impact because CB does not involve physical hurt.

Additionally, Slonje and Smith (2008) carried out a study with a Swedish sample of pupils aged twelve to twenty years of age that CB was less frequent inside a pupil's school environment than outside of school. CB Prevalence rates indicated that within all media other than the text messaging category was shown to occur outside of school. Slonje and Smith (2008) suggested that CB may be more prevalent than TB because Sweden has a long history of TB anti-bullying interventions and at the time of their study, CB anti-bullying interventions were generally "non-existent".

Bullies, by and large, were known by their victims, and belonged to the same school. As Swedish schools imposed restrictions on phone and computer use, equivalent to English schools, this was proposed to have helped reduce the likelihood of CB occurring within school. CB victimisation was perceived by the victims to evoking feelings of a lack of safety, within their homes.

CB was less frequent in sixth-form colleges than it was in lower secondary schools suggesting that CB decreases with age as does TB. Fewer gender differences were found than in Smith et al's (2008) study, but girls were found to be more likely to experience email victimisation than boys, and boys were more likely to engage in all types of CB than girls. When asked which gender bullied others, 36% were often bullied by one boy, an equal number of pupils were unaware of which gender was victimising them. Picture /video clips bullying was perceived to have the greatest negative impact upon the victim. Pupils reason for this was because the victim was identifiable that caused embarrassment and so was more hurtful. Phone calls were perceived as having the next most negative impact because they were seen as organised and premeditated actions because the bully had to take the time to obtain the victims number.

Emails were seen as being less personal and less harmful than TB because the victims were generally not known to the bullies and so this form of CB was not perceived as specifically being personally aimed at an identifiable victim.

When social support was sought, it was obtained via friends, but in the majority of cases adults were not involved and generally seemed unaware of the CB per se let alone what type of medium was used. In conclusion Slonje and Smith (2008) stated that it was very worrying that few CB incidents were reported to adults as it is paramount that parents and teachers alike are informed of CB and the negative impact it has, and take appropriate action. Slonje and Smith (2008) argued that as modern technology is becoming far more available and accessible, especially to younger pupils, features such as 'Blue tooth' mean that CB is a rapidly adapting phenomenon which requires continued parental and teacher understanding.

(vii) Is a Lack of Empathetic Responsiveness, Characteristic of Cyberbullies using Slonje and Smith's (2008) Questionnaire?

Steffgen, König, Pfetsch and Andre (2011) conducted research, in Luxembourg to examine whether a lack of empathic responsiveness was characteristic of cyberbullies. Their sample was 2070 secondary pupils from grades seven to thirteen (12-18 year olds). Steffen used Hoffman's definition viewing empathy as a feeling that fits someone else's condition more than one's own, but this feeling does not have to match that of the other person exactly (see Chapter One for further details).

Steffgen et al. (2010) used Slonje and Smith's (2008) questionnaire adapted from Smith et al. (2006) to measure whether pupils had been cyber victimised or actively cyber bullied in the last year. Steffgen et al. (2010) developed an empathic responsiveness 9-item questionnaire constructed from three sub-categories; a lack of empathy, preference for virtual contacts and fear of cyber victimisation. Steffgen et al. (2010) empathy questionnaire had a five-point Likert scale; fully agree, slightly agree, partly agree/disagree, slightly agree and totally disagree. Additionally, Steffgen et al. (2010) used a demographic questionnaire to record pupil's gender, age and overall years in their present school.

Steffgen et al. (2010) results indicated that cyber bullies showed less empathy towards cyber-victims than their non-cyberbullying peers. Steffgen et al. (2010) research documented a

negative relationship between cyberbullying and empathy, supporting research by Ang and Goh (2010). Steffgen et al. (2010) argue that their novel empathy questionnaire was exclusive as it measured the cyberbullying context; allowing greater anonymity of the cyberbullying (CB), in comparison to traditional bullying (TB). Steffgen et al. (2010) stated that future empathy research should examine empathy differences between on-line and off-line bullying situations.

Steffgen et al. (2010) method of collection, on-line, may have affected its generalisation. Additionally, Steffgen et al. (2010) empathy scale measured global empathy so was unable to distinguish between cognitive and affective empathy levels per se. Its classification of CB behaviour occurring once a month could be argued to be a liberal interpretation of repetition. However, Steffgen et al. (2010) argued that a single act of CB could meet the criterion as this could provide wide-spread circulation and repeatedly accessible to others. Therefore, such a 'single act' of cyberbullying could cause psychological damage and concern for the cyber-victim.

Steffgen et al. (2010) found little gender effects, between the type of median used (internet vs. mobile phone) and the location of the CB (inside vs. outside of the school). Steffgen et al. (2010) results indicated that empathy and CB was not 'clear cut'. A lack of empathy seemed to be a risk factor for cyberbullying behaviour providing important implications for new anti-bullying interventions.

Overall Steffgen et al. (2010) research highlights that global empathy in cyber bullies was less, indicating the importance of an appropriate CB proactive and reactive intervention which focuses upon pro-social empathetic response within media use.

CB Conclusion

A fundamental issue in CB research as is with empathy, is the use of a consistent definition. TB bullying defines bullying as a repetition of victimisation, which should be applicable to CB as well. Also the majority of CB studies within this review used self-reports so could have been open to demand characteristics because they do not enable inter-rater reliability to be examined. Additionally, CB has a great deal of overlap as to whether the victimisation has been initiated inside or outside of school because of delays in receipt effecting the specific technological mediums.

Finally, various mediums used within CB require evidence for the school or parents to act, for example as technology is ever developing instant messaging such as 'Snapchat' proof can be lost within 1-10 seconds, if not screen shot, because it is hidden from the recipient and deleted from the Snapchat server, making tracking of repetition impossible. While on a positive note children have to accept 'friends' to receive messages and videos this medium can be open to abuse.

Summary of TB and CB

Overall, the research above suggests that TB is more prevalent within a school environment than CB. This was proposed to be because of schools implementation of measures which help combat CB (i.e. computer monitoring and banning phone usage in school). Pupils believed CB to be a more cowardly act than TB, as it was seen as a faceless act of bullying. Moreover, outside of the school environment CB was seen as an invasion of the victim's feeling of safety because it was an intrusion upon their personal space as it was an infringement upon their private life. Factors such as immediate self-gratification were not linked to CB, as CB victimisation was not generally seen or at least initially, as an instantaneous fix for revenge but a more thought-out and calculated form of bullying. Furthermore, research by Slonje and Smith (2008) indicated that parents and teachers need to have a greater awareness of new technological advances which will in turn help them to combat CB. Acts of CB victimisation and bullying involvement may be increasingly aimed at a younger audience, as their accessibility to the mobile phones and the internet becomes easier.

The next section of this chapter will investigate if specific deficits in some children's abilities as deemed by the Social Information Processing Model. This model's rationale suggests that children have a biological ability to use past experiences in order to respond to others. It will examine a selection of literature which relates to the roles of bully and victim.

(8) The Social Information Model

Crick and Dodge's (1994) Social Information Processing Model: Are there Deficits in Children Who Bully?

Dodge (1986) formulated an influential Social Information Processing Model (SIP). This was reformulated by Crick and Dodge (1994). This model suggests that children have a limited biological capacity that is fundamentally reliant upon their memories of past experiences. Crick and Dodge (1994) propose that how children respond to others is predominately dependent upon the following abilities. Firstly, a child's ability to be able to interpret, and make mental representations of internal and external cues. Then the child's emotions will either inhibit or access a goal response resulting in their response decision which may result in changes in the child's emotional response leading to their behavioural enactment. Dodge (1986) proposed that children focus and encode upon specific cues in the given situation, and from the foundation of these cues, construct their interpretations of a given situation, that these are formed by inferences in regards to the intent of another that the child is interacting with. At stages one and two the child encodes and interprets social cues. During stages three and four, Dodge (1986) states that children access the possible responses to the situation from their long-term memory, and evaluate those responses, and select the most favourable response for enactment (stage five). Crick and Dodge (1994) SIP Model states that children progress through five stages/steps in response to a social stimulus; encoding of social cues, interpretation of social cues, a response search, response evaluation and enactment.

Crick and Dodge (1994) state that past research has found that girls are generally more interpersonal and prosocial, while boys are more instrumental in the control of external events. Thus the two genders engage in different types of aggression. Males are more physically aggressive and consequently domineering while females are more relational and indirect in their victimisation of others. They state that at the time of their study very little research had been conducted to examine the relationship between gender, social information processing and social adjustment, but hypothesised that it occurs in two ways. Firstly, aggressive children who engage in bullying behaviours have an association with gender specific normative behaviour but exhibit extreme social information-processing patterns (i.e. girls have interpersonal and boys instrumental, cognitions). Therefore, while these children act appropriately for their gender they are doing it in a rather extreme manner (Crick & Ladd, 1990). Secondly, gender atypical

behaviours are likely to incur more negative social consequences, and these are therefore predominately deviant social information-processing patterns.

Crick and Dodge (1994) stated that it is difficult to study younger children's SIP because of the difficulties in an appropriate age-specific assessment. They proposed that such difficulties also occur as children develop because their maladaptive behaviours are generally subtler and therefore more difficult to quantify especially in adolescents. Crick and Dodge (1994) suggested that development may influence social adjustment difficulties because it is not rigid but fluid and generally changes with age. Research supports this premise because as children develop they generally engage in less physical aggression and use more verbal aggression (e.g. Block, 1983; Parke & Slaby, 1983, in Crick & Dodge, 1994). Additionally, maturation leads to an enhancement of the child's social cognitive abilities. Sroufe and Rutter (1984) suggest that socially maladaptive children are developmentally delayed in comparison to their same-age peers in several of the crucial SIP abilities and therefore are more on a par with younger children in regards to social cognition. Several aspects of SIP have been proposed to have a greater impact upon such aggressive behaviours. Piaget (1965) proposed that perspective taking (cognitive empathy) and empathy (specifically affective empathy) are paramount to children in the concrete operational period. Rubin (1972) found that there is a positive correlation between referential communication skills which require perspective taking and popularity in preschool and second grade (six year olds children but this relationship was not found in the fourth (8 year olds) or sixth grade (eleven year olds. Consequently, Crick and Dodge (1994) hypothesised that SIP mechanisms will only be apparent to children's social adjustment on experiences and tasks. which are of actual relevance to that child's age group.

This viewpoint suggests that within a social context a small minority of children who are socially maladaptive victimise others because they process information differently especially in regards towards their victim which helps to promote such aggressive acts (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Olweus, 1984). Therefore, using stage two (the interpretation of social information), stage five (encoding process, representation process, response search process, response decision process and enactment process) of Social Information Processing Model (Crick and Dodge 1994) have suggested that bullies may have similar deficits in one or more of these stages (e.g. social skills and empathy) as aggressive children, which may result in social processing bias and so contribute to their bullying practices.

Crick and Dodge (1999) and Sutton, Smith and Swettenham, (1999) engaged in a debate as to whether children who bully have been viewed incorrectly as lacking skills and intelligence this discussion was focused upon whether children who bully should be viewed as maladaptive. Sutton et al. (1999) within their critique of Crick and Dodge's SIP, Sutton et al proposed that bullies may have a better (superior) theory of mind abilities.

Crick and Dodge (1999) argue in response that 'superiority' is in the eye of the beholder and that there are numerous limitations to Sutton et al's (1999) rationale. Crick and Dodge (1999) argue that Sutton et al (1999) do not have a clear definition of bullying stating that it is a systematic abuse of power (Smith & Sharp, 1994) is too vague and non-behavioural. Sutton et al. (1999) replied in their response that social undesirable children need not be incompetent, that while yes it is important to have a detailed definition of bullying an all-conclusive definition is helpful and useful in various social contexts. Sutton et al. (1999) proposed it as an appropriate definition especially within the various forms of victimisation which can occur within bullying. Crick and Dodge (1999) also expressed concerns in regards to the limitations of a theory of mind approach being used to investigate bullying as there is mixed evidence about the association between perspective taking and aggression. Sutton et al (1999) agreed that this hypothesis is untested and stated that what is required is research which examines perspective taking and theory of mind in both bullies and aggressive children who are not classed or considered bullies. Crick and Dodge (1999) also suggested that explanations need to address the differences between bullying and prosocial behaviour. Crick and Dodge (1999) proposed that the SIP approach allows a description of specific social cognitions and a comprehensive hypothesis of descriptor of the processes incorporated and influencing children's social behaviours. However, Sutton et al. (1999) argued that an approach which purely focuses upon one social cognition mechanism is unwise. Sutton et al. (1999) suggest that researchers need to also focus on the consideration of emotional understanding and empathy skills.

Finally, Crick and Dodge (1999) suggested that evidence from many studies both longitudinal and experimental supports that the SIP approach is able to predict developmental trajectories of aggressive behaviour over time and that the SIP approach allows a useful distinction between various forms of behaviour (e.g. proactive vs. reactive physical aggression and physical forms of aggression).

Sutton et al (1999) admitted that aggressive behaviour is not always unskilled, supporting Crick and Dodge (1999) proposal that bullies can be incompetent. Sutton et al (1999) proposed that

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bullying is socially undesirable especially within the context of an abuse of power but argued is it maladaptive per se. Sutton et al (1999) argue that this is dependent upon social context and what specifically happens when the bullying occurs. Some children who are aggressive may additionally use prosocial behaviours and social rather than physical forms of bullying, to achieve their own interpersonal goals. Overall Sutton et al. (1999) stated while it should be noted that bulling is socially undesirable it is not specifically due to incompetence or maladaptiveness (as Crick and Dodge 1999 proposed) which can be seen as a stereotype.

(i) Support of the Social Information Processing Model

Camodeca, Goossens, Schuengel and Terwogt (2003) investigated the manner that children (in grades three and four, 6-7 years of age) who bullied, victims and bystanders/outsiders processed social information. They wished to draw upon Dodge (1991) and Dodge and Coie's (1987) hypothesis that bullies use one of two different types of aggression; reactive and proactive. Dodge and Coie suggest that the two types of aggression incorporate different deficits or mistakes in the child's ability to be able to socially process relevant information appropriately. Reactive aggression incorporates aggression which is a proactive response to a specific perceived aggressive act upon them by another. Conversely reactive aggression is aggression which is more proactive act which specifically a means to achieving the child's intended goal. This suggests that different cognitive patterns are demonstrated in these children, which are dependent upon their overall goal selection (i.e. goal, response construction and the child's behavioural decision stages three, four and five of the SIP model).

Overall the study by Camodeca et al. (2003) provided possible evidence to support Crick and Dodge (1994) by investigating bullying from the perspective of the children's SIP capabilities. Camodeca et al. (2003) results demonstrated that both bullies and victims used less assertive strategies in their reactions to provocations, which seem to be in response to relational conflict and lower levels of social competence than was shown by their bystander peers. Generally, bully and victims where predominately described as highly impulsive and hyperactive. No other response differences were found between the groups.

However, a very different pattern was found when children were provided with the option to reflect upon whether or not to engage in aggression, as it generally resulted in a reduction of aggressive behaviour. Aggression in this instance was viewed as the least effective strategy, suggesting that when children are given the time to reflect upon non-aggressive alternatives they

will not act as impulsively and reply upon violence. Additionally, at this age children stated that when a spontaneous provocative situation occurred they would find help, which suggests that other people (either peers or adults) are seen as a useful resource to help re-establish balance and order.

Bully and victims within ambiguous situations seem to reflect more blame and anger towards the perpetrator, suggesting that they did not have the ability to feel that the other child actually meant no harm towards them. These children therefore seemed to demonstrate deficits in stage two of the SIP (interpretation of social cues) and stage five within their ability to make an appropriate decision. These children believed that the perpetrator is more to blame than the bully. Camodeca et al. (2003) findings suggested that bullies do not make wrong attributions in ambiguous situations and so indicated no deficits in their perceptions. However, victims seemed unable to successfully attribute hostile intent towards others which may be indicative of depression (i.e. having an internal locus of control and therefore reflecting blame upon themselves rather than upon others).

Overall Camodeca et al.'s (2003) research supported Crick and Dodge (1994) findings in relation to reactively and proactively aggressive children, proposing that these children have fundamental deficits within their SIP perceptions of social situations which is especially prominent within ambiguous situations where they are more likely to attribute blame to the other child. Camodeca et al. argued that it is fundamental that importance is placed upon the SIP of children in order to determine their social competence so that anti-bullying intervention programs can successfully assists these children's ability to take time to reflect rather than act impulsively.

(ii) An Integrated Model of Emotion Processes and Cognition in Social Information Processing

Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) proposed an integrative model that incorporates emotion processing and SIP. Whilst agreeing with Crick and Dodge (1994) that when a child encounters a social situation because of their limited biological capabilities (limited memories, experiences, selective attention and processing speed) they have limitations on what they are able to absorb and specifically on what they are able to process, in any given situation. Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) proposed that emotion and regulatory ability affect both processing of social emotional

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information and the child's decision making, which are especially difficult for them in challenging situations. They argue that children's representations of past experiences are not only cognitive but affective, that Arsenio and Lover (1995) termed 'affect-event links' which work from the premise that a child's social knowledge is cued by events and /or by emotion cues, which are triggered by specific events.

Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) proposed that when a child engages in a social situation they bring with them psychological arousal and/or their mood state, which may not always be related to the given situation. Therefore, if a child's does not have the ability to appropriately regulate their emotions, poor regulators have a greater risk of maladjustment and social information processing deficits.

Crick and Dodge's (1994) stages one and two (encoding and interpreting social cues) suggest that a child's own emotional cues can cause a change in the 'discrete' emotional experiences or in increasing the intensity of any pre-existing emotion. Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) proposed that another's affective cues are as fundamental as one's own, because they provided the signals in regards to the ongoing situation (how it is proceeding or progressing) allowing the child to make sensitive moderations to their behaviour. A familiar partner (a close friend) provides cues which are easier to interpret, and this familiarity, makes it easier for them to evoke feelings of empathy, than it would towards a less familiar peer or the class bully.

In stage three of Crick and Dodge's (1994) model suggested that the role of emotion is more explicit in that a child's goals are either internal (the regulation of emotion) or external (social relational). Crick and Dodge's (1994) state that goal selection and /or attainment of that goal is modified by the mood and/or emotion of that child. However, Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) argued that a peer's affective cues can also have a major influence on a child's goals, whereby negative signals discourage an affiliation or friendship goal, but positive affective signals help promote it. If a child does not have the ability to cope with their own and other's emotionality in social situations, they may decide to use avoidance or hostile goals to help reduce their own levels of arousal. Therefore, children who have deficits in affective cues and low levels of empathy may engage in negative destructive relationships with peers because they do not feel another's pain (i.e. affective empathy) or understand it (cognitive empathy). Additionally, the relationship and the nature of the tie between a child and their peer may bias goal selection as social relational ones may encourage friendships bonds, but conversely less positive or negative

ones, avoidance and revenge goals. Consequently, friendships require more effortful processing as a child generally does not want to hurt a friend.

Crick and Dodge's (1994) stages four and five suggested that children process the possible responses and use evaluation to help them determine the possible outcomes, that is their goals and the self-efficacy required to achieve the most positive goal outcome for the child. Crick and Dodge's (1994) proposed that how a child feels at a specific time may also be influenced by the emotions they are feeling, and that accessing a specific emotion can affect and modify an emotion. Other's emotional processes can affect this access and evaluation such as emotional intensity. Children who are unable to appropriately regulate their emotional intensity may therefore get overwhelmed, becoming self-absorbed, which results in the child being unable to respond by incorporating every party involved perspectives and so as a result they use inappropriate emotions such as anger and aggression. Conversely children who do have the skill of emotional regulation are able to consider any given situation using multiple cognitive and affective perspectives, which results in a more appropriate and competent response. Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) argued that fundamental components of this response are reliant upon the child's emotional expectations, which affect their socio-moral reasoning and consequent behaviour. Therefore, a child's relationships are influenced by a social tie (or a lack of one) and the reputation of the other child/children involved which may affect how that child engages in their effortful processing. Consequently, if a child has positive feelings and cares for another child, they are more likely to also consider that child's reactions in their goal outcome.

In the final stage of Crick and Dodge's model (1994), Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) agreed that children enact upon their chosen response and factors such as emotional intensity and a child's ability to regulate their emotions can have paramount influence upon this enactment. If a child has flexibility to be able to display their emotions appropriately in a given situation they are more likely to have a positive outcome. These children are therefore able to incorporate another's emotional cue which allows them to makes the required emotional adjustments and enables them to read the information about the success or failure of their response readjustments. Therefore, children who are able to call upon past experiences, which they use as a database of social knowledge, generally have more successful interactions with peers.

(iii) Social Information Processing and Moral Reasoning in Adolescents

Arsenio, Adams and Gold (2009) suggest that deficits in adolescents who use reactive aggression (RA) are linked to difficulties in intent attribution of social cues (i.e. stage two of the SIP model). While such adolescents have difficulties judging another's intentions, their levels of morality are equal to those of nonbullying peers who believe that it is not correct behaviour to intentionally harm another. However, these children seem unable to differentiate between ambiguously caused negative behaviours and intentional ones. Therefore, RA seemed to be related to deficits in reading intent rather than the "moral permissibility" of inflicting intentional harm on others. Proactive aggression (PA) on the other hand not linked to such difficulties in understanding another's intentions but to the belief that aggressive behaviours will lead to a positive outcome (specifically emotionally) for themselves. Adolescents who engaged in PA used aggression in an outcome orientated manner, supported by self-attributed moral emotional rationales of emotional gain. This suggests that adolescents, who use PA, are 'happy victimisers' (Arsenio et al. 2009, p1751) as they feel more positively about themselves after a provoked act of aggression.

Arsenio et al. (2009) found that when controlling for PA, these adolescents had greater expected ease when enacting their aggressive responses towards others. Conversely controlling for RA these adolescents had greater verbal abilities, and expected greater happiness within both provoked and unprovoked (moral aggression). These adolescents had lower levels of moral concern towards their acts of aggression and lower levels of expected anger within moral victims. These findings suggest that RA adolescents may not only have problems or deficits in social reading of situations, but that these are accompanied by problems with verbal interactions too, leading to frustration and misunderstandings of another's intent. Such confusions lead to conflict and the RA adolescents feeling justified in their aggression.

(iv) Cyberbullying vs. Traditional (Face to Face) Bullying and SIP

Dooley, Pyzalski and Cross (2009) reviewed the theoretical and conceptual differences between traditional bullies and cyber bullies referring to the SIP model. Dooley et al. (2009) argued that it is difficult to investigate SIP and cyberbullying (CB), because individuals who engage in CB do not use face-to-face contact or behaviours. Such indirect behaviours involve subtle differences to traditional methods of bullying, as goal directions are generally very different being initiated by factors such as revenge rather than domination or acquisition (Vandebosch &

van Cleemput, 2008). While individuals who use traditional methods of bullying are generally motivated/goal orientated by the use of fear to inflict harm and are therefore reinforced by direct and immediate verbal and nonverbal response from their victims. In contrast CB is reinforced by social harm/hurt which is not as immediate because it takes time for its impacts to be effective. A cyberbully has to rely at least initially, upon their own reactions to their bullying, as external reinforcement from others is not immediate. Therefore, there is a delay between the action and the outcome of these actions upon their victim, suggesting a difference between the bully's goals and outcome. However, Dooley et al. (2009) argue that these differences may be dependent upon the type of cyberbullying medium used as some methods are more immediate than others (e.g. mobile phone calls, texting and voice mails). Other types of media take a longer time to have an effect between the act/s (creating for example a fake website), resulting in greater build up and expectation between the deed and the victimisation. That results in a time lapse between the victim actually viewing and realising what has been done against them. However, it could be argued that voice mails are not as instant a medium in modern technology as mobile phone calls and texting as they too can be ignored. Therefore, fundamental differences are found between CB and traditional bullying where such expectations and goals, are fulfilled by the actual outcome of a given victim orientated interaction.

Summary of SIP Research

The SIP model and associated research initiated by Crick and Dodge (1994) indicates that victims use less assertive strategies towards provocations, and have high levels of impulsivity and hyperactivity. Children who have deficits in reading affective cues and consequently have low empathy (both cognitive and affective) are more likely to have negative relationships. This is because they are unable to feel their victim's pain (affective empathy) or to actually understand it (cognitive empathy), with deficits in stages four and five, these children are unable to appropriately regulate their emotional intensity in response to another's act, are overwhelmed, and become self-absorbed, resulting in anger and aggressive outcomes. Within stage six responses are fundamentally based upon past experiences forming a data base of social information. Therefore, they are less likely because of these negative perceptions/experiences to be able to have successful or appropriate social interactions with peers. Consequently, through their skewed and distorted perceptions, these children are more likely to use anti-social behaviours such as aggression. Moreover, proactive aggression (PA) bullies are shown as happy

victimisers who feel more positive after a provoked act of aggression than reactive aggression (RA) bullies. In contrast RA bullies were shown to have related difficulties in stage two of the SIP model, as they demonstrate difficulties between ambiguous and intentional acts by others and as a consequence their lower social skills lead to justification of their aggressive behaviour. Finally, differences are found between TB and CB in SIP, as traditional bullies were shown to use more maladaptive motivational goal orientations in stage six of the SIP model, using initial fear to obtain their direct objective. In contrast CB is generally less initially goal orientated because it is reliant upon delays between the action and its goal outcome. Overall the research reviewed suggests that these deficits in one or more of the SIP stages impacts upon these children's anti-social behaviour, because they are either unable to or seem oblivious of specific cues which would help them to appropriately decipher other children's behaviour. As a result, they use bullying behaviour in their social interactions with their peers.

Final Summary of PRS, TB vs. CB and the SIP Model Research

Overall the PRS research reviewed within this chapter indicated fundamental sociometric differences which suggest that bullies generally come from classes which had hierarchical structures. Some bullies are less likely to be accepted and less popular than defenders, however some are shown to have high status and perceived popularity. Victims are demonstrated to be unpopular because of bullies' high status in the peer group which may be one of the reasons why many children act as bystanders/outsiders rather than intervene. Additionally, girls generally use less direct relational covert methods to bully. Defenders are more likely to be younger primary school-aged girls, while boys are more likely to be bullies or bully victims. Empathy alone is not the only factor in bystanders/outsiders behaviour; while many children understood the feelings of the victims, they did not feel confident enough to be able to help and many felt that if they did they would make matters worse. Victims come from classes which had higher hierarchical structures and females more likely to be passive victims and males to be bully victims; however, these findings may be indicative of gender specific expectations of gender stereotypical behaviour.

TB was indicated to be more prevalent within a school environment than CB. One explanation of this is that school policies restrict pupil's usage of new media technologies within the school. CB was seen as a more cowardly form of bullying and to be a more invasive form of bullying as it infringed upon the victim's home life. CB anti-bullying interventions need to be addressed and updated especially by parents and teachers alike so that they are made aware and are able to

keep up with increasing and ever changeable technological advances. As modern technology is becoming far more accessible to younger children, anti-bullying work needs to be addressed not only in secondary schools, but also in primary schools too.

Both bullies and victims have been argued to be generally deficient in stages of the SIP model. Attributions of blame are slanted unfavourably towards perpetrators (who generally do mean to harm) who on these occasions did not actually mean any harm. These skewed attributions were argued to be reliant upon affective (affect-event links) as well as upon cognitive representations. SIP deficits are demonstrated as either overall deficits or to be only within certain stages. Generally, results have demonstrated that bullies and victims have an inability to appropriately decipher the behaviours and actions and either/or cognitive and affective empathy/representations of other children. However, this premise has been argued against by Sutton et al. (1999) who proposed that deficits may be a stereotype and that some bullies actually have a superior theory of mind, which they use in a negative manner to enhance their victim's plight.

Conclusion/Implications for the CAES-C

This thesis argues that another important PRS role should be examined in bullying roles; bully-defender. Bully-defender as a role which is dependent upon socio-metric status and the closeness to a specific peers as to whether bullying or defending is initialled. While this additional PRS may on face value be a contradiction in terms but the CAES-C through its peer stimulus (child, younger child, friend, girl and boy), in correlation to teacher nominations in Study Two will allowed this to be measured,

Additionally, my thesis argues that bystanders defined as passive (i.e. actively supporting the bullying by providing an audience) or passive (i.e. the child does not feel they have the power status to stop the bullying), indicating behavioural roles which are fundamentally distinct.

Furthermore, differences between the methodologies used within this type of research seem to heavily influence the results found. Research suggests that more than just a single rater for interviews and questionnaires should be used, as this would allow the validity of the information obtained to be checked via inter-rater agreement. This issue will be addressed in Chapter Eight as interviews from two raters will be obtained (pupils and teachers). The CAES-C/A will be implemented within the case studies. These will not only involve the pupils within the bullying

situation/s but their pastoral care and form tutors. Such a detailed range of information from different raters will enable a more realistic interpretation of what has specifically happened within the bullying incident/s, and help to increase the case studies overall reliability.

Chapter Five

Study Two: Children's Levels of Empathy and its Relationship with Teacher Nominations of the Children's Participant Role Scores

Aims

The aim of Study Two was to address whether or not a child's Participant Role Score (PRS) rating had a relationship with their levels of cognitive and affective empathy.

The first hypothesis stated that children who were nominated as bullies, would have lower levels of cognitive and affective empathy in comparison to defenders, victims, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders. Bully-victims were included within this comparison because while this group may engage in bullying behaviours, they are a distinct group from pure bullies because they have been or still are experiencing victimisation.

A second hypothesis stated that children who had been categorised as defenders would have higher levels of cognitive and affective empathy in comparison to all other groups (combined bullies - direct, indirect/relational bullies, victims, bully-victim and outsider/bystanders), and that these levels would be especially higher in comparison to the combined bullies category.

Method

Participants

The data was obtained from 442 pupils (209 females and 233 males) from years 3, 4, 5 and 6 from five primary schools in the South of London from the London Borough of Greenwich. The children's ages were at T1 (M=9 years, SD =1.03) and T2 (M= 9 years, SD. =1.00). The data was gathered in the spring of 2010. All the primary schools were contacted via letter asking for their participation within this study. All primary schools within the borough of Greenwich were contacted and the first five who answered positively were selected.

Procedure

Teacher Nominations Teacher nominations were sought from the form tutor, in order to define who was involved (if any?) within types of victim (victim, or bully-victims); types of bullying styles (direct, indirect/relational and mixed); defenders; and outsider/bystanders (see Appendix 10). The form teachers were asked to nominate the children in their form who engaged in the bullying participant roles/behaviour (see description below for these roles/behaviours).

Outline of Bullying Participant Roles/Behaviours

The types of bullying role and behaviour definitions are briefly outlined below:

Direct bully - Hit/kick/push other children.

Indirect/relational bully - Spread nasty rumours about others, calling others nasty names/shouting at t/or verbally abusing. Excluding others from their games/or group.

Victim –Victimised either directly/ or indirectly but do not engage in bullying others.

Mixed bully –Involved in both direct and indirect/relational bullying behaviours.

Bully-victim - Children nominated for bullying others, but victimised by others.

Defender – Sticks up for children being victimised.

Bystander/outsiders – Does not do anything/pretends not to notice/ stays away/ does not even know about the bullying.

Empathy (Study One Recap)

Two-dimensions of empathy were measured using the CAES-C (see Appendix 4). The CAES-C was designed to measure 7 -11-year-old children's understanding of empathy, within scenarios that depict possible every day peer interactions. The CAES-C is a 40-item scale, which assesses two-dimensions of empathy, and is constructed from 20 cognitive items and 20 affective items. The cognitive and affective items were rated by three raters (to determine whether or not the questions were cognitive or affective) and had an inter-rater agreement of .89. Within the CAES-C five pupil stimuli were used; general child, friend, younger child, girl and boy. There were five scale responses; angry, sad, do not know, happy and scared. The five scales were accompanied by emotional smiley coloured face (in yellow and blue) to aid the children's comprehension and to make the CAES-C more child friendly. The questions were scored by

inter rater agreement as 3 for a most approriate/correct answer, 2 for the next appropriate answer and 1 for the least appropriate of the three, incorrect answers were marked with a 0, as was the response of do not know, as this response indicated either a lack of understanding of the question or a lack of an empathic response (see Appendices 5 for CAES-C marking sheet).

Peer nominations were not obtained in this study. While this would have provided an additional rating which would have enabled an inter-rater reliability comparison, it was felt that asking children to categorise themselves or others into the PRS roles might cause psychological and emotional distress; a view which was supported by Goldsmiths, University of London Psychology Department Ethics Committee.

Recap of the Methodology of Study One

The CAES-C was given to the pupils twice, in two visits by myself, a female researcher. Both test one (T1) and test two (the re-test, T2) were conducted within two months of each other, to avoid major developmental changes in the children involved. On both occasions, the CAES-C was read out to avoid individual differences in reading skills and comprehension. The instructions were read out, without deviation, and where available, presented using a computerised white board for consistency and to provide an unobtrusive and nonreactive self-reporting response measure. To help counteract for demand characteristics, the children were told that their answers were confidential and anonymous, and that the questionnaire was about their relationships with their peers. The children were told not to discuss their answers with the other children (to help stop socially desirable responses) and that they should respond according to how they would feel or believe another child would feel. The researcher was also blind to the children's teacher nominations of bullying participant roles (which were to be used in Study Three to investigate bullying and its relationship with empathy). These were not collected from teachers (via the teacher nomination forms) until after the T2 had been completed by the children. At the end of each questionnaire all of the children were given a debriefing sheet (see Appendix 8) and help sheet (Appendix 9) that informed them of who to go to if any of the questions had caused any stress or concerns.

Design

Mixed ANOVAs were conducted to discover if a significant relationship existed between the teacher nominations and scores in the CAES-C questionnaire. The ANOVAs examined whether or not there was a significant difference between the children who were nominated by teachers as bullies, defenders, victims, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders cognitive and affective T1 + T2 averaged empathy scores.

Planned contrasts would then be conducted to discover if there was a relationship between the roles nominated by teachers (bullies, victim, bully-victims, defender and outsider/bystander) and the children's levels of empathy (affective or cognitive).

Results

T1 and T2 from Study Two were averaged to obtain an average of the pupil's cognitive and affective empathy CAES-C scores.

Table One shows the number of children nominated to each bullying role, from the teacher nomination procedure. As there were only a small number of children within the bullying categories (direct, indirect/relational and mixed bullies), to enable greater statistical power these sub-categories were combined to make a larger single bully category. However, 1/3 of my sample schools felt unable to provide names through ethical or moral considerations to their forms PRS teacher nominations. This school declined nominations (155 children) were excluded from the PRS nomination analysis because their bullying roles could not be determined.

Study One	Pupil (N)	Pupil (%)
Victim	8	2%
Bully-victim	12	3%
Direct Bully	4	1%
Indirect/ Relational Bully	14	3%
Mixed Bully	1	1%
Defender	42	10%
Outsider/Bystander	206	47%
School Declined	155	36%
Total	442	

Table One: the number of children in bullying roles teacher nominations from Study One

PRS Nominations Types of Empathy	M	SD	N
Cognitive			
Victim	47.88	4.93	8
Bully-victim	44.25	8.15	12
Bully	45.00	5.16	19
Defender	48.49	5.48	42
Outsider/bystanders	47.33	5.32	206
Total	47.22	5.51	287
Affective			
Victim	41.63	6..27	8
Bully-bully	39.38	8.86	12
Bully	33.76	10.46	19
Defender	37.26	9.64	42
Outsider/bystander	36.75	10.36	206
Total	36.87	10.13	287

Table Two: Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scores of the CAES-C and the PRS Teacher Nominations Means and SD

Table Two shows the descriptive statistics for cognitive and affective empathy from the teacher PRS role nomination.

The results of the mixed 2 (type of empathy) X 5 (PRS teacher nomination) ANOVA indicated that the effect of participant was not significant $F_{(4, 282)} = 2.07$ p > 0.05 (2-tailed) see Table 2 for M and SD scores. However, it was nearly significant at < 0.08 p value. No main effect was found between PRS nominations which was not significant $F_{(4, 282)} = 1.13 > 0.05$, (2-tailed). Consequently, there was a trend, which indicated an interaction between types of empathy and PRS teacher nominations. This was shown in affective and cognitive empathy as bully-victims had lower mean scores in cognitive empathy and the bully role had lower affective scores in comparison to all PRS nominations (see Table Two for M and SD).

Hypothesis One: stated that children who were nominated as bullies would have lower levels of cognitive and affective empathy in comparison to defenders, victims, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders.

Planned contrasts were then carried out on hypothesis one using the Bonferroni adjustment on each family of simple effects ($\partial = 0.05/4$) on cognitive empathy averaged scores. The first contrast compared defenders to bullies was significant t (59) = 2.35 p < 0.05 indicating that defenders had higher levels of cognitive empathy than the combined bullying categories. The second contrast compared the combined bullying roles to bully-victims t (29) = 0.32 p > 0.05 and was not significant. The third contrast compared the combined bullying roles with the victim t (25) = 1.34 p > 0.05 was not significant. The fourth contrast compared the combined bullying roles to outsiders/bystanders t (223) = 0.68 p > 0.05 and again found no significant difference between the two roles.

Therefore, the only significance that was found in the first set of planned contrasts to test hypothesis one was between the combined bullying roles and the defenders who in the averaged empathy scores were only shown to have higher cognitive empathy.

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No differences were found within affective empathy between bullies in comparison to defender, victims, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders.

Hypothesis Two: Defenders would have higher levels of cognitive and affective empathy in comparison to all of the other groups (bullies, bully-victims, victims and outsider/bystanders and), and that these levels would be especially higher in comparison to the bully category.

To test hypothesis two planned contrasts were then carried out on hypothesis two using the Bonferroni adjustment on each family of simple effects ($\partial = 0.05/4$) on average cognitive empathy scores as this was the only test which was demonstrated to have a trend difference. The first contrast compared defenders to the bully roles was significant t (59) =2.34 < 0.05 as indicated in hypothesis two. The second contrast compared the defenders to bully-victims t (59) =2.34 p. < 0.05 was significant. The third contrast compared the common victim t (48) = 0.30 p > 0.05 was not significant. The fourth contrast compared the defenders to outsiders/bystanders t (246) = 1.29 p > 0.05 was found to be not significant.

No significant differences were found within affective empathy between defender role in comparison to bully, victims, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders.

Overall the planned contrast indicated that defenders had higher levels of cognitive empathy than both the bullying roles and bully-victims. However, no differences were shown in affective empathy levels within these participants indicating that high levels of affective empathy may not be a prerequisite for defending behaviour.

Discussion

The results were only partially supportive of the experimental hypotheses as a trend was shown in the mixed ANOVA, and planned comparisons, which demonstrated that, combined bullying categories and the victim-bullies had lower cognitive empathy scores in comparison to

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defenders. Within contrast no differences were found between bullies and the other peer categories (common victim, bully-victims and outsiders/bystanders) in affective empathy levels, which signified that bullies levels, did not differ from their peers. Also no affective empathy differences were found between defenders, bullies and bully-victims. Therefore, high levels of affective empathy response were not found to be significantly associated with defending behaviour or lower levels of bullying within this sample.

These findings partially support Gini et al. (2008), who argued that high levels of empathy alone are not sufficient enough factor for other peer roles, specifically bystanders, to engage in defending behaviour towards the victim. Therefore, other factors such as self-efficacy (Gini et al., 2008) or attachment styles (Nickerson et al., 2008) may be important in influencing whether or not pupils engage in prosocial defending behaviour. This suggests that many pupils act as an outsider/bystander while actually empathising with the victim; they have the ability to share and feel another's person's perspective, but they remain outside of the situation because they feel incapable or unable to intervene efficaciously. Additionally, victim attributes such as maladaptive emotional displays, poor social skills and coping styles may lead to peer rejection and social exclusion and into an escalation of victimisation. These findings suggest that bully-victims did have negative feelings towards another's victimisation (sadness indicating the presences of cognitive empathy and feeling bad indicative of affective empathy). However, if they had the belief that the victim was actually instrumental in their victimisation it seemed to hinder such prosocial feelings (Boulton & Underwood, 1992) This may have led to the children in this bullying role to switch their empathy from the victim's behalf towards the bully's instead.

The findings above suggest that affect-event link deficits (Arsenio & Lovers, 1995) which are argued to be incorporated in a child's ability to use Crick and Dodge's (1994) Social Information Processing (SIP) appropriately, suggesting that these children's knowledge may have been skewed by emotional cues and psychological arousal that which were not related to that actual event. Bullies may not have the ability to appropriately regulate their emotions resulting in a great risk of SIP deficits within their social encounters with other children especially with their victim's. Lemerise and Arsenio (2000) argued that bullies are unable to appropriately regulate their emotional intensity, and so become self- absorbed and unable to feel another's perspective resulting in inappropriate and anti-social emotions (such as anger) leading to aggression. Additionally, bullies could while no having significant deficits in affective

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empathy be unable to response to affective cues. Therefore, such children could be unable to cope with their own or others emotionality in social situations, resulting in avoidance or use of hostile goals to reduce their own feelings of arousal (Lemerise and Arsenio 2000). Also bias goal selection could result in anti-social behaviours because while social relationships may be encouraged, these children can respond in a less positive or negative manner, again leading to avoidance or revenge goals. As close relationships require high levels of effort they also require greater SIP so bullies may be unable to appropriately regulate their emotional intensity becoming over-whelmed and self- absorbed, leading to an anti-social response.

Within the bullying categories, factors such as social dominance or status and emotional reactive behaviour (Wilton et al., 2000) seem fundamental. Overall goal status seems to be demonstrated to be very important within bullying; rather than lacking the emotional capacity, bullies seemed to use their understanding of others to help manipulate them. This is supported by Sutton et al. (1998), who stated that bullies have superior theory of mind skills. Study Two findings partly contradicted Sutton et al. (1999) who stated that ringleader bullies while having an awareness of perspective abilities (cognitive empathy) may be incapable or unwilling to share such feelings, resulting in low levels of affective empathy. Also these results contradicted Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) who found no differences in levels of cognitive empathy between bullies and peers, and Bryant (1982) who showed that defenders had higher levels of affective empathy. Additionally, factors such as a high moral viewpoint may have effected these children's (especially the bullies) cognitive empathy levels. Therefore, high cognitive empathy equates to higher sensitivity within interpersonal behaviours because such children are able to take another's moral viewpoint. Such behaviours are defined by a given social acceptable moral norm or determined by morally good motives or affects

Teacher nominations allowed inter-rater reliability between the self-reporting of the CAES-C, enhancing inter-rater reliability of the questionnaires. Additionally, teacher nominations demonstrated that there is a great deal of overlap between the bullying roles as many of the children who were nominated as bullies were also shown to engage in defending behaviour of children who were their close friends. While such nominations may on face value seem to be a contradiction in term they indicate the complexities of such nominations. Furthermore, teacher nominations support the premise for a new bullying role bully-defender, which this thesis defines as a child who may engage in bullying of others, defends children within their friendship groups (. i.e. those who have a close socio-metric relationship with the bully). Such

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as result indicates the importance of investigating peer relationship and supports the CAES- C use of peer stimuli.

Limitations

As solely teacher nominations were able to be obtained to help minimise psychological/emotional distress in young age group, this may have provided a subjective or biased method of nomination. Inter-rater reliability correlations (multivariate sources) would have enabled a more accurate measure of information (Veenstra et al., 2003). Therefore, the reliability of such nominations would have been dependent upon the teacher having the relevant knowledge, experience and their actual level of social skills. Also the teachers could not have been unaware of the type of dynamics that may have occurred outside of their observational viewpoint (e.g. in the playground), which may have been indicative that they were only aware of the more overt forms of bullying practices.

Future research should ask dinner supervisors for their perspective on the children's peer dynamics because this will provide greater inter- rater reliability. Several of the children in the present study were nominated within other categories too. Additionally, it would have assisted inter-rater reliability if the pupils were able to nomination themselves, however the ethics committee within this study did not feel this was ethically viable with a younger age group. The teachers stated that it was dependent upon who was actually being bullied as to whether these children either defended or bullied them. This was especially found within children who bullied specific children but conversely defended others. I argue this supports the need for a bully-defender role, as these childrens behaviours seems to be predominately influenced by the nature of the relationship with a specific peer.

Another limitation of this study was that many of the teachers in one school felt unable through ethical or moral considerations to nominate the children in their classes into the various bullying categories, even though they were told that either the children or the researcher would not be aware of bullying nominations at this stage to control experimenter bias. Wolke et al. (2009) suggested that a victim label is very difficult to lose, which may have affected the teacher's nominations.

Moreover, while the highest percentage of children are generally rated as outsider/bystanders in PRS research (Samilivalli et al., 1996), Monks (2000) and Sutton and Smith (1999) this

categorisation seemed to be higher than would be normally expected. This suggests that teacher's ratings could have been based upon the side of caution. Conversely it could indicate that not all of the children's behaviours were displayed within their teachers vantage viewpoint (i.e. in the classroom); supporting the need for lunch-time supervisors and pupil PRS nominations too.

In addition, self-report measures may have affected the participant's answers because they are subjective rather than objective. This may result in the participant answering in a social desirable manner rather than give an accurate account of how they actually behave. Olweus and Endresen (1998) argued that empathetic responsiveness is to a certain extent dependent upon social desirability. Olweus and Endresen (1998) argued that factors such as a demand characteristic bias could have resulted in pupils Study One enhancing their empathetic response especially within the bully category. Also participants were able to deliberate over their answers which may have resulted in triggering their defence mechanisms again initiating biased answers. While the children were reassured that their questionnaires were completely anonymous, as their teachers were present during the presentation of the CAES-C questionnaires this could have influences the children's answers.

Implications for Current Research

In conclusion it would seem that the CAES-C while being a consistent scale as indicated in Study One it failed within this specific sample to determine whether or not a relationship existed between the two components of empathy and types of pro-social or antisocial behaviours or to enable gender to be examined (e.g. females are more likely to engage in indirect and relational bullying (Björkqvist et al., 1992). Conversely Jolliffe and Farrington (2005) demonstrated that males are more likely to engage in all types of bullying. However, this thesis suggests because of its ability to focus upon not just bullying interactions between peers, but peer interaction per se (i.e. friends, younger and same age and same and different gender peers) its sensitivity helps to provide support for a new bullying-defender category. Prosocial or anti-social behaviours seem to be dependent upon who specifically is being bullied and their peer relationships with the bully/defender (e.g. Espelage, Green and Polanin, 2012). Study Two seemed to indicate that the closer an interpersonal relationship is towards a specific victim, the more likely and willing other children are to actively defend them. This suggests that childrens behaviour could be dependent upon which peer they were interacting with at a specific time, resulting in either bullying or defending behaviour. Therefore, further research is required to examine which

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factors actually contribute to defending prosocial and bullying anti-social behaviours not only within a bullying context but in interpersonal peer relationships interactions.

Moreover, this research provided support for a new PRS role, namely bully-defender, which is indicative of the closeness of the relationship that the bully has with a specific peer. Bullies are very likely to defend friends because of the closeness of their relationship (Espelage et al., 2012). Therefore, further research is required to examine specific factors which help to contribute to prosocial defending or anti-social bullying behaviours in bullies. Such factors will be investigated in the Case studies (Study Four and Five see Chapter Eight and Nine for further details)

Chapter Six

Study Three–the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Children / Adolescents (CAES-C/A)

Study Three – Aims

Study Three had three aims:

Aim One: to determine the reliability of the amended CAES-C/A.

Aim Two: to investigate whether factor analysis supported two factor loadings of empathy: cognitive and affective

Aim Three: to indicate if there were any problem questions of the CAES-C that may have loaded on both factors within the amended CAES-C/A with an older age secondary school age group (12 to 16 years of age).

The wording of the questions was changed from 'you' to 'I' to enable greater grammatical sense as the older pupils read the questions to themselves. This differed from Study One where I read the questions to the younger class to enable greater comprehension and to counteract for differences in reading abilities. Therefore, in Study One 'You' was used as the term 'I' might have confused the younger age groups who could have perceived that the questions as referring to myself (the reader) rather than being aimed at themselves.

Method

Participants

The data for this study was obtained from 159 pupils (all females) from five classes from Years 7- 9 (M=13 years of age, SD = 2.52) from a secondary school from the London Borough of Bexley in South London. Its catchment area was within several areas of Southeast London, with two out of five students coming from minority ethnic backgrounds. The school was a large selective school which specialised in performing and visual arts, mathematics and computing. It was rated by OFSTED as a high performing school, with a special focus on the gifted and talented. The participants were selected by those who had received passive parental consent (see Appendix 7). The school within this study was a single gender school, where I was working as

a teacher, which provided an opportunistic sample of solely female participants.

Measure

Two-dimensional empathy was measured using the CAES-C/A (see Appendix 11). The CAES-C was originally designed to measure understanding of empathy in younger children's (7 - 11 years of age), with scenarios that depict possible every day peer interactions. The older version the CAES-C/A, which is aimed at the age group 11-16 years of age (years7- 11) used the term 'I' for the affective questions to enable older pupils to read the questionnaire to themselves. As in Study One/Two the cognitive and affective items were rated by three raters and had an inter-rater agreement of .89. Within the CAES-C five pupil stimulus were used; general child, friend, younger child, girl and boy. The responses were provided by five scales; angry, sad, do not know, happy and scared. The five scales were accompanied by emotional smiley coloured face (in yellow and blue) to aid the pupil's comprehension and to make the CAES-C/A more pupil friendly. The questions were scored at 3 for a correct answer, 2 for the next appropriate answer (as agree by inter rater reliability see study one/two) and 1 for the least appropriate of the three, incorrect answers were marked with a 0, as was do not know, as this response indicated either a lack of understanding of the question or a lack of an empathic response (see Appendix 5 for marking scale). Teacher nominations of pupils bullying participant roles were not sought on this occasion because the aim of Study Three was to investigate whether or not the factors loaded on two loadings, cognitive and affective empathy using an older age group.

Procedure

The CAES-C/A was given to the pupils within one visit by myself, a female researcher. The instructions were read out, without deviation, and where available, presented using a computerised white board to enable consistency and to provide an unobtrusive and nonreactive self-reporting response measure. The pupils then filled in the questions alone. To help counteract for demand characteristics, the pupils were told that their answers were confidential and anonymous, and that the questionnaire was about their relationships with peers. The pupils were told not to discuss their answers with their peers (to help stop social desirable responses) and that there were no incorrect answers only how they actually would feel or believe another child would feel. At the end of the questionnaire the pupils were debriefing sheet (see Appendix 8) and an amended age-specific help sheet (Appendix 13) which informed them of who to go to if any of the questions had caused any stress or concerns

Results

Factor Analysis of the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Children/ Adolescents (CAES-C/A)

Aim One – The Reliability of the CAES-C/A

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient showed that the reliability of the CAES-C/A for affective empathy was reasonably acceptable at .78. This result suggests that the items for the amended worded 'I' CAES-C/A questionnaire had between a relatively acceptable internal consistency and reliability (George & Mallery, 2003) for the affective questionnaire items. However, for the cognitive empathy questions this was not the case as the Cronbach's alpha was only .54, so two questionnaire items had to be removed: girl cognitive Q39 and friend cognitive Q6. Even after their removal the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was still only .64. These results indicated that for an older age group (Years 7-11) only the affective empathy questions had an acceptable internal consistency and reliability; the cognitive items were shown to be at a low level, below the usually acceptable level of .70 (George & Mallery, 2003).

Aim Two: Did the factor analysis support the rationale of two factor loadings: cognitive and affective empathy?

Exploratory analysis (using Principal Axis Factoring, PAF) was conducted on the CAES/CA. Two questions girl cognitive Q39 and friend cognitive Q6, were excluded from this analysis because there was little or no variability between the pupils answers as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha.

Figures 1 and 2 on the next page demonstrate the inflexions which were indicated by two scree plot for the questions of the CAES/C/A.
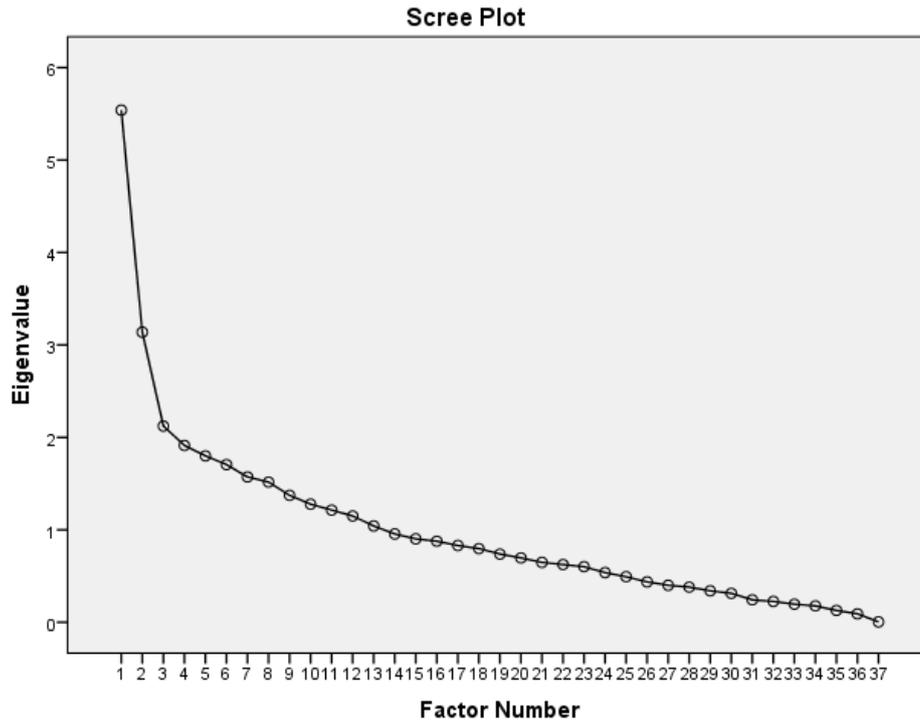
Figure 1: Scree Plot for the PAF *Empathy Scale for Children / Adolescent (CAES-C/A)*
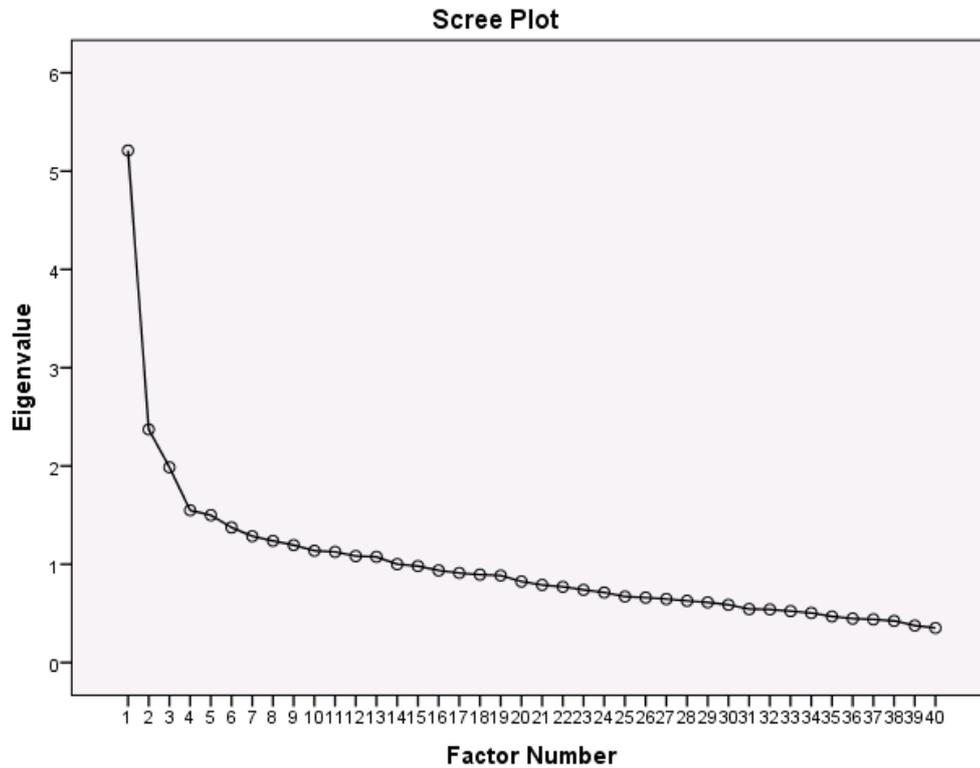
Figure 2: Scree Plot for the PAF test one (T1) CAEC-C Questionnaire from Study One (T1 & T2)

The scree plot (which indicates the inflexion of the curve) showed that there were two before a stable plateau was reached (see Figure 1). This inflexion on the curve was similar to that found in Study One (T1 test/ T2 retest) of the CAES-C (see Figure 2) but demonstrated two, rather than three, distinct factors.

Analysis asking for two factors indicated that within Factor One the majority of cognitive questions loaded more highly on it than they did on Factor Two and that the affective loaded highly on Factor Two. The two rotated matrix (see Appendix 21) showed greater loadings for two distinct factors which were consistent with this thesis hypothesis for two-dimensional empathy.

Aim Three: to indicate if there were any problem questions of the CAES-C that may have loaded on both factors within the amended CAES-C/A using an older age secondary school age group (12 to 16 years of age)

However, in contrast to Study One the factor loadings for the following cognitive questions were shown to load on just one factor; suggesting that the wording was applicable for this older age group.

Original wording
Q6. If another child punched your friend, I think my friend would feel?

Amendment wording
Q6. *If another child hurt my friend, I think* my friend *would feel?*

Conversely the other two questions which did not load in the original Study One were not amended and kept the same in the CAES-C/A. These were shown not to cause any difficulties with an older age group and to clearly load on factor one.

Q13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?
Q27. If another child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

Therefore, it suggests that it was correct that these two questions were not excluded from the CAES-C/A because they were now clearly loading on one factor.

Moreover, this analysis structure matrix showed that most of the affective questions of the CAES-C had higher loadings on factor two. However, the following four questions loaded more highly on the first factor:

Q15. If your friend had just moved away, you would feel?
Q22. If your friend was seriously ill, you would feel?
Q28. If my friend won a race, I would feel?

Q33.If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel?

The question below loaded more highly on the second factor

Q17. If my friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?

This may have been because the two-dimensions of empathy are inter-correlated. Alternatively, the questions which are indicated above may have been misinterpreted by the pupils and therefore they may need to be either re-worded or to be excluded from the CAES-C/A questionnaire.

Discussion

The initial purpose of Study Three was to determine whether the CAES-C/A had high consistency, reliability and internal validity. The internal reliability of the CAES-C/A was found to be relatively acceptable affective questions and to have a low level for the cognitive questions (George & Mallery, 2003) this provides support that the CAES-C/A had a relatively acceptable consistency and conceptual framework. Additionally, factor analyses demonstrated that the CAES-C/ A loaded on two factors; the first cognitive and the second affective empathy. The findings supported the rationale behind the CAES-C's construction, which was to create a valid measure of two-dimensional empathy (cognitive and affective).

While the results showed that the majority of the CAES-C/A 's questions loaded highly on one or other of the two factors, a few questions (Q15 friend younger child, Q22 friend affective, Q28 and Q33 girl affective) showed a higher loading within the first factor, cognitive empathy. One possible reason why this may have occurred is that these two dimensions of empathy are inter-correlated and therefore it would be expected that there is an element of overlap. However unlike Study One all of the questions were found to clearly load on to one or other of the factors.

An additional explanation for a few affective questions loading higher on the cognitive factor was that in Q15 they felt that they would be happy if their friend had moved away because it would mean that they had a nicer place to live than they did at that present time. These comments suggested that, as with Study One, pupils may have interpreted the question in a

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different manner than the raters had, because this question was scored as receiving a higher score of 3 for selecting the sad response. Furthermore, this may have been an appropriate answer for many of these children because of their socio-economic status; while the secondary school within this study was rated by OFSTED as a high performing school, with a special focus on the gifted and talented, the majority of its pupils came from local areas which had high deprivation. For Q16, which caused problems in the younger aged group, no loading difficulties were found. On Q22, as in Study One numerous children asked what type of illness their friend had, a factor which again seemed to affect their responses and it did in its cognitive mirrored question 17. Therefore, the wording was changed in the CAES-C/A to serious illness but this did not seem to help its loading.

Implications for Current Research

The amended version of the CAES-C the Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Children/Adolescents (CAES-C/A, Appendix 11) demonstrated that a re-worded version was generally a consistent and valid two-dimensional scales; providing a psychometrically sound measure for older children and adolescents which investigated peer relationships. Overall these changes were shown to provide a sufficient measure for this older age group too. My results demonstrate that the CAES-C/A was not a skewed measure which merely examined empathy under insular bullying scenarios, but enabled prosocial socio-metric relationships and behaviours to be investigated too. Overall the CAES-C/A could also enhance current empathy research, enabling anti-social and prosocial behaviours to be determined within childrens everyday sociometric relationships

Chapter Seven

A Review of Anti-Bullying Interventions Aimed at Enhancing Empathy in Bullying Roles

This chapter will review anti-bullying interventions that have been initiated by schools to help combat bullying. It will look at the various methods that can be implemented to stop bullying behaviours before and after they have occurred within a school environment. There are two main types of anti-bullying intervention. Proactive strategies work from the premise of improving the school climate and enhancing relationships so that bullying is less likely to occur. Reactive strategies deal with bullying situations when they have actually occurred.

(1) Reactive Interventions

Reactive anti-bullying interventions can be divided into punitive or non-punitive methods. Punitive methods generally employ rules against bullying and place negative consequences on the student for breaking them (i.e. punishment). In England, the DfE recommends that "Schools should apply disciplinary measures to pupils who bully in order to show clearly that their behaviour is wrong" (DfE, 2011). The most common type of punitive methods is a whole school anti-bullying approach which implements sanctions for bullying behaviours. Generally, these incorporate the initial identification of the bully and use procedures against further bullying by placing consequences such as non-physical penalties or sanctions (e.g. taking away privileges or in extreme cases of bullying temporary or permanent exclusion from school); see Rigby, Smith and Pepler (2004).

Some types of punitive methods place the responsibility for the investigation of bullying into the hands of the pupils. A prominent example is the system of school tribunals/ bully courts which incorporate selected pupils who hear the evidence against the bully with the aim of deciding upon relevant sanctions or punishment (Thompson and Smith 2011).

In contrast, non-punitive methods mediate between the students who are in conflict, by trying to encourage greater empathic feelings from the bullies towards the victim's emotions and feelings, without any direct sanction for the bully. Two main non-punitive approaches are the Support Group Method (Maines & Robinson, 1992, 1998 & Robinson & Maine 2007) and the

Shared Concern Method (Pikas 1989, 1992 & 2002).

Critics of non-punitive approaches, such as Olweus (1994), have argued that if bullies break the school or class rules, they should be sanctioned in some way; whether such sanctions are 'punitive' becomes a matter of definition, as Olweus (1994) recommends 'serious talks', 'telling parents', and 'suspension of privileges'.

Rigby, Smith and Pepler (2004, p.4) stated of punitive interactions:
"Such interventions are seen by some as not only likely to discourage bullying behaviour but also send a message to deter others who might otherwise engage in bullying." However, they argue that a "direct bullying-focused approach*"* is not necessarily the most effective to have a long-term effect.

Rigby, Smith and Pepler (2004, p.4) go on to state that:
"A miscarriage of justice resulting in resentment on the part of the bully may lead to a redoubling of efforts to continue the bullying in less detectable but equally damaging ways."

This section will now briefly examine the use of proactive strategies. It will focus upon what methods are used by schools and which ones they rate as the most successful.

(2) Proactive Strategies

Proactive strategies are aimed at counteracting bullying before it has occurred by changing pupils perceptions of bullying behaviours, providing pupils with appropriate skills to help avoid bullying (e.g. assertiveness training, increasing social skills and enhancing empathy), and by creating a safe environment for all.

In England and Wales since 1999 schools have been legally required to have an anti-bullying policy set in place. Such policies provide a framework upon which pupils, teachers and parents are informed of the schools response to bullying in schools (e.g. what initiatives it proposes to keep their pupils safe from bullying and its rules in regards to bullying and what to do if bullying actually occurs, Smith et al. 2008; 2010).

The national charity Kidscape (2004) suggested that when developing a school policy, schools

should make sure that pupils are aware of the classroom/school rules in regard to bullying and the consequences for breaking these rules. They propose that schools should make sure they regularly update their anti-bullying policy, especially in regard to new forms of bullying such as cyberbullying; and check if its sanctions are implemented effectively. Additionally, if the school has a high staff turnover they should ensure that new staff members are trained in accordance to their anti-bullying policy. Kidscape proposes schools should make sure that there are systems set in place where pupils are able to discuss bullying, such as school councils, peer mentoring or buddying, as this allows pupils to air their difficulties with other peers.

Another type of proactive strategy is positive modelling of behaviour by adults. School staff lead by positive example and effectively 'practise what they preach', as students need the 'emotional intelligence of good role models' (Thompson & Smith, 2011). Also factors such as parental involvement have been shown to be important, especially within primary schools. Some schools have specific members of staff that liaise with parents. However, at times parental involvement is difficult to maintain. This problem was demonstrated by Thompson and Smith (2011, p.6) who found that several schools:

 "Find it difficult to engage parents at all, with, for example, special e-safety presentations poorly attended."

Personal, Social, Health and Economic Education (PSHEE) is a non-statutory part of the English curriculum, which aims to enhance pupils understanding through discussion of their personal identity, healthy lifestyles, risks, and interpersonal relationships especially with peers; and to develop the pupil's understanding of their relationship with society and factors such as diversity. Within anti-bullying, PSHEE aims to increase awareness of the consequences of bullying and anti-social behaviour and help to promote assertive and empathic behaviours in pupils.

The bullying incorporated in an incident may make it is difficult at times to choose a specific method that suits all of the pupils involved. Dixon and Smith (2011) state that before choosing an anti-bullying intervention fundamental issues need to addressed, such as is it age-relevant, and do the teachers who administer the intervention have the appropriate and necessary skills required to make it successful. Dixon and Smith (2011) advocated that at times an integrated approach of different anti-bullying interventions may be required. Rigby (2010) suggests that a

method should be chosen, which suits the specific bullying situation and type of bullying that has been used. At times it may therefore be appropriate to use more than one method. However, Dixon and Smith (2011) argue that if an integrated approach is used the teacher should carefully determine whether or not one method has an element of overlap, as they may both be addressing the same underlying process of the bullying behaviour and so be counterproductive.

The next section of this chapter will briefly examine the use of direct sanctions. Direct sanctions involve a direct response to a request for help with regard to a specific bullying situation (Cowie & Olafsson, 2000). This section will focus upon what specific methods are used by schools and which ones they rate as being more effective. It will primarily focus on research by Thompson and Smith (2011) for the DFE (known then as the Department for Children Schools and Families, DCSF), in which I helped as a researcher in the summer of 2010, conducting interviews with 1/3 of the case study schools.

(3) Direct Sanctions

Thompson and Smith (2011) stated that generally direct sanctions incorporate initial serious talks and reprimands. In their evaluation in England of 1242 schools (79 primaries, 378 secondary and 70 special schools), they found that the majority of schools used direct sanctions such as verbal reprimands, and meetings with parents. Primary schools were more likely to use verbal reprimands, detentions or a withdrawal of privileges. Secondary schools also used verbal reprimands and parental meetings; but additionally implemented internal and short-term exclusions. However permanent exclusion was only used in a minority of cases by secondary schools.

The majority of schools stated that sanctions were used because they provided a clear message that bullying would not be tolerated. Three-quarters of schools stated that they used direct sanctions as part of a framework to accompanying other reactive strategies or as a last resort if they had failed to have an effect. Conversely other schools stated that they did not use direct sanctions because there was no bullying occurring in their schools, or because other strategies were more effective. Others stated that it was inappropriate to use direct sanctions on young children, or pupils who had special educational needs which may render them unable to understand the rationale behind such sanctions. Indeed 10% of schools within Thompson and Smith's (2011) survey discouraged or opposed the use of direct sanctions. One primary school stated "as a rights respecting school using sound pro-skills (and) training pupils to understand

the importance for respect for all - (direct sanctions are) not appropriate to our school procedures." However, the majority of schools found direct sanctions effective in reducing bullying as they were generally easy to implement and very economical. Direct sanctions were implemented by schools because they provided pupils with effective and clear boundaries that bullying behaviours will not be tolerated. The majority of schools used direct sanctions as part of an anti-bullying toolbox which provided an encompassing framework, especially if other methods had failed to have an effect in reducing bullying. More punitive methods were used by secondary schools, who as well as using detentions and direct talks as primary schools did, used internal and short-term exclusions.

The next part of this chapter will now review whole-school approaches which have been proposed to improve the school climate and to enhance whole-school awareness of bullying per se.

(4) A Whole School Approach

A whole-school approach, as its name suggests, focusses on the school community as a whole. This type of approach generally includes an anti-bullying policy aimed at the school and all of those involved (pupils, parents, teachers, administrators and lunch-time and playground supervisors).

(5) The Olweus Bullying Prevention Program

The Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP, 1991, 1994) aims to enhance school-wide awareness of bullying. The OBPP premise is to make improvements in peer relationships, and foster a safe environment for pupils. The OBPP is based on four fundamental principles that it proposes that adults at school should set; they should show warmth and interest in their pupils; set limits and boundaries for unacceptable behaviour; use consistent, nonphysical and non-hostile negative consequences for violation of the rules; and act as authorities and positive role models for the pupils. The components of the OBPP work at school, classroom, individual and community levels.

The OBPP was developed by Olweus in the 1980s in Bergen, Norway, over a two-and-a-half-year period with 2500 pupils from grades five to eight (10-14 year olds). The OBPP arose in the context of a national anti-bullying campaign in Norway. Olweus evaluated his program using a

quasi-experimental (age cohorts) design (Olweus, 1991). Initial findings demonstrated great reductions in self and teacher reports of victimisation. After the initial Bergen Project Against Bullying (as it became known), six follow-up evaluations on a large sample of 20,000 pupils were implemented, which again showed positive effects. Moreover, a five-year follow-up study conducted in Oslo between 2001 and 2006 indicated a reduction over a longer time period.

Olweus and Limber (2007) stated that the OBPP is founded upon the premise that bullying should not be a natural or common place experience for children or adolescents. They argued that studies in Scandinavia and the USA have demonstrated that bullying behaviour can be systematically reduced if a school-wide approach using the OBPP is implemented.

(i) The Effectiveness of the OBPP

Bauer, Lozano and Rivara (2007) investigated the effectiveness of the OBPP in 10 middle schools (grades six to eight, 11-13 year olds) in the USA. They compared seven schools using the OBPP to three schools that did not use it. The aim was to investigate the effectiveness of the OBPP at reducing victimisation, enhancing pupil's perceptions towards bullying, and willingness to intervene, and improving the school environment.

Bauer et al. (2007) found that the OBPP was not as effective as was expected. They stated that this might have been because the OBPP was developed in a homogenous Norwegian predominately Caucasian sample, which as a monoculture, meant that the program did not translate to a multi-cultural school population. Adolescent's self-identity develops differently in a multi-cultural environment, as ethnic identity and attitudes towards others is incorporated, which may be influenced by actual experiences with peers (especially those from other ethnic backgrounds). Reductions in victimisation were only shown in Caucasians, which may indicate a correlation between racism and bullying. Factors such as cultural bias may create an imposed etic that brings fundamental difficulties in cross transfer of the OBPP from one culture to another. An additional factor that may have been influential in Bauer et al.'s results was they were unable to control for other links, which may have increased aggression (i.e. family factors such as partner violence, psychical or sexual abuse or harsh parenting).

Limber's (2012) review of the OBPP in the 1990s in South Carolina, where the majority of the pupils were African Americans, showed a 16% decrease in student self-reports of bullying in comparison to a 12% increase in comparison schools. Therefore, Limber's finding equated to a

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28% relative reduction in bullying.

Research both in Norway and the USA (but it should be noted that these are less conclusive as Olweus admits himself) have indicated that bullying can be systematically reduced especially if the pupils involved are not provided with a reward for such antisocial behaviours. However, results in Norway have demonstrated that it is more difficult to make reductions in bullying in grades seven (12-13 year olds) which may be due to the transition from elementary to middle schools.

In summary, the OBPP, at least in Norwegian schools, provides a reduction in bullying and an enhancement of the pupil's feelings of safety within their school environment. However, the OBPP has been argued to be rather focused upon a monocultural Caucasian European population and so far has been found to have a lesser effect in other ethnicities/cultural groups. Here it is argued that, it is not an appropriate anti-bullying method to use for my case studies because of the cultural diversity that is found within English schools. In addition, the case school participating within Study Four has a type of non-punitive ethos that is not readily compatible with the OBPP.

(6) The Restorative Approach

The Restorative Justice Approach (Marshall, 1999), views bullying in a social context, and aims to incorporate all of the parties involved in a conflict or bullying episode, to act together and try to resolve the issues and the effects it has created, in an amenable manner. The Restorative Approach (RA) allows a bully to learn about the impact that their behaviour has upon others. It aims to help the bully to understand the consequences of their actions, helping them to develop skills for successful and constructive interact with others. The underlying premise of RA is conflict resolution which is predominately focused on the bully repairing the harm they have caused on their victim by focusing on the victim's feelings. The bully is encouraged to acknowledge the impact of what they have done and provided with the opportunity to make reparation. The victim is provided with the opportunity to have their harm or loss acknowledged and amends are made (Restorative Justice Consortium, 2005).

The fundamental aim of RA is to aid conflict resolution and to try to repair the harm which has been inflicted by the 'perpetrator'. Throughout the perpetrator is made aware of their victim's

feelings and provided with an opportunity to make reparation. Restorative Approaches (RA) are not focused upon retribution, but places emphasis upon the restoration of positive relationships. This can be achieved via a hierarchy of flexible responses ranging from informal to formal (facilitated) meetings.

An informal or mini conference is led by trained staff with pupils involved within a specific incident. The incident and the feelings of the pupil who has been harmed is investigated. The perceived offender is asked to discuss ways that they could make 'reparation'. Formal structured meetings/conferences incorporate those involved, with parent/carers and school representatives. The aim of this meeting is to discuss how a specific incident could be resolved. The conference is led by a fully trained member of staff, who before it commences has conducted individual interviews with all of those involved to help them understand what has happened and how to implement successful resolution and reparation.

Thompson and Smith (2011) study found that RA are used for types of anti-social behaviour, including bullying. The majority of English Local Authorities anti-bullying leads supported its use, with 69% of schools within this study using it. However, to be effective pupils have to show a willingness to discuss their feelings and relationship problems. Thompson and Smith (2011) stated a 'good seedbed' for this are other problem solving interventions such as Circles/Circle time (see whole school approaches). In 35 case study schools, with consistent implementation and the appropriate staff training, RA was shown to be 79% effective at stopping bullying, in comparison to the schools who used less consistent application (64%), and those who did not use it (58%).

(7) Circle Time: A Whole Class Peer Support Model

Circle Time (CTs, Mosley, 1996) is a whole school approach that works by bringing unison to the school community. It premises incorporates rules, which place emphasis on morality and culture. It encompasses a set of 'Golden Rules':
To be gentle, kind, honest, work hard, look after property, and to listen to others.
Don't hurt anybody or their feelings, cover up the truth, waste time or damage things or interrupt others.

Throughout CT the children are asked to think about their behaviour and how it may affect

others. Extra circular activities and a privilege system are implemented for the children who follow the 'Golden Rules' and sanctions issued to those who do not. Sanctions play an important and integral part of CT as they enable the children to win back rewards by signing a contract for target behaviours and work. CTs enable children to talk and listen to others by thinking through their responses within their interpersonal relationships. Group games and activities are focused on encouraging group identity and cohesion. Overall CT draws upon the intrinsic value emphasis of cohesion towards others. Each of the CTs has an underlying moral value. This method can be successful in helping to resolve conflict problems and towards promoting resolutions. Various methodologies can be used within CT several of which are explained in the following paragraphs.

(i) Bubble Time

Bubble Time (BT) provides children with the opportunity to discuss, on a one to one basis, sensitive issues by the provision of a safety value. BT provides very young children with a clear symbol (i.e. the bubble) for listening. The symbolic paper bubble (symbolising privacy) is positioned on to a table. Children can then use the bubble to request BT to discuss private matters with either a teacher (at lunch-times or breaks) or another child. Over time the children become accustomed to not interrupting others within the 'private' bubble. BT can be used to discuss problems and help within conflicts (Mosley, 1996).

(ii) Non-verbal Listening System

Think books enable children an opportunity to write down and record their thoughts, anxieties and queries. The books are kept in a 'designated safe place' and read privately by their teacher. BT may then be initiated if felt that it is required. This method provides children with an outlet to be able to express their worries to their teachers when they are having difficulties communicating them verbally. This in turn allows children to be listened to by their trusted teacher and appropriate referrals instigated when required (Mosley, 1996).

(iii) Circle Time: The Group Listening System

CT as stated can be effective when used as a whole-school approach. This method is implemented within whole class (or small groups) accompanied by a teacher, all of whom sit within a circle. Various strategies (e.g. co-operative games, experiential approaches and discussions) can be used to encourage and promote better caring interpersonal relationships. The

teacher acts as a facilitator because responsibility is primary placed upon the children to discover ways through specific problems.

Other activities such as role-play are used to encourage empathy. Overall the group listening system provides a safe forum for the children to discuss issues. Throughout the teacher acts as an unobtrusive member of the circle whilst providing reminders of the agreed 'Golden Rules' (Mosley, 1996).

(iv) Circle Time: A Systems Approach to Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties

Kelly (1999) stated that CT is a behavioural adjustments intervention aimed at self-concept which can be used with children who exhibit emotional and behavioural difficulties. They conducted research in primary school-aged children who presented such difficulties, which were seen to be linked to low levels of self-concept. CT was deemed as an appropriate intervention because it offered a systematic approach, which was workable within the resources of this specific school. The CTs were implemented within two conditions; a whole-class and group extracted context.

The results demonstrated that positive behavioural chances were found in both types of implementations and that greater changes were more prevalent in the whole-class context. This demonstrates that within everyday resources of primary schools, CTs can be very successful in encouraging prosocial and positive behavioural changes in form groups.

(v) An Evaluation of CT in England Schools (infant, primary, secondary, special and PRUs)

Thompson and Smith (2011) evaluation of English schools anti-bullying interventions, found that CT were predominately used in primary schools and special schools, but just over half of secondary schools and PRU used it too. All school rated CT as positive and successful in the prevention of bullying. Several primary schools stated that CT was the foundation of their anti-bullying work as it helped to develop pupil's social skills. Other schools used it occasionally, either as a report system or within identified group. It demonstrated to be effective but staff training was required. However, several schools found it was time-consuming or that it was problematic to implement because of the space it needed. Many secondary schools perceived

CT as too primary-based but used it on occasion. Some schools used it both proactively to instil an anti-bullying stance and reactively to provide a forum to discuss the impact of bullying incidents.

One Case study primary school implemented CT to support a vulnerable Y5 child by providing a fictional account of his day being read to the class., which enabled the children to see similarities between the victimised boy and the story. The CT were used as problem-solving sessions, which in turn enabled the bullying to be stopped.

Another case study school referred to CT as 'philosophy for children' CTs were introduced to enable the introduction of investigative skills and implemented by trained staff. The children were taught thinking skills, and how to appropriately address questions to others. Rules were set in place as the children were encouraged to verbally manage verbal disagreements, which deterred fights. Creative thinking was effective especially in regards the children who were in the lower academic abilities groups. This was especially successful for children with special educational needs as its clear boundaries and rule enabled a feeling of safety within their group.

In two schools (a primary and secondary school) CT were integrated with restorative approaches when responding to conflicts. Diagnostic questions were implemented via staff and pupils in order to work towards conflict resolution.

Overall Thompson and Smith (2011) indicated that many of the schools within their evaluation found CT successful and used it effectively within their anti-bullying work and in the development pupils of social skills and found it successful. CT was shown to be as effective when used proactively as it was reactively. Therefore it demonstrated that CT had evolved, especially in one school that used an adaptation called philosophy for children; several other schools used it alongside restorative approaches as part of an interventions toolbox.

(8) The KiVa Project

KiVa means Kiusaamista Vastaan (translated as Against Bullying). The KiVa project is an anti-bullying intervention in Finland, designed by Salmivalli, Kärnä and Poskiparta (2011). The fundamental premise of the KiVa program is to make bystanders aware of the effects of their behaviour and to help provide safe interventions to enhance their support towards the victim, through the use of pupil lessons and computerised games. It provides pupils with ways that help

promote a greater understanding of other pupil's emotions (i.e. empathy).

The KiVa project started on a small scale but has been rolled out on a national basis in Finland. It works from the rationale that pupils who take the role of passive bystanders or onlookers are actually supporting bullying by reinforcing the bullying behaviour and enhancing the bully's power and status. Thus, increasing active bystander behaviour will in turn reduce the bully's social rewards from peers; the KiVa project provides a large range of activities rather than guiding principles. It harnesses learning through the internet (at grade levels one to four, six-nine years of age,) which incorporates three components; I know, I can and I do; and by a virtual learning environment called KiVa Street which is aimed at secondary school-aged pupils. It fundamentally focuses upon not just bystander behaviour but upon ways that peers can enhance their feelings of empathy and self-efficacy which will help to increase their support towards the victim's plight.

Within the computerised activities the 'I know' component enables students, through game-like tasks, to test their abilities to resist group pressure to bully. The 'I can' component provides challenging tasks set within the school environment (corridors, playground and canteen). It allows the child to assess how the other characters feel before and after their choices of action are taken. The third 'I do' component allows the children to make use of their newly acquired skills to realistic scenarios which measures whether they have treated the other child with respect, whether or not have they resisted group pressure and whether they have supported the victim. Throughout the activities pupils are provided with feedback which is based upon their choices. Secondary school-aged pupils, through the virtual reality environment 'KiVa Street', visit various places (e.g. the library or theatre) where they are able to obtain information or watch films based upon bullying.

(i) Evaluation of the KiVa Programme

Three evaluation studies have reported on the KiVa programme.

A large-scale evaluation of the KiVa anti-bullying programme in grades four-six (aged 10-12 years), by Kärnä, Voeten, Little, Poskiparta, Kaljonen, and Salmivalli (2011), examined whether it is effective in reducing bullying and victimisation and has positive effects on several other related outcomes. The sample consisted of 8,166 pupils from grades four–six from 77

schools that had been randomly assigned to intervention (39 schools, 4,201 students) and control conditions (38 schools, 3,965 students). This evaluation showed promising findings. It indicated that pupils from the control schools were 1.3 times more likely to become a victim or to be a bully than the pupils from the KiVa Schools. Moreover, within grades four to six the program brought positive changes, as pupils were less likely to assist or reinforce the bullying behaviour, and more likely to have higher levels of self-efficacy which aided defending behaviour and enhanced their sense of well-being at school.

In a second study, a nonrandomised nationwide trial of the KiVa Anti-bullying Program was reported by Kärnä, Little, Voeten, Poskiparta, Alana and Salmivalli (2011). This was on 888 schools with 150,000 pupils from grades one to nine (aged seven to sixteen years). The results indicated that within the initial nine-months of its implementation the KiVa Anti-Bullying Program demonstrated reductions in victimisation and bullying.

In a third study, Kärnä, Voeten, Little, Alanen, Poskiparta, and Salmivalli, (2012) conducted a study with grades one–three (aged 7–9 years of age) and grades seven–nine (13–15 years of age). The program effects on self-reported bullying and victimisation were examined in both age groups, whereas the outcomes for grades seven–nine included also peer-reported behaviours. The two samples included a large number of students from grades 1–3 ($N = 6,927$; 74 schools) and grades 7–9 ($N = 16,503$; 73 schools). The schools had been randomly assigned to intervention and control conditions. Participants filled out Internet-based questionnaires.

Overall, the results of the three studies found that passive bystander behaviours within a bullying context had a risk for bullying upon vulnerable pupils as active bystander behaviour can effectively decrease bullying. The evaluation studies indicated that the KiVa program was effective at reducing bullying and further victimisation. However, these effects were found to be greater (as indicated by self-reports) in grades one to six than they were in grades seven to nine. This suggests that the KiVa program is more effective in elementary schools than it is in secondary. In conclusion the authors argue that if the KiVa program was implemented more extensively and nationwide it could bring about reductions of approximately 3,900 victims and 2,300 bullies.

The KiVa program has demonstrated the fundamental effect of passive bystander behaviour in reinforcing bullying behaviour and was indicative of the strength of active bystander behaviour

in reducing bullying. The KiVa anti-bullying programme was also demonstrated to reduce depression and anxiety and negative peer perceptions, and improve school adjustment (i.e. academic performance and motivation).

(9) Possible Side Effects to Anti-Bullying Interventions

Salmivalli, Garandeau and Veenstra (2012) stated that there can be possible side effects of anti-bullying interventions, which they argued are more than was originally encompassed in the actual intentions of the interventions. Olweus's OBPP (1991), as well as enhancing feelings of safety in school and reducing anti-social behaviours, has been shown to reduce reported depression in pupils (Fekkes, Pijpers & Verloove-Vanhorrick, 2006, in Salmivalli et al. 2012), as has the KiVa anti-bullying programme.

Salmivalli et al. (2012) proposed that these positive side-effects may occur for several reasons. Firstly, positive side-effects are mediated by the reduction in victimisation, leading to greater and better adjustment in the pupils who are being bullied. Secondly, such anti-bullying interventions mediate a reduction in anti-social behaviours such as bullying and so thirdly reduce pupils witnessing bullying, which may reduce feelings of depression and anxiety. Fourthly these changes may be solely independent and autonomous to changes in victimisation and bullying behaviour but be dependent upon increases of social skills, empathy and group co-operation as a by-product of the anti-bullying interventions.

This chapter will now specifically focus and examine the use of the Pikas Method /Shared Concern (1989, 2002) and the Support Group Method (SGM) formally known as the No Blame Approach (NBA Maines and Robinson, 1992, 1998). As the CAES-C/A questionnaire will be used in longitudinal case studies, to examine bullying children's total empathy (cognitive and affective) levels before and after the implementation of anti-bullying interventions it will help to focus on an empathic response with the premise of determining whether or not the SGM anti-bullying method has been successful in enhancing affective empathy and increasing active bystander intervention and finally in reducing bullying behaviour.

(10) The Pikas Method/The Shared Concern Method

In the 70s Pikas originally named his anti-bullying intervention Persuasive Coercion method but later in the 80s changed it to The Shared Concern Method as it equated better in English. The Shared Concern Method (SCm, Pikas, 2002) is especially relevant for adolescents, and is directed at problem solving of the bullying group. Initial meetings are conducted with the individual bullies to communicate and elicit an empathic concern for the victim. However, the Pikas method differs from the Support Group Method (see later in this chapter) because it involves individual interviews with bullying children, and their victim, followed by a group meeting. It uses a combination of individual and group meetings, structured around consecutive phases; individual talks with suspected bullies; individual talk with the victim; preparatory group meeting; summit meeting; and follow up of the results.

There is some evidence for the effectiveness of this method as indicated by Smith and Sharp (1994). They investigated its use in twenty-one primary and secondary schools, where teachers were formally trained in the Pikas method. Results indicated that generally all of those involved felt that it was an appropriate method to use. Moreover, pupil self-reports indicated that ¾ of pupils felt that there had been reductions in bullying. However, this intervention requires properly trained practitioners which can be difficult to implement internally within school because it requires specialist training to be successful. The Pikas Method is a stage approach shown in Table One below;

Stages/Phases	What the Stage/Phase Involves
One	**Individuals involved in a bully/victim problem are identified. Reliable information is obtained through observations and/or receiving reports in regards to:** **a)** The person or persons being bullied by another individual or group. **b)** The person or persons continually engaged in carrying out the bullying.
Two	**Students are identified to have been likely to have taken part in the bullying, or to have supported it in some way.** • Each student is interviewed privately, starting with the ring leader bully. Additionally, these individual interviews can include bystanders because they can reinforce the bullying behaviour. • Within these interviews it is fundamental that no accusations are made. Pupils are informed of their role is to improve the school environment as some pupils are having a difficult time at school with other pupils.

	• As soon as the pupil acknowledges some awareness (not guilt) relating to what has been happening, they are asked directly what can be done to help improve matters. • Suggestions are then made about what can be done to improve the situation.
Three	The targeted person (T) is seen after all the pupils involved within the bullying have been interviewed. • Support and concern is expressed by the practitioner and a trusting relationship is developed. • Questions are asked to explore whether T has acted in a provocative or innocent manner. • It is important that no blame is directed towards the T pupil. • Sensitivity should be maintained throughout this interview. Another interview is arranged later to see how things are progressing.
Four	Several days later, follow-up meetings • Are held with individual bullies to ascertain whether they have carried out their promised action to help to improve the situation for the T. Generally, this has a positive effect of enhancing and promoting positive social interactions with the T.
Five	Incorporates a brief meeting with the T • The T is encouraged to join the group for a final meeting, with assurances that progress can be made at the meeting. However, if T is not willing to take part their feelings and decision are respected.
Six	At the meeting (sometimes called a Summit meeting) with the suspected bullies and the Target are present. • This meeting enables the pupils to express their thoughts about how they have proceeded in resolving this issue. • If genuine guilt and improved relationships have occurred this meeting serves as a positive way to express the pupil's success. Conversely if this meeting is less successful it enables the channels of communication to be maintained.

Table 1: The Pikas Method Breakdown of Stages/Phases (2002)

(i) New Developments of the Shared Concern Method

The SCm (Pikas, 2002) helps to reveal whether the bully feels group pressure and is afraid of their in-group bullies turning against them (the bully). This could be perceived by the bully as the in-group showing retribution and guilt for their bullying of an individual. The SCm incorporates looking for feelings of guilt in the 'suspect' bully/ies. If these arise spontaneously, these could be channelled to help achieve a constructive solution. Moreover, if the therapist is able to develop trust they will better able to investigate the bully's fear of their own 'skin' - that is their fear of punishment or retribution against them.

Smith and Sharp (1994, p.200) stated that; *"It appears that (SCm) can be a powerful short term tool for combating bullying, although long-term changes may depend on additional action where very persistent bullying is concerned."*

(ii) An Australian Evaluation of the Method of Shared Concern/Shared Concern Method

In 2008, Rigby and Johnson (2011) evaluated the Method of Shared Concern (MSC: known in England as the SCM). They provide a description and evaluation of the MSC, examining how the method is implemented and its overall general effectiveness on reducing bullying. Their evaluation found that there are difficulties with certain of its stages. One variation found necessary was to see the target (victim) before the suspected bully/ies. Rigby and Johnson (2011) argue that it is unrealistic not to see the victim first as generally the victim is the pupil initially sent to pastoral care staff. Therefore, variations are sometimes required by excusing the victim from phased meetings especially when victims are reluctant to attend because of a fear of retribution from the bullies. Also bystanders may be required to help identify the bullies, but the process must not be seen as a witch hunt. Bystanders were included in group meetings in order to apply group pressure to enhance more prosocial empathic feelings (as also seen in the No Blame Approach, Maines & Robinson 1997).

Rigby and Johnson (2011) stated that it is difficult to make a clear distinction between bystanders and bullies as these roles may differ between situations and so can be very transient. These meetings were shown to be effective but completely against Pikas (1989) rationale which states that meeting the suspected bully provides an opportunity to re-individualise the student and override the mob mentality. However, it was found that re-individualised pupils in several

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cases turned against and rejected the ringleader bully. This indicates that while this may be positive for the target it changes the group dynamics by creating a new victim. It may therefore be more constructive in these cases to conduct further individual and group meetings. Rigby and Johnson (2011) stated that it is difficult at times to not specifically blame individuals especially in cases of serious bullying.

Pikas (1989) proposed that there is no need for parental consent before initiating the MSC as it does not attribute blame but is a method of empowerment for the students involved, which is aimed at conflict resolution in interpersonal relationships with peers. Rigby and Johnson (2011) stated that this may have affected the external validity. Additionally, parental approval could help demonstrate that the majority of parents were in favour of the Pikas Method, dismissing the generally held belief that parents ultimately require punitive disciplinary actions to be taken against the bullies.

Evidence suggests that younger age groups tend to be more empathic and show more concern towards victims (Rigby, 1997). Rigby and Johnson (2011) argue that little empirical research has been conducted to investigate whether the MSC would also be beneficial for younger age groups. However, practitioners seemed sceptical to use this method when pupils had mental impairment or developmental disorders such as Aspersers Syndrome, although these children may still find the approach beneficial.

Overall Rigby and Johnson (2011) demonstrated that the MSC was used in a minority of schools and in many different manners and variations. However, many practitioners seemed to deviate from its set phases arguing that the total process was time-consuming. Therefore, alternative methods were used (e.g. the SGM, restorative approaches and direct sanctions) when this was viewed as more appropriate to the situation and to the pupils involved. Rigby and Johnson concluded that how much the MSC is used seems to be dependent upon how much skills training is provided to the schools. They stated that the MSC is effective when dealing with target victims and their suspected bullies but further investigation is required to determine in which specific cases of bullying it is more appropriate to use.

(iii) Evaluation of the SCm/Pikas Method in England

Thompson and Smith (2011) found that the Pikas Method was used by a minority (5%) of schools in England. It was rated as effective but rather time-consuming and not really cost

effective.

One primary school stated that;

"It really works well just the time involved is a factor (Thompson & Smith, 2011, p123)."

It was used by schools who reported that it was supportive and non-judgmental to all of the pupils involved. No training was provided was given as one a reason for the schools not using this method. When used, it was implemented as part of a toolbox together with other, complementary, anti-bullying methods. It was used when there were low levels of bullying to allow pupils to realise their role/responsibility and inappropriateness for their actions.

(11) The Support Group Method of Maines and Robinson (1992, 1995) and Robinson and Maines (2007)

The Support Group Method (SGM, 1992; 1995) and Robinson and Maines (2007) works from the premise that bullying generally involves a group of pupils with repeated victimisation over time. Occasional acts of victimisation are not generally termed as bullying unless there is a continuation of fear or torment for the victim. Formerly known as the No Blame Approach, the SGM was re-named because its critics suggested that as it does not blame individuals involved within the bullying and it is an easy option for the bullying group. Maines and Robinson's The SGM (1992; 1995; Robinson and Maines (2007) works from seven step approach (see Table Two).

Step	Description
One	The victim/s are interviewed with the aim of determining what specifically are their emotions and perspective in regards to their victimisation.
Two	This step convenes a meeting with six to eight pupils who are involved in the bullying and defenders or albeit if it is within a bystander role.
Three	During this step an explanation of the situation and feelings of the victim through the use of a stimulus (e.g. a poem, drawing or a piece of writing). This stimulus is used to instil an awareness of the emotions of distress that the victim is feeling.
Four	This step asks the pupils of the group to show responsibly for this distress but no

	specific blame is attributed to any specific individuals, responsibility is ascribed to the group as a whole.
Five	In this step the group are asked for suggestions of ways which would be beneficial to help the victim.
Six	This step leaves the group with the responsibility of implementing ways that they could help the victim.
Seven	Another meeting with the group is arranged (generally after at least a week) which discusses how things are going through their perspective. The victim is met with separately and this process aims to keep the students involved throughout.

Table Two: The Support Group Method (Robinson & Maines, 1992, 1995, Robinson & Maines, 2007) Steps

The SGM provides the pastoral care teacher with a selection of activities, working towards the Seven Stage Approach. Initially the pupils are asked to agree to what the term bullying specifically means to them. Maines and Robinson (1992) found that bullying was defined by pupils to include threats of or actual physical harm, relational bullying such as name calling or exclusion and extortion.

Maines and Robinson (1992) state to teachers in pastoral care that:
"Maybe the biggest challenge for us is to advise you to abandon punishment as a response to the bullies. We take a pragmatic approach and suggest that punishment simply does not work; in fact, it will often make matters worse when the bully takes revenge on the victim" (Maines & Robinson, 1992, p.7).

Maines & Robinson (1992) state that:
"Some bullying is a normal part of school life" (p.1).

It challenges many school practices of advocating strong negative feelings and labels towards the bully, which they argue should be set aside to enable the pupils involved to voice their perspectives freely.

Robinson and Maines (2007) state that if there is a solitary bully (generally unusual as incidents are rarely in isolation) a peer group should be selected to help enhance the feelings of the

victim. Robinson and Maines (2007) argue, like Pikas (1989), that the bullying is not just dependent upon the bully alone even if they are victimising alone, as even a single bully receives passive support from others. Robinson and Maines (2007) propose that specifically identifying the size of the bullying problem is not very useful as it is dependent upon the school and the impact of the bullying upon those involved. They argue that the SGM should only be used on persistent rather than one off incidents. Telling tales should be encouraged but in a manner whereby the pupils should recognise that breaking their silence will help make the school environment a better one for all. If the group suggests that the victim actually provoked their victimisation, help should be provided to the victim to enhance their social and emotional skills, but this should not be used to attribute blame towards them. The support group may imply that he or she needs to stop these behaviours, but they are encouraged to take responsibility to help and assist the victim as long as these changes are within the victim's capabilities and not used to attribute blame towards them.

Overall the Support Group Method works towards the group's perspective on what is happening and concentrates on how this can be effectively dealt with. The whole truth is not required to be determined as this may increase the hostile actions towards the victim from the bully resulting in further victimisation.

(i) Is Bullying Normal?

Maines and Robinson argue (1992, 1995) and Robinson and Maines (2007) that bullying should not be seen as 'normal' as it is debatable as to its nature being normative, and this view does not help stop the bullying behaviour. It would be more useful to propose that bullying is a process of growing up and that teachers should as with any other developmental trend, address bullying as part of social and emotional development. The SGM aim to acknowledge that each viewpoint of the individuals involved in the bullying situation may contribute to the specific problem. The NBA works with the bullying group rather than the bully, each member is asked to co-operate to find a solution which helps to stop the bullying.

Pikas' (2002) SCM proposes that if we do not actually aim to punish those involved we do not therefore need to determine the 'truth'. The SGM approach states that establishing the truth can be counter-productive and reductionist, but what is powerful and cannot be denied are feelings. The SGM acknowledges that there can be many truths and interpretations, so aims to help the pupils to realise that there can be many different interpretations to their own one. It argues that

punishment does not work as it can actually make the bullying worse. The NBA seeks to instil within the bully that effective action is being taken even though a specific punishment has not been implemented. In conclusion the SGM and SCM do not use punishment but a co-operative approach which is founded upon the problem behaviour.

(ii) Young's (1998) Evaluation of the Support Group Method

Young (1998) evaluated the SGM at the Special Education Needs Support Services anti-bullying project in Kingston upon Hull over a 2-year period, in 51 primary and 4 secondary schools. The findings indicated that in the majority (80%) of primary schools there was an immediate success, as rated by the victims and their parents, in that the SGA had resulted in a cessation of victimisation. Only a small minority of schools (6%) indicated that the SGM had been of limited success. Young (1998) proposed that for the success of the SGM, it is fundamental that precautions are taken to ensure that the support group does not contain a student who may be problematic to the other members. She proposed that the SGM is a successful anti-bullying intervention which needs greater exposure and promotion to ensure that it is used by schools. She suggests that one possible reason why it may not be used by schools is because it is not exactly known how it works successfully.

Smith and Sharp (1994) argued that the SGM should only be used for less serious cases of bullying behaviour. However, some teachers have difficulties rewarding improvements in maladaptive and anti-social behaviours, feeling that pupils should not be given positive reinforcement for now behaving as they should within school. Maines and Robinson (1992) argued that generally teachers have a 'natural' desire to punish the bully and may therefore view a non-punitive intervention as an inappropriate response. Conversely in Young's (1998) evaluation of the SGM this viewpoint was not shared by parents; in her study none of them voiced any objections to the SGM intervention being used to counteract bullying that their child was experiencing. Moreover, Young (1998) stated that while it is believed that initially parents may seek the punishment of the bully, but what they generally want is effectiveness, rather than retribution towards the bully/ies. Young (1998) suggests that some schools neglect to provide parents with a consistent review of what is happening, and so should keep parents informed as this will help support the victim.

This was supported by Besag (1989, p180) when she argued that:
'The best solution would be for the bullied children to reach a solution for themselves, with the

support of concerned adults, so that they feel confident in their own ability to cope. It must be stressed that research shows that victims left to struggle with the problem alone are unlikely to extricate themselves from the bullying, which can continue for years'.

Young (1998) states that the interviews with the victim should progress in a slow hierarchical manner, initiating with a non-problem conversation, and asking questions that the victim will not feel infringes upon the bullying incident. She argues that this will help to slowly build up their trust before asking them about the specific incident. The victim should be told that their parent/s are worried about them and asked whether they believe that their parents should feel this way. This will help to defer responsibility towards the parents. Therefore, throughout reassurance should be given to the victim to help them to feel confident to answer who they feel is making their time at school difficult as well as focusing upon who are their friends and who they would most would they like to be their friends.

(iv) The Government's Changing View of the Support Group Method

Robinson and Maines (2007) state that back in 1999 during the former Labour government the Minister of Education at the time, Charles Clarke stated that:

"I am aware of the benefits of the NBA [SGM] in cases where bullying has occurred. In some circumstances this strategy may be the answer to combating bullying but in others a different approach is necessary and more effective."

However, this positive climate and support for the SGM changed dramatically and negatively over the summer of 2005 when the then Labour Government's Education Minister, Ruth Kelly, stated in the Independent newspaper in June exerts of her comments are provided below:

"We have zero-tolerance approach to disruptive behaviour.........."

"Pupils need to know where the limits are and what the consequences will be."

In November 2005 questions were raised in regards to Bristol City Council's use of the NBA/SGM; the Council had called upon their teachers not to use punitive interventions such as punishment or to blame those involved with bullying. The Prime Minister at the time, Tony Blair, stated in The House of Commons stated that he was 'shocked' at the:

  "No-blame" approach to bullying by local authorities, in particular Bristol. The policy was "dangerous and reckless."

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Prime Minister Blair's speech led to schools feeling pressured into not being able to support or use the NBA/SGM because it did not focus upon any actual punishment of the bullying.

This pressure also led to the resignation of George Robinson and Barbara Maines from the Anti-Bullying Alliance (ABA) in 2007, a national umbrella group of organisations concerned with reducing bullying. The ABA had been threatened with withdrawal of government funding if Maines and Robinson (2007) continued as regional organisers within the ABA. This negative attitude from the government continued for some years, but lessened when Gordon Brown became Prime Minister. In addition, the change of name from No Blame Approach to Support Group Method helped to defuse the situation to some degree, although strong difference of opinion may remain as to the use of non-punitive approaches such as SGM and Pikas methods.

(v) An Evaluation of the Support Group Method

Smith, Howard and Thompson (2007) conducted a study in England over June/August 2006 which reviewed the effectiveness of the SGM. Questionnaires were sent via e-mail to 150 Local Authorities (LA's) in England to determine the number of primary, secondary and specials schools that had used the SGM in the last three years, and whether this had changed over the last two years. Next it asked whether or not the LA supported the use of the SGM, and if it did, whether they provided financial support and if so what specific version was supported. Finally, the questionnaire asked for a rating of its overall effectiveness and what evidence they had to support this rating.

The schools that used the SGM were determined from the 57 (38%) of LAs who replied to the LA questionnaire. The number of schools within the LAs ranged from 6 to 634. The school questionnaires were then sent via e-mail to 2500 schools. It asked for the schools demographics (its LA, school type, and number of pupils on its school roll); how long the school had used the SGM; were they still using the method; and if not what their reasons for discontinuing it were. It asked what age groups it was used with, and their reasons why it was only used on these ages. Additionally, it asked who generally initiated the approach and how this person acquired their knowledge of the SGM. It then asked whether this method had changed over time and if it had, how. Finally, it asked for the overall effectiveness of the SGM when dealing with bullying and what sources of evidence they had to support their effectiveness rating. 59 school responses were obtained, which came from 17 of the LAs.

The results from the LA questionnaire showed that only six LAs knew how many schools used the SGM. However, the majority of LAs supported it, either strongly or in general terms, and for use across the whole school but for some secondary schools only for younger age groups. Generally, but not universally, the schools and LAs in this study gave a positive response to the use of the SGM. The majority of the LAs and schools, who responded, were either satisfied or very satisfied with the SGM intervention. A positive comment from one school stated:

"We find it very effective, and use it not just for incidences of bullying but for all children who are unhappy in school. It is part of our solution focused approach - not researching the problem but rather looking for and putting in place the solution."

Three fundamental factors which needed addressing emerged. Firstly, that the name No Blame Approach was changed to the Support Group Method especially in regards to parental and Government confusion of the term 'no blame' which they equated to the bully getting away with their behaviour. Secondly there seemed great confusion of the SGM with other methods such as the Pikas method, restorative justice and circle of friends. Such confusions needed to be addressed especially within secondary schools, so as to help discover what variations of the core principles of the SGM were useful and which were not. Thirdly parents should be involved within the intervention process so that they fully understand the process. Therefore, it was recommended that it may help to consider further ways of involving parents, and of working with parent who are more 'punitive' in their outlook and expectations. This misunderstanding was demonstrated by certain comments by schools indicated that the non-punitive intervention rationale may have been misunderstood by certain parents:

"When comments are unfavourable it is usually from parents who prefer the 'death penalty' still ... When parents of targets say the bullying situation is not getting better, this often means that the school has not kept them informed of what has been happening."

"We stopped calling it the 'No Blame' Approach because that did not go down well with parents who wanted the bully 'dealing with', and in many cases there was not a bullying focus anyway. We just use the term support group".

These statements suggest that many parents have not actually understood the impact that the SGM had because while it is not a punitive method is does expect the group involved within the bullying (either passively or actively) to take responsibility in enhancing the victims feelings of well-being, as it requires suggestions which are actively acted upon. Therefore, it should not be

considered an 'easy option' as it acts upon the pupil's feelings of both cognitive and affective empathy, which is not an easy task.

(vi) An Evaluation of the SGM in England from Schools and LAs

Thompson and Smith (2011), in their national survey of anti-bullying work in school and LAs in England (described earlier), found that the SGM was used by 10% of schools as an anti-bullying strategy. It was used mainly by mainstream schools and 1/3 of LAs recommended its use in schools. The SGM was given a high rating for its effectiveness in reducing bullying and rated higher by the LAs than the schools. Of the 105 schools that used the SGM, 102 rated it effective. However, there seemed to be confusion about its re-naming as the SGM, as many schools still called it the No-Blame Approach.

Some schools stated that they used it because they viewed it as 'supportive' and 'appropriate' for their school's 'caring ethos'. Others schools perceived it as empowering as it has a very non-judgemental stance to a bullying incident, through its premise to not blame specific pupils. They argued that it is effective because it requires the pupils involved within the support group to take responsibility for their actions, through enhancing empathy towards the victim. Other schools used it as part of an anti-bullying toolbox and only used it when the other methods had failed.

Some schools that did not use the SGM stated that they did not have the required training or because they used other similar methods (e.g. Restorative Justice) or because they needed more informal strategies. Other schools felt that it was an inappropriate method because their pupils were too young; or they had a lack of time or the staff to implement it effectively. In special schools it was not used with children who had developmental disorders such as Autistic Spectrum Disorder children (pupils who have fundamental difficulties in their empathy levels per se) for the SGM to have a positive effect. Two schools stated that they did not use it because they disapproved of the method.

Case study schools were selected from the nine regions of England as defined by the Anti-Bullying Alliance which helped provide detailed information on school practice of their use of anti-bullying strategies and examples of good practice. The case study schools showed that ¾ of primary and secondary schools that used the SGM did so for specific types of bullying. It was particularly recommended by schools to be used for verbal and relational bullying, and cyberbullying, and by LAs for all types of bullying. It was viewed as highly adaptable and seen

as effective because it did not stigmatise pupils as being bullies or victims, rather it worked from the premise of the group rather than individuals being responsible.

Evidence for the effectiveness of the SGM came predominately from the pupils being bullied, followed by the teacher implementing the intervention. Pupil's general perspectives came next, and within primary schools the child's parents and the classroom teacher. Its effectiveness was dependent upon the specific students involved within the support group. Some groups needed to be repeated whilst others were shown to be more effective. Positive reinforcement was shown to be more effective when the adult implementing the SGM was held in high regard and to have less effect if the pupils had little respect.

Overall Thompson and Smith (2011) found that whilst only a minority of schools used the method, it was viewed as successful by those that did use it, predominately because it incorporated student responsibility through the enhancement of empathy towards the victim. It did not label or stigmatise the pupils involved, but aimed to enhance group cooperation by helping to find a solution seen from the multi-facetted perceptions of all of the pupils involved within the group.

Conclusions Regarding the SGM

In conclusion, the SGM uses the premise of engaging the members in the support group to bring about attitude change by taking group responsibility. It is a successful non-punitive approach because it does not specifically attribute blame or set punishments but gives power towards the implementation of whole group responsibility, which is one of its fundamental strengths, especially in response to less serious types of bullying behaviour. The SGM views punitive measures as counter-productive as it might actually increase victimisation through retribution from the bully/ies. It works from the premise of increasing the group's empathy (cognitive and affective) towards the victim's plight through group co-operation.

Chapter Four will use pre and post CAES-C/A's to measure empathy levels as the research mentioned has generally solely focused upon the effectiveness of these anti-bullying interventions at stopping the bullying. For the purposes of the research described in the subsequent part of this thesis, the SGM appears to be the most appropriate intervention to use

alongside the CAES-C/A. Its non-punitive and sensitive approach which suits the all-girls case study school's compassionate and caring ethos. This is because the SGM has been an anti-bullying intervention that the school has been using successfully for many years.

Therefore, Study Four will explore the pupil's experiences and perspectives of bullying, and document the implementation and opinions of the effectiveness of the SGM. This study will focus upon the pupil's perceptions and experiences, with the aim that the pupils taking part in the SGM would act as a support group, to help promote positive behaviour in their school. Finally, Study Four aims to determine the effectiveness of the SGM using planned semi-structured interviews to provide insight into the causes of its successful, or unsuccessful outcomes.

Chapter Eight

Study Four: CAES-C/A - Case Studies

Aims

The aim of Study Four was to explore the pupil's experiences and perspectives of bullying, and to document the implementation and opinions of the effectiveness of the Support Group Method (Maines & Robinson, 1992, 1998 & Robinson & Maines, 2007). This study predominately focused upon the pupil's perceptions and experiences, with the aim that the pupils taking part in the SGM would act as a support group, which would help to promote positive empathetic behaviour in their school. Additionally, this study aimed to determine the effectiveness of the SGM anti-bullying invention using planned semi-structured interviews to provide insight into the causes of the successful or unsuccessful outcomes of the SGM

Method

The perceptions and experiences of the pupils were investigated using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Quantitative data was collected using the CAES-C/A questionnaire and qualitative data was provided by the support group pupil and teacher interviews.

The study was completed during the Spring/Summer/Autumn terms of 2013. The sample was drawn from a single-sex girls school that had no religious affiliation, in an urban location in the Southeast of London. Its catchment area was within several areas of Southeast London, with two out of five students coming from minority ethnic backgrounds. The school was a large selective school which specialised in performing and visual arts, mathematics and computing. It was rated by OFSTED as a high performing school, with a special focus on the gifted and talented.

Study Four aimed to use a detailed case study approach using an opportunity sample of girls. Whilst opportunity sampling can be argued to be the weakest form of sample selection, it did enable a hard-to-access group (victims, bullies, bully-victim and bystanders) to become an integral part of this study.

This study included pupil and teacher pre- and post-interviews, and followed pupils who had been defined by their Head of Year (HOY) into participant roles (the bully and

/or bully-victim, victims and bystanders; Salmivalli et al., 1996).

These case studies were obtained retrospectively and after the SGM had been implemented, from (a) the child and (b) the HOY, who was responsible for pastoral care. Participant roles were determined via interviews with the HOY, and school records of the bullying incidents that had occurred over the past year.

Initially the deputy head teacher was going to administer the SGM, but due to a change within her job role, the school's anti-bullying pastoral care lead was given to the HOY. The HOY asked me to implement the SGM, because she felt it would allow a clear unbiased lead as I had never taught this year group. Additionally, she felt that my lack of retrospective experiences with these girls would allow greater objectivity and neutrality.

Therefore, after being informed by the school that an incident/s of bullying had occurred (obtained via school incident sheets and verbal communication with the HOY) I worked as the pastoral care anti-bullying lead. The HOY determined specifically which students she felt it would be more beneficial to be involved and take part in the SGM. Overall the HOY in negotiation with Y8-9 form tutors decided that it would be beneficial if three SGM's (two from Y9, and one Y8 group) were conducted over three terms.

The three groups were labelled in accordance to when the SGM was implemented and determined by their form group and named Group One, Group Two and Group Three.

Ethical Issues

Passive consent was granted from parents of the pupils taking part in the SGM groups (One – Three) as formal permission was received from the head teacher to interview the pupils involved. Parents were informed that the aim of the study was to investigate the differing attitudes and approaches of children's perception of bullying and its consequences, which were particularly focused on empathy. They were informed that sessions would take place in their child's normal school setting and the information that was obtained would be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. Parents were given the right to withdraw their child by contacting their child's form tutor, if they felt that for any reason they did not wish their child to participate in the study. The parents were told that form teachers views of peer relationships and behaviours were going to be sought pre and post the SGM. The pupils were informed that they

had the right to withdraw at any time and to refuse to answer any of the questions if they wished to do so.

To protect students from any psychological harm, within the SGM meetings bullying roles were not referred to or used in order to ensure that no blame was attributed to the pupils regardless of their role in the bullying incident/s. Throughout confidentially and anonymity of the victims was maintained as at no time were any of the victim's names mentioned in order to protect them from feelings of harm or retribution.

Participants (pupils and teachers) within the pre and post-intervention interviews were informed that they could refuse to answer any of the questions and that they could stop the interviews or withdraw their data at any time during or after data completion.

Pre and Post Pupil /Teacher Intervention Interviews

The Pre-Intervention interviews were performed with the pupils taking part in the anti-bullying intervention (who had provided their consent); and to their pastoral care teacher (HOY). All of the interviews were typed and recorded via a mini disk.

Pupil's Pre-Intervention Interviews

The pupil's pre-intervention semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 12) investigated when the incident/s of /bullying had occurred, who they felt was involved, their frequency, and how serious they perceived the incident/s to be. At the end of the interview the pupils were asked how they felt their school could help improve their or the other pupils involved in the incident/s future behaviour/s.

Teacher Pre-Intervention Interviews

The HOY completed a pre-intervention semi-structured interview (see Appendix 14). This interview investigated what had happened and when, who was involved, and the nature and frequency of the bullying incident/s. At the end of the interview the HOY was asked what she hoped would be achieved by the use of the SGM, especially in regards to the bullying child's/children's behaviour/s, and what outcome she expected to achieve for the pupil/s being bullied.

Post-Intervention Interviews

After the completion of the anti-bullying intervention the pupils, their form tutors and the HOY, were asked to participate in post-interviews which evaluated whether or not there had been an improvement in the bullying pupil/s behaviour/s and/or an increase in their levels of empathy towards their peers, especially towards their victim/s.

Pupil's Post-Intervention Interviews

The pupils who took part within the support groups were asked whether they felt that their school had helped improve their behaviour or that of the other pupils involved in the incident/s; whether they believed the SGM intervention was successful; and whether it had managed to stop the incident/s or similar incident/s from happening again. Also, it explored whether or not the pupils felt the intervention had helped improve their relationships, specifically with the pupils involved in the incident/s, and if they believed that it had resulted in a real change of behaviour. The pupils were asked how they felt, and how they believed the other pupil/s felt after the SGM intervention. The final question asked the pupil/s (especially those who had perceived that there was not a positive outcome in regards to conflict resolution) what else could their school do which might be more successful in improving the situation from their perspective (see Appendix 15).

Post-Intervention Interviews

Initially to provide an unbiased evaluation of the success of the SGM, the HOY was asked for her perceptions of the success or failure of the SGM and whether or not further interventions were required (see Appendix 16).

In addition, to the interviews, detailed documentation of the group meetings was kept. This documentation investigated how the SGM intervention was implemented (i.e. what specifically was done and how often it was used). This documentation recorded my feelings/perceptions and those of the pupils into whether or not the SGM was successful and whether or not it had improved the relationship/s between the pupils involved within the bullying incidence/s.

Scores of the Pre and Post CAES-C/ A

The pre CAES-C/A was taken before the initiation of the Support Group Method and the post CAES-C/A was conducted after the groups had finished the SGM intervention. The pre and post CAES –C/A scores were judged using the following criteria which specifically aimed at measuring the pupil's empathy levels before and after the implementation of the SGM (see Table One below). This criterion was developed based upon the CAES-C/A scoring (see Appendix 11)

Level of Improvement	Scoring Criteria
No Improvement	0 or -
Minor Improvement	1-4
Improvement	5-10
Good Improvement	11-19
Great improvement	20-30

Table One: Scoring for Measuring Empathy after the Implementation of the SGM

Method of the SGM

The Outline of the Support Group Method

The three SGM form groups was implemented in different ways, and the next section explains how the adaptations were specifically conducted. The various methods are explained in conjunction to the group number and the SGM steps which were used within that actual group.

For each group, the incident/s of bullying which occurred before the SGM was implemented and are outlined in a table (see Table Two below).

Group One

Girl	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Outline History/PRS/Type of bullying
E	Female	14	Black African	**Follower Bully-victim** involved in incident with Girl S. She had believed that Girl S has sent her a threatening letter which had frightened her. **Homophobic bullying / perceived relational victimisation**
A1	Female	14	Black African	**Ring-Leader Bully** who had with the assistance of Girl E who was her follower bully participated in homophobic bullying of Girl S. **This student did not take part within the SGM.**
S	Female	13	White British	This victim of Girl E and Girl A1 had to be moved from her original form group as she had suffered from homophobic bullying by members of Group One, but specifically Girl E. It was perceived by the HOY that various members of the form group were confused in regards to Girl S's sexuality, and a minority felt threatened by this sexuality. Girl E had been assisting her friend in bullying Girl S. **(Case 1 G1) Victim of Homophobic bullying** **This student did not take part within the SGM.**

Table Two: Description of bullying incidents which had occurred in Group One before the implementation of the SGM

The incidents above resulted in conflict between the form class in Group One. Therefore, the HOY felt that the SGM would be an appropriate method to be implemented with several of these pupils. It should be noted that the only student who was interviewed in Group One was Girl E who had been involved in acting as a follower bully of the homophobic bullying of Girl S before she was moved into another form group. The HOY decided that it was in the best interest of Girl S if this study used the school records rather than conduct a victim interview because she believed that an interview would cause further distress to her. Consequently, the victim (Girl S) was not involved because she stated that she feared that disclosure of what had happened might

make the bullying worse by invoking repercussions.

Step One/ Group One

The pupils thought to be involved in an incident were interviewed by the HOY concentrating on the incident/s of bullying that had happen within this form group. These interviews were focused on who was being victimised. The pupils were allowed to talk about whatever they thought needed to be known, and the interviews were conducted in a non-judgemental way by the HOY.

As Girl S did not wish to participate in the SGM no requests for pictures or a piece of writing were obtained; instead a real poem of a female victim's feelings was provided from a children's writing circle website (http://circle.nypo.org/jade.html), a pupil who did not come from the same school as the bullies in this study. It was felt because the school was a single gender one, a female victim was an important stimulus because as she would evoke greater empathy from the girls because they could more closely relate to her specific feelings.

After their HOY had obtained specifics on what had happened to the victim (Girl S) and interviewed those who had been perceived by the victim to have been involved the SGM progressed to Step Two.

Step Two/ Group One

In the first interview the students were told that they were not going to be punished, and that the group has been brought together to help each other with issues which are occurring within their form group.

Firstly, they were told that they are going to work as a support group to help enhance empathy within themselves and their form peers. Secondly this group would enable the development of problem solving strategies that would help alleviate the distress that they and/or several members of their form/year group were feeling. The term 'several pupils' was used so that the pupils were unable to decipher who was actually feeling victimised to help stop repercussions occurring towards the victim (Girl S).

The group was constructed from active and passive members of this form group mentioned in the victim/s school HOY interview of Girl S, who had experienced homophobic bullying.

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However, the ringleader bully was not involved in the SGM because it was felt by the school that she would dominate the other pupils who were taking part within it. Therefore, in order to have an influence upon the ring-leader bully her main follower bully (Girl E) and close friend, took part instead, as the HOY felt Girl E would be abler to empathise towards Girl S. The other members of Group One were bystanders and several uninvolved students who had demonstrated strong personalities to their HOY. These girls were felt to be able to have a positive empathetic influence upon their form group.

Throughout Group One was told that they were not in trouble, which helped to reassure the group and promote openness. The girls were informed that they had been chosen because their HOY believed that they would be better able than other members of their form to contribute to working towards helping improve peer relationships in their form group. While these talks were specifically focused upon a major issue of homophobic bullying incidents that had occurred within the last year these incidents were never directly referred to by myself.

As the SGM did not incorporate the victim (Girl S) perceptions of what had she felt had happened, the girls were told that several girls were unhappy in their form group and that it was believed that they as a group could help improve such feelings. At this point the term bullying was avoided because it suggested a judgement had been made on the nature, and causes of the issues. This non–judgmental approach helped to maintain an objective view. This avoidance of labelling bullying behaviour was used because it allowed the pupils of Group One to become more open about what was happening within their form group. The group meetings were conducted on a weekly basis during one term period.

Step Three / Group One

The next stage of empathy enhancement for the victim's feelings were encouraged by *a* real poem which was provided from a children's writing circle. The girls were asked how they felt in regards to feelings of victimisation that the girl had depicted within her poem. Empathy for the victim of the poem was heightened by asking the pupils if they had ever felt unhappy within their school. Generally, several students admitted that they had been unhappy in school. The group discussed their feelings which were related back to 'the girl's' in the poem; this encouraged an openness to discuss bullying behaviours non-judgmentally. These feelings were discussed within the group, and the girls were asked to suggest ways that they could improve the bullying situation depicted in the poem. The girls were encouraged to state how they could

use their suggested methods to help improve incidents that had occurred within their actual form group. At no time was the victim's names mentioned with the premise of raising feelings of empathy, without breaching the confidentiality of the victim (Girl S).

Step Four/ Group One

To open discussion within the group it was explained that no-one should feel unhappy in school. Members of the group were encouraged to discuss issues that had arisen without mentioning specific names, which maintained anonymity and a non-judgmental astrosphere.

Step Five/ Group One

The group was told that they were to share responsibility to help improve life inside and outside of their form group. The girls were asked for ideas on how they believed this could be achieved. The group was encouraged to take this new empathetic responsibility into their everyday school life, and behaviours. The girls were informed that no punitive actions would be implemented after the meetings. Throughout praise was given for positive suggestions discussed by the group. The pupils were not asked to make promises as the whole rationale of this step was to encourage the girls to come up with positive prosocial, and helpful suggestions.

Step Six/Group One

The group was asked two weeks after Step Five to determine how they believed these discussions were going (again at no time were the victim's name referred to). However, while within this approach no girl was blamed, it was fundamentally expected that the groups took a joint responsibility to show and implement empathic behaviour.

Step Seven/ Group One

Step Seven aimed to interview the group as a collective in order to provide their perspectives on how things were going in their form classes. However, within Group One group interviews were not possible as Girl E was perceived to have power over the group, so Girl E was interviewed alone.

Group Two

Child	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Outline History/PRS/Type of bullying
A (Boy)	Male	14	White British	**Boy A did not attend the school within this study so very little could be determined in regards to his behaviour per se other than his involvement in the perceived bullying of Girl R**. This did not participate in the SGM because he was not a member of this school and so was not under its jurisdiction. **(Case 3) Relational bullying. This boy did not take part within the SGM.**
Q	Female	13	White British	Accused of bullying by the majority of the girls in SG2 **(Case 2/3/4) Bully-victim. This student did not take part within the SGM.**
R	Female	13	White British	Victim/bully accused of bullying Girl T who was formally her friend Girl R lacked self-esteem and felt uncomfortable taking part in the SGM was interviewed but refused to take part in the SGM as she was extremely scared that it would make matters worse. Girl R was being counselled by the school counsellor and was being referred to CAHMS because she needed help with her Obsessive Compulsive Disorder and its symptoms which had infringed upon her everyday life. **(Case 3) Cyberbullying/ Bully-victim. This student was only informally Interviewed but did not take part within the SGM.**
T	Female	13	White British	Bully-victim bullied Girl R **(Case 3) Relational bullying. This student did not take part within the SGM**
W	Female	14	White British	Victim of Girls Q and X **(Case 4 G2) Cyberbullying. This student did not take part in the SGM**
X	Female	14	White British	Bullying Girl P and Girl W with Girl Q **(Case 4 G2) Cyberbullying. This student did not take part in the SGM**
Y	Female	14	African	Defending Girl W against Girls Q & X **(Case 4 G2) Defender This student did not take part in the SGM**

Table Three Description of bullying incidents which had occurred in Group Two before the implementation of the SGM

Case Two/ Group Two

Girl Q was named by the girls in Group Two as having many issues with the form group which had involved relational bullying. The girls stated that Girl Q had problems at home which she brought into the form and had resulted in negatively affecting her behaviour. Additionally, Girl Q was involved in the relational bullying of Girl W in Case Four. It would seem that Girl Q had been passive aggressive to many of her form group peers. She was a very intelligent girl who had been known by the HOY to have been blamed for many of the issues, which had and were still occurring within her form group.

Case Three/Group Two

Girl R and Girl T used to be close friends but they had a disagreement earlier in the summer term. The nature of the argument was believed to in regards to a mutual male boyfriend Boy A. Girl T's mum contacted the school stating that Girl R was being unkind to her daughter at school. This when discussed with Girl R made her very upset;

HOY (G2) - "Girl R felt that while they had fallen out, she wasn't being unpleasant to Girl T."

The HOY stated that she did have a telephone conversation with Girl T's mum as she wished to make sure that the nurture of this incident was not actual bullying but felt that it was a relationship issue.

HOY (G2) - "I did have to phone Girl T's mother to talk through this, and made it very clear that Girl T must not use the term 'bullying' in reference to Girl R - as I didn't feel that was what was going on".

HOY (G2) - "It seems that recently Girl T and her friend Girl Q have been talking about Girl R both inside and outside of school and saying things which are upsetting Scarlett (mainly about things she is supposed to have done with a boy) Girl T is friends with a boy called Boy A, who Girl R used to 'go out with' - it seems that Girl T and Boy X may spend time talking about Girl R, this then comes back into school via other people."

The HOY stated that it has been very difficult to discover who has been doing what as it has been extremely entangled.

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HOY (G2) - "I hope that makes sense - it's a bit hard to work out who is doing what. My feeling is that Girl T has felt a bit like an outsider in the past and perhaps she is enjoying new friendships and not always aware how her behaviour is effecting others."

Case Four/ Group Two

Girl Q and Girl X were accused of cyberbullying by Girl W. Girls Q and X had texted and said hurtful words to Girl Q in school. Their form tutor had become involved and told the girls believed to be involved that this behaviour needed to stop. Consequently, over the weekend Girls Q and X made threatening threats over Facebook. Girl Y became involved by defending Girl W. When the HOY interviewed the girls it seemed that these incidents had been going on longer than originally was believed. However, the extent to the cyberbullying was difficult to conclude.

The HOY met up with the students involved to explain the consequences and implications of the bullying and its effects. Girl Q was given a formal warning in response to her threatening behaviour. The HOY explained that while the threats had happened outside of school Girl Q's comments related to threats she was going to actually inflict in school. Also Girl Q received detention and community service during her lunchtimes. Girl W's mother was asked to send the FB messages and texts to the HOY, and to monitor any further correspondence between the girls. The form tutor in Personal Development (PD) lessons discussed friendship issues within the form group. Girl Q was followed to determine how she was dealing with her behaviour and actions. Girl W's mother was called a few weeks later to follow up upon the situation as a whole.

Incidents of Bullying Occurring in Group Two

The cases studies above were the incidents that had been report to the school which had resulted in the implementation of the SGM. The details of each of the cases were compiled from school records. These records incorporated the pupils involved and within Case 3 an overview of the comments from the mother of Girl T who had complained to the HOY. The three case studies provided by school records are condensed above. However due to the complex nature of these bullying incident/s none of the pupils (Boy A, Girls Q, R, T, W, X and Y) were able to take part in the SGM. Therefore, the HOY decided that as the victims of these incidents were unable to

participate that it would be beneficial to include girls who had in the past been victimised and defenders to help support them.

Group Three

Child	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Outline History/PRS/ Type of Bullying
X	Female	13	White/Afro Caribbean	Bullying Girl N and M (**Case 5 G3**) Cyber, relational and direct bullying This student did not take part in the SGM because she was receiving counselling

Table Three: Group Four – Description of bullying incident which had occurred in Group Three before the implementation of the SGM

Table Three above shows a description of the bullying which occurred between Girl X (the bully) and Girls N and M (the Victims) Girl X has created major friendship problems especially between Girl N and Girl M; this has involved cyberbullying and Girl X blaming Girl N for the social services becoming involved with her family and for her father 'kicking her out of her home' which later found to be untrue. Girl X has been involved in serious self-harming behaviours and was seeing the school councillor, who had tried to help her to find prosocial coping mechanism to help elevate her major personal problems. The incidents had been classed as being very serious by the school.

The HOY stated that there had been numerous issues within this form in terms of relationships problems. She stated that this began when Girl X had told the other members of the form that her mother had died, which was untrue. Therefore, when her form group found out that Girl X was lying about such a serious matter this issue created fundamental trust issues between Girl X and her form peers.

HOY (G3) - "There have been many problems with relationships problems in this form group this has emanated generally from one child (Girl X) who has lost the trust of the class as she gained her form groups' sympathy saying that her mother had died. This was later found out not

to be the case. Girl X has problems at home as her parents are fighting for her custody and she is not allowed to see one of biological parents. Girl X has very serious emotional issues so we have involved social services and the school councillor. Therefore, we feel she would not be an appropriate child to take part in the SGM study".

The incidents within this form group had predominately occurred between two separate friendships groups of same aged girls and was rated as very serious. Girl X had fundamental problems at home and had used self-harm as a method of coping with her emotions.

Groups Two and Three SGM Steps

There was no variation between within the methodology of the SGM steps used for Group Two and Three. Steps One to Seven are detailed below in accordance to their methodology.

Step One/Groups Two and Three

The victims of Group Two and Group Three were interviewed using individually obtained semi structured pupil questionnaires (Appendix 14) to investigate what was perceived to be happening from their viewpoints. The interviews did not specifically place emphasis upon who was involved in bullying but were focused upon how it had made them feel. The pupils were asked what they believed was needed to help make them feel safer within their school.

Step Two/ Groups Two and Three

The group meetings were conducted on a weekly basis during one term. working with two form groups one from Year 9 and one from Year 8, in small groups, consisting of around 6-8 pupils. Also girls of high socio status were included in these groups to encourage defending behaviours within the form group.

Step Three/ Groups Two and Three

Within these two groups the real poem from a children's writing circle (used in Group One) was not required as many of the girls had experienced past victimisation so had individual personal experiences to draw upon.

Step Four/Groups Two and Three

To open discussion within the two groups it was explained that no-one should feel unhappy in their school. Members of the group were encouraged to discuss issues which had arisen without mentioning specific names, which maintained anonymity and a non-judgmental astrosphere.

Step Five/ Groups Two and Three

The two groups were told that they were to share the responsibility of helping improve life inside and outside of their form. The girls were asked for ideas on how they believed that they could do this. The groups were encouraged to take this new empathetic external responsibility into their everyday school life and behaviours. Praise was given for positive suggestions discussed by the group. The pupils were not asked to make promises and the whole rationale of this step was to encourage the girls to develop positive and helpful suggestions.

Step Six/Groups Two and Three

The two groups were asked a week after Step Five to determine how they believed these discussions were going (again at no time were victim/bullies names referred to). However, while within this approach no girl was blamed, it was specifically expected that the groups took a joint responsibility to show and implement empathic behaviours which was not solely focused upon personal distress (cognitive empathy).

Step Seven/ Two and Three

The groups were interviewed as a collective and asked to provide their perspectives on how things were going in their form groups. Therefore, reviews were convened over the next couple of months on a two weekly basis. This enabled appropriate reinforcement by verbal rewards for those involved. Pupils in Groups Two and Three were encouraged to take control and responsibility as this combated dependency from the pupils towards myself. The pupils were over a month period asked periodically and informally how things were going from their perspectives.

At the end of the SGM Groups Two and Three then implemented Circle Times with their form with myself facilitating (see Study Five for more details).

The result of the SGM will be organised under the three groups (Group One, Two & Three). Firstly, descriptive tables will present the case studies participants gender, age, ethnicity and PRS. It will then present the teacher and pupil pre interviews and the implementer's overview of the SGM meetings. Finally, the teacher and pupil pre-interviews will lead to tables of the participant's pre and post CAES-C/A questionnaire differences.

Results

The results for the three groups were compiled from the HOY, Teacher and Pupil Pre and Post interviews and CAES-C/A, which were taken before the initialisation of the SGM and at the end of the last SGM.

The descriptions of the girls involved in the Group One are shown below in accordance to the bullying incident/s that had occurred in their form class of the girls who participated in the SGM;

Girl	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	PRS
A	Female	13	White British	Bystander
B	Female	13	White British	Bystander
C	Female	14	White British	Bystander
D	Female	14	African/Caribbean	Bystander
E	Female	14	Black African	Bully-victim involved in incident with Girl S
F	Female	13	Black /Caribbean	Bystander

Table Five: Group One – Descriptions of the girls involved in the first SGM

Case One/Group One

The HOY believed that many of the issues within Group One had originated from homophobic bullying of Girl S. This had resulted in a split within the form, as many of the girls came from strict religious backgrounds which did not recognise or support same gender relationships.

Pre-Interview
Teacher Pre-Interview/ Group One

The HOY perceived that the underlying premise behind the bullying of Girl S was that she had come out that she was a lesbian. This piece of personal information seemed to have created negative behaviour towards her by several of her form group peers, who stated that they had felt uncomfortable. The HOY reported that girls in her form felt that Girl S she had gone too far in

her behaviour, especially in an incident online where she had stated on a social network that she was a lesbian. The school tried to stop negative feelings and attitudes turning into homophobia by conducting an assembly hosted by the Metro Centre. The Metro Centre is an advice centre for lesbians, gay men, bisexual and transgendered (LGBT) people and those questioning their sexuality who work with other statutory and voluntary organisations (an NHS foundation, part of Oxleas Hospital Trust). The schools aim was to create awareness that such victimisation is deemed as bullying, and to make those students who are not involved aware of the issues regarding this type of anti-social behaviour. This seemed to help calm the attitudes of the form group at least on the surface. However, in response the school decided to do something that they have never done before and change Girl S into another form group.

The SGM was set up with the aim of working with one of the girls (Girl E) who was more prominently involved in the relational bullying as a follower bully to the ring-leader bully (Girl A1; and a group of girls who were bystanders to the bullying of Girl S. It was felt that it was best not to involve the ring-leader bully (Girl A/1) in this SGM as the rationale was to work with the girls who had higher empathy. This in turn was hoped to help enhance the empathetic feelings of the ring-leader bully (Girl A1) as Girl E was her closest friend.

However, Girl E throughout the SGM was a dominant character, who made it extremely difficult to get the other girls in her group to talk openly. Therefore, Girl E was interviewed alone as no other member of Group One wanted to take part in the interviews or the CAES-C/ A questionnaire.

Girl E- Pre-Interview/ Group One

Girl E stated that she really was not sure what had happened because she had 'not done anything' to cause the situation. She stated that Girl S was saying things that had not actually happened. The type of bullying was relational and involved groups of friends arguing against each other spreading rumours and making life hard for the other. This was generally achieved using a "Chinese whisper" type of bullying style (relational bulling). However, Girl E stated that the negative interactions had still happened a couple of times between her and Girl S because even though they are no longer in the same form group they shared several of their lessons together. The Girl S was the same age as Girl E in Y9.

Group One Meetings Overview
Implementer of the SGM/Group One

The students in Group One stated that within their form group many of them have been excluded and felt bullied emotionally, especially by Girl S. They stated that while they understood that at times parents were unable to financially afford to invite everyone in their form class to birthday parties they had felt excluded when they had not been invited. They believed that not being invited by Girl S to her parties was used as a weapon to hurt them and make them feel left out and upset (see teacher pre-interview for further details).

We discussed how their school could improve this situation; the girls stated that they felt that the school should not put them in the same subject groups as Girl S. However, they agreed that maybe it was a personality clash between the two girls (Girl S and Girl E) and that they should not judge others as they are not walking in their shoes (indicating both cognitive and affective empathy). They stated that the argument should have just been kept between those involved as others members of their form group talking made matters worse as 'they just added something on'. Again this seemed to suggest that the SGM had increased elements of empathy and was moderately successful. This was because at no time did any of the student's mention that they had any issues with Girl S sexuality. This suggested that this may not have been the underlying cause of Girl S's victimisation.

However, as another incident had happened it was felt through no fault of the SGM that it might be better for the pupils involved to end the meetings. The school discussed others methods which would help the original perceived victim (Girl S), who had now seemed to have become a bully-victim towards Girl E.

Post-Interviews
Teacher Post-Interviews/ Group One

Four SGM meetings were conducted over a two/three weekly basis. The students were told that they were going to work as a support group to help enhance empathy in their peers, and to develop problem solving strategies that would help improve the school climate especially within their form groups.

Girl E/ Group One – Post-Interview

Consequently, the other incident which halted the SGM between Girls E and S occurred in the changing rooms. Girl E felt that her HOY could not do anything about the matter as everybody was unsure of who had actually pinned a hurtful and emotive note onto Girl E's skirt.

Girl E/ – "Basically I came outside to change after sports and found a note tied with a ribbon on my skirt I wanted to dust it off it said if you knew what u done you be sorry stopped spreading things about me if you know what you done you would be sorry."

Girl E denied any blame and believed, at least initially that it was Girl S who was to blame stating:

 "I was scared and worried and at the time I knew I had not done anything."

When Girl E realised that Girl S could not have placed the note on her shirt she said:

"Someone showed me a text that she had said that she had got someone to put on my skirt as she could not have put in on herself (Girl S) as she was in lessons."

This incident seemed to heighten the situation as it made Girl E feel like she was being victimised.

"My teacher said that it is a personality clash or she (Girl S) does not like me. We are not friends to speak, if we have to speak, I would not have a problem with her (Girl S), she seems to have a problem with me. She (Girl S) does not make a difference to me but we are in the same set. She talks to me like nothing has happened."

Girl E's post interview indicated that the follower-bully had now become a bully-victim. Girl E had stated that she felt that she now had become the victim. Therefore, the school decided that the SGM might not be an appropriate intervention so a discussion was initiated between Girls E, S and HOY.

The following section compares the CAES-C pre and post scores to determine whether or not there had been an improvement in Girl E's levels of empathy. It specifically measured levels of cognitive and affective empathy.

Girl	CAES-C/A Pre Before the SGM	CAES-C/A Post After the SGM	Difference + /-	CAES-C/A Total
Girl E	29	34	5+	Minor Improvement
Affective	18	18	-No Change	No Improvement
Cognitive	11	16	5+	Improvement

Table Six: Group One Pre and Post CAES-C/A Questionnaires

Girl E was shown to have a minor improvement in her overall empathy scores (see Table Six). This minor improvement was only found within her cognitive empathy levels; no change was shown in affective levels. This suggests that Girl E was able to understand the distress but unable to actually feel for her victim (Girl S).

Group Two

The next section focuses upon the second SGM group.

The descriptions (see Table Seven) of the girls involved in the Group Two are shown below in accordance to the bullying incident/s that had occurred in their form class of the girls who participated in the SGM;

Girl	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Outline History Peer Role Scale
G	Female	13	Asian	Felt badly bullied in Yr. 8 (which came to light at parents evening last year) (Victim-Defender).
H	Female	14	White British	Another strong character who has a sounds sense of justice (Defender).
I	Female	14	White British	A pupil who is empathetic and cares about others. (Defender-Victim at primary school).
J	Female	14	White British	Moved into Form this year as she was having issues in her other form. Is much happier but still seems to be struggling with personal issues at times (Victim/Defender).
K	Female	14	White British	Has health issues and feels she is a victim because of her health issues (Victim).
L	Female	13	Black African	One of the 'strong' characters in the class who unknown to the HOY had engaged in defender/bulling behaviours with her friends (Bully- defender).

Table Seven: Group Two-Description of the pupils who participated in the SGM

Group Two: Teacher Pre-interview

The HOY stated that incidence of relational bullying had happened throughout the year, within this form group. She felt that the majority of blame had been placed upon one student (Girl Q), which was rather unfairly attributed. The HOY stated that she felt that Girl Q had been used by the other members of the form as a scapegoat. This blame was rated as averagely serious as it had impacted upon the form group as a whole. Another incident of bullying had only came to the attention of the school at a parents evening when her parents stated that they were going to withdraw her from the school because of negative experiences from other students in her form group. The HOY said that the school had tried to reassure the members of the class. An adapted

version of the SGM was used with the rationale of helping enhance self-esteem and confidence which would result in the ability to trust other members of the form. Influential members of the form who had acted as defenders were incorporated with girls who felt that they were being victimised to help enhance the girl's perceived abilities for self-help.

HOY (G2) - "To help to promote calm and to help students to feel able to talk about and if needs be act actively in combating bullying behaviour."

HOY (G2) - "The SGM will, with the other members of the form, help create a calmer environment and enhance self-esteem in these girls who should be able to suggest ways that they can help themselves and others.

Implementer Notes SGM Group Two

While this is an adaptation of the Support Group Method (Maines & Robinson, 1992, 1998 & Robinson & Maines, 2007) which clearly states to talk to the victimised pupils alone, the HOY felt that the bullying had ceased within this group so this SGM incorporated post victims and defenders. The HOY believed the SGM would help to promote an awareness of what it feels like to be bullied. Additionally, girls of high sociometric status were included as their dominance within the form group would help the suggestions being taken more seriously by the form group. Initially it was aimed as working as a support group for each other as this group perceived themselves to be "a victim of the same common enemy" (Girl Q) who was seen as a leader bully by this group. Finally, the students stated in their 1st meeting that they wished to talk openly about their experiences as they wanted to "help others."

Teacher/ HOY CAES-C Post Interview

The HOY stated that she believed that SG2 had been successful as it had helped to increase the confidence within the girls who were involved.

HOY (G2) [These comments were addressed at Form tutors] "Ms H has been doing some fantastic work with a small group of Year 9 girls on friendship issues, empathy with others so we decided to now extend this to Year 8's (A5/6) - I have a few girls I want to include after issues such as victimisation of bullying have been dealt with by the school. Also I have asked

Y8 form tutors if they would like to recommend anyone can you let me know. We included girls who have had issues forming friendships or have experienced any form of bullying or isolation. We tried to focus on girls who were particularly influential in friendship groups who have believed to be involved in issues and that you feel may play quite a key role and perhaps be unaware of their influence over others."

The HOY went on to state that she wished to extend the SGM to another of her year group Y8

HOY (G2) - "We would like to now extend this to Year 8's - I have a few I want to include after issues I have been dealing with, but if you would like to recommend anyone can you let me know."

The HOY believed that the SGM had been so successful with SG2 that she wanted to use it with another group which included girls who were;

HOY (G2) - "Either have issues forming friendships or feels they have experienced any form of bullying or isolation- is particularly influential in friendship groups - perhaps has been involved in issues and you feel they may play quite a key role (and perhaps be unaware of their influence over others? Can you let me know this or next week any potential names?"

These comments indicated that the HOY was happy with the effects of the Group Two as she was going to allow (me) the implementer to use SGM with another year group.

Group Two Pupil Post and Pre Interviews

To allow greater clarity and comprehension because of the larger size of this group, the SGM Group Two Pupil Post and Pre-interviews are set out together from G2- Girl G to Girl L.

Pupil Pre-Interviews

Girl G/ G2- Pre- Intervention

Girl G was directly, and indirectly bullied for over a one-and-a-half-year period. Girl G believed that at times her whole form was involved. Five to six students were mainly involved, all of

whom were same-aged females. She was unable to rate how serious it was as it differed between incidents. Girl G's negative experiences had made it very difficult for her to be able to trust others or to feel comfortable in groups, resulting in her emotions changing from despair to anger. Overall Girl G's experiences of bullying are rather intense but she was unable to specifically rate her experiences as she felt that the major person involved did not have any recall of the incidents so was confused if it could have been classed as bullying. Girl G did state that she felt unable to trust others now as she felt paranoid, especially in groups as she did not know who she could trust. Girl G felt that it had happened because she was easily wound up as things were going on in her home life. Finally, she believed that her school had done as much as they could under the circumstances but that she would like to talk to someone about it.

Girl G (G2): "I was physically, verbally bullied about 1 ½ years. The verbal stuff hurt more even though the physical stuff did hurt, it was only short-term. I can't/ didn't say any more details even though it is finished. I am still scared people are talking in groups and people behind me and stuff like that."

Scared and paranoid I don't like being in groups anymore. I've become quieter and I prefer to be alone now. I find it hard to speak up for myself. It's hard to trust people and I don't like staying in one place. I also find it hard to talk at all to be honest. It made me feel angry with myself which left me with stuff I cannot help reliving it all, I never stop feeling down because of it."

Girl G/ G2 - Post Interview

Girl G believed in one way her school had helped but recanted this stating, no they had not. She could empathise with the pupils involved believing that they felt very upset and betrayed by the incident. Girl G did not believe things had improved because people had not changed their behaviours as they were still talking about her behind her back. She stated that she had now made moves to hang around with this girl less as a way of coping. Overall Girl G could not think of any ways that her school could do to help improve her situation.

Girl G (G2): "No, because these people have not changed their attitude so they have no real help not to do it again. People are back-chatting whenever I hang around with the person who is involved in this incident but I don't as much now."

Girl H/ G2- Pre-Interview

Girl H believed that her friend Girl T was saying things behind her back at the end of last year. She stated that her friends all stuck together because she was saying things about them too. She felt that is was averagely serious as it made her feel angry and self-conscious. However once Girl H had discussed it and realised she had said some things about her close friends Girl T meant nothing to her. Girl H stated that Girl T should learn when to keep her mouth shut and stop being two-faced. Girl H believed that Girl T enjoyed being horrible to others because she is unhappy with herself. She believed that the school should have kicked Girl T out.

Girl H (G2): "My friend was saying things behind my back (Girl Q), saying I was fat and that she didn't like me, but to my face she was saying she wished she could be like me and we were really close. And I was the only one sticking up for her!"

Girl H (G2): "It made me angry and a bit self-conscious." She's (Girl Q) a stupid cunt who doesn't know when to keep her mouth shut even when she has no-one, and is far two-faced for my liking."

Girl H/ G2 - Post-Interview

Girl H said that the school were not involved and if they had they would not have helped.

Girl H (G2): "They (the school) weren't involved and even if we make it clear that they wouldn't do anything."

She believed that her school did not do anything but at the very minimum they should have spoken to her about her behaviour. She stated that everyone at school and outside now knows what she is like (Girl Q). It has made her stronger as she has realised that she has good friends.

Girl H (G2) "We all really stuck together without her (Girl Q) and it made me realise how good the other friends you have are".

Girl H did not believe that Girl Q has changed her behaviour but now she has no-one left to talk to. Finally, Girl H said that she was happy with her life now and that she feels sorry for whoever is in Girl Q's life.

Girl I/ G2 - Pre Interview

Girl I stated that she had been very seriously verbally bullied in her primary school by 20 boys and girls, over a three-year period. Therefore, as the bullying had not happened in her present secondary school, she did not feel that she needed to talk about it. Girl H displayed signs of anxiety and said that she thought that talking about it would make matters worse. However, she said she was happy talking to me alone in regards to her past victimisation. Girl I said that it had made her feel lonely as she had no-one to turn to and had a 'suicidal feeling' but had never considered doing it. She believed that it had happened because she had a crush on an older boy and that she was an easy target to the older girls as she was naturally slim. Girl I said that her school had tried everything and she was not sure what else could have been done. She spoke of an incident which had happened between the class and a student lied that she had a very serious illness, which turned out later to be untrue. This has created great conflict in the form group.

Girl I (G2) - "It made me feel very lonely………. sometimes I even felt suicidal."

Girl I believed that it had happened to her and at times it still did stating;

Girl I (G2) - "Because many of the girls were bigger and I am naturally slimmer."

Girl I / G2 - Post Interview

Girl I stated that the school had helped but on the other hand stated that it had not because her school tried to push us to state that it was over now, which did not really help. In the post-interview she displayed cognitive empathy stating that she believed that Child Q would feel guilt and sadness, emotions which she shared understanding of such feelings

However, Girl I stated that she felt angry and betrayed. Girl I believed that the school had not helped Girl Q as they should have offered her the help that she needed. She said that she felt that people did not understand her and that she can no longer trust others. She stated that being part of a group helped her to think things through. Finally, she said that little things made her feel worst but she liked to talk about the big things because she was a worrier.

Girl J/ G2- Pre Interview

Girl J did not feel comfortable and did not wish to participate in a first pre- interview.

Girl J/Group Two Post Interview

Girl J spoke of Girl Q stating that her school had tried to support her but she did not want to take it. She believed that Girl Q felt guilty and sad as she did not really understand that what she had done was bad. She stated that Girl Q always talks about serious problems which upset people. She stated that it has made her understand who she can now trust. At the end of the academic year Girl J stated that she felt very anxious and did not fit into the school. By the end of summer term 2013 Girl J left this school to be home educated by her parents.

Girl J (G2): "The verbal stuff hurt more, even though the physical did hurt, it only hurt for a short-term."

Girl J (G2): "Scared paranoid I did not want to be in groups anymore."

Girl J (G2): "Because I get easily wound up."

Girl K /G2- Pre-Intervention

Girl K did not feel happy at being interviewed at first. However later she stated that she felt uncomfortable because she had been bullied by a teacher. She said that it was to do with her disorder that the teacher made her feel hurt because she was always saying that you would never know that I had it. This made me very uncomfortable and hurt. She stated that she had not told the school because they would not do anything about it. When asked if she had told her parents Girl K stated that she had but did not want her father to come in to the school because he always made matters worse.

Girl K (G2): "I was physically, verbally bullied about 1 ½ years. The verbal stuff hurt more even though the physical stuff did hurt it was only short-term. I can't/ didn't say any more details even though it is finished I am still scared people are talking in groups and people behind me and stuff like that."

Girl K (G2): "They have done what they could but I would like to talk about it to someone."

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Overall Girl K wanted to talk to her school about her experienced but seemed worried that her father might become involved which she perceived would not be beneficial.

Girl K/ G2- Post-Intervention

Girl K believed that the school did not listen and did not stop the bullying as it just kept happening. She said that she still feels angry and is scared and confused. She believed that the school did not do anything as the person who she did not name was still bullying her. Girl K believed that this person should have been disciplined and kept away from her. She believed that the person involved would never change her behaviour if she did it would only be for the worst.

Girl L/ G2 - Pre-Intervention

Girl L was a very strong confident and dominant student, who had been involved in an incident with a girl that she believed was a close friend (Girl T). Girl L perceived the dispute as a misunderstanding and resolved it by involving her other friends, who went against this girl. Girl L rated this incident as averagely serious as it occurred over a two-month period. Overall Girl L believed that this incident was a betrayal of trust as it involved her close friend. She stated that Girl T was a mean person who does not think about the way that she acts. Girl L resolved this incident by excluding Girl T from her life.

Girl L (G2): "Someone told her I had done something which I hadn't, so I got all my close friends against her (Girl T)".

Girl L (G2): She was my best friend (Girl T), and she stabbed me in the back, she lied to me and betrayed me multiple times, so yeah."

Girl L / G2 - Pre - Interview

Girl L stated that there was an incident between her and another girl (Girl Q) from her form group in the winter of 2012. Girl Q had said that she said something about her, but it was ok, because she had got her close friends against her (Girl Q). She stated that she felt betrayed as Girl Q was supposed to be my friend. Girl L felt that this incident was averagely serious. She

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believed that the Girl Q did think about what she was doing as she was a nasty person. She stated that it is ok because Girl Q has no friends now. She stated that the school could not do anything but it does not matter as I am not going to let Girl Q in my life again so the best thing to do is ignore her.

Girl L (G2) - "Annoyed, sympathetic, sad and worried as the girl (Girl Q) needed help or attention maybe support at home as the girl goes about her problems making everyone feel bad." She (Girl Q) is a mean, nasty person who doesn't care about anyone but herself."

Girl L/ G2 – Post Interview

Girl L believed that the school had not helped as it is my business and it is personal. She said that talking about it has made her closer to her friends and she now realised who she can trust and who she cannot.

Girl L (G2): "Yes this incident made me and my friends closer as I realise who I can trust now after our meetings and who I can't."

Girl L believed that Girl Q was now trying to be friends with those who in the past she had been horrible too and that she is just trying to be friends now but she will not be her friend.

CAES-C/A Pre and Post Questionnaires /Group Two

Girl	CAES-C/A Pre	CAES-C/A Post	Difference+/-	Improvement
Girl G	79	86	7+	Improvement
Affective	23	34	12+	Good Improvement
Cognitive	56	52	4-	Minor Improvement
Girl H	97	101	4+	Minor Improvement
Affective	44	47	3+	Minor Improvement
Cognitive	53	54	1+	Minor Improvement
Girl I	81	105	24+	Great Improvement
Affective	31	49	18+	Good Improvement
Cognitive	50	56	6+	Improvement
Girl J	63	90	27+	Great Improvement
Affective	16	36	20+	Great Improvement
Cognitive	47	54	7+	Improvement
Girl K	70	80	10+	Improvement
Affective	20	25	5+	Minor Improvement
Cognitive	50	55	5+	Minor Improvement
Girl L	70	88	18+	Good Improvement
Affective	21	37	16+	Good Improvement
Cognitive	49	51	2+	Minor Improvement

Table Eight: Post and Pre CAES-C/A Questionnaire for Group Two

Table Eight demonstrates between the Post and Pre CAES-C/A questionnaire that Girl G had an overall improvement in total empathy. These improvements were predominately for affective

empathy and a minor change for cognitive empathy. Girl H had a minor improvement for both of her empathy scores. Girl I had a great overall improvement of the empathy scores. This improvement equated to a good improvement in affective empathy and an improvement in cognitive. Girl J had a great improvement in her overall empathy scores. This great improvement was shown within her affective empathy levels and an improvement was found in cognitive empathy levels. This suggests that Girl J had an enhanced improvement in the abilities to feel the distress of others after her participation in the SGM. Girl K was shown to have an improvement in her overall empathy scores. This improvement was shown by an improvement within both her affective and cognitive empathy levels. Girl L total empathy scores indicated a good improvement. Her scores were higher in affective empathy than her cognitive which demonstrated a minor improvement.

Overall the post CAES-C/A questionnaires demonstrated that all of Group Two had an improvement in their total empathy scores, albeit if it was only a minor one by Girl H, who had an increase of +4. Girls I and J had the highest empathy scores indicating great improvements of +24 and +27 respectively. These two girls were also shown to have great improvements in their affective empathy levels and scores towards a younger child. Subsequently within this all-girls school, a younger child was perceived as a younger girl from the years 7-8 (11-12 years of age). Consequently, these younger (children) girls were perceived as the blue shirts by the older girls suggesting a culture that perceived these younger children (girls) as part of an out-group.

Additionally, all of the girls had either a minor to an improvement in cognitive empathy. Therefore, after the SGM these girls had a greater improvement within their affective empathy levels indicating that they had enhanced their ability to share the feelings of others. It could be argued that this group of girls may have been through enhanced confidence and self-esteem managed to steer away from their own personal distress (cognitive empathy) and seemed now to be able to focus upon their peer's victimisation too.

Group Three

Teacher Pre Interview/HOY/ Group Three

HOY (G3) - "There are two issues/problems in this form – one specifically that the friendship groups are very fragmentised. Secondly Girl X, not integrate well with many of the other girls in her form group, she creates problems between groups as she is a very intelligent girl who knows how to upset others. Girl X had created major friendship problems especially with Girl N; this has involved cyberbullying and Girl X blaming Girl N for the social services becoming involved with her family and for her father kicking her out of her home (which was untrue). Girl X has been involved in serious self-harming behaviours and is at present seeing our school councillor to help her to cope with her personal problems."

HOY (G3) - "Again as SGM was shown to have worked well we have decided to use the Support Group Method is a different way which rather than only interviewing the victims as many felt that this girl (Girl X) was the problem it may work well as a support group for each other. Additionally, to include one influential student will help enforce the support with the other members of the form to help create a calmer environment and to enhance self-esteem in these girls. Then the girls as a collective should be able to suggest ways to help themselves and as a consequence, others."

An adapted version of the SGM was used with the rationale of helping enhance self-esteem and confidence which will result in the ability to trust other members of the form. Influential members of the form (defenders) where incorporated with girls who felt that they had been victimised to help enhance perceived abilities of self-help.

HOY (G3) - "To enhance the girls' self-esteem empathy and to provide them with a voice. And we will work in accordance to Support Group 2 [SG2] SGM implementation.

Group Three

Girl	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Outline History/PRS
M	Female	13	White	**Victim** was directly bullied by Girl Y last year

N	Female	13	Asian	**Defender/victim** has been bullied both directly and via cyberbullying by Girl Y
O	Female	13	White	**Defender** who has a strong sense of justice
R	Female	13	White	Outsider
S	Female	13	White/Afro Caribbean	**Victim** had problems fitting into the form
T	Female	13	White	**Outsider** who has problems with self-harming behaviours

Table Nine: Group Three – Description of the girls participating in the SGM

Group Three - Teacher Pre Interview

This form group had many issues in regards to friendship groups

HOY (G3) - "There have been many problems with relationships problems in the class. This has emanated generally from one child (Girl X) who has lost the trust of the class [form group] as she gained her classes' sympathy saying that her mother had died. This was later found not to be the case."

The HOY stated that Girl X has problems at home as her parents were fighting for her custody and Girl X is not allowed to see one of biological parents. Girl X had very serious emotional issues they had involved social services and the school councillor as we felt she would not be an appropriate child to participate in the SGM study.

Generally, there are two issues problems in this form; one is that friendship groups are very fragmentised. And secondly Girl X did not integrate with many of the other girls in her form group. Girl X creates problems between groups as she is a very intelligent girl, who knows how to upset others.

As Groups Two had worked well, the HOY decided to use the Support Group Method in the same way. Therefore, past victimised girls with influential students (defenders) should help enforce and create a calmer environment to enhance the past victimised girls self-esteem. Overall the HOY believed that the SGM would create ways for the girl who participated in it, to be able to help themselves and others.

HOY (G3) – "The SGM is going to be implemented over a term and more if required one term and we aim to enhance the girls' self-esteem empathy and provide them with a voice."

Teacher – Post-Intervention: Group Three

The HOY stated that the SGM was implemented using the same method as Group Two. An adapted version of the SGM was used with the rationale of helping develop self-esteem and confidence to enhance the girl's perceived abilities of self-help.

HOY (G3) - "The Support Group Method was used in the same way that it was used within Group Two."

The comment below was provided by the HOY to all of the Year 8 form tutors in order to determine whether they felt that any pupils within their forms required help from the next SGM intervention.

Ms H did the work in group sessions with pupils selected upon the above criteria. Pupils were then selected after we had complex bullying issue going on in the year group.

The SGM was conducted over a term and on a weekly basis. The groups were selected from the pupils that other types of intervention had not helped.

HOY (G3) - "I selected this group after trying the usual strategies in school which had not worked."

HOY (G3) - "Yes as all of the pupils enjoyed the sessions, and it gave pupils who normally do not engage in such activities the opportunity to discuss their experiences. It was also really useful for the girls to work with someone they did not know so they could be open and honest."

HOY (G3) - "Yes because it proved to be a useful resource for me as a HOY as we were able to pick up further issues that I was able to relay to tutors to work closely with the girls on. I'd say it was highly successful and very beneficial to all of the girls involved."

These comments by the HOY indicated that she had felt that the SGM was successful not only in assisting in past victimisation but in helping to address issues which the school was unaware of until after its implementation. This in turn helped her and the form tutors to deal with these issues in accordance to their specific nature. Moreover, the HOY believed that the SGM was an appropriate intervention to have used when the 'usual strategies 'had not been successful.

HOY (G3) -" Yes within this group it was decided that we would widen the help and use circle times which were initiated by the member who took part in SG3. This allowed issues in the form group to be discussed within a very open and controlled environment as Ms H over saw the circle time, and facilitated in order to make sure that pupils did not make unconstructive or negative comments. This was successful because it allowed us to conduct a whole class intervention"

The HOY stated that she had upon the success of the SGM Ms H had been able to expand whole form class controlled discussions using a whole class intervention Circle Times.

Pupil Pre Interview Girl N/G3

Girl N stated that there had been many friendship issues within her form. She believed that many of the girls only positively reacted to members of their own friendship groups. However, Girl N had major relationships problems with Girl Z who was in her form group. Girl N rated these incidences as averagely serious. Girl Z declined to answer how her school could help her. However, Girl N informed me that there had been verbal negative interactions on Facebook which was being investigated by the school (see teacher interview pre-interviews for further details). Girl N stated that Girl Z had serious emotional problems and that she had only ever tried to help Girl N by offering sympathy.

Girl N (G3) - "It made me feel like some sort of puppet being controlled by her actions- she'll threatened to kill herself and I 'll give her sympathy. I don't know maybe her home situation isn't great-maybe she needs sympathy. I feel it is emotional blackmail. She has lied compulsively on several occasions. She has tried to commit suicide and started cutting in our form".

Girl M declined to answer in any further detail but she told me that there had been some interaction on Facebook which was investigated by the school (see teacher pre interview G3)

Pupil Post-Interview Girl N/ G3

Girl N did not feel that her school understood the importance of the bullying stating:

Girl N (G3) - "No-one cares, they see scenarios not that we are going to be together for a long time as we are in the same form [group] and subject classes"

Girl N lacked confidence and trust, and felt awkward around Girl Z. She felt that the school had not done enough to stop the bullying from happening as they seemed unaware that it was still occurring. However, she had learnt to ignore her and walk away as this seemed to help. Girl N stated that she did not want any of her friends to have to get involved as this would only make matters worse.

Girl N (G3) - "Sometimes she stops when you walk away as you are not giving her a reaction or actions that respond to what she says. One time I had to address what she said when addressing one of my friends, you see her grandfather had died and she came up to me so I told her to give it a rest as I did not want to know, as I wanted to help my friend not get involved with her."

Girl N believed that the group meetings helped as they provided her with a way of discussing the difficulties between her and Girl Z. However, she felt that the school had not really stopped the victimisation as they needed to take Girl Z out of her form group and subject lessons.

Girl N (G3) – "No, not fully from the group talks it sort of helps**.** The school thinks it is better, I wish they would take her or me out of the form as we would not have to be sitting down together and she would leave me alone and I would get peace of mind."

Girl N argued that her school needed to get Girl Z's father involved in what had happened at school and on FB because Girl Z would listen more to him than she did to her school teachers.

Girl N (G3) - "They [their school] could have informed her dad to talk about it. She does not talk about her family life I know it affects her I think that her dad would have done something as in her culture they have greater loyalty and respect for their elders who would have made her listen."

Girl N did not feel that Girl Z had changed her behaviour for the better and had blocked Girl Z on FB as a coping strategy. However, this was not successful as she still shared a form with Girl Z.

Girl N (G3) - "No I have taken her (Girl Z) off Facebook but in form she shakes her leg to annoy me."

Girl N perceived that the SGM had helped her talk through her experiences with others. However, she felt that it was difficult to talk about all of them because they were on written on FB.

Girl N (G3) - "I wish that I knew what to do in this situation the group helped because I could talk

Girl	CAES-C/A Post	CAES-C/A Pre	Differences+/-	Improvement
Girl M	72	89	17+	Good Improvement
Affective	22	35	13+	Good Improvement
Cognitive	50	52	2+	Slight Improvement
Girl N	75	82	1+	Slight Improvement
Affective	44	51	7+	Improvement
Cognitive	31	31	No diff	No Improvement

Table Ten: Group Three Pre and Post CAES-C/A Questionnaires

The pre CAES-C/A was taken before the initiation of the SGM and the post-test was conducted after the groups had finished the SGM intervention (see Table Ten).

Girl M was shown to have a good improvement in her overall total empathy scores. This improvement was shown within her affective empathy levels, only a slight change was found in cognitive empathy levels. This suggests that Girl M had an enhanced improvement in her abilities to be able to feel the distress of others after her participation in the SGM.

Additionally, Girl N was shown to have an improvement in her overall total empathy scores. This improvement was only shown within her affective empathy levels; no change was found in cognitive levels. This suggests that Girl N also had an improvement in her affective empathy levels after the implementation of the SGM, which was indicative of an enhancement of feeling the distress of others.

Discussion

The Results of the SGM

The overall results of the case studies demonstrated that the SGM was a successful anti-bullying intervention. However, it was generally more successful in Groups Two and Three when a variation of its original methodology was used incorporating past victims with defenders. The SGM variation was shown to be successful because firstly it allowed the girls who had been bullied an open medium to be heard as it was found within this school it was the only way that the victims wished to participate. This was supported by the majority stating that they felt that their school had not listened to them in regards to their grievances, but the SGM had. Secondly the SGM provided these girls with an element of control within their school lives as it afforded them with the responsibility to develop methods to help improve the school environment in their form groups. Finally, the SMG groups helped to demonstrate that they were not alone by enabling the development of trust, which in turn enhanced their self-esteem.

The Success/Failure of the SGM as Measured by the CAES-C/A

The results of the pre and post CAES-C/A indicted that all of the pupils who took part within the SGM had at least a slight improvement in their total empathy scores (cognitive and affective, see Table Three). Girl E (bully-victim from Group One) was shown to have the least improvement which is consistent with her bullying role initially at her pre-interview as a follower bully. The greatest improvement was shown by the girls (Girl I, Girl J and Girl L from Group Two and Girl M from Group Three) who were either a defender who had experienced bullying, a pure defender and a defender-bully (a defender who also engaged in bullying behaviour). These results demonstrated that the SGM had a greater effect on these roles.

The importance of using a same gender victim in the poem presented to the Group One and personal experiences in Groups Two and Three was supported by the breakdown of the girls CAES-C/A peer category scores (See Appendix 19). This demonstrated that all of the girls scored lower in the questions both for cognitive and affective empathy on the scenarios related to a boy stimulus and higher for the ones involving a girl. Therefore, discrimination between the genders allowed the investigation of empathy differences based upon Bryant (1982) and Olweus and Endresen's (1998) research which also demonstrated that the girls of this age are more empathetic towards same gender peers. Girl E in Group One was found to have low affective empathy in comparison to the girls in Group Two. Girl E's empathy did not improve in her post CAES-C/A but conversely had lower levels of cognitive empathy too. Girl E very low total empathy was demonstrated to have a fundamental relationship to her follower bully behaviours. Girl E in her interviews was shown to only be able to feel her empathy/sympathy for her own plight (i.e. with Girl S) dwelling upon her personal distress which seems to be indicative of her bullying role.

Additionally, and rather surprisingly, generally all of the girls (other than Girl I and K) were shown to have no improvements in their empathy scores towards the younger child scenarios. One reason why this occurred within this group was that it may have been due to the school climate, as many of the girls viewed the younger girls in their school negatively calling younger girls the "blue shirts". This suggests that because the older girl's uniform incorporated a white shirt they might have felt the younger girls were not part of their in-group so they did not feel as empathetic towards them as they were to their own age peer group. Therefore, these older girls were less likely to make close friendships with the younger peers from outside of their group

(i.e. the out-group) effecting their abilities to empathise as they perceived no shared experiences per se.

The Success/Failure of the Support Group Method from Group One, Two and Three

Group One

The majority of Group One indicated that they were oblivious that bullying was happening in their form acting as passive bystanders (as rated by their HOY). This group seemed very unresponsive which was demonstrated by their lack of consent to take part in the pre and post interviews and the CAES-C/A. Moreover, this bystander role seemed to be exacerbated by the girl's perceptions of normative peer pressure from Girl E and their class (Pozzoli & Gini, 2010). Peer pressure seemed to have a fundamental affect upon their willingness to actively defend Girl S. Additionally Group One's fragile relationship with Girl S seemed to have influenced their willingness to intervene on her behalf and defend her. Factors such as morality may have affected their passive bystander behaviours because it was viewed by the school that this group had fundamental problems with Girl S's sexuality and in accordance felt no moral justification to intervene. However, it should be noted that Girl S's sexuality was never mentioned in the group meetings, which suggests by its absence, either that within this group, that trust may not have been developed or that this may had not been the underlying cause for Girl S's victimisation. Therefore, social desirable responses may have influenced this group's response as they may have feared the repercussions from their school for such homophobic opinions. Additionally, as no assertive bystander behaviour was shown by this group, they were unable to produce anti-biased or anti-bullying behaviours which would have helped counteract Girl S's public discrimination which supports the school's actions of moving Girl S out of this form class of Group One. Girl E as a follower bully seemed use such subtle methods of relational bullying that she was unable to openly admit to the group or to herself that she was or had been victimising Girl S. Girl E bullying behaviours were less obvious and covert which meant that her popularity with her form peers was intact, as was her perceived position of power. However, Girl E seemed to be more involved in the bullying of Girl S than was first believed by her HOY, indicating that her bullying behaviours had overlapped between an assistant bully and a follower

of the ringleader bully (Goossens et al., 2006) and in her pre-interviews as becoming a bully-victim by her perceived victimisation from Girl S.

Overall Group One seemed unable or unwilling to suggest any problem solving strategies which could have helped improve the school environment especially in regards to Girl S. Group One seemed to be controlled by peer pressure from Girl E who had a high peer status within this group. This high peer status fundamentally influenced the group and was one of the reasons why Group One was unable to be continued. This supports the rationale that girls generally engage in close relationship groups which are predominately dependent upon dominance and acceptance in the in-group of Girl E.

Group Two

Group Two showed greater effectiveness from the SGM than had been seen within Group One. In the initial meetings many of the girls were shy and demonstrated low self-esteem. However, as trust was developed over the meetings the girls' levels of self-esteem increased dramatically. Many of the girls stated that they felt that their school had not listened to them but in contrast believed that the SGM was successful because it allowed them to talk things through. They liked the way that the SGM allowed them to talk by not placing 'the spot-light' solely upon on them as an individual interview might have. Therefore, our meetings were shown to have provided a forum which helped and enabled Group Two to think things through - as Girl G stated 'thinking out loud', in a non-judgemental and safe environment. This openness seemed fundamental to the relative success of Group Two.

Group Two also demonstrated that the Salmivalli et al. (1996) PRS needs to be expanded to include a bully-defender role too. This was demonstrated in Girl L who was predominately a defender but she was also found to engage in relational bullying behaviours as well. Girl L behaviours would have been categorising by the PRS as solely a ring-leader bullying as she evoked bullying behaviours towards Girl Q from her friends. However, Girl L PRS was more complex as she not only bullied but was also very likely to defend her friends and those in her same age/gender group. This was shown to not only be dependent upon the closeness of her relationship towards a specific peer (Espelage et al., 2012) but because she had strong defender traits as well. This suggests that there are not always clearly defined PRS indicating that bullying behaviours are dependent upon many fundamental factors such as the quality of a

relationship, gender, age and the specific situation as to which role a bully-defender engages in towards a peer.

Additionally, Girls G and Girl I were not pure victims as they engaged in defender behaviours for others. These two case studies demonstrated that PRS are not a concrete but rather fluid construct, which again is predominately dependent upon the quality and how closely a pupil relates to another peer (Espelage et al., 2012). Also these case studies clearly indicated that these girls had the ability to not only be able to focus upon their own personal distress (cognitive empathy) but able to share the feelings of others (affective empathy).

In the final meetings the girls had been able to suggest interventions that they felt would improve the conflict within their class group. They suggested form group meetings similar to Circle-times. Moreover, they had learnt from past form meetings that Circle-times should be conducted in an open and non- confrontational manner where no blame should be attributed to any member of the form group. This was a very positive step that seemed to be influenced by the SGM. Moreover, by the end of the sessions these girls were not looking to blame Girl Q but demonstrated enhanced affective empathy by understanding maturely that Girl Q was looking for attention albeit in a generally negative manner. They stated that talking it through had made them understand that Girl Q actually needed help to address her problems both in school and at home. The girls demonstrated affective empathy by showing that they now knew it was not anything that they had done that made Girl Q behave in this anti-social and negative manner but because Girl Q required appropriate help.

Finally, Group Two suggested that Girl Q should be provided with this help slowly from their school because they perceived in the past that the school had bombarded Girl Q with too many outside agencies, all at once. Additionally, Girl K who had a neurological disorder now had the confidence to make a presentation to her form group. Girl K's presentation helped them to understand her disorder, and helped eliminate any ignorance of her mannerisms that were symptoms of her disorder.

The pre interview demonstrated that the girls in this study were generally bullied by same-age and gender peers. These interviews indicated that before the implementation of the SGM the girls felt that their school had not been effective in helping them with their victimisation. The SGM was perceived by the students to be a positive step and because I was perceived as being

completely independent from their school, which helped the students to be more open about their grievances about their school policies per se.

Group Three

The SGM in Group Three showed a good success especially in regards to enhancing affective empathy. This allowed the girls to rather than only being able to solely focus upon their own personal distress (cognitive empathy Davies, 1981) to expand their empathy outwardly towards sharing other's emotionality (affective empathy). In correspondence to Group Two the girls in Group Three demonstrated greater levels of self-esteem and autonomy rather than dependence. This independence was demonstrated by their ability to have the enhanced confidence in themselves to run Circle Times within their form (See Study Five).

The girls in Group Three pre-interviews indicated that they had bullying issues with the same member of their form (Girl Q) who like the bullies who had been involved within the case studies within Groups One and Two were same age and gender. The girls within Group Three seemed to indicate empathy for the fundamental life issues/problems that Girl Z was experiencing. They demonstrated high affective empathy in that they were able to feel how such life experiences had negatively impacted negatively upon her school relationships/friendships.

Girl N stated "We all have problems but we need to make sure we treat others nicely as we need friends. I wish that Girl Z's father had been involved as within her culture they have greater respect for their elders so it might have helped improve our relationship as she would not blame me for everything."

Girl N comments suggests that Girl Z's father should have become more closely involved with the school's interventions because this would have enable greater unity between the two which would fundamentally help alleviate Girl's Z's antisocial behaviours.

The SGM enabled cohesion within Group Three as it allowed an appropriate and successful way to discuss their experiences and feelings. The SGM provided a safe and open forum which was independent from the school. Again, as was found with Groups One and Two, the girls believed that their experiences were not really being addressed by their school or taken seriously. The majority stated that bullying was seen as a scenario which if it was not completely visible then it was seen by the school as not actually happening. However, the girls believed that the SGM allowed them a voice and an audience which was non-judgmental, and to address their bullying

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and feelings which had resulted because of their negative experiences. The importance of involving parents was supported not only by teachers, but by pupils too (e.g. Girl M).

Limitations of this Study

Within Group One it was very difficult to interview the victims because they feared retribution from their bullies (Girl E & Girl A1, G1). The presence of Girl E (bully-follower of Girl A1) in Group One made it extremely difficult for an open discussion as she dominated the girls throughout.

Additionally, it seems that the school and HOY was not always fully aware of what was happening within bullying incidences. For example, she was not aware that Girl E had become a relational bully-victim to the pupil (Girl S) a girl which Girl E had originally bullied. Also within Groups Two the HOY believed this group did not incorporate pupils who had a PRS role of bully, which was shown not to be the case as Girl L was found to be both a bully and a defender. Originally the school felt that it would be more beneficial for the former victims to be supported by the defender roles this was not to solely be the case as Girl L took the role of (bully-defender). It should be noted that Girl L was not found to be bullying any of the girls within Group Two.

However, the implementation of Group Two/Three did allow past victims to develop their confidence, with the help of the defenders, to stand up and be heard through their suggestions. As Girl H (G2) stated:

Girl H (G2) "I realise now that I can do something and that I am not alone. I do not want to lie down and cry anymore, I now feel confident that I can do something as I am allowed to be heard."

It was difficult at times to be the Support Group leader to evaluate its success so the HOY perceptions were used. Inter-rater perception of the success of the SGM was additionally provided by the pupils involved in the three groups.

Overall Conclusion

Overall the SGM was shown to have had a positive effect on enhancing empathy, especially affective empathy. While it was not as successful in Group One, that was not due to the SGM

methodology but because the level of bullying behaviours had fundamentally escalated. Therefore, the SGM was not an appropriate anti-bullying intervention for this specific serious case of bullying. However, on a positive note the SGM was successful in the sense that it allowed a further bullying incident to come to light and to be addressed by the school, who stated that they were going to use structured meetings between the two girls.

In contrast Group Two/Three seemed to have been a success as it helped the girls not only in enhancing their total empathy levels but by improving their self-esteem, and feelings of trust towards their peers. Therefore, this study demonstrated that the SGM can be successful even when incorporating past victims within its meetings. This meant that victims encouraged empathy enhancement within bystanders, whilst also developing the victim's empathy levels from personal distress (cognitive empathy) to sharing the feelings of others (affective empathy).

Additionally, within Group Two the case studies supported the need for a PRS role of bully-defender as it indicated that such roles are very complex and dependent upon many factors that trigger either pro-social or anti-social bullying behaviours as was clearly depicted in Girl L pre-pupil interview. Girl L was a strong character who rather than taking a bullying role with Group Two, her defender nature took dominance over, which resulted in nurturing and protecting behaviours towards this group.

Implications for Current Research

The SGM enabled an open and shared forum which allowed the pupils to be heard by their peer group. Additionally, it provided the moral responsibility in pupils helping to improve the school climate without attributing blame to any specific individual, enabling anonymity, which encouraged honesty and a safe-open forum.

The adapted version of the SGM was shown to have enhanced affective empathy as it enabled the girls to draw upon their experiences with friends and same gender peers. The SG victims learned to use their personal distress to help others overcome victimisation and enhanced self-esteem to feel able to defend themselves and others (active defending). Therefore, reactive anti-bullying interventions such as SGM demonstrate that affective empathy can be developed and heightened drawing upon close socio-metric relationships. Overall the SGM adaptation helped to

develop affective empathy by enhancing self -help and self-esteem moving away from person distress. Study Four seemed helped the girl's in Group Two to move from a victim role to an active defender role because it provided a forum to share their experiences.

Additionally, implications demonstrated that the adapted version of the SGM in Group Two in bully-defenders encouraged the defender role to become paramount by encouraging an empathetic response.

Chapter Nine

Study Five – The Implementation of Circle time

Introduction

Circle times (CTs) were implemented to Groups Two and Three of Study Four (the Support Group Method see Chapter 8). The CTs were aimed at encouraging the form groups to develop greater positive self-image, and promote co-operative behaviours. The CTs was used after the implementation of the SGM Groups Two and Three as it was felt by the Head of Year (HOY) that they would be the best form groups to benefit from its methodology. Group One (SGM) were not deemed by the school to be an appropriate form group because of its diverse and negative interpersonal dynamics.

CTs were chosen as an appropriate method by the HOY as several of the students from Groups Two and Three (SGM), felt it would help improve the atmosphere of their form groups. The two groups believed that their forms were 'very cliquey' and interpersonal relationships were rather rigid and insular; only occurring between friendship groups.

The CTs were aimed at helping the girls to look outwards, and to address the needs of their school community. Additionally, it was felt an excellent method because the CTs would enable the students to fulfil the roles of a collective, which would in turn encourage and enhance group cohesion.

Aims

The aim of Study Five was to explore pupils and teacher's perspectives of CTs post implementation using CT Pupil (see Appendix 17) and Teacher Questionnaires (see Appendix 18). Secondly it aimed to investigate the effectiveness of the girls from the SGM Two and Three, attempts to heal the emotional hurt and levels of self-esteem within their form groups; focused on promoting global empathic behaviours within peer relationships.

Procedure

Participants

Circle time Group One (CT Group One, formerly SGM Group Two) was from Year 9 and had 28 female students, with a mean age was 14 years. Circle time Group Two (CT Group Two, formerly SGM Group Three) was from Year 8 and had 29 female students, with a mean age of 13.

Method

A suggestion box was left in each of the form group classrooms, a week before the first CTs were implemented. The girls were asked to write down positive and/ or negative comments regarding their form group's social cohesion. They were told not to mention specific names or places that would identify who their comments were in regards to. They were told that the comments would be randomly selected from the suggestion box and read out, over the next few weeks in their form group CTs. While this method differed from CTs methodology as it allowed the writer anonymity, this enabled suggestions which may not have come to light within the CTs alone to be addressed. Overall it provided the less students with an open form as this anonymity alleviated feelings of retribution from other members of their form group.

The suggestion boxes were collected before the initiation of the Circle times so I could read the suggestions beforehand to ensure that the questions were appropriate, and did not identify specifics. The premise for reading the questions content was to ensure that they would not antagonise any members of the form group or create further disharmony or conflict.

The CT's were conducted over the Summer term, and at the beginning of the Autumn term 2013. Within CT Group One three CTS were conducted and four within CT Group Two. An additional CT was conducted because members of this form group requested further assistance. The students were positioned in a circle as much as the class room allowed. The CT sessions lasted approximately 25 minutes of form time, at the beginning of the school day. Two students took the lead, with myself acting as a facilitator to intervene if any of the pupils steered off

course or speaking detrimentally. From each of the groups (One and Two) two students conducted the CTs. In Group One from the SGM Group Two Girls K and J. From Group Two, the SGM Group Three Girls M and N.

The number of suggestions that were obtained from the suggestion boxes (22 from CT Group One and 28 from Group Two).

Examples of the Questions Presented to the Two Form Groups from the Suggestion Boxes.

Some teachers don't listen to use- they need to pay more attention to everyone in the class.

I feel that the teachers do not care and that they don't think about what they are to the students how they make us feel ☹

Why does everyone have their clique?
I feel people could try harder to consider others feelings within the form and to respect people's different views and opinions.

I feel okay with the form at the moment but I feel like people don't say what they feel but then say things behind people's backs, which leads to issues.

I feel like certain people do not respect other people's feelings, thank you for your time.

I do not think everyone in the form acknowledges other people's issues and respects their individual levels of sensitivity.

The Circle Time Methodology

The Circle times were initiated in the following six steps.

Step 1: Making the Circle

The forms sat in a circle within their form rooms. Questions were selected randomly and read out by the student initiators. Everyone in the form group was given an equal chance to contribute, controlled by the passing of a toy rabbit, which was directed by the pupil leads and myself when needed. This was implemented to ensure that instructions were abided by and so that no specific friendship groups could monopolise the CTs.

An example of starter activity for taking turns and co-operation

An object (a soft rabbit toy which was the class mascot) was passed around and each student in the round said her name. In the next round the girls said their comments and then past the rabbit to another girl who had her hand up.

Step 2: Turn-Taking and Listening Skills

The girls were told that they had to be respectful and listen to each other. Initially the students found this difficult. Therefore, the students were informed that they were to be silent when other students were talking, this helped to control the verbal interactions as well as demonstrating respect. Empathy was encouraged as the students were told that they needed to think how it would feel to be walking in some-one else's shoes (cognitive empathy). The students were reminded that they were not to make judgements about another student. This strict criterion enabled friendships to be formed and developed. Healing and conflict resolution was encouraged by the gradual formation of positive empathetic and respectful behaviour.

Step 3: Sharing Thoughts, Feelings and Concerns

This step helped the pupils feel empathy and develop social and emotional literacy. It was specifically aimed at attempting to heal emotional hurt and low self-esteem by sharing the other members of the focus group perceptions and feelings.

Step 4: Working Together for the Benefits of the Group

The step encouraged the students to as a group enhance the harmony of their form.

Step 5: Taking Action for the Benefit of the Wider Community

This step encouraged the students to use the methods that they have discussed to encourage membership of the form by suggesting ways that they could help improve the whole forms comments /suggestions.

Step 6: The Closing Circle

Each CT were ended by closing the circle with a reflection which helped to create a positive and calm state of mind which ensured that no negative interactions or later retributions would occur

Pupil Circle Time Questionnaire

A short **Pupil Circle Time Questionnaire** was conducted with the two form groups after the final CTs. Overall the questionnaires were aimed at investigating whether or not the CTs had been successful. Secondly it allowed the girls the ability to make suggestions of other methods that they believed could help proactively improve their sense of well-being and relationship/friendship issues within their form groups.

The first question asked if they felt that the CTs had helped (that is if they perceived that there were difficulties in their form within the first instance) to improve their forms friendships/relationships and to provide an explanation as to whether or not they felt the CTs had impacted upon group cohesion.

The second question asked if they believed that there was anything else that the school could do to help improve their relationships.

The final question asked if there was anything else that they wanted to comment upon in regards to the CTs.

The questionnaires were anonymous to allow confidentiality. At the end of the questionnaires the girls were given a help sheet (see Appendix 13) and debriefed.

Teacher Circle Time Questionnaire

A short **Teacher Circle time Questionnaire** was conducted with the form group tutors after the final CT. This was aimed at investigating what in addition to the SGM and CTs the form teachers felt the school could do to proactively improve the girl's sense of well-being and relationship/friendship issues.

The first question asked if they felt that the CTs had helped to improve their forms friendships/relationships, and to provide an explanation as to whether or not they felt the CTs had an impact.

The second question asked if they believed that there was anything else the school could do to help improve form groups relationships.

The final question asked if there was anything else that they wanted to comment upon in regards to the CTs. (See Appendix 20)

However, a poor response rate of 23/47 student participated in **the Circle time Pupil Questionnaire**. Numerous factors may have contributed to this low response rate for example several of the girls at during the CTs implementation were hostile towards it; stating that they felt it was 'a waste of their time'. This indicated that these pupils were not committed to this intervention from the beginning so would have been negative towards the **Circle time Pupil Questionnaire** as well.

Results

The number of CTs that were held was three for CT Group One and four for CT Group Two.

Circle time Pupil Questionnaires CT Group One / Two

The results of completed Circle **time Pupil Questionnaire from** the two CT groups because response rates was low as only half of the girls participated (23/47).

The comments were divided by form groups CT Group 1 and CT Group 2, and under the heading comments, negative, positive, ambiguous; cognitive and affective empathy.

CT Group 1 Pupil Questionnaire

Question: Did the Circle times improve your form group relationships/friendships?
Some (29%) of the girls in CT Group 1 indicated that they did not believe that the CTs had been effectual in improving their form group's relationships.

Negative Comments

Girl 1 (CT1) "It was completely pointless and a complete waste of time. We all know what the problems in our form, we do not need to talk about it them it will not change anything at all. Nothing changed after it happened, and it was just a waste of my time that I will not get back."

While **Girl 1** had acknowledged that there were actually difficulties within her form group, her comment indicated an element of hostility and negatively towards the CTs and towards the intervention from her school.

Others Girls in CT Group 1 were also negative towards their school's intervention perceiving it as interference and believed that they were capable of sorting their problems themselves, so did not warrant the schools assistance.

Girl 7 (CT1) "It did not help because we sort it out ourselves and we have our own way to sort it out. Circle time was good but it did not help."

Girl 16 (CT1) "Not many people felt really into it, therefore they had not had an effect.

However, Girl 12 felt that she was isolated before and after the CTs stating;

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Girl 12 (CT1) "Because I still feel left out, it is the same as before."

These comments demonstrated that there were numerous reasons why the CTs were not perceived as having been a successful in CT Group 1, ranging from hostility towards their school perceived intervention, to one student having feelings of social exclusion from her form/peer group.

Others comments indicated that several girls did not actually believe that there were any problems in their form group or that it had not actually changed behaviours.

Girl 10 (CT1) "I do not think we had any problems."

Girl 13 (CT1) "What was suggested and said brought us together at the time but it hasn't changed anything in the way we act."

A positive comment from one girl indicated that she felt that the CTs had been beneficial as it allowed the form group a way to communicate their feelings.

Positive Comments

Girl 20 (CT1) "It helped by talking through things."

Additionally, the CTs were perceived as providing a way of experiencing and expressing empathy. This was specifically demonstrated by expressions of cognitive empathy, which was indicative of the girls demonstrating an understanding of others perspective.

Cognitive Empathy Comments

Girl 21 (CT1) "Because it [CTs] has helped us to express our feelings and tell each other what our opinions and feelings are of each other."

Girl 23 (CT1) "Because different people had their say and they actually help people overcome problems."

These comments indicated that many of the girls had the ability to display cognitive empathy demonstrating the ability to acknowledge the feelings of other members of their form group.

What else (if anything) could your school do to help your friendships/relationships with your form?

Negative Comments

Girl 13 (CT1) "It feels like we are being treated like babies when we do circle time."

Positive Comments

However, one girl suggested that there were times when it was appropriate for her school to intervene;

Girl 10 (CT1) "I don't think the school should get involved unless it's a serious case of bullying."

Suggestions of methods that might be effective in the form group

Girl 16 (CT1) "To do the Circle times when we have Personal Development (PD) lessons as it will be less forced."

Acknowledgement of diversity was perceived as being required by the school which would enable a greater embracement of their multi-cultural dynamics of the form groups and their school.

Girl 23 (CT1) "To let us be more diverse by holding more charity events and more own clothes day for people to appreciate others."

Another suggestion was more specific to the method of the implementation of the CTs:

Girl 16 (CT1): "Um, perhaps when we do Circle times we could split the class in half and have two separate discussions and the feedback in one large group."

CT Group 2 Pupil Questionnaire

Did the Circle times improve form group relationships/friendships?

The comments within CT Group 2 were very mixed;

Ambiguous Comments

Girl 3 (CT2) "It brought us together in a circle."

However, Girl 3 believed that actually nothing was actually changed after the CTs as she believed:

Girl 3 (CT2) "We are fine anyway."

This indicated an element of contradiction as Girl 3 believed that her form did not any issues/problems with group cohesion, which was conflicting to the perceptions within the SGM groups or specifically the form group suggestion boxes.

One girl had negative feelings towards her school, believing that they did not have the right to interfere within her form groups disagreements.

Negative Comments

Girl 4 (CT2) "We still have our arguments in the form, but we always solve it our way, before the circle times, and after it."

Many of the responses were mixed/ambiguous indicating that they were unclear as to whether or not   the CTs had been successful or not.

Ambiguous Comments

Girl 2 (CT2) "It was nice to discuss issues but it has not really helped us as a class at all."

Child 6 (CT2) "We did not really have that many problems as a form in my opinion. If we do then it's in groups, so it might've helped them."

Girl 8 (CT2) "Because I was all happy before and still am now. I have no issues with my friends."

These ambiguous comments provide support for cohesion within close friendship form groups but indicated that many of these groups were rather separate and insular.

Positive Comments

However, two girls believed that the CTs were successful in improving their friendships/relationships within their form group. Many of the comments indicated that the CTs had enabled social cohesion with their form group per se.

Girl 17 (CT2) "Because the girl's in the class have been contributing during the discussions about how to help friendships, problems and its working."

Girl 19 (CT2) "We get to talk about our feelings and get things out in the open."

Cognitive Empathy Comments

Additionally, the CTs were perceived as providing a way of experiencing and expressing empathy. This was specifically demonstrated by expressions of cognitive empathy, which was indicative of the girls demonstrating an understanding of another's perspective.

Girl 22 (CT2) "I think it has as we all can communicate without hurting somebody else. It is supervised which is better for us."

Affective Empathy Comments

Girl 18 (CT2) "Now I understand and share what others are going through, especially with group problems."

These comments indicated that many of the girls had the ability to display cognitive empathy and demonstrated that they were able to acknowledge/share the feelings of other members of their form group (affective empathy).

What else (if anything) could your school do to help your friendships/relationships with your form?

The girls were asked to provide suggestions of ways from their perspectives which would be beneficial in helping improve issues in their form group.

Many of the girl's comments corresponded to CT Group One as they to felt that their school's interference was unwarranted as they felt they were capable of helping themselves

Negative Suggestions

Girl 4 (CT2) "They [the school] could let us have the talks but in our own friendship groups and come up with reasonable solutions for other friendship groups as well as ours."

Girl 11 (CT2) "I think give us time to talk and socialise without a teacher. Do not let a teacher get involved let us sort it out ourselves."

Girl 12 (CT2) "No because everyone will just go back to how we were before."

The negative comments as was found to be the case in CT Group One indicated that many of the girls perceived the CTs as school interference believing that they were mature enough to talk their problems through and develop their own problem solving strategies to 'sort it out for themselves.'

However, several of the comments demonstrated an element of bystander behaviour perceiving that there were not actually any friendship issues within their form group; this could be deemed as naive especially as the evidence again presented in Study Four (the SGM), and the forms suggestion box had indicated that this was not the case.

Bystanders Comments

Girl 22 (CT2): "I don't think there is anything else there is to make our form feel better as everything is solved."

Summary of CT Group One

Several of the comments suggested that the girls believed that the CTs were 'a waste time'. While admitting that there were problems within their form group, these girls believed that

nothing has changed after the CTs implementation. Also comments indicated that the pupils perceived the CTs as unwarranted interference from their school. Many of these comments were voiced in a hostile and negative manner, perceiving that their school was treating them 'like babies'. These girls felt that they were able to address relationship problems without assistance from the school. However, one girl she had felt excluded and isolated, which indicated that group cohesion was not universal across this form group.

On a positive note the girls believed that the CTs had allowed them the ability to 'talk things through'. Many girls suggested that it helped them to express their and understand other girls feelings (cognitive empathy).

CT Group One stated that the CTs should become part of their Personal Development lessons as this would allow comments to feel more fluid and voluntary. Others suggested smaller groups which would allow greater diversity and feedback to be provided later to the form group as a whole. In contrast others suggested that CT's should only be used in cases of serious bullying, which suggested a void between the groups supporting a disparity between the various friendship groups.

Summary of CT Group Two

The comments were comparable to CT Group One, stating while it had brought the group together as a whole nothing was going to change as a result of the CTs. Many girls seemed either unaware or unable to admit, contrary to the SGM, that any negative issues were happening within their form group. Bystander behaviours were exhibited as one girl believed that everything had been solved suggesting that conflicts had existed.

Positively the comments stated that the CTs had provided a supervised and more open method, which helped the form group to contribute in the discussion regarding their friendship issues per se. CT Group Two felt that the CTs allowed them to communicate without hurting others (cognitive empathy) and share the feelings of others (affective empathy).

Overall this group said that the school should give them time to talk their relationship issues through without the assistance of a teacher. In comparison to CT Group One many girls suggested that the school should not interfere within their relationships issues as they help was

not required. Overall this group felt that if they were given the responsibility they were mature enough to provide appropriate relationship solutions.

Teacher Circle Time Questionnaire

Teacher One view was provided by the HOY rather than the form tutor because he no longer had the same year form group.

Did the teachers believe that the Circle times were successful?

The comments were very positive suggesting that the teacher perceived the CTs as being a useful and positive method within the form groups:

Teacher One/ CT1 "Yes they helped as they allowed the students to work through their relationship problems in a controlled environment. It allowed the students who are normally silent a chance to air their views."

Teacher Two/CT2 "Yes the circle time was good it really seemed to help in a positive way as they chatted openly generally together. Thank you for your time and help."

What else if anything, do you feel that the school could do to help your forms friendships/relationships?

The teachers believed that the girls needed to apply what they had learnt in regards to their form and use it positively. Factors such as the girls having the ability to listen to others needed to be enhanced. Additionally, the teacher interviews indicated an awareness that at times the pupils believed that the school was interfering in matters which were not of their concern. Comments from the teacher's questionnaire are shown below.

Teacher One/ CT1 "The pupils need to take what they have learnt and apply it themselves as at times they seem to feel we interfered."

Teacher Two/CT2 "The girls in my form could really benefit from learning to actually listen to each other as they have a tendency to talk over each other. They are great girls, who just need to learn to listen."

Discussion

The CTs were initially implemented after the SGM as the HOY and the majority of students perceived that there were fundamental relationship issues within the two form groups. In Study Four (the SGM) it was commented that many of the friendship groups were insular and as a result the forms were very fragmented. **The Pupil Circle time Questionnaires** indicated that there was a mixture of views as to the success of the Circle times. While the responses to the **Teacher Circle time Questionnaires** were positive, suggesting that the CTs provided a safe environment for the students to successfully discuss friendship and relationship issues, many of the students perceived it negatively as a method of school interference. This is surprising as I (Ms H) had never taught these students, and had stated at the beginning of the CTs that the students should not view me as a teacher so they could discuss their issues openly and freely. This demonstrated that several of the students had perceived me as an authority figure (i.e. a teacher) and not as a mere facilitator. An example of this confusion of my role was:

Girl 22 (CT2) "I really liked that Ms H who was supervising us as she was a **nice teacher**."

However, on a positive note some students stated that they wished to develop solutions which would help other friendship groups indicating that they were working cooperatively to create benefits not only of their group but for the wider community of their school.

Several of the students believed that the CTs was a waste of their time viewing it as being beneath their intellect and maturity. Other pupils either did not wish to admit that there were any issues within their form or indicated that they were oblivious to the negative experiences of others, which had resulted in the initiation of the SGM and the CTs. Therefore, many of the pupils seemed to be acting in a rather passive bystander manner (Latane & Darley, 1968). However, the majority of the pupils demonstrated a good understanding of the 'actual' rationale behind the CT, allowing group cohesion between their form in that the CTs was predominately ran by their form members for the form, creating a collective. This was especially successful with CT Group Two who asked for an additional CT, indicating support for the CT methodology.

Limitations of the Circle Time Method

A fundamental limitation of this study was that the students provided questionnaires rather than individual interviews. This was conducted because of the number of pupils and time constraints. This may have resulted in peer pressure from the more dominant students who seemed to be

against this method. Factors such as social derisible responses were indicated as pupils generally such as;

"We are ok there is nothing wrong with our form."

This was indicative of this adolescent sample displaying positive rather than negative emotionality towards their peer group. Therefore, as peer relationships were deemed more favourably the school was perceived as a 'common enemy". Another limitation could have been dependent upon form tutor's implementation of the **Circle time Pupil Questionnaire**. While I was not present as this time to counteract for perceived positive/bias response, this allowed greater pupils interaction than an independent interview. This may have enabled normative peer pressure from the more dominant and negative members of the form (Atlas & Pepler, 1998, Gini et al 2008).

Additionally, as only 23/48 of the girls participated in the Pupil Circle time Questionnaire may have resulted in greater participation from the more confident and dominant pupil, than the girls that the CTs were initially aimed to help. Therefore, the less dominant or passive pupils may have felt less able or willing to participate as they did not want to been seen as going against the dominant peer pressure.

Conclusion

The girls believed that the CTs would have greater success if they were solely organised by the form members, eliminating a fundamental and reoccurring criticism from the pupils, of school interference. The initial CTs provided a foundation for its appropriate implementation, which would enable the girls to discuss their problems in a controlled and structured manner together. However, to enhance its progression and in response to conflicting issues the form teacher should be present (e.g. in Personal Development PD lessons) to help facilitate the proceedings. As Teacher Two suggested, many of the pupils would benefit from listening skills, as they lacked the underlying ability to listen to others. Therefore, listening skills should be developed allowing greater understanding of others viewpoints, which will in turn enhance the form groups global empathy (cognitive and affective). Irrespective of the opinions many of the students did support that the CTs enabled the enhancement of social and communicative skills on an interpersonal level, which indicated an enhancement of positive relationships with peers. On a positive note many of the pupils stated that the CTs allowed them to understand the

feelings of others (cognitive empathy), and helped develop a greater ability to share these feelings (affective empathy). This demonstrated that the fragmented friendship groups were open to the emotions of other members of their form group, irrespectively or whether or not they were part of their friendship groups. Overall the girl's perceptions of school interference in their peer relationships impacted upon group solidarity; providing greater pro-social cohesion. Albeit that this unison was not solely induced from the CT methodology but from another perceived artefact/variable, the form group against a shared 'common adversary' (their school).

Implication for Current Knowledge

The CT case studies demonstrated that such a proactive anti-bullying intervention is as effective in secondary schools as it is in primary (Thompson & Smith, 2011). Within a whole form group context CT's was shown to provide a systematic approach that enabled the enhancement of social skills by enhancing form group's cohesion. At least at face value, overall the CTs were shown to enhance cognitive and aid the development of affective empathy. As Group Two's CT requested further CTs with myself, this suggested that this form believed it had been beneficial and had the positive effect of providing an open forum for form/ relationships problems, enabling conflict resolution; supporting its success as a proactive anti-bullying intervention.

Chapter Ten

*Overall Conclusion of the Validation of the CAES-C/CAES-C/A and
Success/Limitations of the SGM and Circle Times
The Validation of the CAES-C and CAES-C/A*

The overall aim of this thesis was to measure aspects of empathy, a complex concept of emotionality, which has at least two dimensions. The CAES-C aimed to investigate two of its components, namely cognitive and affective empathy, on a young age group (7-11 year olds), and after the CAES-C's validation, its adapted older age group version the CAES-C/A was aimed at 12-16 year olds. As younger children could have difficulties with reading comprehension, it was fundamentally important that the CAES-C questionnaire was age-specific. Therefore, visual imagery was a crucial aspect of the CAES-C because it helped to focus the children's attention. Another important feature of attention, colour, was used in the CAES-C because it offered an intrinsic visual aid. Colour smiley emotive faces provided a pictorial aid that assisted the children's responses to the CAES-C scenarios. The use of smiley faces in the adapted version of the CAES-C/A was rated by older pupils in Study Three very positively because it helped to break up the text of the questionnaire.

The CAES-C allowed empathy to be measured not only with respect to same age/gender peers but in other aspects of their peer relationships (i.e. younger or opposite gender peers). The CAES-C enabled an investigation into the children's various relationship dynamics and sociometric status. In contrast to Olweus' ERQ, the CAES-C allowed a response base, which was not unduly reliant upon bullying peer interactions but integrated children's everyday peer scenarios as well.

Additionally, the results from the CAES-C differed from older studies, because this thesis argues that a systematic and distinct definition of empathy is required within empathy research. I argue that several of questionnaires reviewed, the QMEE (Mehrabian & Epstein1972), and IRI (Davis, 1980) actually define the emotional response of sympathy, rather than empathy. Hogan's (1969) HES and perspective taking from Davis' (1980) IRI may be similar but not

identical to two-dimensional empathy as they define the ability of taking another person's perspective but do not account for the understanding of another's emotionality per se. Furthermore as many empathy scales used an older university age groups it made it difficult to relate findings to my younger age group pupils, effecting population validity.

It is argued that children have at least two dimensions/ levels of empathy, which are not only dispositional traits but also incorporate aspects of socialisation, dependent upon the nature and quality of the relationship with a specific child. This was supported by children's responses in Study One, which showed that the nature of their closeness to the peer in the scenarios had an influence upon the intensity of their emotionality and empathic response. This suggests that peer relationships have a rather complex association with empathy, especially in the children's affective empathy levels, indicating that friends invoked higher levels of shared experience and emotionality.

As cognitive empathy is a more fluid construct of empathy than affective empathy, it consequently has a greater chance of being heightened. Methodologically the argument is made that it is easier to help get a child to understand how another child feels than it is to get them to feel the intensity of another's emotionality. This is because affective empathy is a rather rigid and predominately a dispositional trait that is dependent upon the emotionality and temperament of the child. Hence as affective empathy is an intransitive mechanism, by working upon various peer relationships the CAES-C allowed a base line measure of affective empathy. It is argued that cognitive and affective empathy levels within close relationships could be used as a foundation to help promote prosocial active bystander and/or defending behaviour within anti-bullying interventions.

The PRS

PRS bullying categories (Salmivalli et al., 1996) can be inter-correlated, as is indicated by the findings from Study Two. While previous research suggests that bullies can be victims and vice versa, such research has not fully investigated bullies who act as a defender on behalf of close friends. It is argued that past empathy questionnaires have generally been reliant upon bullying behaviours and so have not investigated other aspects of empathy levels which are also prevalent within children's lives. While bullying is a very complex behaviour it seems to have a fundamental relationship with the bully's empathy levels. Levels of empathy, especially

affective empathy, may be determined by an inter-changeable impact of the intensity of the bully's relationship with a specific peer, changing bullying into defending behaviour.

Past methodologies used in many empathy questionnaires (e.g. Olweus' ERQ) have been rather biased because they are not fully transferable to all of the bullies' peer relationships. Study Two indicated that teacher nominations of pupil's bullying roles were multi-dimensional. Teacher nominations demonstrated that many children were rated in a bullying category as well as a defender one. Teachers stated that these children would bully certain children but defend others. This suggests that bullying, bystanders and defender behaviours are specific to the nature of the child's relationship with a specific peer.

The affective empathy results in test one (T1) and two (retest, T2) of Study One demonstrated that girls displayed higher empathy not only to same gender peers but towards general children, friend and younger children but showed no significant enhanced differences towards boys. This suggests that because there is a lack of similarity, the girls felt less empathic towards boys. Therefore, Girls being more empathetic towards younger children was not surprising because females are encouraged to show more maternal instincts/behaviours than boys (Hoffman & Levine, 1976).

In Study Four the girls in the case studies within their pre CAES-C/A had higher cognitive empathy with same gender peers than affective empathy levels. However, a converse pattern was found with the boy stimulus. These findings suggest that rather than having a purely predisposition trait for affective empathy these girls had higher cognitive empathy towards same gender peers because they were more likely to have a greater understanding of their social, situational perceptions and experiences. Additionally, in Study Four the girls displayed less empathy towards younger children indicating age differences in empathy levels between primary school and secondary school-aged girls. This was contrary to Hoffman and Levine (1976) who proposed that females are encouraged to show more maternal instincts/behaviours than boys which are indicative within their empathy levels. However, Rigby and Johnson (2006) showed that children who had the intention to intervene and defend victims were more often primary school girls who had rarely (if ever) been bullied themselves; this was supported by Study One as the majority of girls had higher empathy for all peer groups than males did. This suggests that younger children have a greater understanding of what it is like to be younger so are better able to share primary school age children's perspectives and feelings than older

secondary aged peers.

Limitations of the PRS

In Study Two some of the teachers felt unable to nominate the children into the various bullying categories because of ethical or moral considerations. These nominations were deemed as difficult even when teachers were told that the children would not be made aware of their categorisation, and I as the researcher would be single blind to control for experimenter bias. Wolke et al. (2009) suggested that especially within victimisation labelling is very difficult to lose, which may have affected the teacher's nominations. This was especially evident within one school which felt unable to provide a categorisation for their pupils; this resulted in 155 (1/3 of the sample) of the children's PRS being unable to be determined. However, on face value this meant that these teachers had not made judgements towards children who bully; consequently, it could be argued to support the use of the SGM as an appropriate anti-bullying intervention, since it does not attribute blame towards individuals who bully.

The Success of an Adapted Version of the SGM

An adaptation of the SGM indicated that it was effective to include victims in the groups, even though this was not advocated by Robinson and Maines (2007), who proposed that victims should be interviewed independently from other peers. The success of this adaptation was demonstrated by the improved self-esteem of the Group Two/Three girls in Study Four, indicated by post interviews. The majority of the girls in these groups had in the past been victimised, but stated that they felt that this adaptation had, through active participation, helped them to be heard by their peers and school.

However, it should be noted that the inclusion of victims should only be implemented if the pupils are not actively still being bullied; and should never be conducted in the presence of pupils who bully. Consequently, while Groups Two/Three may be criticised because they did not include pupils who were perceived as solely bullies (and their involvement would have been preferable) major complexities made this impossible. Nevertheless, the adapted version did mean that victims felt more comfortable participating alongside defenders, as within Group One the perceived victim did not wish to participate because she was frightened of being identified

and of the possible repercussions.

Nonetheless this study did include specifically within Group Two a defender-bully (Girl L) who while engaging in defending behaviour towards some pupils, also bulled others, a role that was not perceived by the HOY. This suggests that the PRS needs a further bullying role as peer relationships are fundamentally complex and dependent upon the quality/closeness of the relationship towards a specific peer whether certain pupils defend or bully another child.

Additionally, Girls G and I were shown not to be pure victims as specified by the PRS but also to engage in defender behaviours towards others. These case studies demonstrated that the roles from the PRS are not concrete but fluid constructs, dependent upon the quality of a relationship, and how closely the pupil relates towards another peer (Espelage et al., 2012). It clearly indicates that these girls had the ability to not only be able to focus upon their own personal distress (cognitive empathy) but to also share the feelings of another (affective empathy).

Nevertheless, this adaptation of the SGM was shown to be effective when the victims were accompanied by predominately defenders and fellow past victims. It would seem that a shared knowledge of victimisation helped these girls to have a greater understanding of what explicitly would be beneficial and helpful to themselves and other victims. Moreover, these meetings helped the girls to develop trust in others by providing a non-judgmental and safe environment for them to express their feelings. The Group Two/ Three girls progressed from initially being focused upon their own personal distress to gradually gaining the confidence to actively defend themselves and others. Therefore, this victim's development of active defending behaviours would in turn help address other pupil's bullying behaviours. Their participation helped to initiate successful conflict resolution for the issues which were occurring within their form. These girls enhanced empathy levels in the post interviews and CAES-C/A verified that they were able to understand the feelings of others as well as being able to share their emotionality. Hence the girls in Group Two/Three no longer seemed to blame themselves or others, but used the group as a forum, which actively helped others. Overall, the findings from Group Two/ Three suggested that high levels of empathy alone were not sufficient for peers to engage in defending behaviour. Additional factors such as self-efficacy achieved through enhanced self-esteem meant that the girls were able to feel another's pain but also indicated that they had developed the empowerment to help others successfully and effectively (cf. Gini et al., 2008).

Limitations of the SGM

Within Study Four it was very difficult interviewing the victims alone because they felt uncomfortable or had fears of retribution from their bullies. This was the rationale for an adaptation of the SGM, as created for Group Two/Three of Study Four, because it provided a safe and controlled environment for the victims. Moreover, the work with Group Two/ Three demonstrated that rather than making victimisation worse, group meetings provided a method of establishing power and control over their situation.

On the other hand, the majority of the girls in Study Four Group One felt that Girl S was instrumental in her victimisation, a label which hindered the development of their prosocial feelings towards her. Girl E, who had high dominance, provided a negative role model for the others girls to follow. The girls in Group One perceived Girl E as their leader to whom they looked to influence how to act and behave towards Girl S. Therefore, Group One demonstrated the importance that dominance and high sociometric status have upon friendship groups, especially in a class which has a very clear hierarchical structure as here, where it was led by Girl E. Girl E's popularity was higher than that of the victim, Girl S, a factor which greatly hindered the success of the SGM. In hindsight, further examination should have been conducted by the school, which would have helped to determine that Girl E was not a suitable participant of Group One because of her negative influence and power over them. Hence before the implementation of the SGM, hierarchical structures and the dynamics of the group should be determined carefully.

The Success of the Circle Times

Fundamental differences were found between the perceptions of success for the Circle times. Teachers/ HOY demonstrated that they enhanced the girl's feelings of a safe environment. In contrast many of the girls believed that its methodology was not specific or applicable for their age group. Others believed that the CTs were an unjustified method for the school to interfere in matters which were not of their concern, stating that "the school should not stick their noses in our business". Additionally, confusion about my role as facilitator seemed to strengthen this idea about the school's interference, rather than the aim that CTs were being implemented by their form group for their form group.

However, at least at face value, overall the CTs were shown to enhance cognitive and aid the

development of affective empathy. Moreover, the CTs provided an excellent method for group cohesion and cooperation. Finally, it should be noted that Group Two CT requested further CTs with myself, suggesting that generally this form believed they actually had a beneficial and positive effect of providing an open forum for form/ relationships problems, enabling conflict resolution; this would support its success as an anti-bullying intervention.

Limitations of Circle Times

A fundamental limitation with the methodology of questionnaires is social desirability which may have created positive response bias. This is because the questionnaires were completed individually but in form time with the form group, allowing for normative peer pressure effects. Therefore, the girls who were perceived as having higher socio-economic status and dominance may have negatively influenced their peers. Consequently, this method may have resulted in a rather skewed negative viewpoint being portrayed, as the less dominant and passive girls may have felt unable to go against this powerful minority.

Limitations of Gender Investigations

As the case school in Study Four was a single gender school the effectiveness of the SGM could not be generalised; as a predominately single gender school it only had a very small number of boys in its sixth form. The SGM adaptation should also be used with males in order to help to determine whether or not it is as successful as it was shown to be with adolescent girls.

Further Implications of the CAES-C and the CAES-C/A

Personality and temperament were found to be very influential, especially in Study Four. Girl L in Group Two had a strong personality which acted as a positive role model to influence defending behaviour in the SGM meetings and helped to enhance the victim's abilities to effectively defend themselves and others (cf. Crick & Ku, 1999). However, her PRS role was very complex as she was also shown within the pre-pupil interview to be a ring leader bullying too, but was perceived not only by her peers but by her HOY as a positive role model. Further research should examine how such negative and positive prosocial normative and inferential

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frameworks are so predominately influential and entwined.

Also, further research should examine the importance of peer pressure as a contributing factor towards passive and active bystander/defender behaviours. It should investigate how passivity can be changed to more prosocial active bystander/defender behaviour. Espelage, Green and Plain (2012) investigated a younger age group (grades six and seven, 11-12 years of age), but such research should be conducted in secondary schools because it will help to strengthen the premise of the influence of positive and proactive bystander behaviours can have in helping combat bullying.

As boy's perspective taking abilities have been correlated with their willingness to intervene (Pozzoli & Gini, 2010; Pozzoli et al., 2012; Espelage et al., 2012), research is needed to investigate differences between males and female willingness to intervene (i.e. defending behaviours). Moreover, such research will to help to determine whether boy's cognitive, and girl's affective levels of empathy levels are influential upon their willingness to either bully, defend or act as either passive or active bystanders.

The CAES-C and the CAES-C/A could be used to help determine the nature that specific peer relationships have upon defender and active bystander behaviours (Pozzoli & Gini, 2010, Pozzoli et al., 2012, Espelage et al., 2012). Improved empathy levels should be examined using the CAES-C/A to help determine whether adolescent males have greater levels of empathy toward females than they do towards the males within its scenarios. As Ang and Goh (2010) argued, these interventions could be focused upon cognitive empathy for boys and affective empathy for girls. The SGM works upon affective responsiveness and perspective taking of a victim. As the SGM has been shown to be an anti-bullying intervention to help enhance both levels of empathy, it should be shown to have a positive effect on males. Moreover, the adaptation used in Group Two of Study Four should be used to see if defenders can help improve the male victim's self-esteem. Female defenders should be used because they may have a greater impact upon adolescent males as they pose less threat or competition than male same-aged peers would. Additionally, the male's attractiveness (which is of course dependent upon the male's sexuality) towards the females may have a positive impact which could help to increase these boy's self-efficacy.

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Overall Conclusion of this Thesis

In conclusion, the results of this thesis indicated that the CAES-C was a valid and consistent two-dimensional empathy scale which was a psychometrically sound measure of children's empathic attitudes towards peers. Moreover, the CAES-C was demonstrated to provide a simple tool to administer which investigated children's empathy under various everyday situations. It was shown to be both effective in the determination of children's empathy levels in regards to their bullying roles and for investigating the effectiveness of the SGM. Overall a child friendly medium was used in the CAES-C, which was not solely dependent upon words but incorporated pictorial imagery. The use of the CAES-C demonstrated that younger children (seven year olds) had no difficulties comprehending and answering its questions; its five-point smiley face scale provided a clear visual and simplistic aid which assisted them.

The studies in this thesis found that the CAES-C, and its adapted version the CAES-C/A, provided an appropriate scale which helped determine children's/adolescents specific responses by incorporating a 'do not know' scale which did not force them into an answer if they felt unsure of their response. Hence the CAES-C scale was suitable, as it provided a broad Likert scale which did not hinder the children's comprehension or understanding. The CAES-C and its older age group counterpart the CAES-C/A had a generally good sensitivity which helped to determine levels of empathy with some reliability. Overall the internal reliability of the CAES-C was found to be high for the affective questions and to have an acceptable one for the cognitive questions (George & Mallery, 2003); this provides support that the CAES-C has a good consistency and conceptual framework.

Moreover, this research provided support for a new PRS role, namely bully-defender, which is indicative of the closeness of the relationship that the bully has with a specific peer. Bullies are very likely to defend friends because of the closeness of their relationship (as also indicated by Espelage et al., 2012). Further research is needed to examine other specific factors that help to contribute to prosocial defending or anti-social bullying behaviours in bullies. The case studies demonstrated that the PRS roles are not concrete, but fluid construct as victims can also be defenders when self-efficacy is enhanced through heightened self-esteem, which was shown to develop feelings of empowerment to help others (cf. Gini et al., 2008). Therefore, PRS are fundamentally dependent upon the quality, and how closely the pupil related towards another

peer (Espelage et al., 2012).

The CAES-C and CAES-C/A allows a determination of the child's social relationships within many of their social exchanges which are not only reliant upon bullying but upon their social interactions more generally. The CAES-C and the CAES-C/A can be used to help establish empathy levels not only in bullying behaviours but in prosocial ones too. Moreover, friendships bonds and higher empathy levels could be used positively as a foundation that can in turn be used to enhance other peer relationships with anti-bullying interventions such as the SGM/CTs. The CAES-C and CAES-C/A allowed an investigation of empathy levels in different PRS roles, as the results of this thesis demonstrated that such bullying roles are complex, and have an element of fluidity when investigated within peer relationships. In conclusion the CAES-C/A enabled bullying roles to be examined in regards to a child/adolescents global empathy levels under not only anti-social but pro-social conditions. This allowed pro-social empathetic responses towards a close peer relationship to be examined and developed upon by anti-bullying interventions such as the SGM and CT.

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The Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for younger Children (CAES-C)

Child No: **Boy/Girl (please circle one)**   **Age/Year Group**

I am going to read out to the class several statements and I would like you to decide whether the statement describes you very well, sometimes describes you, sometimes does not describe you, or that it does not describe you. Please write a tick in the square by your chosen face and please try to answer all the questions. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Finally you can leave any questions blank which you feel that you are unable to answer and please remember that you can stop answering the questions at any time.

1. If a child is hurt falling from a tree I would feel sad? (A) (GC)

☐ ☺ Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

2. **If another child punched my best friend I would be upset? (A) (F)**

☐ ☺ Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

3. **If a child is being hit by another child I think they would feel sad? (C) (GC)**

☐ ☺ Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

4. When another child is crying I would feel upset too? (A) (GC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

5. If my friend was called a bad name I know that they would feel hurt? (C) (F)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

6. When my friend is ill I feel worried for them? (A) (F)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

7. When a child in my class is in trouble with our teacher I know that they would feel worried? (C) (GC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

8. If a child in front of me on the stairs falls over I would feel concerned? (A) (GC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

9. If a younger child is hurt by another child I would feel distressed? (A) (YC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

10. If my friend had just moved away I would feel sad? (A) (F)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

11. A child has just lost their favourite toy I think they would be upset? (C) (GC)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

12. Your friend is late again after their teacher has warned them not to be, I think that they would feel nervous when they walk into the classroom? (C) (F)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

13. A girl in your class carrying a heavy school bag runs for the bus and they miss it, I think they would feel frustrated? (C) (G)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

14. Your school team scores and wins the match I would feel happy for them? (A) (I)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

15. If a younger child is crying I would feel sad? (A) (YC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😔 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

16. If a girl in your class had lost her favourite pen she would feel upset? (C) (G)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😔 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

17. If a boy had his ball taken he would feel sad? (C) (B)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😔 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

18. Bad things on the news make me feel sad? (A) (I)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😔 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

19. I think my friend would feel when they win a race? (C) (F)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😔 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

20. Younger children who start school for the first time would be scared? (C) (YC)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

21. A boy in your class carrying a heavy school bag runs for the bus and they miss it, I think they would feel frustrated? (C) (B)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

22. I get frightened when scary things happen to a character in a good book? (I) (A)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

23. When bad things happen to another person I know they would feel upset? (C) (I)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

24. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee I would feel sad? (A) (G)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ ☹ Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

25. If a boy gets hurt when playing football, I would feel sad? (A) (B)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

26. If a girl is being teased I think they would be sad (C) (G)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

27. If a boy is being hit by another child, I would feel upset? (B) (A)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

28. I would feel sad if the other children would not let a boy join in their games? (A) (B)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

29. If a boy in your class has lost his favourite badge, he would feel upset? (C) (B)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹ Does not describe me well

30. I would feel sad if the other children would not let a girl play in their games? (A) (G)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😞 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

31. I would feel happy if a girl in my class won a prize? (A) (G)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😞 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

32. I find it easy to know when other people are sad (C) (I)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😞 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

33. I can often understand how people feel by looking at their faces (C) (I)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😞 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

34. If a younger child was lost in a park I think he would feel afraid? (C) (YC)

☐ 😊 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 😞 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

35. If a young child got a toy he had always wanted I think he would be happy? (C) (YC)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

36. When I see a group of younger children have fun, I feel happy? (A) (YC)

☐ 🙂 Describes me very well   ☐ 😐 Sometimes describes me

☐ 🙁 Sometimes does not describe me   ☐ ☹️ Does not describe me well

Appendix 2

The CAES-C Cognitive & Affective Questions Breakdown of Questions

Cognitive Empathy Questions

Child

1. If a child is hurt falling from a tree they would feel sad (C) (GC)

2. When another child is crying I think he would feel unhappy (C) (GC)

3. If a child in front of me on the stairs falls over I think they would be upset (C) (GC)

Friend

1. If another child punched my best friend, my friend would be upset (A) (F)

2. When my friend is ill, I think my friend would unhappy (C) (F)

3. If my friend had just moved away they would feel sad (C) (F)

Younger Child

1. If a younger child is hurt by another child they would feel distressed (C) (YC)

2. If a younger child is crying I think they would feel sad (C) (YC)

3. When I see a group of younger children have fun, I think they feel happy (C) (YC)

Question involving general others

1. Your school team scores and wins the match I think they would feel happy (C) (GO)

2. Bad things on the news make people feel sad (C) (GO)

3. Children get frightened when scary things happen to a character in a good book (C) (GO)

Girl

1. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee she would feel sad (C) (G)

2. If the other children would not let a girl play in their game, she would feel sad (C) (G)

3. If a girl in my class won a prize, she would feel happy (C) (G)

Boy

1. If a boy gets hurt when playing football, he would feel upset (C) (B)

2. If a boy is being hit by another child, he would feel hurt (C) (B)

3 If the other children would not let a boy join in their games he would feel sad (C) (B)

Affective Empathy Questions

General Child

1. If a child is hurt falling from a tree I would feel sad (A) (GC)

2. When another child is crying I would feel upset too (A) (GC)

3. If a child in front of me on the stairs falls over I would feel concerned (A) (GC)

Friend

1. If another child punched my best friend I would be upset (A) (F)

2. When my friend is ill I feel worried for them (A) (F)

3. If my friend had just moved away I would feel sad (A) (F)

Younger Child

1. If a younger child is hurt by another child I would feel distressed (A) (YC)

2. If a younger child is crying I would feel sad (A) (YC)

3. When I see a group of younger children have fun, I feel happy (A) (YC)

Question involving I

1. Your school team scores and wins the match I would feel happy for them (A) (I)

2. Bad things on the news make me feel sad (A) (I)

3. I get frightened when scary things happen to a character in a good book (I) (A)

Girl

1. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee I would feel sad (A) (G)

2. I would feel sad if the other children would not let a girl play in their game (A) (G)

3. I would feel happy if a girl in my class won a prize (A) (G)

Boy

1. If a boy gets hurt when playing football, I would feel upset (A) (B)

2. If a boy is being hit by another child, I would feel upset (B) (A)

3 I would feel sad if the other children would not let a boy join in their games (A) (B)

<u>Scoring for the CAES for younger children</u>

36 questions measure either cognitive (18) or affective empathy (18)

(C) Indicates that the question regards cognitive empathy

(A) Indicates that the question regards affective empathy

Within the cognitive and affective empathy questions there are several sub-questions (6 questions on each of the 6 subjects below)

(YC) Indicates that the question regards a younger child

(G) Indicates that the question regards a girl

(B) Indicates that the question regards a boy

(GC) Indicates that the question regards a child where the relationship has not been specified

(F) Indicates that the question regards a friend

(I) Indicates that the questions regards themselves

High scores indicate higher levels of empathy.

Appendix 3

The CAES-C Cognitive & Affective Questions Version 2 (Jan)

Cognitive Empathy Questions (C)

General Child (GC)

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel? (C) (GC)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

2. When another child is crying, I think they would feel? (C) (GC)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

3. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel? (C) (GC)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

4. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel? (C) (GC)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

Friend (F)

1. If another child punched my friend, I think my friend would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

2. If my friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Frightened ☐

3. If my friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

4. If my friend won a race. I think my friend would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

Younger Child (YC)

1. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel? (C) (YC)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

2. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel? (C) (YC)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

3. When I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel? (C) (YC)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

4. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel? (C) (YC)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

Girl

1. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel? (C) (G)

Angry ☐ 🙁 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

2. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel? (C) (G)

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

3. If a girl in my class won a prize, I think she would feel? *(C) (G)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

4. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would feel? *(C) (G)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

Boy

1. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel? *(C) (B)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

2. If a boy is being hit by another child, I think he would feel? *(C) (B)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

3 If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel? *(C) (B)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

4. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel? *(C) (B)*

😠 **Angry** ☐   😦 **Sad** ☐   😐 **Do not know** ☐   😊 **Happy** ☐   😨 **Frightened** ☐

Affective Empathy Questions (A)

General Child (GC)

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, you would feel? (A) (GC)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

2. When another child is crying, you would feel? (A) (GC)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

3. If a child is on the edge of a cliff you would feel? (A) (GC)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

4. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, you would feel? (A) (GC)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

Friend (F)

1. If another child punched my friend, you would feel? (A) (F)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

2. If my friend was seriously ill, you would feel? (A) (F)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

3. If my friend had just moved away, you would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

4. If my friend won a race you would feel? (C) (F)

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Frightened ☐

Younger Child (YC)

1. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, you would feel? (A) (YC)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

2. If a younger child is crying, you would feel? (A) (YC)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

3. When I see a group of younger children having fun, you would feel? (A) (YC)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

4. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, you would feel? (A) (YC)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

Girl

1. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, you would feel? (A) (G)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

2. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, you would feel? (A) (G)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

3. If a girl in my class won a prize, you would feel? (A) (G)

😡 Angry ☐ 😞 Sad ☐ 😐 Do not know ☐ 😊 Happy ☐ 😨 Frightened ☐

4. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel?

(A) (G)

😠 **Angry** ☐ 😢 **Sad** ☐ 😐 **Do not know** ☐ 😊 **Happy** ☐ 😨 **Frightened** ☐

Boy

1. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, you would feel? (A) (B)

😠 **Angry** ☐ 😢 **Sad** ☐ 😐 **Do not know** ☐ 😊 **Happy** ☐ 😨 **Frightened** ☐

2. If a boy is being hit by another child, you would feel? (A) (B)

😠 **Angry** ☐ 😢 **Sad** ☐ 😐 **Do not know** ☐ 😊 **Happy** ☐ 😨 **Frightened** ☐

3 If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, you would feel? (A) (B)

😠 **Angry** ☐ 😢 **Sad** ☐ 😐 **Do not know** ☐ 😊 **Happy** ☐ 😨 **Frightened** ☐

4. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, you would feel? (A) (B)

😠 **Angry** ☐ 😢 **Sad** ☐ 😐 **Do not know** ☐ 😊 **Happy** ☐ 😨 **Frightened** ☐

CAES-C Version 3 (Final Version)

School Name :

Child Name: **Boy/Girl: (Please circle one)**

Age/Year Group:

I am going to read out to the class, several statements and I would like you to decide whether you or the child involved would feel; Angry, Sad, Happy or Scared. If you are unsure of the answer, please tick the box by the face that says that you "do not know". Please write a tick in the square by the face, that you have chosen, and try to answer all of the questions. It is important that you remember that there are no right or wrong answers, only how you think that either you or the other child would feel towards that statement. Finally you can leave any questions blank if you feel uncomfortable and please remember that you can stop answering at any time if you wish to do so.

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

2. If another child punched your friend, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

3. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

4. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

5. If another child is crying, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

6. If another child punched your friend, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

7. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

8. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

9. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

10. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

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11. If another child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

12. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

14. If I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

15. If your friend had just moved away, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

16. If I see a group of younger children having fun, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

17. If your friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

18. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

19. If a child was told off for something they did not do, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

20. If your friend won a race, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

21. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

22. If your friend was seriously ill, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

23. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

24. If a younger child is crying, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

25. If a girl in your class won a prize, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

26. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

27. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

28. If your friend won a race, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

29. If a girl in your class won a prize, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

30. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

31. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, you would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

32. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

33. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

34. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, you would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

35. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

36. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, you would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

37. If your friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

38. If a boy is being hit by another child, you would feel?

Angry ☐　Sad ☐　Do not know ☐　Happy ☐　Scared ☐

39. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

40. If a boy is hit by another child, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

Draft 4-CAES-C Mark Scale

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel?

Angry 3   **Sad** 2   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 1

2. If another child punched your friend, you would feel?

Angry 3   **Sad** 2   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 1

3. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, you would feel?

Angry 1   **Sad** 3   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 2

4. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel?

Angry 1   **Sad** 2   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 3

5. When another child is crying, you would feel?

Angry 1   **Sad** 3   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 2

6. If another child punched your friend, I think my friend would feel?

Angry 3   **Sad** 1   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 2

7. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, you would feel?

Angry 2   **Sad** 1   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 3

8. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel?

Angry 3   **Sad** 2   **Do not know** 0   **Happy** 0   **Scared** 1

9. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, you would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 2 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 3

10. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 3 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 2

11. When another child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 3 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 2

12. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, you would feel?

Angry 2 **Sad** 3 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 1

13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?

Angry 3 **Sad** 1 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 2

14. When I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

15. If your friend had just moved away, you would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 3 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 2

16. When you see a group of younger children having fun, you would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

17. If your friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 2 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 3

18. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

19. If a child was told off for something they did not do, you would feel?

Angry 3 **Sad** 2 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 1

20. If your friend won a race. I think my friend would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

21. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, you would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 2 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 3

22. If your friend was seriously ill, you would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 2 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 3

23. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

24. If a younger child is crying, you would feel?

Angry 1 **Sad** 3 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 0 **Scared** 2

25. If a girl in your class won a prize, I think she would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

26. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, you would feel?

Angry 0 **Sad** 0 **Do not know** 0 **Happy** 3 **Scared** 0

27. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 1   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

28. If your friend won a race, you would feel?

Angry 0   Sad 0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

29. If a girl in your class won a prize, you would feel?

Angry 0   Sad 0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

30. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

31. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, you would feel?

Angry 0   Sad 0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

32. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 3   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

33. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, you would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

34. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, you would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 1   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

35. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

36. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, you would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

37. If your friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel?

Angry 2   Sad 3   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

38. If a boy is being hit by another child, you would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

39. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

40. If a boy is being hit by another child, he would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

Appendix 5 - Continued

CAES-C/A Mark Scale

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel?

😫 **Angry** 3 😟 **Sad 2** 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 1

2. If another child punched your friend, I would feel?

😫 **Angry** 3 😟 **Sad** 2 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 1

3. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I would feel?

😫 **Angry** 1 😟 **Sad** 3 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 2

4. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel?

😫 **Angry** 1 😟 **Sad** 2 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 3

5. When another child is crying, I would feel?

😫 **Angry** 1 😟 **Sad** 3 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 2

6. If another child punched your friend, I think my friend would feel?

😫 **Angry** 3 😟 **Sad** 1 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 2

7. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I would feel?

😫 **Angry** 2 😟 **Sad** 1 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 3

8. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel?

😫 **Angry** 3 😟 **Sad** 2 😐 **Do not know** 0 😊 **Happy** 0 😨 **Scared** 1

9. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 2 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 3

10. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 3 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 2

11. When another child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 3 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 2

12. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I would feel?

Angry 2 Sad 3 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 1

13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?

Angry 3 Sad 1 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 2

14. When I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

15. If your friend had just moved away, I would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 3 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 2

16. When you see a group of younger children having fun, I would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

17. If your friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 2 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 3

18. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

19. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I would feel?

Angry 3 Sad 2 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 1

20. If your friend won a race. I think my friend would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

21. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 2 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 3

22. If your friend was seriously ill, I would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 2 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 3

23. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

24. If a younger child is crying, I would feel?

Angry 1 Sad 3 Do not know 0 Happy 0 Scared 2

25. If a girl in your class won a prize, I think she would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

26. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I would feel?

Angry 0 Sad 0 Do not know 0 Happy 3 Scared 0

27. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

Angry 3   Sad   1   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

28. If your friend won a race, I would feel?

Angry 0   Sad   0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

29. If a girl in your class won a prize, I would feel?

Angry 0   Sad   0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

30. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel?

Angry 1   Sad   2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

31. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I would feel?

Angry 0   Sad   0   Do not know 0   Happy 3   Scared 0

32. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry 1   Sad   3   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

33. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I would feel?

Angry 1   Sad   2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

34. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 1   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 2

35. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

36. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

37. If your friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel?

Angry 2   Sad 3   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

38. If a boy is being hit by another child, I would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

39. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would feel?

Angry 1   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 3

40. If a boy is being hit by another child, he would feel?

Angry 3   Sad 2   Do not know 0   Happy 0   Scared 1

Appendix 6- CAES-C Scoring Sheets (Blank and Breakdown of Peer Stimuli

Peer Group	Question Number				Total
Child Affective	Q5	Q19	Q21	Q26	
Cognitive	Q1	Q11	Q18	Q35	
Friend Affective	Q2	Q15	Q22	Q28	
Cognitive	Q6	Q17	Q20	Q37	
Younger Child Affective	Q7	Q16	Q24	Q34	
Cognitive	Q4	Q14	Q27	Q32	
Girl Affective	Q3	Q29	Q33	Q36	
Cognitive	Q10	Q13	Q25	Q39	
Boy Affective	Q9	Q12	Q31	Q38	

	Q8	Q23	Q30	Q40	
Cognitive					

Appendix 6: CAES-C Empathy Scoring via Peer and Empathy level

Peer Group	Question Number			
Child Affective	Q5	Q19	Q21	Q26
	S	A	Sc	H
Cognitive	Q1	Q11	Q18	Q35
	A	S	H	Sc
Friend Affective	Q2	Q15	Q22	Q28
	A	S	Sc	H
Cognitive	Q6	Q17	Q20	Q37
	A	Sc	H	S
Younger Child Affective	Q7	Q16	Q24	Q34
	Sc	H	S	A
Cognitive	Q4	Q14	Q27	Q32
	Sc	H	A	S
Girl Affective	Q3	Q29	Q33	Q36
	S	H	SC	A
Cognitive	Q10	Q13	Q25	Q39
	S	A	H	Sc
Boy Affective	Q9	Q12	Q31	Q38
	Sc	S	H	A

Cognitive	Q8	Q23	Q30	Q40
	A	H	Sc	A

Emotions

Angry = A **Sad = S** **Happy = H** **Scared = Sc**

Appendix 7- Passive Parental Consent Form

Goldsmiths
UNIVERSITY
OF LONDON

The Unit for School and Family Studies,
The Psychology Department,
Goldsmiths University of London,
New Cross,
London,
SE14 6NW.
Date

Dear Parent/s/Guardian/s,

I am a PhD student from Goldsmiths, University of London, who has contacted your child's school in regards to my study into peer relationships and behaviour within schools, who has received formal permission from the head teacher to interview pupils.

The aim of my study is to investigate the differing attitudes and approaches of children's perception of bullying behaviour and its consequences. I will be particularly focusing on empathy, the understanding of another's feelings

The methods that I will be using are based on one carefully constructed age-specific questionnaire. Additionally your child's teacher's views of their peer relationships and behaviours will be sought. The sessions will be friendly and informal and will take place within your child's normal school setting. All the information that is obtained will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. I would be grateful for your child's participation, however if for any reason you do not wish your child to participate in this study, please contact your child's teacher.
Yours Sincerely,

Sharon Howard

Appendix 8 – Pupil Debriefing Sheet

Goldsmiths
UNIVERSITY
OF LONDON

<u>**DEBRIEFING**</u>

Thank you for helping with my study by taking part in this session.

I will not share what you have said to me with anyone else. The aim of my study is to look at the ways that you and other children use to help them within their relationships at school. If you wish to contact me in regards to this study do not hesitate to use my e-mail address pa201sjh@gold.ac.uk.

PLEASE KEEP THIS SHEET

If you or someone you know has a problem with any of the issues relating to the statements mentioned in this questionnaire, please talk to someone (such as a teacher, Head teacher, learning mentor) who will be able to help. If you do not feel comfortable talking to someone in your school, you can talk to a parent or guardian, and they can come with you to talk to a teacher.

You can also call Childline FREE on   as someone is there all the time and the number will not show up on the telephone bill. If you cannot get through the first time please try again. There is also a Childline e-mail address which is www.childline.org.uk

Appendix 10: Teacher Bullying Roles Nomination Sheet

Who do you view within your class as behaving in these ways (if anyone?) Children can be nominated for none, one or more of these behaviours. Please add more sheets if necessary.

Hit/kick/push other children:

Spread nasty rumours about other children:

Call others nasty names/shout at them/or verbally abuse them:

Exclude others from their games/or group:

Are hit/kicked/pushed by other children:

Have nasty rumours spread about them by other children:

Are called nasty names/shouted at /or verbally abused by other children:

Are excluded from games/or a social group:

Stick up for the individual being victimised either by telling an adult/comforting the

victim/actively to get the behaviour stopped:

Doesn't do anything/pretends not to notice/stays away/doesn't even know about the bullying

----

School Name: **Teacher:**   **Class:**

Appendix 11

Cognitive and Affective Empathy Scale for Children and Adolescents

CAES-C/A

Pupils Questionnaire

School Name:

Child Name: **Boy/Girl: (Please circle one)**

Age/Year Group:

You are going to read several statements and I would like you to decide whether you or the child involved would feel; Angry, Sad, Happy or Scared. If you are unsure of the answer, please tick the box by the face that says that you "do not know". Please write a tick in the square by the face, that you have chosen, and try to answer all of the questions. It is important that you remember that there are no right or wrong answers, only how you think that either you or the other child would feel towards that statement. Finally you can leave any questions blank if you feel uncomfortable and please remember that you can stop answering at any time if you wish to do so.

1. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I think they would feel?

 Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

2. If another child punched your friend, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

3. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

4. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

5. If another child is crying, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

6. If another child punched my friend, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

7. If a younger child is shouted at by an older child, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

8. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

9. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

10. If a girl falls over and hurts her knee, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

11. If another child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

12. If a boy gets fouled when playing football, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

13. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

14. If I see a group of younger children having fun, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

15. If my friend had just moved away, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

16. If I see a group of younger children having fun, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

17. If my friend was seriously ill, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

18. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

19. If a child was told off for something they did not do, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

20. If my friend won a race, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

21. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

22. If my friend was seriously ill, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

23. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

24. If a younger child is crying, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

25. If a girl in your class won a prize, I think she would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

26. If a child gets a present that they have always wanted, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

27. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

28. If my friend won a race, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

29. If a girl in your class won a prize, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

30. If a boy kicked a ball into a wasps nest, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

31. If the other children asked a boy to join in their games, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

32. If a younger child is crying, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

33. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

34. If a younger child has their last sweet snatched by another child, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

35. If a child is on the edge of a cliff, I think they would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

36. If the other children start pushing a girl in their game, I would feel?

Angry ☐   Sad ☐   Do not know ☐   Happy ☐   Scared ☐

37. If your friend had just moved away, I think my friend would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

38. If a boy is being hit by another child, I would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

39. If a girl was in a field and she saw a bull coming towards her, I think she would

feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

40. If a boy is hit by another child, I think he would feel?

Angry ☐ Sad ☐ Do not know ☐ Happy ☐ Scared ☐

Appendix 12 - CAES-C/A

CAES-C/A Case Study/Pupil Interview: 1 (Pre- intervention)

Child (Name/No):

School:

Date:

Hello, I am Sharon and I am here to ask you about an incident/s that happened between you and another child/or children in your school on (ADD DATE/S).

Whatever you say will be confidential and I will not tell anyone else about what you have told me. However the only time that I would need to talk to your school is if you tell me of an incident that they are not aware of which has affected your or someone else's safety.

Firstly, I will ask you to tell me about what has happened and who was involved, and then what you feel your school could do to help improve this situation. Please remember that you can refuse to answer any of the questions if you feel uncomfortable and that you can stop the interview at any time. At the end of the interview I will give you a 'Help Sheet' which tells you who you can talk to if you need any further help in addition to the help that you are already receiving from (ADD NAME).

Q1: What happened? (Please give me details of the events. You do not need to give any me any names, you can use either made up names or letters).

Q2: When did this incident/s happen? Please give details of the dates (month/year).

Q3: Who was involved? (Please give me the age/s and gender/s of those involved)

Q4: How serious did you think this incident/s was?

☐ Not serious   ☐ averagely serious   ☐ quite serious   ☐ Very serious

Q5: How do you feel your victim felt?

Q6: Why do you think this incident happened?

Please give me the details

Q7: What do you think your school could do to help you and improve this situation?

Q8: Do you any other comments that you wish to add?

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PLEASE KEEP THIS SHEET

I know that you already receiving help from your school already but if you do not feel comfortable talking to someone in your school, you can also talk to your parent or guardian, and they can come with you to talk to a teacher.

ChildLine
0800 1111

You can also call Childline FREE on   as someone is there all the time and the number will not show up on the telephone bill. If you cannot get through the first time please try again. There is also a Childline e-mail address which is www.childline.org.uk

Thank you for your help!

CAES-C/A Case Study /Teacher Interview: 1 (Pre-intervention)

name/no:

Date:

Name of person being interviewed and job title

Hello my name is Sharon and I would like to ask you about (ADD CHILDS NAME) who was involved in an incident/s of bullying on (ADD DATE). Before we begin I would like to reassure you that whatever you say to me is completely confidential and that no names will be used within my final report.

Q1: When did this incident/s happen? Please give details of the dates (month/year).

Q2: Did the bullying occur over a period of time. ☐ No ☐ Yes, if your answer was yes over what period of time did the incidents of bullying occur?

☐ Daily   ☐ Weekly   ☐ Monthly

☐ Other, please provide further details

Q2: What happened? (Please give me details of the events and the nature of the bullying).

Q3: Who was involved? (Please give me the age/s and gender/s of those involved).

Q4: How serious did you think this incident/s was?

☐ Not serious   ☐ Averagely serious   ☐ Quite serious   ☐ Very serious

Q5: What specific strategies are you going to use to help address this bullying behaviour?

Q6: Who is going to implement them?

☐ You   ☐ Another person

If you have answered another person please could you provide the teachers name and contact details;

Q7: Over what time period are the strategy/ies going to be implemented?

Q8: How often do you require me to visit your schools to record/evaluate the interventions progress?

Q9: What outcomes do you hope to achieve through these strategy/ies?

Q10: Do you have any further comments that you wish to add?

CAES-C Case Study /Pupil Interview: 2 (Post-intervention)

Child (Name/No):

School:

Date:

Hello, I am Sharon and I am here like last time, to ask you about an incident/s which happened between you and other child/children in your school on (ADD DATE/S) and to find out whether or not you feel your school has helped you to improve your behaviour.

Whatever you say will be confidential and I will not tell anyone else about what you have told me. However the only time I would need to talk to your school is if you tell me of an incident which they are unaware of that has affected your or someone else's safety, but I would tell you beforehand if I need to do so.

Please remember that you can refuse to answer any of the questions if you feel uncomfortable and that you can stop the interview at any time.

Again like last time at the end of the interview I will give you a 'Help Sheet' which tells you who you can talk to if you need any further help in addition to the help that you are already receiving from (ADD NAME).

Q1: Thinking back do you feel that your school has helped you to improve your behaviour?

☐ No ☐ Yes

Please give me examples.

Q2: How do you feel the child involved in the incident feels now?

Q3: Do you feel that this help from the school will stop the incident happening again?

☐ No ☐ Yes

Please give me examples.

Q4: Do you feel it has helped improve your relationships with other children? (As before you do not need to give any names, you can use either made up names or letters).

☐ No ☐ Yes

Please give me examples.

Q5: What if anything, do you feel that your school could have done to help your behaviour further?

Q6: Do you any other comments that you wish to add?

CAES-C/A Case Study /Teacher Interview: 2 (Post-intervention)

name/no:

Date:

Name of person being interviewed and job title

Hello as before I would like to ask you about (ADD CHILDS NAME) who was involved in an incident/s of bullying on (ADD DATE) who have now completed an anti-bullying intervention with you. Before we begin I would like to reassure you that whatever you say to me is completely confidential and that no names will be used within my final report.

Q1: How often did you use the intervention/s (ADD NAME/s of the intervention/s) with (ADD CHILD'S NAME)?

Q2: Do you feel that the intervention/s was successful?

Q3: Has it improved the relationship between the children involved within the bullying (i.e. the bully/bullies or the child/ren who was the victim/s).Please provide evidence to support your answer and its source (i.e. who provided it).

Q4: If not do you feel that further invention is needed?

☐ No   ☐ Yes, if your answer is yes please name the intervention/s and why you feel they are needed?

Q5: Do you feel that the intervention has had a positive effect upon on (ADD Name) empathy towards their peers?

Q6: Do you have any further comments that you wish to add?

Appendix 17: Pupil Circle Time Questionnaire

Pupil Circle time Questionnaire

School:

Name (Please use initials):

Form: Y8/Y9 (Please circle which year group you are in)

Hello, I am Ms Howard and I am here like last time, to ask you about how you feel about our circle times as to whether or not you feel it has helped you to improve your relationships with your form.

Whatever you say will be confidential and I will not tell anyone else about what you have told me. However the only time I would need to talk to your school is if you tell me of an incident which they are unaware of that has affected your or someone else's safety, but I would tell you beforehand if I need to do so. Please remember that you can refuse to answer any of the questions if you feel uncomfortable and that you can stop at any time.

Q1: If you had any issues do you feel the Circle Times have helped improve your friendships/relationships with other girls involved in your form? (You do

not need to give any names, you can use either made up names or letters).
Please write your answers in the spaces provided.

☐ No, explain why not?   ☐ Yes, explain
how?

Q2: What else if anything, do you feel that your school could do to help your
friendships/relationships with your form?

Q3: Please add any further comments that you wish to add?

The image shows "THANK YOU!" in colorful decorative letters.

Appendix 18: Teacher Circle Time Questionnaire

Teacher Circle Time Questionnaire

Hello, I am Ms Howard and I am here like last time, to ask you about how you feel about your form groups circle times as to whether or not you feel it has helped to improve relationships.

Whatever you say will be confidential and I will not tell anyone else about what you have told me. Please remember that you can refuse to answer any of the questions if you feel uncomfortable and that you can stop at any time.

Q1: Do you feel that the CTs had helped to improve your forms groups friendships/relationships?

Please provide an explanation as to whether or not they felt the CTs had an impact.

Q2: Do you believed that there was anything else the school could do to help improve your form groups relationships.

Q3: Is there was anything else that you wish to comment upon in regards to the CTs.

Thank you for your help within this matter

Appendix 19: Study One Principal Axis Factoring. Eigenvalues Before Rotation

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.210	13.026	13.026	4.624	11.560	11.560
2	2.372	5.930	18.956	1.787	4.468	16.027
3	1.986	4.964	23.920	1.391	3.478	19.506
4	1.549	3.873	27.793	.929	2.324	21.829
5	1.499	3.747	31.540	.875	2.188	24.017
6	1.374	3.435	34.976	.746	1.866	25.882
7	1.286	3.214	38.190	.693	1.732	27.615
8	1.238	3.094	41.284	.660	1.650	29.265
9	1.195	2.987	44.271	.535	1.336	30.601
10	1.138	2.844	47.115	.491	1.226	31.828
11	1.126	2.814	49.929	.426	1.065	32.893
12	1.083	2.707	52.636	.412	1.029	33.922
13	1.075	2.688	55.324	.405	1.012	34.934
14	1.001	2.502	57.826	.384	.960	35.895
15	.982	2.454	60.280			
16	.938	2.344	62.623			
17	.911	2.277	64.901			
18	.894	2.235	67.136			
19	.885	2.213	69.349			
20	.825	2.062	71.411			
21	.789	1.973	73.385			
22	.771	1.927	75.311			
23	.739	1.848	77.160			
24	.713	1.783	78.942			
25	.671	1.678	80.620			
26	.661	1.652	82.272			
27	.646	1.614	83.886			
28	.628	1.570	85.456			
29	.613	1.532	86.988			
30	.588	1.470	88.458			
31	.543	1.358	89.816			
32	.540	1.349	91.166			
33	.523	1.307	92.473			

34	.504	1.261	93.734				
35	.469	1.172	94.906				
36	.447	1.117	96.023				
37	.439	1.097	97.120				
38	.424	1.060	98.180				
39	.377	.942	99.121				
40	.351	.879	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Appendix 20: Study One Rotated Factor Matrix (Two and Three factors)

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]		
	Factor	
	1	2
caq5	.606	-.051
caq19	.404	.034
caq21	.285	.416
caq26	.491	.186
ccq1	.016	.163
ccq11	.068	.282
ccq18	.063	.552
ccq35	.150	.282
faq2	.205	.063
faq15	.155	.335
faq22	.332	.353
faq28	.358	.185
fcq6	.007	.016
fcq17	.091	.183
fcq20	.058	.347
fcq37	.256	.073
ycaq7	.256	-.113
ycaq16	.307	.335
ycaq24	.596	.105
ycaq34	.401	.097
yccq4	-.047	.254
yccq14	.039	.483
yccq27	.014	.003
yccq32	.094	.501
gaq3	.596	.013
gaq29	.447	.144
gaq33	.263	.368
gaq36	.506	.091
gcq10	.040	.153
gcq13	.032	-.092
gcq25	.055	.290
gcq39	.076	.400
baq9	.153	.104

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]			
	Factor		
	1	2	3
caq5	.604	.002	.011
caq19	.402	.114	-.030
caq21	.255	.499	.083
caq26	.471	.000	.384
ccq1	-.002	.099	.138
ccq11	.042	.240	.155
ccq18	.001	.351	.457
ccq35	.132	.366	.012
faq2	.202	.129	-.034
faq15	.122	.260	.225
faq22	.303	.374	.137
faq28	.334	.066	.272
fcq6	.002	-.026	.064
fcq17	.077	.185	.066
fcq20	.002	.085	.498
fcq37	.250	.117	.008
ycaq7	.270	-.007	-.135
ycaq16	.264	.091	.497
ycaq24	.577	.087	.153
ycaq34	.394	.150	.023
yccq4	-.071	.174	.175
yccq14	-.027	.238	.511
yccq27	.014	.009	-.003
yccq32	.050	.451	.237
gaq3	.589	.042	.060
gaq29	.431	-.030	.344
gaq33	.240	.511	-.004
gaq36	.494	.114	.079
gcq10	.027	.150	.059
gcq13	.044	-.003	-.139
gcq25	.028	.234	.175
gcq39	.044	.554	-.025
baq9	.153	.221	-.097

baq12	.294	.029		baq12	.292	.096	-.032
baq31	.420	.194		baq31	.396	.020	.360
baq38	.490	.188		baq38	.477	.266	.036
bcq8	.067	.244		bcq8	.048	.255	.072
bcq23	.097	.292		bcq23	.057	.099	.373
bcq30	.018	.256		bcq30	.002	.353	-.037
bcq40	.140	.223		bcq40	.125	.262	.042

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Appendix 21: Study Three (CAES-C/A) Rotated Factor Matrix for two and three factors

Rotated Factor Matrix[a]			Rotated Factor Matrix[a]			
	Factor			Factor		
	1	2		1	2	3
chaffeq5	.110	.48?	chaffeq5	.471	-.005	.2?
chaffeq19	.080	.50?	chaffeq19	.496	.056	.0?
chaffeq21	.495	.18?	chaffeq21	.172	.393	.3?
chasffe26	.086	.47?	chasffe26	.480	.103	.0?
chcogq1	.141	.10?	chcogq1	.112	.165	.0?
chcogq11	.219	.02?	chcogq11	.026	.193	.1?
chcogq18	.387	.06?	chcogq18	.043	.218	.3?
chcogq35	.270	.32?	chcogq35	.306	.112	.3?
friendaffeq2	.271	.11?	friendaffeq2	.115	.245	.1?
friendaffeq15	.555	.07?	friendaffeq15	.088	.839	-.1?
friendaffeq22	.354	.11?	friendaffeq22	.096	.207	.3?
friendaffeq28	.378	.21?	friendaffeq28	.239	.587	-.1?
friendcogq17	.000	.22?	friendcogq17	.223	-.011	.0?
friendcogq20	.404	.12?	friendcogq20	.114	.280	.3?
friendcogq37	.281	.10?	friendcogq37	.087	.147	.2?
ychildaffeq7	.110	.36?	ychildaffeq7	.361	.036	.1?
ychildaffeq16	-.027	.59?	ychildaffeq16	.594	-.012	-.0?
ychildaffeq24	.276	.45?	ychildaffeq24	.446	.175	.2?
ychildaffeq34	.163	.30?	ychildaffeq34	.300	.095	.1?
ychildcogq4	.158	-.01?	ychildcogq4	-.019	.147	.0?
ychildcog14	.646	-.02?	ychildcog14	-.025	.673	.1?
ychildcog27	.263	.06?	ychildcog27	.043	.064	.3?
ychildcog32	.272	.03?	ychildcog32	-.014	-.068	.6?
girlaffq3	.076	.43?	girlaffq3	.437	.111	-.0?
girlaffq29	-.145	.50?	girlaffq29	.521	-.030	-.1?
girlaffq33	.586	.02?	girlaffq33	.007	.422	.4?
girlaffq36	.148	.53?	girlaffq36	.526	-.039	.3?
girlcogq10	.110	-.09?	girlcogq10	-.095	.094	.0?
girlcogq13	.192	-.06?	girlcogq13	-.082	.037	.2?
girlcogq25	.845	-.00?	girlcogq25	-.018	.669	.4?
boyaffeq9	-.144	.18?	boyaffeq9	.180	-.189	.0?
boyaffeq12	.073	.25?	boyaffeq12	.251	.092	.0?
boyaffeq31	.039	.58?	boyaffeq31	.602	.139	-.1?

boyaffeq38	.225	.451	boyaffeq38	.443	.177	.158
boycogq8	.141	.136	boycogq8	.123	.038	.204
boycogq23	.414	.203	boycogq23	.199	.361	.203
boycogq30	.242	.123	boycogq30	.118	.194	.147

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.